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HOLIDAYMAKER SATISFACTION -  
a measure derived from the Ragheb and Beard Leisure  
Motivation Scale

Volume One

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December 1994

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## Summary

The University Of Aston in Birmingham

Holiday maker satisfaction - a gap analysis

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Ph.D

1994

This paper develops a theory of tourist satisfaction which is tested by using a consumerist gap scale derived from the Ragheb and Beard Leisure Motivation Scale. The sample consists of 1127 holiday makers from the East Midlands, UK. The results confirm the four dimensions of the original scale, and are used to develop clusters of holidaymakers.

These clusters are found to be determinants of attitudes towards holiday destination attributes, and are independent of socio-demographic variables.

Other determinants of holiday maker satisfaction are also examined. Among the conclusions drawn are the continuing importance of life cycle stages and previous holiday maker satisfaction. There is little evidence found for the travel career hypothesis developed by Professor Philip Pearce.

### Key words

Tourism, tourist behaviour, tourism marketing

## Acknowledgements

The author would wish to acknowledge the careful supervision provided by Dr Ian Glendon, Aston Business School, and the funding provided for the purchase of names and addresses from CCN Ltd by Nottingham Business School Research Committee chaired by Professor Francis Terry. Additionally, the help provided by CCN in obtaining representative samples drawn from their database is also acknowledged.

Finally, to insert a personal note. This study commenced as a result of observations of tourist behaviour derived from being a wind-surfing instructor for a holiday company in Greece - observations which intrigued the author. However, the last four years have been somewhat busy. Within these last four years the author has acted as Head of Department for a large University Business School at a time of structural change and renewed external assessment on the part of the Higher Education Council Funding Council for both teaching and research 'excellence'. Additionally, contracts for a book and research consultancy have been fulfilled, plus a number of other published articles in the refereed journals have been completed. This has meant that although the statistical analysis was completed in 'normal' working hours, the subsequent write up of results has often been undertaken during the evening and night hours. The result, in terms of clarity of expression, was not always of the best, and the efforts and careful editing of Dr Ian

Glendon must be recognised as being far in excess of the normal demands of duty! Ian's efforts are fully acknowledged here, although, of course, the sins of concept and implementation remain my own. Finally, upon completion of this work, my wife, Anca, and my son, Mark, might well sigh the proverbial sigh of relief - although perhaps Mark, now five, might miss the enormous amount of scrap paper that has emanated from this study for purposes of his art work! This work is as much dedicated to their forbearance as to my own obsession!

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## Chapter One Introduction - the research question

### The Research Question and Thesis Layout

This thesis seeks to:

- a) develop a two-stage model of holidaymaker satisfaction;
- b) develop a series of propositions from the model;
- c) assess the support for model by analysing data derived from a postal sample of 1127 respondents.

The focus of the model lies in the results derived from the postal questionnaire which used a gap analysis based upon a derivation of the Ragheb and Beard Leisure Motivation Scale. The original scale reported findings taken from an American sample of students, and identified four factors determining leisure motivation. These were the dimensions of the need to relax, social needs, to meet intellectual needs and to demonstrate mastery and competency, particularly in physical ways. In this research an initial pilot study was undertaken to:

- a) assess the validity of the scale for a sample of British adults; and
- b) develop a shortened version of the scale to develop a Holiday Motivation Scale.

The pilot study confirmed the original dimensions of the American research, and also permitted the identification of items for use in the subsequent stages of the research. The postal questionnaire required respondents to indicate how importance various aspects of their holidays were, and to



assess how well their last holiday had meet these criteria. Thus the study uses a gap analysis made popular by models such as the SERVQUAL Scale which is used to measure service quality. However, in this instance, rather than seek to measure attributes of a service from a supply side of the equation, the attempt was made to measure gaps based upon expressions of need as revealed by the 'Holiday Motivation Scale', and the degree to which these needs had been met. The basis for this approach is the assumption that holidays are important periods of experience for many people, in that they events of the holiday happen 'outside' of the normal patterns of life. Also, the tourist has much higher degrees of control over the events that occur than is the case in the normal interactions between client and service provider that are often associated with the incidents being measured by the SERVQUAL model - eg the customer in the bank or the travel agency. The tourist is able to react to happenings, and create for themselves behaviour patterns which met the goals of having a 'good holiday'. Holidaymakers thus indeed 'make their holiday'. The research is thus concerned with just how successful tourists are as 'holiday-makers', and with those factors that might inhibit or aid this success.

This concern meant that additional data was also collected which permitted correlations of gap scores with the more conventional measures of satisfaction used by UK tour operators. Furthermore, the thesis reports the importance of socio-demographic data in formulating holiday

motivations, and the role of experience of past similar types of holidays and previous visits to the respondents' last holiday destinations. Thus, for example, measures of the importance of the holiday brochure, and data relating to Pearce's (1988) concept of the 'tourist career' were also examined, as described in the appendices.

The study is reported in a conventional manner, with the next chapter being a review of the literature relating to tourist satisfaction. Chapter three justifies the importance of the study by describing the size of the tourist industry, and in particular the UK holiday market.

Chapters four and five suggest a model of tourist satisfaction, and lists propositions emerging from this theory. The following two chapters discuss how these concerns are tested by a questionnaire, and details the considerations involved in the questionnaire's construction. This also includes the results of a pilot study undertaken to confirm the validity of the Ragheb and Beard Leisure Motivation Scale within a British context.

Chapter eight then outlines the sampling method used, and the nature of the sample obtained.

Thus, it is only in chapter nine that the results begin to be reported and the following chapters are all concerned with reporting findings and discussing their implications.

Chapters nine to fourteen itemise the results relating to the main focus of the research; that is the motivational scale is subjected to factor analysis to confirm the dimensions identified by Ragheb and Beard, and from these results are derived the clusters of holidaymakers and the gaps between desired attributes of a holiday and the respondents' perceived experience. The 'satisfaction levels' as revealed by the gap scores are subsequently analyzed by reference to types of holidaymakers and by measures of reliability and discrimination.

Additional data derived from the research is subsequently detailed in appendices one to four, and which further indices summarise some of the statistical data referred to in the main body of the text.

#### Significance of the findings

From a conceptual stance, the thesis further supports and advances the theory of the Leisure Motivation Scale, finding evidence that it is applicable to British samples. The scale is then abbreviated to develop a gap analysis of holidaymaker assessment of holidays, and hence a further contribution to the concept of consumerist gaps is made. Additionally, it is found that the results from this study do not support Pearce's concept of a tourist career, and an alternative explanation is advanced. Further evidence for the durability of lifestage factors as an explanation of holidaytaking behaviour is also found.

Also, it can be said that in addition to the development of a Holiday Motivation Scale as a workable hypothesis, what does emerge quite strongly is that the conventional concerns of the summer holiday mass package programme remain valid. There are high levels of concern about relaxation needs, and the need for comfortable accommodation. Although not rated very highly as an influence, the holiday brochure does have an important role to play for the inexperienced tourist. It also shows that although there is an increasing literature, in the academic journals, the trade press and the general media, about the development of new niche markets such as those related to eco-tourism, there is still considerable 'life' in the conventional package holiday. Taken together, the market segments, 'the unimaginative holidaytaker', and the highly 'positive holidaymaker', both of whom value the characteristics of the traditional package holiday, still account for over half the market, while many other segments are not overly critical of what is on offer. Thus, it is concluded, perhaps contrary to the discussion in chapter two which queries whether tour operators are concentrating on the right questions in their surveys of tourist satisfaction, that not only are there high levels of satisfaction with holidays, but the demand remains for a product which, in many senses, was designed over forty years ago as a response to post war scarcities and the birth of the jet age.

In the thesis the terms 'tourist', 'holidaymaker' and

'holidaytaker' are used as interchangeable terms unless otherwise indicated. Hence, the word 'tourist' is generally being used in a more colloquial fashion as meaning 'one who is on holiday', rather than in the more technical term as some-one requiring accommodation while temporarily away from home - a definition which includes those travelling for business, conventions, conferences, meetings and sports as well as for holidays. The thesis is thus considering tourist satisfaction from the viewpoint of those travelling on vacations or for recreational purposes.

Introduction

This thesis is developed from a specific view of the holiday experience. The underlying leitmotif is that tourism is concerned with the quality of the holidaymaker's experience of travel and place. This experience includes anticipation, travel to the place, interactions that occur there, the return journey and subsequently reliving the experience. The interactions that take place with the geographical structures of the tourist zone are primarily between the tourist and fellow tourists, tourist and members of the host community, and tourists and representatives of the holiday industry.

This perception of tourism is not the only perspective. Tourism can be construed as an economic activity, and hence be defined as 'a study of the demand for and supply of accommodation and supportive services for those staying away from home, and the resultant patterns of expenditure, income creation and employment' (Ryan, 1991:5). But this work is not an examination of the economics of tourism, but is one of the holiday experience, and the determinants of holiday satisfaction.

It will be argued that from this perspective the attitudes, expectations and perceptions of the holiday maker are significant variables in setting goals, influencing

behaviour and determining final satisfaction. In undertaking the study a number of considerations must be addressed, including:

- a) what psychological factors are important? This involves a review of the literature relating not only to tourism per se, but also ideas and concepts from studies of other recreational activities;
- b) if, in the post-industrial economies, holidays are part of a given lifestyle, and lifestyle is itself a determinant of the type of holiday sought, then reference must be made to means of identifying and measuring lifestyle.
- c) in a circular fashion, (or perhaps it is a gestalt viewpoint!), as attitudes are a component of lifestyle, the role and measurement of attitude, and the problems therein must also be identified.

It is also to be noted that tourists retain, while on holiday, their normal social skills. Just as in daily life, people adopt procedures for establishing compromises, disbelief, and re-adjustments to perceived as distinct from desired realities, so too these processes occur at holiday destinations. Martin (1992) refers to the situation whereby

'in most marketplaces today, both consumer and seller play the characteristic post-modern game of collusive irony' (1992:24). This poses problems for research design, and the current study is located within constructionist rather than de-constructionist or post-modernist perspectives. It is argued that the relationship between motivation, performance and resultant satisfaction invites consideration of a number of variables, including:

- a) perceived importance of the activity in terms of self development, self enhancement, ego, meeting perceived roles, and responding to perceived requirements of significant others;
- b) importance of the activity might be evaluated not only by need, but also by expected outcomes. Thus, questions relating to perceptions of both need and outcome should be considered;
- c) intervening variables, such as skills brought to the recreational activity by participants are also important. Skill is a function of innate ability, experience, learning and motivation. Utilising the terminology of Csikszentmalyi (1975), it can be argued that the relationship between the challenge posed by external conditions and the ability to handle them contributes to the 'flow' experienced by the participant, and hence to the



degree of satisfaction gained;

- d) other intervening variables might include the presence of significant other individuals or groups, and the importance attached to their presence or absence; and
- e) the degree to which the participant adjusts expectations, experiences cognitive dissonance, and engages in displacement activities may also be factors determining final satisfaction if initial expectations are not met.

The above is, at best, a partial listing of potentially important factors that must be considered more systematically. Thus, a major purpose of this chapter is to identify factors, and after initially assessing their contribution to the issue of holidaymaker satisfaction, subsequently devise a model, in chapters four and five, which form the focus of this work.

The chapter is also based on the assumption that variables thought to be appropriate to recreational activities by researchers in leisure studies can be of use in understanding the nature of holidaytaking and the satisfaction derived from it. At first sight, it might be thought that concepts drawn in particular from sports-based recreation might have little to do with traditional passive

holidaymaking activities such as sunbathing. However, holidays include a series of behaviours (some of which are sporting in nature) in which needs for relaxation, skill acquisition, self development et cetera form a complex set of relationships. Arguably, there has been a failure on the part of tourist researchers within the academic literature to recognise the contribution of leisure, recreational and sports researchers to the understanding of tourist behaviour. In part, therefore, this study is motivated by the wish to apply, albeit it in modified form, some concepts of recreational leisure to holiday-behaviour, and so perhaps to indicate some considerations that need to be taken into account when designing 'tourist products'.

Equally, any brief consideration of this area should take into account some theories of consumer behaviour. If satisfaction is seen as the congruence of need and performance, then dissatisfaction can be perceived as a gap between expectation and experience. Therefore, some form of gap analysis might be helpful in analysing tourist satisfaction. Equally, if cognitive dissonance is thought to play a role, then it is arguably 'triggered' by some event, some 'critical incident' in the holidaytaker's experience of place or activity. Research would indicate that such events can serve as powerful 'confirmers' of positive experience (Bitner et al, 1990)

The question as to what are the roles and functions of

leisure; its contents, the distinctions between leisure and fun, the motivations for, and determinants of satisfactory leisure experiences are well recorded in the literature relating to leisure studies. For example, Podilchak (1991) examines the meaning of leisure and fun, and argues that there is indeed a distinction. Fun is perceived as being:

- a) doing things on the surface, being silly, laughing;
- b) as growing out of an activity, being purposeless;
- c) exciting, exhilarating - unique, not everyday.

Fun was thought to be qualitative, and for the sample of teenagers involved, it also entailed the need to be with others, with whom one was relaxed, open and care-free.

Leisure, on the other hand was seen as being more serious, more institutionalised, and since it involved choice, by implication it was more pre-meditated. Podilchak argues that in the definitions of leisure as a means of 're-creation', the fun and instantaneous enjoyment associated with it has been deleted from the analysis of leisure and its role in contemporary society. Gunn (1988:13) makes a similar point when he writes:

'As it was formalized and institutionalized, recreation became whatever the proponents and agencies created as policy. Some recreational professionals draw a strong distinction between that which is an end in itself and that which is purposeful, claiming that the former is negative whereas the latter is positive. Leisure, engaged in for its own sake, provides no focus; those recreational activities accepted by society as wholesome, creative and uplifting are worthy of public support'.

Yet, in the case of tourism, reference is made to tourism as

a 'sanctioned escape route'; a 'regression into childhood' (Crompton, 1979; Cohen, 1979), and in that sense the role of fun within the tourist experience has been recognised, albeit not always analyzed in terms of its relationship with other components of the tourist experience.

### Leisure and Tourism - conceptual overlaps

As evidenced by a perceived need to devote a special issue of the Annals of Tourism Research (Vol 18, no 1, 1991) to the relationship between leisure and tourism studies, there has been little structured attempt to apply variables thought to contribute towards a satisfactory leisure experience to the phenomenon of holidaytaking. Tourism literature has tended to concentrate more on the determinants of tourism choice and holiday behaviour. Mathieson and Wall (1982) review these issues, and discuss the literature in terms of economic, sociological and psychological determinants of demand. Thus, tourism literature includes econometric forecasting (Witt, 1980; Witt and Martin, 1989), categories of tourist types based on motivations (Cohen, 1974; Plog, 1977 and 1990; Pearce, 1982), consumer search behaviour for destination choice (Moutinho, 1986) and the application of multi-attribute analysis in terms of tourist perception of place as a determinant of choice (Scott, Schewe and Frederick, 1978; Saleh and Ryan, 1992). Ryan (1991b), in reviewing the proceedings of the conference 'Tourism Research into the

1990s' held at Durham University in December 1990, comments that if this conference was representative of the state of tourism research, then it implied that tourism was being perceived as a series of economic and marketing problems. Apart from a few studies, notably those undertaken by Pearce (1982, 1988), which utilised Maslow's hierarchy of needs to determine categories of sources of satisfaction and dis-satisfaction with the holiday experience, and Iso-Ahola's (1982) and Cohen's (1972) emphasis on the importance of authenticity as a determinant of tourist satisfaction, there has been little formal attempt to develop a structured model of tourist satisfaction that can be related more generally to studies undertaken in the context of leisure.

One reason may lie in the definitions of tourism used in both commercial and academic research. Tourism activity has been defined in terms of travel away from home requiring overnight accommodation. Such a definition attracts attention to questions of where people go, and seeks to explain travel in the language of economic variables, and social processes as well as motivational drives. Equally, the objective or perceived attractiveness of destinations is viewed as being important, particularly from the geographical viewpoint of seeking to find measures of attractiveness for purposes of spatial modelling. Arguably, the psychological perspective of tourism as an experience of place, and events at that place, has tended not to feature strongly in the literature. A review of standard texts such

as those of Burckhart and Medlik (1974), Mathieson and Wall (1982), and Murphy (1985), seems to support this contention.

This is not to say that psychological modelling is absent from the literature. Far from it; but it might in part explain why the gap between recreational and tourism literature has occurred at a conceptual level.

It can also be argued that there is a distinct difference between leisure activities undertaken as part of one's daily life, and those undertaken whilst on holiday. Put simply, by definition, the holiday trip requires a stay away from home, and thus holiday activities occur within a geographical space with which the tourist may not be familiar. Thus, holiday experiences involve degrees of exploration which might not be present in the normal pattern of leisure activity. Yet even this argument must be modified. For example, Lyon (1988), in analyzing the attraction of time-share, argues that geographical familiarity and destination loyalty might be motivators for the use of such types of holiday accommodation. Gunn (1988), in common with many other authors, points out that the tourism experience has a time dimension. He argues that there are three stages: the creation of pre-image, participation and evaluation. Ryan (1991a) refers to the fact that the holiday experience commences with the collecting of information about destinations prior to actual booking, and that the brochure is used as a source of reference and confirmation of the travel decision prior to

departure. Pre-departure behaviour is characterised by special purchases, and post-participation is experienced through souvenirs, the development of photographs and other forms of behaviour designed to recall the holiday. Hence, holiday experiences have both spatial and time dimensions.

Within the UK, approximately 40 percent of stays away from home are associated with visiting friends, family and relations (VFR), and are included in tourism statistics produced by the Tourist Boards, even though the pattern of visitations may have more in common with day-trip activity than with other forms of holidaying. One incidental aspect of viewing tourism as an experience of place would be to put day-trip activity within the gamut of both academic and commercial tourism research. To do so would also require an assessment of the role of familiarity with destinations to a more central position in assessing the determinants of tourist choice and satisfaction. Nonetheless, holidays requiring travel away from home do generate contextual differences for leisure activity.

Indeed the trip away from home may be the very rationale of the holiday trip. In the terminology of tourist literature, holidays are motivated by 'escape' reasons as well as 'pull' factors. Ryan (1991a) points out that whilst tourists may return to a favoured location, the holiday experience is never entirely duplicated. Prior knowledge of an area changes search activity, different tourists staying at the

place generate new patterns of inter-tourist interaction whilst some familiarity of the place might change tourist-host relationships. Consequently, repeat visits cannot generate an experience which duplicates the original. Actions may be the same within the same place, but prior experience changes the nature of the satisfaction to be derived from those actions. Past experience also changes expectations of the place, and inasmuch as expectation shapes motivation, and the motivation to enjoy becomes a goal, behaviour on repeat visits might also be affected. From this viewpoint, the theories of flow and arousal (Csikszentimihalyi and Csikszentimihalyi, 1988) are important in helping to distinguish between those repeated actions that generate positive satisfaction and those that are the cause of boredom. These issues are discussed below.

Having indicated some differences between tourism and recreation, Smith and Godbey (1991) emphasise their commonality. They write:

'Many authors link both recreation and leisure, as well as tourism to a spiritual search. The desire for authenticity as a driving force in tourism is a familiar hypothesis to tourism scholars, but the same theme exists in leisure studies. The two fields of study share the same dialectic between a theoretical, descriptive, cross-sectional and applied research to a new form of scholarship that emphasises theory, conceptual development, analytical rigour and eschews the concept of immediate application. It thus is attacked by academics as not having legitimacy, and from industry as not being practical' (1991:86)



## The Nature of Involvement

Expectation, and the motivation to enjoy the goals of the holiday, would lead one to hypothesise that the tourist has a high degree of involvement with holiday activity. Laurent and Kapferer (1985) and Dimanche, Havitz and Howard (1991) argue that involvement is an important antecedent of satisfaction in leisure situations. Ryan (1991a) argues that a strong tourist motivation to derive enjoyment from the holiday experience becomes a determinant of behaviour, so that negative experiences give rise to displacement activities or cognitive dissonance motivates to achieve the goal of enjoyment. Involvement is thus both a motivator and a goal.

Laurent and Kapferer (1985) argue that involvement is a multi-dimensional function with four attributes - importance, pleasure, sign and risk. Risk, state Dimanche, Havitz and Howard (1991), can itself be divided into:

- a) perceived importance of negative consequences in case of a poor choice; and
- b) perceived probability of making such a mistake.

It can be noted that risk must also entail the perceived consequences of a positive choice (benefit) and the associated probability. However, while recognising the significance of involvement as a determinant of satisfaction

to be gained from either a leisure or holiday experience, it can be perceived as an indirectly derived dimension. The importance of the act determines the degree of involvement, but this gives rise to the question, what are those factors that initially determine importance of the act for the participant? The derivation of pleasure and self-expression (or 'sign' as it is defined by Dimanche et al) might be argued to be determinants of importance. (This presents some difficulties in that it questions whether the four attributes identified by the researchers are independent or inter-dependent variables). Pleasure can be denied or delayed as items of more importance take precedence, and sensitivity to sign may be dependent upon degrees of, in Maslow's terms, self-actualization. In humanistic psychology self-expression and awareness are significant motivators of human behaviour. Therefore the results of Dimanche, Havitz and Howard (1991) where self-expression accounts for the greater part of the explained variance, (38.3%) and pleasure and importance items form a second factor are not surprising. Such results, arguably, support the notion that whilst involvement is a determinant of satisfaction, it is itself dependent on more fundamental variables, eg personality, and/or the opportunity to become involved due to economic or social factors.

### The role of risk

The role of risk may also be linked with that of 'sign' as

defined by Dimanche, Havitz and Howard (1991) and Laurent and Kapferer (1985). One of the characteristics of 'self actualization' argues Hampden (1971) is that the self-fulfilled person is more prepared to expose themselves to psychological risk. Obviously, psychological risk is not to be necessarily equated with physical or other forms of risk (eg, financial), but overlaps between the two dimensions can exist. In tourism it can be argued that those prepared to take psychological risk are those who travel to new and unfamiliar destinations<sup>1</sup>.

Such is the characteristic of the allocentric tourists described by Plog (1977). The concept has been criticised, notably by Smith (1990) who found in his survey of tourists from different nationalities there were no significant differences in destination choice by allocentrics, psychocentrics or mid-centrics. However, Plog (1990,1991) refuted Smith's findings, arguing that Smith has not replicated his findings due to the use of different items on the questionnaire, different scales and a non-representative sample. In the debate between the two, neither has published the scales they used. Smith does, however, make a pertinent point when he notes that:

'I suggest that future research does not focus on the relationship between personality types and destinations, but rather focus on examining possible relationships between personality types and travel styles' (Smith, 1991:51).

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<sup>1</sup> There are two aspects to this. The destination may be 'new' to the tourist industry, or 'new' to the traveller. In either case it may be argued that the tourist may experience some feelings of psychological risk.

Laing (1987) examines aspects of travel style. In analyzing reasons given for independent holidaymaking, 'freedom' and 'independence' were the most quoted reasons (by 50% of the sample, while the primary reason for selecting a package holiday was that little planning was needed, and, in 16% of cases the primary reason was that 'no risk was involved' (Laing, 1987:173). Laing also found that for package holiday takers, the lack of risk was the most frequently quoted secondary reason for taking package holidays, and concludes 'perceived risk .... seems to play an unique role as an enforcer rather than a prime motivator to stay at home.' (Laing 1987:146).

Laing also notes that 25% of his sample of package holiday makers revisited familiar destinations, and that those who visit familiar destinations with previously used tour operators are much more likely to book longer in advance - all of which can be seen as risk avoidance strategies. However, one must be careful to avoid over-stressing the importance of risk aversion, for other variables were found to correlate significantly with package holiday choice, (notably low school leaving educational qualifications ( $p=0.0374$ )), and Laing concludes his discussion by stating that the reason for package holiday taking:

'is less easily explained than as first thought .... for many people package holiday taking is an habitual action - they rarely consider the reasons behind the preference....(the) preference for packaged travel may be more an outcome of personal and highly individual factors which demand particular detailed analysis. Information of this ilk might be assimilated by

extensive qualitative research into holiday aspirations, felt need, and how this is satisfied by the package holiday. A closer grasp is needed of the individual's perception of package tours and their associated meaning'. (Laing, 1987:179).

and again:

'...the holidaymaker visiting recent seaside resorts is more likely to be a relatively inexperienced traveller than is the visitor to traditional, scenic locations, or in particular, to special activity centres. Holiday experience thus seems one means of fostering more specific holiday intentions' (Laing, 1987:331-2).

### The role of stress

Exposure to risk can involve the generation of stress, and whilst recreational tourism is motivated, in part, by the need to escape stress, holidays can be generators of stressful circumstances. The sources of stress are potentially many for the holidaymaker in a foreign country with a different culture, a language which the holidaymaker might not speak, and customs which are unfamiliar. Stress can be defined as levels of arousal which are so high as to induce feelings of anxiety, and where further arousal begins to induce lower levels of effective performance. The Yerkes-Dodson 'Law' (1908) argues for an inverted U-shape relationship between performance and levels of arousal.

Gray (1987) proposes a categorisation of four components of stress that is applicable to recreation and tourism. The 'stressors' are:

- a) intensity - the demands of the task and self assessment of ability to cope with

those demands;

- b) social interaction - the relationships incurred in being part of a group;
- c) novelty - the creation of concern by being in a new and unfamiliar environment; and
- d) specific - the development of perceived threat situations within a specific set of circumstances.

Neither Gray (1987) nor Robinson and Stevenson (1990) state this, but each of these reasons might be seen as possessing the nature of a continuum. Intensity may be associated with concepts of challenge which can be overcome; social interaction poses opportunity as well as threat, novelty of environment has long been regarded as a motivation for travel, whilst specific situations might well pose opportunities for significant satisfactory experiences. It has also been recognised that stress is a facilitator of performance under certain situations.

Two questions thus arise. Is there evidence that these 'stressors' are experienced within a recreational setting? Second, what are the characteristics of a situation that produce arousal so that the negative aspect of the continuum

comes to the fore rather than the positive? Robinson and Stevens (1990) utilised the concepts of the stressors within the context of a canoeing trip across Canada, and concluded that:

'...although each of the four stressor types were shown to influence state anxiety, the modest size of the accounted-for variances; (13% in the pre-test; 20 to 46% in the field tests) suggest that the stressor categories of intensity, social interaction, novelty, and specific situations do not fully define the antecedents of stress which operate in this type of setting.' (Robinson and Stevens, 1990:229).

They suggest that essentially two components exist. The first is types of situations which generate common response patterns; the second is concerned with inter- and intra-personal concerns. As noted above, within the context of holidays, the four stressors might be deemed to be part of continua, namely intensity of experience, positive or negative, novelty, positive or negative, social interaction, positive or negative, and special situations, positive or negative. From this viewpoint the small degree of variance found in their study becomes more understandable. With reference to the question, what are the characteristics of a situation that produces debilitating arousal, the suggestion made by Robinson and Stevens might be said to change the nature of the argument. Rather than defining the components of stress, it becomes a categorisation of situations and response patterns. Such response patterns might be said to be dependent upon variables such as the situation, the personality of the

participant, and the perception of the situation by that participant.

### Boredom and Frustration

It is consistent with the Yerkes-Dodson 'Law', and with the concepts of 'flow' as advanced by Csikszentimihalyi (1975), that an absence of sufficient levels of arousal can generate boredom. The distinction between relaxation, a common motivation for holidays, and boredom, is, from this viewpoint, dependent upon a level of arousal that is sufficient for relaxation, but is not so low as to induce boredom. Iso-Ahola and Weissenger (1990) define boredom within the area of recreation in terms of available leisure time - too much time for the task in hand generates boredom, as can too little time. Allied to this is the nature of the task and the challenge it presents in relation to the skill of the participant. Research indicates that factors associated with boredom include skill, challenge, habituation and familiarity, novelty, and available time (Hill and Perkins, 1985; Iso-Ahola and Weissenger, 1990; Voelkle and Ellis, 1990). Patrick (1982) describes boredom as being a sense of dissatisfaction, disinclination to action, longing with an inability to designate what is longed for, a passive expectant attitude, a sense that time hangs heavy or stands still, and a sense of emotional bankruptcy.



Hill and Perkins (1985) associate boredom with frustration, noting that frustration occurs when a constraint of either time or challenge exists, or is perceived to exist, thereby limiting the availability of an optimally satisfying behaviour. Ryan (1991a), following Voelkle and Ellis (1990), notes that this concept probably results from a simplified field model of 'flow' and if an 8-stage model is advanced, this permits a distinction to be made between frustration and boredom. It is argued that frustration can be associated with higher levels of arousal, and is associated with a sense of helplessness arising from an inability to exercise control, which may be a stage that precedes apathy whereby the inability to influence events leads to a lapse of action. Within the holiday industry Ryan (1991a) suggests that this mode of behaviour is exhibited in the case of delay of aircraft, particularly in the case of returning home from a package holiday where the tourist is in a foreign milieu. Iso-Ahola and Weissenger (1990) define boredom as 'a mismatch between desired arousal-producing characteristics of leisure experiences, and perceptual or actual availability of such leisure experiences' (1990:5).

Iso-Ahola and Weissenger developed a 16 item Leisure Boredom Scale which has been applied in at least three studies and found to have good reliability. When factor analyzed a single factor emerged, perhaps surprising given the number of items, and suggesting a reasonably homogeneous concept

and unitary scale for measuring boredom. Close analysis of the scale also shows high correlation with single items such as 'boredom frequency' and 'depth of boredom' (Iso-Ahola and Weissenger, 1990) and hence, for the purposes of this study, items were incorporated into the research questionnaire that related to familiarity with the holiday destination.

### The concept of flow

In the literature relating to recreation the work of Csikszentimihalyi (1975) has been pivotal for developing a concept of 'flow' which has initiated significant research. Much of this research has emanated from North America, and was initially restricted to outdoor and wilderness recreation. More recently, it has been applied to other recreation pursuits. For example, Mannell, Zuzanek and Larson (1988) applied it to retirees undertaking exercises in Ontario, whilst Chick (1990) used the dimensions of challenge and skill and resultant 'flow' in a study of Americans playing in pool leagues in bars on a Monday night. However, the concept has hardly received a mention in the literature relating to tourism. Pearce (1988:26) makes reference to Csikszentimihalyi, but does so within the context of 'flow' being an aspect of Maslow's (1970) 'peak' experience. Ryan (1991:44) also briefly mentions the concept, and at a descriptive level applies it to the holidaymaker experience, but does not provide any empirical evidence. Yet the concept would certainly appear to be

applicable as an aid to understanding tourist behaviour, and the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Csikszentimihalyi (1975:36) defines the 'flow' experience as 'one of complete involvement of the actor with his activity' and identifies the following seven indicators of its frequency and occurrence:

- a) the perception that personal skills and challenges posed by an activity are in balance;
- b) the centring of attention;
- c) the loss of self consciousness;
- d) an unambiguous feedback to a person's actions;
- e) feelings of control over actions and environment;
- f) a momentary loss of anxiety and constraint; and
- g) feelings of enjoyment or pleasure.

(Csikszentimihalyi (1975:38-48)

However, for the flow experience to be felt there are four pre-requisites:

- a) participation is voluntary;
- b) the benefits of participation in an activity are perceived to derive from factors intrinsic to participation in the activity;
- c) a facilitative level of arousal is experienced during participation in the activity, and
- d) there is a psychological commitment to the

activity in which they are participating.

Generally speaking, it can be assumed that these four prerequisites are present within a vacation setting. Arguably the potential for a flow experience exists within work as well as leisure situations, and three questions arise.

- a) Is it possible to distinguish between the individual pre-requisites and attributes of the flow concept as envisaged by Csikszentimihalyi?
- b) Is there relative dependence between the pre-requisites and attributes?
- c) Is there a difference between the work and leisure situation?

In a series of studies, Tinsley examined these issues. Tinsley and Tinsley (1986) sought to establish the importance of the quality of leisure experience in self development when they state: 'The increased self awareness and personal growth associated with participation in leisure activities are the result of leisure experience' (1986:39). In a later and more detailed study, Baldwin and Tinsley (1988) conclude that: 'there is evidence to support the notion that the four requisites of leisure experience are more readily perceived in leisure rather than in work'

(1988:266), but they also note that the results for the prerequisite 'commitment' are 'troublesome'. The F-ratio for distinguishing between work and leisure situations had a value of 1.37 (compared with 136.01 for perceived freedom), and hence was not significant ( $p=0.25$ ). They propose three possible explanations - the theory is incorrect, the items used did not measure the variable as intended, and third, both work and leisure require commitment. They tend to the third explanation based on the respondents' mean scores.

Equally, correlations are found between pre-requisite conditions and the attributes, but inasmuch as the prerequisite conditions must be present prior to an individual experiencing leisure, this is not surprising. Baldwin and Tinsley comment, 'correlations may be expected between such dimensions as increased sensitivity to feelings and increased intensity of emotions or total absorption and lack of focus on self.' (1988:266).

The analogy that Pearce draws between 'flow' and the 'peak' experience described by Maslow as part of the process of self-actualization is self-evident, but it can be postulated that 'flow' can be experienced in a process such as sun-bathing. As the concept has been developed by Voekle and Ellis (1990), and others, it is situation and activity specific and relates to dimensions such as challenge and skill. Thus, an experienced windsurfer will gain 'flow' from a balance of challenge and skill presented by sets of

wind and wave conditions unsuitable for a beginner. The conditions suitable for the beginner pose inadequate conditions for the expert, and thus generate boredom, whilst the conditions that are invigorating to the expert generate stress and feelings of risk for the beginner. The attraction of the concept for researchers studying satisfaction to be derived from sports and outdoor recreation is thus obvious.

However, it has been argued (Mannell, Zuzanek and Larson, 1988) that the concept has a wider application. For the concept of 'flow' to be more fully understood, it has to incorporate a role for expectation and purpose (motivation). In the case of the windsurfing example, if the expert windsurfer wishes to practice 'freestyle' sailing, then high winds would inhibit this, thereby generating dissatisfaction. Equally, therefore, placed in a context of holidaying activities, it is the balance between challenge, skill, motivation, and expectation that determines the experience of flow. Mannell, Zuzanek and Larson, found that 'there was strong evidence for the prediction that higher levels of flow accompany freely chosen activities.....freely chosen activities are not only more likely to be labelled leisure, but to be accompanied by higher levels of flow' (1988:299).

The same study also carries a caveat that is of interest to one of the commonly recognised motivators for holiday

taking. The authors raise the question that the concept of intrinsically motivated behaviour poses a problem as to the direction of causality. Does the satisfaction come from the act of participation, or from the result of participation? They clarify their distinction by reference to a parent playing with a child - a sense of the need to play generates an extrinsic reward that gives rise to intrinsic satisfaction. In this instance, an extrinsically imposed constraint, which is normally associated with lower levels of satisfaction, can actually generate high satisfaction levels. They pose the question - is it a cause or an outcome which is being discussed?

One question that has arisen is whether gender is a factor determining the level of flow. Arguably feminine traits are those of nurturance and warmth, and as emotionally expressive and environmental receptive, might arguably score higher on some items used to measure degree of flow, whilst other, more masculine traits, such as those of dominance, aggression and control could score higher on items relating to competition and control of environment. Hirschman (1984) points out that allocation of male-female traits on the basis of gender alone is, in any case, too simplistic. She argues that whilst people are born male or female, it is through the process of socialisation that male and female roles are learnt. Consequently there may be congruence or otherwise between gender identity and psychological sexual identity that gives rise to confirmation of sex type, cross-

sexing, or androgynous-undifferentiated roles. In a study of 440 adults she reports that whilst gender was not a predictor of ability to engage in 'absorbing experiences', and was only significant in predicting levels of competitiveness, sexual role as measured by the Personal Attributes Questionnaire and Sex Role Inventory was a predictor in dimensions of the flow experience such as levels of involvement, alertness, competitiveness, and attitudes to adventure.

From the viewpoint of this study, the significance of Hirschman's findings is the hypothesis that gender is not a determinant of holiday satisfaction where such satisfaction is deemed to be the outcome of a flow experience. However, in table 'Appendix 2.3' which reports results of the Holiday Motivation Scale, gender was found to be a discriminating factor in some cases. However, it can be contended that psychological sexual identity is partly a tautological, or possibly definitional question for it is subsumed by the wider issue of self perception. For example, females may value competitiveness as a statement of self value, and its categorisation of it being a male trait is simply a secondary consideration.

What, from this review, does appear to matter is that the flow concept has a validity for recreational pursuits, and hence, by implication, for vacations. Both pre-requisites and attributes of the flow concept are to be found within



holiday circumstances, and hence the concept may also help in the understanding of what constitutes a satisfactory holiday experience.

### Needs analysis

In this literature review a behaviourist approach has been adopted whereby behaviour is perceived as goal directed, and thus motivation is an important determinant of tourist behaviour and subsequent satisfaction derived from the experience. Yet one of the most quoted theories of motivation is that of Maslow, and inasmuch as recreation is concerned with re-creating self, finding self, and in short is related to the 'spiritual' objectives referred to by Smith and Godbey (1991) and Tinsley (1986, 1988), it seems appropriate to consider motivation towards self actualization within the holiday experience.

Within the field of recreation and tourism, Maslow's work has been seminal. His hierarchy of needs, stemming from the basic wants of bodily survival to the establishment of healthy psyches through a process of self knowledge and fulfilment of potential, has been the basic model for a number of theories. Two that need to be considered in some detail are the Leisure Motivation Scale associated with Ragheb and Beard (1982), and the concept of a travel career postulated by Pearce (1988).

From this stance, the Leisure Motivation Scale of Ragheb and Beard (1982) represents a significant starting point as its constructs can be related to the literature that refers to tourism satisfaction as reviewed by Mathieson and Wall (1982), Pearce, (1982, 1988) and Ryan (1991). Ragheb and Beard (1983:225) argue that four motives determine satisfaction to be gained from leisure pursuits. These are:

- a) The intellectual component, which 'assesses the extent to which individuals are motivated to engage in leisure activities which involve .... mental activities such as learning, exploring, discovering, thought or imagining';
- b) the social component 'assesses the extent to which individuals engage in leisure activities for social reasons. This component includes two basic needs..... the need for friendship and interpersonal relationships, while the second is the need for the esteem of others';
- c) the competence-mastery component assesses the extent to which 'individuals engage in leisure activities in order to achieve, master, challenge, and compete. The activities are usually physical in nature'; and
- d) the stimulus-avoidance component of leisure

motivation 'assesses the drive to escape and get away from over-stimulating life situations. It is the need for some individuals to avoid social contacts, to seek solitude and calm conditions; and for others it is to seek to rest and to unwind themselves.'

It can be argued that these components echo closely tourism literature relating to tourist motivations. Iso-Ahola (1982) has referred to two motivations for touristic activity, the desire to leave behind an environment, and secondly to seek an intrinsic reward. However, both motivations interact with personal or inter-personnel areas of activity, thus giving rise to a dynamic dialectical process as the tourist seeks and avoids push/pull motivations and interaction with others. The stimulus-avoidance, the intellectual and social factors discussed by Ragheb and Beard (1983) are present, albeit within a different framework. For Iso-Ahola, the attributes of the experience are inter-active and holistic in nature, whilst Ragheb and Beard dis-aggregate them.

The Leisure Motivation Scale factor findings have been replicated in other studies, for example by Sefton and Burton (1987) and Lounsbury and Franz (1990). Ragheb and Beard have, in fact, devised three related scales, of which the Leisure Motivation Scale in 1983 was the last. The two prior scales, the Measurement of Leisure Satisfaction (1980)

and Leisure Attitudes (1982) have not proven so reliable. Sefton (1989), in seeking to replicate the Leisure Satisfaction Scale, was only able to confirm three of the original six factors after an initial analysis which identified ten potential factors, some of which were not interpretable. The Leisure Attitude Scale was even less reliable in that Sefton found eight undefinable factors with eigenvalues greater than one. Attempting a six-factor explanation still yielded two major undefinable factors accounting for 40% of the variance. Lupp (1990) also reported similar difficulties with similar scales. Both Sefton and Lupp attempted to replicate findings by use of samples which accorded closely with the original sample characteristics used by Beard and Ragheb, and Sefton concludes that 'at least one more replication study be completed before the factor structure problems associated with the Leisure Attitude Scale can be deemed instrument related' (Sefton, 1989:10).

Many of the studies that utilise the Beard and Ragheb scales seek to relate them to specific periods of activity, and in this respect the research of Loundsbury and Hoopes (1988) is potentially important in that it sought to establish the stability of motivational factors. Stability can be assessed in a number of ways - eg, mean scores, rankings, persistence of factor weightings. Loundsbury and Hoopes utilised rankings of factors over a five-year period, including the factors taken from the Leisure Motivation

scale, and concluded that:

'The present results indicate a most encouraging and even surprising level of stability over a five-year period for leisure activity participation as well as, to a lesser extent, the leisure motivation variables studied' (Loundsbury and Hoopes, 1988:130).

In short, there appears to be at least some medium-term consistency, whilst arguably, such consistency is not inherently opposed to the concept of a longer-term 'holiday career' as proposed by Pearce (1988:78-81) and Laing (1987,195-200).

#### The Concept of Mindlessness

The criticisms that Sefton and Lupp make relate to details of the questionnaire rather than to the conceptual basis of the scales. One factor that must be taken into account by any researcher in this area is the notion that those participating in recreation and tourism are not necessarily processing their motivations and sources of leisure in any conscious manner. As already quoted above, Laing has commented upon the habitual response in the booking of the package holiday. Langer and Newman (1979) and Langer and Piper (1987) argue that there is a pre-disposition by researchers to attribute to people rational, logical, and goal orientated behavior in situations where all too often actual behaviour is characterised by 'mindlessness' or habit. This is behaviour which is governed by rules and habituation and is opposed to mindful behaviour that is rule forming, and thus is 'engaged in creating categories and

distinctions'.

It can be argued that 'mindlessness' will be associated with many of the tourist activities that are essentially passive in their nature. There is perhaps a danger that the terms 'mindful' and 'mindlessness' will attract normative interpretations, but this is not what is meant by the terminology as used by Langer and subsequent writers such as Pearce (1988). Relaxation by the swimming pool may be characterised by 'mindlessness', yet functionally it is important in that relaxation is required by the holiday taker. However, in the reporting of the satisfaction to be derived from the experience, unless the requirement for motivation is very high, it is likely that there will be little recall of the events of the day, and compared with 'peak' experiences, will be scored as a source of only moderate satisfaction. Yet, it is a common mode of behaviour for tourists, and hence must fulfil some need.

Pearce (1988) refers to the work of Argyle, Furnham and Graham (1981) who categorised eight features of social situations. These are:

- Goals - purposes or ends of social behaviour
- Rules - shared beliefs that regulate behaviour
- Roles - duties and obligations attending social positions people occupy
- Repertoire of elements - sum of behaviours appropriate to a situation

Sequences -	ordering of the repertoire of behaviours
Concepts and - structure	shared definitions and understandings needed to operate in social cognitive situations
Environmental -  setting	props, spaces, barriers, modifiers which  influence the situation
Language and speech	the codes of speech inherent in language

From this taxonomy Pearce refers to the importance of 'scripts' (1988:38-42) in tourist situations. There are many situations from ordering a meal in a restaurant to sight seeing in groups where expected behaviour patterns are conformed to, and opportunities for generating 'remembered' experiences are comparatively few. Thus, in one research study undertaken by Pearce, caravan travellers in Australia who undertook a 320 kilometre drive were generally only able to remember 4 or 5 features of the journey - in a sense it was a 'scripted, mindless' experience.

Obviously, scripted behaviour, and mindlessness as defined by Langer and her associates are closely related concepts. Ryan (1991a:159-160) lists the variables that are associated with drunken behaviour by 'lager-louts' on the Spanish Costas. It is observed that one variable is 'holiday destinations that are not "foreign" - ie the general milieu

is in fact a familiar one to this type of tourist, and is primarily one of pubs, clubs and discos'(1991a:160). Allied to the expectation of a specific type of holiday experience, a 'scripted' experience occurs whereby the norms of peer cohesiveness are enforced, and rule-governed behaviour can be observed. Yet, in this instance, the achievement of the expected 'script', the sense of cohesiveness felt, generates highly satisfactory experiences for the participants, and recall of various events may be good. Thus, it can be contended that 'scripted', 'rule governed, mindlessness' is not necessarily associated with poor recall, and by implication, only moderate levels of satisfaction. What distinguishes this type of situation from that described by Pearce and Langer? Arguably, the expectation of a specific type of holiday experience has a role to play, plus the environmental setting. This latter factor has two functions to perform. First, in the sense defined by Argyle et al (1981), it permits certain forms of behaviour, ie a repertoire and sequence is permissible. Second, it is permissible because it is not home. Once again, the role of the holiday as a means of irresponsibility, as recognised by Cohen (1979) and others, needs to be acknowledged.

#### The concept of a tourist career

This concept is relatively new within tourism literature, and as such is still contradictory in its nature. The fullest statement of the concept appears in Pearce's (1988)



work, 'The Ulysses Factor - Evaluating Visitors in Tourist Settings'. Quoting Hughes (1937:409-410), Pearce adopts the definition of 'career' as being

'the moving perspective in which the person sees his life as whole and interprets the meaning of his various attributes, actions, and things which happen to him' (1988:27).

Pearce agrees with Hughes that it has both objective and subjective components, but in view of the previous section on 'mindlessness' it has, arguably, further components. It is 'mindful', that is, operates at a conscious level, and secondly possesses a temporal component. The 'mindlessness' of the moment, or rather the actions and experiences of that time, are subsequently interpreted as a factor contributing to a sum of experience, which accumulatively affects the needs of the tourist and hence determines the ability of any one destination or attraction to satisfy the tourist. Pearce appears to argue that the tourist career takes a form of progression that follows Maslow's needs hierarchy. Evidence is provided from work undertaken by Mills (1985) whereby multi-dimensional scaling of responses made by skiers yields a four-fold classification of safety needs, esteem needs, affiliation needs and self actualization needs. An implication is that the more experienced skier moves from concern about safety towards the self actualization process. Pearce also seeks to progress the concept further by arguing that prior to self-actualization, the needs have both an external and internal orientation (this can be seen as a refinement of a concept introduced by

Iso-Ahola in 1982 when he introduced the same considerations). However, as described on page 31 of 'The Ulysses Factor', an apparent weakness might exist at the safety need stage. The self directed need is orientated towards self preservation, the external orientation is categorised as a concern over the safety of others. Arguably, action prompted by the wish to save others which involves the placing of self at risk is not an action conducted at the same level of Maslow's need hierarchy. Certainly, Hampden (1971) would consider the risking of self as a sign of 'Radical', or 'Self Actualised Man'.

An additional factor to be considered is that the actual data provided by Mills (1985) are possibly less robust as Pearce implies. Indeed, Mills himself provides many caveats to his data. For example:

'The analysis revealed the existence of a second dimension which produces a 'radex' theoretical structure instead of a simple hierarchy. The two-dimensional radex corresponded to the prior defined mapping sentence. Admittedly, the portrayal of the radex structure in the resulting space diagram was somewhat weak due to the marginally significant coefficient of alienation (0.21)...

...The smallest space diagram showed evidence of the self centred/non self centred distinction operating for safety needs as well as esteem needs. More than merely being an aspect of one type of need, results of this study indicated that the self centred/non self centred dichotomy constitutes a second dimension which modulates esteem and safety needs. Groves et al (1975) suggested this second dimension may also operate for self actualization in the sphere of work ...

... The content validity in terms of numbers of items and diversity within some of the operational measures in this study is admittedly weak. However, the operational measures are valid in other respects.'  
(Mills, 1985:197)

On the other hand weak evidence does exist in a study by Pearce of 488 visitors to the Australian theme park, Timbertown (1988:81). On the basis of seven questions relating to different stages of the Maslow hierarchy, and cross tabulating results with the number of previous visits, Pearce argues that 'repeat visitors show more interest in relationship and self-esteem levels' (1988:78). However, it would appear that this is not at statistically significant levels. With reference to the satisfaction derived from the visit, the mean scores vary from 5.30 to 5.83 on a 6-point scale by level of need, and the only statistically significant finding would appear to be 'Scheffé post hoc comparison indicates that the principal difference in the means lies between the self actualization mean and the family and friends [affiliation] mean.' (1988:78) However, it may be pertinent to query why it is expected that satisfaction should be greater for those motivated by self actualization needs. Satisfaction, it can be argued, is a function of the congruence of need and experience - ie a need met by an appropriate experience generates satisfaction. Yet, this too may be simplistic. Ryan (1991a) in his model of linkages between expectation and satisfaction, stresses the adaptive ability of the tourist. He writes:

'The interpretation of the travel experience and the nature of the resort area with the personality generates both perceptions of gaps between the resort zone and expectations, and governs the nature of

interactions with others, but then certain social and psychological skills also come into play in the sense of being able to perceive authenticity, suspend disbelief when required, and conduct positive sets of relationships. These attributes help shape travel and activity patterns which permit the fulfilment of the original or amended expectations and hence create satisfaction.' (1991:47-49).

Implicitly Ryan also questions the concept of a travel or tourism career in the sense that experienced tourists are capable of selecting various types of holidays for differing needs - something that is possible with multi-holiday taking within appropriate time scales. Thus, one holiday might be directed at meeting needs of family bonding (affiliation needs in Maslow's terminology), whilst a second holiday within the same year might be motivated by a wish to exercise specific skills (status or self actualization needs). The sequential pattern of such holiday taking is determined not by psychological development, but by other, more prosaic matters such as, for example, school holiday periods. On the other hand, a longitudinal study over a period of several years could, it can be contended, begin to show an increased frequency of holiday type orientated towards self actualization needs. But, again, other variables would intrude in interpreting these data. Life stage per se would indicate a reduction of holidays orientated towards bonding child and parents.

Laing (1987) states that tourism literature relating to motivation reveals 'a muddle and lacks cohesion', and adheres to Iso-Ahola's models whereby there is a separation of initial travel desire from specific motivation, and, in

consequence, there is some mental conflict experienced by the traveller. Laing also queries the concept of a travel career, by referring to the work of Young and Wilmott (1973:15) where it is argued that older people do not walk more often because they are old, but rather because they always walked more. One of the hypotheses tested by Laing is that holiday choice can be explained by reference to a leisure career, and Laing tends to find evidence not of a developing nature of holiday taking, but rather a confirmation of past experiences found to be satisfactory. Age, he comments (1987:195) is a predictor of familiarity - in his sample of 303 holidaymakers originating from Hull, 80 percent of those aged between 16 and 29 years old visited new destinations, whereas less than 50 percent of pensioners selected new locations. Older holidaytakers like taking coach trips; not, argues Laing, because of an intrinsic fear of flying, but simply because when they started their holiday careers air flight was not commonplace. Further, he comments:

'older travellers tend to involve themselves with the host environment because this is the type of behaviour with which they have become accustomed - it represents habits that pre-date the rush to the sun soaked coast line... behaviour on holiday is also an outcome of previous holiday experience ... confidence as a function of previous experience determines the types of activity pursued once on holiday' (1987:230).

For purposes of simplifying the argument, it appears that two viewpoints of holiday career exist. On the one hand there is the developmental viewpoint argued by Pearce, where holidaymakers learn and so progress along the Maslow

hierarchy towards higher needs, and second, the process of early habits becoming ingrained, whereby tourists repeat that process found to be satisfactory on earlier trips. Both viewpoints stress the importance of the holiday experience as a determinant of future behaviour. For example Laing comments:

' ... the holidaymaker visiting seaside resorts is more likely to be a relatively inexperienced traveller than is the visitor to traditional, scenic locations, or in particular, to special activity centres. Holiday experience thus seems one means of fostering more specific holiday intentions (1987:331-2).'

This latter comment by Laing would imply that he also recognises that a developmental process is possible, and this indicates why the two extreme viewpoints of holiday career are seen as simplistic. The process of development or confirmation of behaviour arises from the satisfaction gained from the holiday trip. Thus, the process of confirmation/development is a function of a) actual experience, b) perception of the experience as satisfactory or unsatisfactory, and c) personality in terms of whether that experience is a trigger for returning to the destination, or for exploring new places.

A second factor to be considered is whether personal development can be observed from behaviour. On a macro level, this re-opens the question of whether a person returning to the same destination is in fact simply repeating past experiences. From the viewpoint of Maslow's model, there is nothing inherent in the process towards self

actualization that requires a change of venue. At a micro level, the repetitive actions might be interpreted differently by the participant at different times. For example, a factor motivating repetition of a visit might be a wish to reminisce.

In the studies undertaken of travel career the methodologies used were not sufficiently sophisticated to permit analysis of these questions. Not, it must be added, because the researchers were necessarily unaware of these issues, but because there is, at this embryonic stage of the concept, a need to assess whether there is prima facie evidence for the concept to merit further analysis of its working. Indeed, Laing reports that the linkages between former holiday experience and holiday choice were weak. Even combining it with occupation, former holiday choice only correlated with current holiday choice at a probability level of 0.02 (1987:269). A further consideration is that, whilst Maslow argued that progress on the hierarchy required satisfaction at the lower stages as a prerequisite of satisfaction of higher order needs, this is open to debate. Equally, those operating at a higher need level may also seek actions that confirm lower order needs for both self and others. For example, the self-actualised parent will engage in behaviour that confirms bonds with young children, whilst simultaneously meeting the infant's needs for security and love. Holidays are frequent occasions of such behaviour.

In conclusion therefore, whilst the concept of travel career is important in linking past and future holiday behaviour, and whilst past experience is important in determining expectations of any one holiday occurring in the immediate future, it is perhaps a secondary factor that meshes with more immediate primary factors as a determinant of holiday satisfaction, and is itself, an outcome of that interaction.

#### A note on geo-demographics, lifestyle and work-leisure ratios

The concept of lifestyle is important in current marketing practices. Market researchers no longer seek to predict consumer behaviour solely on the grounds of socio-economic background or life-stage. The advent of cheap computing combined with the introduction of such items as post codes has led in the 1980s to the emergence of geo-demographics as an important marketing tool. Evolving partially from these practices, and as a development from earlier work which sought to identify consumers on the basis of psychological profiles, psychographics is being allied with the geo-demographic databases to establish the potentially powerful marketing tools that lie behind targeting clients.

It can be argued that lifestyle is related to work-leisure ratios, for what people do, and the way in which they divide their time between work, non-paid work time and leisure and touristic activities is a significant determinant of the



lifestyle cluster to which they may be allocated. The work/leisure ratio has been the subject of extensive sociological research for over sixty years. Zuzanek and Mannell (1983) and Ryan (1991) review the literature and reinforce a four-fold classification of possible relationships between occupation and its daily realities with recreation and touristic behaviour. These are, briefly:

a) the trade-off hypothesis. Under this scenario people specifically select between more time spent at work, or time spent in leisure. An inverse relationship between income and time available for leisure results, and Ryan applies an indifference curve analysis (1991:17-19) to partially analyse the changes in holiday behaviour whereby an upward sloping demand curve perhaps describes some types of contemporary holiday taking.

b) the compensation hypothesis. The premise here is that the deficiencies that arise in the work life of an individual motivates compensating behaviour during recreation and leisure time. Those with boring work fulfil their needs for excitement through active leisure pursuits.

c) the 'spill-over' hypothesis. In part this has its origin in Durkheim's concept of anomic societies, whereby the depressing nature of work removes the ability to initiate, and in consequence those with boring work are not

able to generate compensatory activities. By the same token, those with active, fulfilling work lives are more likely to have similar leisure life-styles.

d) the 'neutralist' hypothesis, which states that there is no relationship between work and leisure - they are different spheres of action which generate their own patterns of expectations and behaviours without reference to either set.

At an intuitive level both compensation and spill-over hypotheses have much to recommend them. Prima facie evidence exists for compensation theory at a community level in the 1930s as mining communities in South Wales and Yorkshire developed a tradition of an active political and cultural life outside of the mines. Support comes for the spill-over theory in the studies of boredom referred to above, where Patrick (1982) analyses boredom as consisting of dissatisfaction, disinclination to action, passive expectant attitude and an inability to escape meaningless routines. The concept of flow is strongly associated with the ability to make choices. In 1986 Tinsley and Tinsley, in a review of the literature relating to leisure satisfaction, identified 23 studies where life satisfaction and leisure satisfaction appeared to be correlated.

However, the position is far from clear in that there is also significant evidence to support the neutralist

position. Zuzanek and Mannell (1983) incline to the neutralist position, but conclude that there is a 'multi-faceted and multi-dimensional nature of the work-leisure relationship.' Lounsbury and Hoopes (1988) also contribute to the discussion in their finding that life-satisfaction scores were more stable than non-work satisfaction over a five-year period. By implication this would imply potential changes in the work/leisure ratio, although the nature of the change is far from clear. Also, what needs to be considered in this finding is that the term 'non-work' cannot automatically be equated with 'leisure time'.

In fact, arguably the work/leisure ratio is, as changes of occupational activity change, becoming less important for many, and indeed the work/non-work divide becomes less clear. The business lunch and entertaining on the golf course are perhaps extreme examples of where work is not devoid of some leisure, whilst the use of non-work time for educational purposes has potential implications for current and future work patterns and careers. In 1975 Bacon commented that 'Work has lost its former hegemony and centrality in most people's lives and has become a much more marginal experience'. For many people in the 1980s this may have become increasingly true, but by the end of the decade in both North America and Europe attention was being drawn to the 'harried leisure classes' (Shaw, 1990; Kay and Jackson, 1990). It has been noted, for example by Kay and Jackson, that it is the most active who complain most of the

lack of time. Perversely, as the distinctions between work and leisure become more difficult to demarcate clearly, so work begins to re-establish a prime role in some people's lives, thereby affecting the demand for the type of, and time of holiday taken. Mintel reports on the short break overseas market for example indicate a heavy demand from AB groups living in the south east, and it is tempting to hypothesise that much of this demand is originating from income rich, but time short, executives and professionals.

The debate on work/leisure ratios has a long history, but within that time the nature of society has changed. Arguably it is the breakdown of a homogeneous society into a more heterogeneous one where socio-economic and life-stage variables are no longer good predictors that has motivated the search for life-style clusters that can predict consumer behaviour.

### Geo-demographics

For academic researchers in the field of tourism, this has represented problems. The type of data based on the detailed life-style clusters of the commercial market analysis companies such as CCN Marketing with its MOSAIC and Persona geo-demographic and 'behaviourgraphic' database has not readily been available to academic researchers.

Essentially this has been due to the limited budgets that have characterised academic research into personal holiday activities and motivations, but, as discussed below, these

database systems are now becoming available on micro-computers.

Geo-demographic systems incorporate socio-economic data into not simply a listing of peoples' addresses, but also a description of the neighbourhood in which they live. The basic data that most geo-demographic databases will hold is drawn from the census of population updated in the case of Britain by the annual electoral register, which permits an identification of areas characterised by stable or rapidly changing populations. Consequently the database is likely to hold records of the names of people at a given address, the size of house in terms of number of rooms, whether the residents own or rent the house, the occupation of the members of the household and their educational level. In addition, the systems will contain descriptions of housing areas, for example, MOSAIC type 25 - smart inner city flats with few children, an area of Victorian high status housing, or MOSAIC type 31, a high unemployment estate with the worst financial problems occupied by those with low income and a high incidence of inability to pay credit.

MOSAIC is the data-base of CCN Systems, Nottingham, and contains 60 elements in the construction of 58 classifications of neighbourhoods. In addition to the above data it also contains information on the incidence of use of credit cards and other forms of credit, and the levels of county court judgements on debt. MOSAIC, ACORN, PinPoint

and other systems all offer similar types of data and mapping facilities, but differences do exist reflecting the basis of group determination and additional data sources used.

The English Tourist Board now offers a database of over 400,000 names and addresses of people interested in British holidays, and combines this with socio-economic classifications, size of family, car ownership, responses on a holiday lifestyle questionnaire, newspaper readership, and types of holiday preferred.

Researchers have begun to apply psychographic and other detail to problems associated with the tourism-work ratio relationship. However, very little of this has been published, and most studies use comparatively broad categories or groupings of population. Faced with this, it is perhaps not surprising to find that, contrary to the intuitive hypotheses that linkages do exist between lifestyle, life satisfaction and types of holiday experiences and satisfactions gained, it is the neutralist hypothesis that tends to be supported. Utrecht and Aldag (1989) examined vacation characteristics against criteria which included trade off between vacation time and increased income, work related characteristics and liking to be away from home, but found low alpha coefficients, implying a lack of inherent consistency in the measures used, and possibly doubt over the concepts. Laing (1987) discusses the

relationship between work and holiday taking in some detail, and finds a rather 'mixed bag' of relationships. He writes that 'there is little cause to readily dismiss the role of the quality of work', but later on the same page comments:

'... though plausible, each of these connections [variables relating to quality of work] is rather tenuous, for in the present sample no significant associations are uncovered. However, log-linear analysis reveals rather specific links. For example, a greater proportion (19%) of manual workers in strenuous occupations take a holiday than those who don't perceive their work presents such physical demands (11%). It is interesting to reflect that this trend is reversed amongst managers. This hardly qualifies as substantial evidence however, and the realistic conclusion is that work lifestyle measures fail to assist significantly in the identification of the non-holidaymaker.' (1987:140)

If it is argued that lifestyle affects holiday behaviour, then it is at the more detailed psychographic level that this evidence must be sought rather than simply in terms of broad work-leisure-tourism ratios. Here there is some evidence relating to basic pre-disposition to actually taking holidays. Both Laing (1987) and Mazanec (1981) argue that there is a distinction to be made between those whose lifestyle is home orientated and those who are socially orientated. Mazanec states that:

'.. the leisure type mapping endorses the view that leisure life style barriers to continuous market penetration of travel and tourism are real: some incompatibility exists with certain leisure life styles. It becomes particularly pronounced if 'home-orientatedness' combines with low cultural/educational aspiration level.' (1981:25)

Laing (1987) comments that the clusters 'homecare' and

'solitary-restful' were more represented amongst non-holiday takers, and under-represented in holidaytakers than was the case for 'social mixers'. He also notes that there was a higher incidence of passive pursuits amongst non-holidaytakers than is the case for holiday takers, and argues that the evidence 'helps to substantiate the view that active leisure participation is similarly reflected in holiday participation' (1987:141). On the other hand, Ryan and Groves (1987), when they sought to confirm a similar type of relationship for a sample of high income groups corresponding with MOSAIC types M45 and M46 (above average income groups with high levels of educational attainment), were unable to replicate such findings.

From the commercial viewpoint, the cross-categorisation of geo-demographic groups with holidaytaking behaviour has proven useful in identifying key groups for certain types of holidays. If there is evidence of the intuitive relationship between lifestyle and holiday taking behaviour existing in an unambiguous manner, it is to be found not in the academic literature, but in the commercial world. Companies such as Hoseasons, Center Parcs, Warners, and Saga are amongst those who utilise such databases to know their clientele better. Data are drawn not only from the geo-demographic databases against which client lists can be checked, but also from cross-referencing such information against returns from omnibus surveys such as the Target Group Index and the National Shoppers Survey as well as



company specific data. Thus, with reference to the groupings generated by CCN Systems, differences in the frequency of holiday taking is clearly shown as is evidenced in chapter eleven.

Within the field of market research there has been a long debate about the usefulness of geo-demographics and psychographics compared with more conventional predictors of consumer behaviour such as age, sex, socio-economic class and life-cycle stage. It is not the intention of the author to review this debate in any detail, but some pertinent points need to be borne in mind. The arguments against the continuing use of traditional classifications of consumers are primarily based on the concept that as British society becomes less homogeneous, so these measures become less pertinent. First, it is argued that there is a lack of stability in social class membership. For example, in March 1987 BARB reported that apparently 32% of their panel changed social class over a 12-month period, although this was subsequently amended to 4-7% (BARB, 1987b). In a review of Granada's television panel O'Brien and Ford (1988) reported an apparent change of social class membership by 41% of respondents in a six-month period. On closer examination, this was corrected to 10% of all respondents. Thus, it seems that forecasts of consumer behaviour are bedeviled by both social class movement and mistakes in class attribution.

It is also argued that life-cycle classifications become less dependable when the increasing rates of divorce are taken into account. Consequently, as people have children from their second marriage, the empty nest stage is delayed, and thus age alone becomes less of a predictor of consumer expenditure. Other factors such as delayed child bearing might create the 'squeezed generation', as females find that they have as dependents both elderly parents as well as young children. Other factors include growing rates of illegitimacy and single parent families. Others have indicated that for those within stable income and family groups, the diversity of products and services now available itself creates a less homogeneous life style. It is therefore against this background which reduces the predictive power of conventional socio-economic variables that lifestyle marketing becomes attractive as a means of targeting consumers and reducing advertising costs per sale.

On the other hand, Cornish and Denny (1989) argue that social grade often under-performs as a predictor of consumer behaviour because 'individuals will often be graded in the field on a shortened and subjective version of the measure....'. A combination of socio-educational grade, income and life-stage is, they argue, a powerful predictor of consumer behaviour, whilst they also point out that (based on data drawn from the National Readership Survey) for package holidays disposable net household income is a strong discriminator.

Alexander and Valentine (1989) suggest age cohort effects exist, whereby shared lifetime experiences common to a particular age group shape their world view, and that over time this becomes more important and possibly absorbs the style clans of the teenage world. They comment,

'at the younger end we are strong on style-clanning and weak on age cohorting; then, as we get older, the polarities reverse - and when we're old we become better age cohorters and less effective style clanners.'

In the field of recreation and holiday marketing, at an intuitive level, the use of lifestyle marketing is appealing. Holidays are expenditure drawn from discretionary spending, and hence are most likely to be reflections of personal interests, and an expressive symbol of lifestyle. For example, Baker and Fletcher (1987) maintain that the psychographic system, 'Outlook,' was a better predictor than Social Class in areas relating to leisure activities such as pub going and taking package holidays. There have, however, been few attempts to compare 'predictors' of consumer behaviour in the literature relating to holidays. O'Brien and Ford (1988) did include holidays as a purchase item in their survey of the effectiveness of alternative predictors of consumer behaviour. They assessed social class, life-stage, lifestyle, and disposable income (through two groups they called 'acquisitors' and 'big spenders') across 20 items by four methods of discrimination. They concluded that:

- ' - social grade does discriminate
- no alternative classification provides consistently

better discriminatory powers

- no one classification works best across all product fields,

but, we would add that

- sometimes other classifications discriminate more, and frequently they are just as powerful as Social Class.

In short, Social Class as a discriminator, is not dead. However, we can also conclude that the other classifications we have looked at should always be considered when designing surveys and analysing data.' (O'Brien and Ford, 1988:309 - italics are original authors' emphasis).

In the case of holidays the scores achieved by the predictors

were as follows:-

Life stage	83
Lifestyle	88
Social Class	87
Acquisitor	86
Big Spender	79

(O'Brien and Ford, 1988:297)

(The scores referred are from an index constructed by O'Brien and Ford indicating the 'correlation' between predicted and actual purchases of various household items and services).

In taking these findings into consideration it must be noted that the holiday behaviour analyzed was simply the purchase of a 'main holiday'. It can be contended that lifestyle categories can be even more important when seeking to assess the type of holiday that is undertaken.

This has not stopped individual researchers from using lifestyle to analyse market segments with reference to general holidaying behaviours. Mazanec (1981) analyzed the German market using factor analysis, and concluded that on

the basis of responses to 16 statements such as 'I would do without a lot of things, but never without my holiday trip' or 'Travelling is no longer a pleasure, for everything gets more and more expensive everywhere', the German population could be divided into a total of 12 categories, (7 male and 5 female), which, on the basis of attitudes towards leisure and travel, could predict the propensity to travel. On the other hand, Young, Ott and Feigin (1978) identified six types of Canadian holiday-maker, each of which would prefer different holiday products. These were:

a) Friends and relatives - nonactive visitor (29% of the market).

These visit friends and relatives, seek familiar surroundings, and are not inclined to engage in any holiday activity.

b) Friends and relatives - active city visitor (12%)

They seek familiar settings, but will engage in sightseeing, shopping and cultural and other entertainments.

c) Family sightseers (6%) -

look for a new place that would be a treat for the children and an enriching experience.

d) Outdoor vacationer (19%) -

seek clean air, rest and beautiful scenery. Many are

campers, and children are also important.

e) Resort vacationer (19%) -

They are interested in beach locations, and popular places with a big city atmosphere.

f) Foreign vacationer (26%) -

look for places they have not previously visited with a foreign atmosphere and beautiful scenery. Money is not of major concern, but good accommodation and service are. More recently Tourism Canada and the United States Travel and Tourism Administration, in an analysis of the Swiss market, developed a three-fold segmentation of the market (Tourism Canada, 1988). These three segments were:-

- a) Travel Philosophy - a basic orientation towards travel;
- b) Benefit segmentation - the motivation for travelling and the type of travel experiences being sought;
- c) Product segmentation - the choice of specific features within a location.

Each of these were likewise divided into groups. Briefly stated they were:-

## Travel Philosophy

- a) Premium Package travellers (20% of the market);
- b) Premium Independent travellers (21% of the market);
- c) Guarded Package travellers - preferring familiar destinations (28% of the total);
- d) Budget Independent travellers (30% of the market).

## Benefit Segments

- a) Adventure travellers (32% of the total);
- b) Luxury travellers (38% of the market);
- c) Social Safety travellers (30% of the market).

## Product Segments.

- a) Developed Resort travellers (16% of the total market);
- b) Nature and Culture travellers (18% of the total);
- c) Rural beach travellers (21% of the total market);
- d) Culture and Comfort travellers (22% of the market);
- e) Sports and Entertainment travellers (23% of the total market).

The use of factor analysis to generate such typologies is undoubtedly useful, but a number of practical and conceptual difficulties exist. The first practical difficulty is many tourism studies relate to comparatively small samples and for specific purposes. There is little comparative work

that is undertaken, and in consequence, from the commercial viewpoint, little in the way of any database linking such attitudes to other aspects of consumer life that will enable any form of direct marketing to take place. Increasingly, therefore, reference will be made to those psychographic profiles that do possess these advantages. Within North America one of the longest established is the VALS (Values, Attitudes and Life-styles) index. Now into a second version, VALS 2™, it was originally constructed on the premises underlying Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs. Within Britain there are two similar indices, Outlook and Persona. 'Outlook' has six categories, the Trendies, Pleasure Seekers, Indifferent, Working Class Puritans, Sociable Spenders and Moralists. This system arises from work done by Baker and Fletcher (1987) utilising the 20,000 responses made annually to the British Market Research Bureau's Target Group Index. This monthly survey not only includes questions about purchases of products, but also includes responses to over 190 attitudinal/lifestyle questions, and covers respondents' use of media. Consequently, the correlation of Outlook with use of media presents opportunities not only for identifying types of tourists, but also the newspapers they read and the television programmes they watch. Persona has many more categories and is based on an analysis of almost 3 million respondents to the National Shoppers Survey. This has been of specific use in the analysis of clients at holiday centres within the UK (Ryan, 1991). The use of



psychographics in tourism planning is comparatively new, although segmentation policies based on vacation preferences, demographics and personality types were described in detail by Crask (1981), Bryant and Morrison (1980) and Mayo and Jarvis (1981) amongst others in the early 1980s.

Further caveats about life-style systems emanate from the use of factor analysis and related techniques. Bagozzi comments:

'One drawback with this procedure is its atheoretical character. Rather than proposing a structure of perceptions based on conceptual arguments and prior research, the researcher relies on the pattern of responses found in the particular data under scrutiny to arrive at perceptual dimensions. This can lead to fortuitous, but erroneous, solutions and tends to promote a multitude of variables and interpretations, since little consistency results across studies. A second drawback is that principal components and common factor analysis can sometimes generate many dimensions within any particular study and thus yield cumbersome models.' (1988:166)

From the viewpoint of the author, the danger to which Bagozzi alludes is, it is felt, only partially true. It perhaps has some foundation in the case of the 'Outlook' and 'Persona' systems in that they are utilising items not devised with the establishment of lifestyles in mind, although the size of samples lends initial credibility to the systems. Indeed, it can be argued that contrary to Bagozzi's viewpoint, the greater problem is where the researcher does have a specific model in mind, and constructs questions accordingly. The use of factor

analysis to 'discover' the factors which compose the model is then not a proof of the model, but of a tautology. What has been shown is the existence of a series of correlations between items has having a statistical validity, but the problems remain as to the relationship between the 'model' and the 'reality'.

#### A note on consumer theories

Discussion of the role played by life-stage and social class implies that these are determinants of demand, and thus basic concepts of consumer behaviour are being considered. In the previous discussion reference has been made to some specific marketing theories, and these should be clarified, not least because they have implications for the design of the questionnaire to be used. The discussion has considered an implicit attitudinal model whereby perceptions and expectations shape attitudes. In turn, attitudes become one of many factors which influence behaviours, and thus create the potential for satisfaction or dis-satisfaction. (Other factors include enabling variables such as disposable income, accessibility of desired goods and services etc). Specific marketing models are thereby alluded to, these being expectancy-value or multi-attribute models, and the gaps analysis of models such as the 'Servqual Model' of Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1986)

#### Multi-attribute analysis

Arguably the first step in the measurement of attitudes

towards a holiday destination area and the experience it offers is to determine the criteria that people use in forming an attitude. Allport (1961) argued that individuals possessed central dispositions, which were highly characteristic of an individual, but which were few in number. Similarly, Kelly (1955), in his theory of 'Personal Constructs', claimed that just as few traits are needed to explain most components of personality, so too only a few dispositions are needed to explain the construction of an attitude. His process of the construction of 'Kelly Triads' has been used in research relating to recreational destinations. Bowler and Warburton (1986) used it to assess the attributes of 'attractiveness' in the case of water resources (lakes and reservoirs) in Leicestershire. Ryan (1991) used it to identify attributes of a conservation area in order to assess those factors that contributed to the effectiveness of an environmental education programme a year after students had visited the site.

From both this and other research, what seems to happen in practice is that respondents, after approximately seven or eight responses, begin to repeat themselves, albeit perhaps using different words to describe the same characteristics. Equally, it has been found, (Harrison and Saare, 1975), that comparatively small sample sizes can produce valid constructs. Often, perhaps with as few as twenty respondents, the number of constructs being used by members of any given group tend to be repeated. In triadic

elicitation respondents are asked why a any one item differs from the remaining two of the triad. For example, one destination may be seen as too hot, and hence others are not too hot, one is too crowded, and the remaining two are not. Bi-polar constructs are thus elicited, and as such can be used in the construction of semantic differential questionnaires or Likert scales. With such scales, factor analysis may be used to identify or confirm constructs used in the formation of attitudes.

Bowler and Warburton (1986) found that constructs varied between different groups based on sex, age, social class and degree of usage of water facilities, but characteristics such as beauty, character, attractiveness and usage rates were of importance to the respondents. Gyte (1988) and Denis (1989) in studies of attitudes towards holiday destinations found that constructs such as the price of the holiday, the beach, friendliness of hosts, attractive scenery, history and culture were amongst the determinants used in selecting holiday destinations. Riley and Palmer (1975) used these techniques to assess seaside resorts, and concluded that resorts could be grouped on the basis of the following components:

- a) expensive, exclusive, warm with good scenery;
- b) good hotels, foreign, more sunshine, different food;
- c) quiet, less commercialised, mountains;
- d) family resorts;
- e) for young people;

f) good for touring.

The use of Personal Construct Theory has a number of advantages, of which one is that it permits the construction of semantic differential or Likert scales that utilise variables which reflect attributes considered important by actual or potential users of a resort or tourist zone. Fishbein (1967) initially argued that there were two important components of attitude, the evaluative component, and second the importance of that belief. In the formation of an attitude, a number of beliefs might be involved. Accordingly this can be written as:

$$A_o = \sum_{i=1}^n B_i a_i$$

where  $A_o$  = attitude towards destination o

$B_i$  = strength of belief i about destination o

$a_i$  = evaluative aspect of belief

n = number of beliefs

On this basis it becomes possible to devise a two-part questionnaire. The first would consist of a number of questions asking respondents to indicate the degree of importance they attached to specific variables when selecting a holiday destination. A 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 'very important' to 'of no importance' could, for example, be used. The second part of the questionnaire could relate to a specific destination, respondents being asked to indicate the degree to which a

destination possessed a specific attribute, and again a five point scale might be used. This technique has been widely used, eg Scott et al (1978), with reference to New England States, by Tourism Canada (1988) and Tiechk and Ryan (1990). In the Tourism Canada study the results were presented in a manner which reflected the methodology. This disaggregation of the total score implied in the Fishbein formula overcomes a number of objections, at least in part; namely:

- a) can it be said that within the attitude the relationship between the component parts is a multiplicative one?
  
- b) to what extent is the process of summing together factors to produce an univariate (and possibly uni-dimensional score) valid?
  
- c) does the approach fully document the processes of compensation that occur between the various components that create the attitude?

Thus, in the example of Hong Kong residents perceptions of Canada as a tourist destination, resort areas and budget accommodation are viewed as being of equal importance. However, whereas Canada is perceived as offering good resort areas, the question arises, does this offset to any degree

the perceived lack of budget accommodation? To some extent the answer is partly answered by the total score arrived at for Canada compared with scores achieved for competing destination areas. Each of the cells shown could be said to represent four different positions as shown in figure 2.1

Saleh and Ryan (1992) used this simple model to analyse the attributes used by business users to assess the attractiveness of competing hotels, and for example, found that guests paid little attention to facilities such as gymnasias and swimming pools, ie these factors were found in the bottom right hand cell of figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1                      The four cells of the Fishbein measurement of attitude.



Fishbein extended his theory to discuss the concept that attitude is a precursor of behaviour in that any person not simply constructs an attitude, but also considers the

expected results of pursuing a course of action. This can be expressed as:

$$A\text{-act} = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i e_i$$

where A-act is the individual's attitude towards performance of the action

$b_i$  is the belief that action will lead to consequence  $i$

$e_i$  is the evaluation of consequence  $i$

$n$  is the number of salient consequences.

It is possible to hypothesise a summation of the two aspects of the attitude as being:

$$\text{Strength of Conviction} = \sum_{i=1}^n B_i a_i + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i e_i$$

In terms of holiday destination the consequences of going to one destination are at least two-fold. The first is that the simple fact of going on holiday means expenditure on vacations is not available for expenditure on alternative pursuits. Second, it means that the selection of one destination means the foregoing of another, or at the least, a delaying of the opportunity to visit the competing location. Assuming that holidaymakers allocate within their budgets a sum for going on holiday, it does raise the question as to whether or not individuals form attitudes towards a holiday destination which are independent of their beliefs about the attributes of other resort areas. It has already been noted that the scores for Canada have meaning



only if the scores for competing destination are known. Taking, the initial Fishbein formulation, this implies an extension of the model:

$$BI_{ij} = A_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{k=1}^n (B_{ijk} V_{ik})$$

where

$i$  = holidaymaker

$j$  = holiday destination

$k$  = attributes of holiday destination

$n$  = number of attributes

$m$  = number of holiday destinations

$BI_{ij}$  = holidaymaker  $i$ 's behavioral intention towards destination  $j$

$A_{ij}$  = a unidimensional measure of consumer  $i$ 's attitude toward brand  $j$

$B_{ijk}$  = the strength of holidaymaker  $i$ 's belief that attribute  $k$  is possessed by destination  $j$

$V_{ik}$  = the degree to which attribute  $k$  is desired by holidaymaker  $i$ .

However, in considering a range of holiday destinations the holidaymaker does not consider every destination, but only those that are thought to hold some appeal. Thus, the consumer is considering only those of which they are aware, and of these, only those that evoke positive images, ie the evoked set. In the terminology of Howard and Sheth (1969) the inert and inept sets are not considered, only the evoked set of alternatives. Scott, Schewe and Frederick (1978)

postulate that if this is the case, then a 'proportionality of product knowledge' exists, and this can be calculated as:

$$PPK_{ij} = \frac{PK_{ij}}{\frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m PK_{ij}}$$

where  $i$  = holidaymaker

$j$  = destination

$m$  = number of destinations in the evoked set

$PPK_{ij}$  = proportional knowledge of holidaymaker  $i$   
of destination  $j$

$PK_{ij}$  = knowledge of holidaymaker  $i$  for destination

$j$

Hence, this can be added to the previous formula to give:

$$BI_{ij} = A_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{k=1}^n (B_{ijk} V_{ik} PPK_{ij})$$

Witt and Wright (1990) have adopted a closely related, but slightly different approach by using Vroom's theory of valences. They adopt Lawler's definition that the premise of such an approach is:

'the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on an expectancy that the act will be followed by given consequences (or outcomes) and on the value or attractiveness of that consequence or (outcome) to the actor' (Lawler, 1973:45).

The formulations are closely akin to those given above, and arguably differ only by reason of the emphasis given to comparison of outcomes arising from different actions. They

conclude from their review of the theory that:

'Because it provides a framework for the analysis of tourist motivation rather than suggesting specific reasons for travel, expectancy theory enables a much more sophisticated and more realistic view to be taken of tourist motivation' (Witt and Wright, 1990: 25).

In practical terms the implications for research into the attitudes and perceptions of the image of any given holiday destination must involve not simply an identification of attributes thought to be important, but an assessment of the degree to which competing destinations are thought to possess such attributes weighted by degrees of knowledge about such destinations as possibly measured by familiarity with resorts. Familiarity might arise from previous visits to given destinations, or destinations thought to be similar. Questionnaires must thus include questions that elicit responses as to frequency of holiday trips undertaken, and places visited within a given period of time, and cover a number of competing holiday destinations. The inclusion of other destinations (within reason) also has advantages in overcoming problems involved in analysing responses such as acquiescence sets, or predispositions to score low or high, in that the presence of alternatives may help to produce a distribution of scores and perhaps avoid bunching around the mean.

One of the problems associated with multi-attribute models is that it is postulated that holiday-makers do not in fact separate out individual components of a holiday destination,

but rather when making choices, compare total images of different places. Marketing research has devised means of measuring such responses, and one such approach is that of conjoint analysis (Green and Rao, 1971; Johnson, 1974; Hair Jr et al, 1987). The basis behind this technique is that the respondent might be given a number of possible destinations and is asked to rank them in order of attraction. The research problem is one of specifying the relationship between the product attributes and the preference rankings, and thus 'utility' values will need to be placed for each attribute level to 'explain' the consumer preference rankings. The normal method for doing this is to use a computer statistics package and apply values derived from a monotonic analysis of variance (MONANOVA), but general linear models have also been shown to work (Cohen, 1968 Hair Jr et al, 1987). June and Smith (1987) have utilised this method in a study assessing levels of service in a restaurant, whilst Carmichael (1992) used it to measure attitudes of Canadian skiers in British Columbia.

Even with this approach there are a number of problems. It requires the holiday-maker to rank a series of choices, but it is not known how significant are the differences between say, the 4th and 5th ranked choices as against the 8th and 9th. It might be that the respondent had difficulty in deciding which was 4th and which was 5th, whereas the distinction between the 8th and 9th choice was quite clear in their mind. In other words, there is no consistency of

interval between the rankings. Under these circumstances the assumption of scales being equal interval in nature might not be valid. Saaty (1980) recommends the use of hierarchical techniques which overcome the problem by requiring the respondent to undertake pair-wise rankings and indicate the strength of preference on a 9-point scale.

It might be argued that conjoint analysis and hierarchical techniques are off-shoots of multi-attribute analysis inasmuch as all the methods produce a score for attitude which is uni-dimensional. By this is meant the concept that attitude can be measured by a single score. Bagozzi has summarised this viewpoint by stating:

'Attitude is thought to be a single entity. Indeed, the unidimensionality of attitude is taken by assumption, and measurements are selected and scaling techniques applied so as to produce an unidimensional scale. In the case of  $A_{\text{object/act}}$ , single factoredness is maintained as the sine qua non of its measures, whereas for the  $b_i$ , uni-dimensionality is accomplished by definition (ie, by summing the product terms to arrive at a single, a priori specified construct)' (Bagozzi, 1988:169).

Bagozzi favours a multidimensional expectancy-value attribute model, of which he states there are two kinds - the molecular and the molar.

The molecular is really little more than the dis-aggregated Fishbein formulation - that is each individual belief/evaluation product is a single dimension. This author would argue that, in practice, this is how the Fishbein (and

Vroom) formulations tend to be used in practice. Thus, in a sense Bagozzi has set up in the above quotation something which, whilst technically correct, is in practice, little used. However, he does make the valid point that each individual dimension can be correlated with the total score, and thus three benefits accrue. These are:

- a) it is possible to represent random error explicitly and to correct for unreliability in measurement;
- b) the molecular multi-dimensional attribute model reveals detail; and
- c) the multi-dimensional model can circumvent multicollinearity problems.

The molar multi-dimensional attribute theory is simply a variant upon the molecular, and is closer to the basic  $b_i e_i$  formulation in that it does not seek to correlate separate item scores with the total product. Bagozzi comments '... no one-to-one correspondence exists between each dimension and its respective  $b_i e_i$  measures' (1988:172). The advantage of this approach is that molar multi-dimensional attribute scores can be measured and used for predictive purpose by use of partial least squares regression - the procedures are 'distribution free and can be used even where sample sizes are quite small.' (Bagozzi, 1988:173).

If this latter technique is valid it raises some interesting

possibilities. The simple Fishbein models noted above tend to look at attitude as an outcome of evaluation and beliefs - the process by which that outcome emerges is not explicitly stated. Traditionally, criticisms of the Fishbein model have been made on the grounds that it describes reasoned behaviour, and not that behaviour which is routine or mindless. Yet, it has been previously noted that at least some components of holiday taking behaviour are both routine and mindless.

Bagozzi and Warshaw (1988) formulated a theory of goal directed behaviours and outcomes (TGBO) which is a variant of the basic Fishbein model in that it emphasises the attempt to perform a behaviour or achieve a goal. That is, it concentrates on the trying rather than the achieving of the goal. Beliefs and evaluations are thus in part outcomes of the frequency and recency of past attempts to achieve the goals. Evaluation of consequences is, it is argued, part of a multiplicative process with attitudes towards success and failure. Bagozzi and Warshaw (1988) were able to demonstrate that using regression analysis where the variables were attitudes towards success, failure, the process of trying, the intention to try, trying, control, frequency and recency of past attempts, and behavioural performance, high percentages of explained variance could be found to support a hierarchical model of goal-directed behaviour.

The application of this model to holidaytaking is particularly appropriate for a number of reasons. First, Bagozzi and Warshaw (1988) argue that it is pertinent 'especially to situations where the goal or outcome of consumption is intangible'. Second, the emphasis on trying and past experience lends itself to work done from an entirely different direction by Jackson and his co-researchers. In a series of papers, Jackson (1983, 1988, 1990), Jackson and Dunn (1988), Jackson and Searle (1983) have explored the nature of constraints upon leisure and recreation participation. Third, the importance of trying implies gaps between performance and expectation, and thus might have linkages with consumer gaps theories as, for example, expounded by Laws (1990) and Laws and Ryan (1992).

Jackson argues that much of the research into leisure constraints has been too narrowly focused on the outcome that constraints negate performance by those who have expressed a wish to participate. Inasmuch as non-participants are comprised of two groups, those who express a wish to join in, but do not, and those who show no inclination to partake in a given activity, research into non-participation has tended to focus only on the former group. Jackson has therefore developed a concept of antecedent constraints which interact with leisure preferences rather than participation. This concept has been developed by feminist literature which has studied, primarily in the United States, the nature of constraints on



female participation in leisure activities (eg Henderson, Stalnaker and Taylor, 1988). Such antecedent constraints include 'prior socialisation into specific leisure activities, kin and non-kin reference attitudes and other factors' (Jackson, 1990:133). In the case of holiday making, it is of interest to note that within the UK that for more than a decade according to ETB data, consistently approximately a third of the adult population have not taken long holidays away from home. The normal conclusion that is drawn is that this is due to economic factors (intervening variables in Jackson's terminology). In the case of the 20% of the AB group who do not take such holidays, this is probably not the case, and thus other antecedent conditions exist. Psychographic profiling reveals part of the answer by reference to home orientation on the part of respondents. One implication of this is that any research into general holiday taking behaviour would require recognition of such antecedent conditions.

#### Gap analysis and the concept of service

The following paragraphs briefly seek to review some of the concepts relating to services, and the assessment of quality of service. One of the conventional distinguishing features between the marketing of services and products has been the notion that both provider and user of the service are in close proximity (Booms and Nyquist, 1981). An implication

of this relationship is that consumer satisfaction is, at least in part, determined by the consumer's perceptions of the service and the attention that they receive from the representative of the service company with whom they are dealing. Indeed, Bitner, Booms and Tetreault (1990) refer to the 'critical incident' in the sequence of events which make up the service. These are categorised as being employee response to service delivery system failures, employee response to customer needs and requests and finally unprompted and unsolicited employee actions. For each of these categories there may be a positive or negative experience.

However, the critical incident occurs within a context of expected service and within a physical space; both of which serve to achieve a desired end. In short, the critical incident may reinforce and occasionally change the existence of a positive or negative gap between that which is expected and that which is delivered. Laws (1986, 1990) argues that it is the direction of this consumerist gap that is the determinant of satisfaction. On the other hand, the Servqual model proposed by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) is based on the notion that this is but one of a number of potential gaps, and that others have to be taken into account. Such gaps would include management perceptions of customer expectations, and management perception of staff performance.

From a general viewpoint, the components of a service may be divided into three. Gronroos (1978) describes these variables as being of a technical, functional or image creation nature. Lehtinen and Lehtinen (1982, 1991) also propose a similar classification; namely physical, interactive and corporate qualities. With reference to a hotel, its physical (technical) features would include the tangibles of reception area, bedrooms, restaurants etc, while the functional, interactive processes relate to the expressive performance/usage of the tangibles. Courtesy, promptness of attention and empathy are features identified by Lewis and Klein (1987) as being, arguably, the core of the interactive process. Any image that clients possess of a hotel will be determined by a mix of marketing messages to which they have been exposed, the tangible components they view, the interactions they have experienced with staff, and the degree of familiarity they have with a specific hotel, chain of hotels, or competitors. In short, the factors identified by Lehtinen and Lehtinen (1982) and Gronroos (1978) are not independent variables, but are interacting variables that define a dynamic process.

The nature of this dynamic process is illustrated by the concept of the critical incident. Bitner, Booms and Tetreault (1990) indicate how failure of components of the technical process of the service can be offset by corrective action by representatives of the service provider. Rapid

and courteous action can generate customer satisfaction, overcome the potential dissatisfaction caused by service failure, and may even enhance corporate image. Laws (1990), in his analysis of airline service, also refers to the importance of management blueprints indicating structured reactions designed to respond quickly to customer needs in the event of technical failure. In such situations, the quality of the interaction between customer and the representative of the service provider is of paramount importance. This interaction should comprise at least three components - corrective action, information to the customer and a correct form of personal approach.

The expressive performance of the action is, of course, not simply important in cases of technical failure. As referred to above, for many authors, it is the key distinguishing feature between products and services. Consequently it is pertinent to examine the nature of this expressive service or interaction between client and provider. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) identified ten components. Briefly, these are reliability, responsiveness, competence, courtesy, communication, credibility, security, knowledge and understanding of the customer and their needs, and finally tangibles representing the physical evidence of service. Such a tangible would include the appearance of staff. Subsequently, in 1988, the same authors tested these variables and reduced them to five factors - tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy.

The performance of the service occurs within a context of not simply a physical environment, but rather an environment which is managed. It is therefore possible that a service may be carefully conceived and performed, yet fail to generate client satisfaction because the managers or entrepreneurs have failed to assess the needs of the customer correctly. In another situation, management may correctly identify customer needs, but incorrectly perceive the ability of staff to implement the specifications. Lewis and Klein (1987) illustrated this process when they found that management tended to over-estimate the level of service required by customers, but in doing so under-estimated the importance of some individual factors such as the need for quietness and staff friendliness. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) comment:

'In essence, service firms' executives may not understand; 1) what features connote high quality to consumers in advance, 2) what features a service must have in order to meet customer needs, and 3) what levels of performance on those features are needed to deliver high quality service.'

In their study of Canadian hotel management Saleh and Ryan (1991) also lent support to the above observations. Looking at five gaps between the perceptions of management and guests, and their expectations, they argue that the gap concept is of practical use for management to monitor its performance and that of staff. They also found that satisfaction was highest with the tangible components of the service, but lowest with the empathic and responsiveness elements. This would seem to confirm a general consensus of

many commentators (Bateson, 1989) that the easiest management problems within services marketing relate to the tangible components, but the training, monitoring and evaluation of staff is more difficult.

Saleh and Ryan (1992) also indicate some structural factors which must be taken into account when viewing gaps between performance and expectation. They note:

'..... it can be argued that management over-estimates guests' expectations, guests record their perceptions of service being below their expectations, while both management and guests share the same perceptions of service delivery. The implication of this is that management is involved in a process where they condone the provision of a service that is thought not to meet client needs. One possible explanation may be that management have to seek a series of second best solutions within the resource constraints that exist. Their perception of guests' needs becomes the optimal target, the provision of a service that 'satisfies' exemplifies a process of target satisficing. The gap between guest expectation and guest perception of actual service might be part of the same process. Expectation might be partially based on a marketing message that is itself a representation of an ideal, whilst the actual experience is one that is based on degrees of tolerance of service that is satisfactory, but which does not quite meet expectation.'

This approach might indicate some problems in assessing levels of customer satisfaction. If customer tolerance of some deviation from expectation exists, and thus a level of service less than the ideal does not generate dissatisfaction, then it implies that the boundary between that which is acceptable and that which is not is 'fuzzy'. It further implies that the analysis of client satisfaction has to be conducted in terms of what Laws (1990) has defined

as 'the just noticeable difference'. There is evidence that 'the just noticeable difference' is not only a factor of past consumer experience, but also of structural components within the service delivery process. Outside the hotel industry, Quelch and Ash (1981) suggest that in cases where the service provider possesses high degrees of expert knowledge clients may be intimidated, may not possess sufficient knowledge to be aware of poor service or may have poor sets of reference within which to assess quality.

The Servqual model of Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) has attracted considerable attention. As indicated above, there is much to recommend it in terms of creating monitoring systems of performance, but there are also problems. Saleh and Ryan (1992) comment:

'A further factor that may be operating is a process akin to threshold effects. The presence of certain factors may be insufficient to raise levels of satisfaction because the client is habituated to them, or expects them. On the other hand, the very absence of those factors is quickly noticed by hotel guests. Equally, on the other hand, the performance of staff that is significantly above expectation, i.e. a level that is 'noticeable', becomes a significant determinant of satisfaction.'

Swartz and Brown (1989) also note from their research into the provision and perception of medical services that 'threshold effects exist, even where expert knowledge is possessed by the service provider and not the user'. They note:-

'The discrepancies just noted can and often do result in client dissatisfaction. In mild cases of

disappointment, the consumer may continue to participate in the exchange. With increasing levels of dissatisfaction, however, he/she may tell other existing or potential clients about the unsatisfactory experience, seek the services of another professional, or, in extreme cases, initiate a professional liability suit' (1989:193).

Carman (1990) also sought to replicate the findings of the Servqual questionnaire within three situations, a tyre store, a placement centre and a dental clinic.

The dimensions that emerged with eigenvalues greater than one were:-

The Tyre store - tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, security, courtesy, access.

Placement centre - tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, security, personal attention, access and convenience

Dental clinic - tangibles, reliability, security, convenience, cost

Carman notes:

'PZB combined their original Understanding and Access dimensions into Empathy. Our results did not find this to be an appropriate combination.....when one of the dimensions of quality is particularly important to customers, they are likely to break that dimension into sub-dimensions. For example, many retailers would find location and parking to be key and separate dimensions in the customer's perceptual map. Thus it is recommended that items on both Personal Attention and Access (or Convenience) be retained until it is determined that some items are not important' (1990:39-40)



He also raises the topic of 'nay-saying' (more fully discussed in chapter six), noting that 9 of the 26 items from the PZB scale are negatively worded to avoid nay saying, halo effects and maintain alertness. 'In a long questionnaire, many respondents find this change in wording difficult to comprehend, and thus they misread the scale.' (1990:42).

It is also of particular interest to the author that he independently confirms the conclusions reached by Saleh and Ryan (1991, 1992) and Laws and Ryan (1993) when he comments that:

"In pure service situations, such as an airline journey... the customer is involved in a number of service encounters, and the quality of each might be evaluated. How much does each of these contribute to an overall evaluation of quality and how can these quality perceptions be measured? The literature suggests that Tangibles and Personal Attention weigh most heavily in customer perceptions of store quality and that store quality weighs more heavily on customer loyalty than does the quality of the product (Jacobsen and Olsen, 1985). Thus the dimensions under analysis here are the correct ones.' (1990:43)

Another criticism that has been made of the Servqual questionnaire has related to its implementation.

Parasuraman, Zeithmal and Berry asked respondents to complete the questionnaire in one setting, there was not a before and after experience. 'All respondent beliefs were entirely ex post. These expectation responses can be of little value' (Carman, 1990:47). In Carman's work, in the case of the placement service, an expectation questionnaire was completed as the client started to use the service, and

a satisfaction questionnaire some 5 weeks later. 'The results were not satisfactory.....Only two-thirds of the items loaded the same way on the expectations administration as they did on the perceptions administration' (Carman, 1990:47).

To most service providers the importance of a particular service attribute seems more relevant than its expected level - eg competence of the surgeon is more important than the art on the hospital wall. Parasuraman, Zeithmal and Berry use the concept that:

$$Q = \sum I_i(p_i - e_i)$$

where  $I$  is the importance of the service attribute  $i$ ; the sum is over the  $K$  service attributes and  $p$  and  $e$  are perceptions and expectations. Thus importance, expectation and perception are all important, and there is a need to collect data on all three. Arguably Parasuraman, Zeithmal and Berry infer values for  $I$ . This raises a series of questions about attitude measurement from the viewpoint of expectancy models, and some of the issues are discussed in much greater detail below.

Finally, in leaving this discussion of the Servqual model, it is worth noting Carman's conclusion that:

'Based on criteria of face validity and factor analysis eigenvalues greater than one, it is recommended that items on seven or eight of the original ten PZB dimensions (rather than 5) be retained until factor analysis shows them not to be unique. Items on some dimensions should be expanded if that is necessary for reliability.'" (1990:50)

'A major shortcoming of the SERVQUAL procedure as presented by PZB concerns the treatment of expectations. There appear to be serious problems with the value of the expectations battery as proposed, the ability to administer it, and the factor analysis of the difference between perceptions and expectations. Expectations are important, and the service marketer needs to collect information about them..... A complete attitude model of service quality must measure the effects of the importance of individual attributes on perceptions of quality.' (1990:51).

## Discussion

The above review has been restricted to a discussion of the concept of service and perceived gaps between expectation and perception of service in the terms of the research into service provision in hotels and similar establishments. It is therefore context bound in a way that the wider holiday experience is not. The use of the hotel creates, in Pearce's (1989) terms, a series of scripted encounters. The holiday is far more dynamic in its creation of much more complex interactions. Such interactions include the:

- a) relationship between holidaymaker and accommodation provider;
- b) relationship between tourist and tourist;
- c) use of the tourist destination zone by the holidaymaker;
- d) relationships between tourist and agencies of the tourist industry;
- e) relationships between tourist and members of the host community not employed in the tourist industry.

This discussion began by noting that one of the properties

of a service as distinct from a product was that it required the presence of the service provider. The holiday certainly meets the service requirement of 'intangibility'. At the end of the holiday the holiday maker has memories, but no tangible possessions of note. Those tangibles purchased, the souvenirs, have as their function, the evocation of the intangible. The tangible items used, the hotel room, the hire car etc, were used, but not owned. That is, the holidaymaker has engaged in a contract of usage, not of purchase. In this sense the holiday is a classic 'service'. But was it necessary for the service provider to be present? The classic definition of the tour operator as provided by Holloway (1990) is that they are a wholesaler of services, a 'packager' of flight, accommodation and other services, but a representative of the tour operator is not on the beach with the holidaymaker! Arguably the holiday maker consumes 'place' - the tour operator provides means of reaching the place, but cannot be said to supply the 'place'. Distinctions have therefore been made between services such as a holiday, a financial service, a hotel, a meal etc. Uhl and Upah (1983:238) for example introduce the concept of 'pure' and hybrid services.

Further debate on the distinctions between services, products, and the importance of factors such as intangibility, heterogeneity of service provision, the ability to store the service and the other factors said to distinguish FMCG, services etc will not be pursued here.

However, the role of the tour operator as simply a means of reaching the place to be consumed does raise some important issues with reference to holidaymakers' perceptions of the service called a 'holiday'. Just as the tour operator provides components which create a 'product', and just as the holidaymaker consumes a 'product' composed of some elements within management control, and others outside that control, so it can be argued that the 'holiday' is experienced as a series of events rather than as one event.

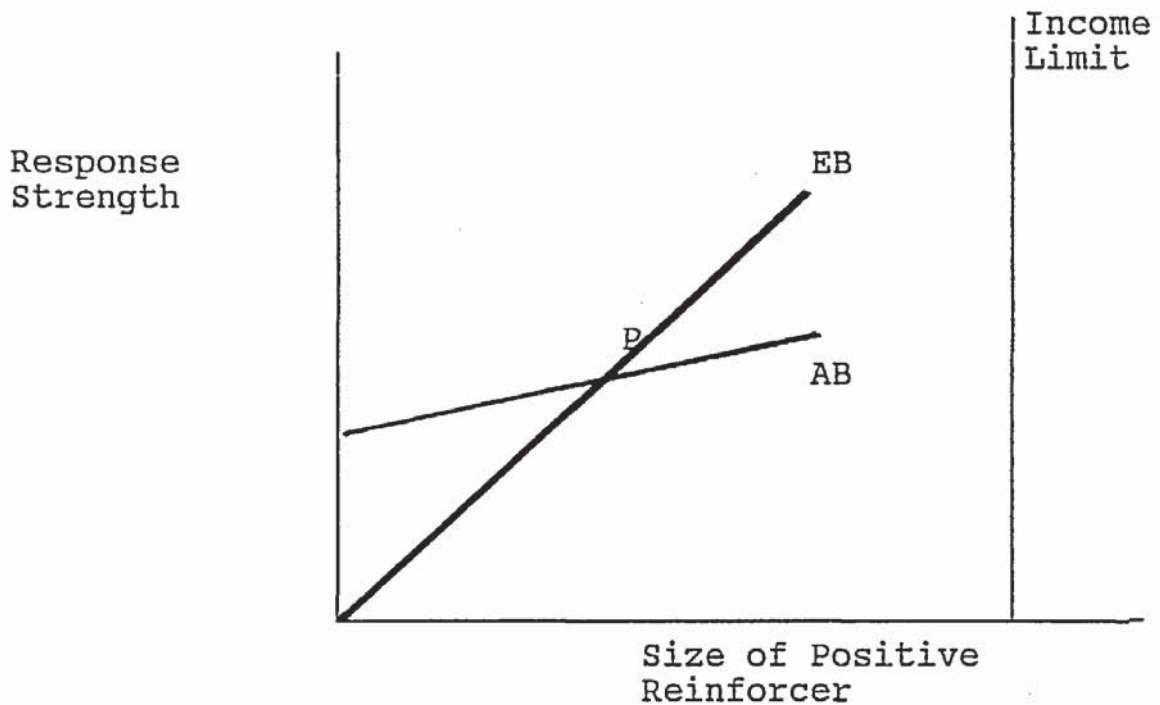
Laws and Ryan (1992), in an examination of flight experiences based on diaries and examination of unsolicited letters to an airline, concluded that there is little to support the hypothesis that passengers perceived flights as one event. Rather, there were a series of events and part-encounters, and indeed it was possible to distinguish phases within events. The same, it can be hypothesised, is true of holidays. To what extent can there be a sense of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with an entity called a holiday, if in fact, the holiday is a series of events which may be unconnected? Each event gives rise to an opportunity for satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The answer in part lies in the type of analysis inherent in the multi-attribute theories considered previously, and that is, holidaymakers attribute varying degrees of importance to events that comprise the experience and evaluate each accordingly to arrive at a judgement.

There are criticisms of these approaches. From the view of classical and operant conditioning, affective theorising is an attempt 'to move the environment into the head' (Skinner, 1977). It is argued that cognitive and affective theories of consumer behaviour offer explanations that merely infer alleged inner causes from observation of the very behaviour they seek to explain. However, in the field of psychology, the 1970s and early 1980s saw the emergence of 'radical behaviourism', which sought to explain behaviour in terms of reinforcement schedules, but recognised the role of pre-behavioural components. Thus, Hirschman (1980) postulates the existence of inherent novelty seeking as a pre-behavioural internal process. In the domain of consumer behaviour 'actualized innovativeness' may be evident in three ways - vicarious innovativeness (learning about new products not yet acquired); adoptive innovativeness (purchase of new products) and use innovativeness (use of new products). Skinner (1972) refers to the innovator as 'a place in which certain genetic and environmental causes come together to have a common effect... It is not some prior purpose, intention or act of will which accounts for novel behaviour; it is the 'contingencies of reinforcement' (1972:352).

The application of such 'novelty seeking' is of evident interest when seeking to assess sources of satisfaction to be derived from holiday behaviour. This becomes even more so when some authors seek to explain consumer behaviour in

terms of 'approach-escape' behaviours as does Alhadeff (1982:56). At a simple theoretical level he argues that there is an equilibrium point at which the probability of purchase response and the corresponding size of the reinforcer can be established by the intersection of two curves representing Approach Behaviour (AB) and Escape Behaviour (EB). So, in figure 2.2, the Escape Behaviour (EB) is not initially aroused, and hence starts at the origin, but as a positive reinforcement is felt, there are also associated 'costs' or

Figure 2.2      Escape Behaviour - Approach Behaviour  
Equilibrium Model



'fears'. As the positive reinforcer becomes more attractive, Approach Behaviour (AB) grows, and will continue to attract the individual to a given action so long as the AB exceeds EB, which also grows. Thus, for any given unit of positive reinforcement, the response strength will grow

so long as the marginal AB exceeds marginal EB; once marginal AB equals marginal EB, a point of equilibrium is found.

Needless to say, this contains echoes of the view that tourism can be explained as a dialectical process characterised by a search for the new (novelty seeking in Hirschman's terms), but constrained by a wish for the familiar. Hence the emergence of holiday complexes located in foreign countries but preserving the familiarity of daily modes of living.

In short, a number of potential approaches exist in the explanation of holiday maker behaviour, but such paradigms must recognise the constructs of risk aversion and risk taking inherent in travel. Arguably, such tension exists in all forms of human behaviour, and indeed the taking of risk is fundamental in the theories of maturation of psyche inherent in the work of Rogers, Maslow and similar developmental psychologists. Foxall (1990:174) refers to the erosion of paradigms as psychologists have sought to refute, incorporate or improve understanding of human behaviour. He also comments that:

'A comprehensive plurality of paradigms is inescapable if authentic understanding of consumer behaviour is preferable to the doctrinaire parochialism that would follow the domination of consumer research by one ontology and associated methodology.'



## SUMMARY

Holiday taking is an important aspect of human behaviour. This is evidenced by the fact that for many families it is often the largest single repeated expenditure that occurs at frequent intervals. After the infrequent purchase of a house, and a car, the holiday is, for at least two-thirds of the population, an annual experience. In addition it has both a temporal as well as a spatial component. It is anticipated prior to departure, and arguably the process of destination and activity choice is itself part of the total holiday experience. It is savoured after return. Thus, although an intangible purchase, it is important. It also reflects lifestyle and personality, albeit subject to the constraints of family and income.

At times it is a mindless experience, where the holidaymaker enacts a scripted role. At other times it offers opportunities for self actualization. It consists of not one, but a series of experiences, but is evaluated as an entity. Given the importance of the holiday, and if the assumption is accepted that personality is partly determined by experience, then holidays are important in the process of personality formation. It is a cliché to state that the holiday fortnight is different from the rest of daily life, that it is a reflection of aspirations, fantasies, an escape from realities, a search for new realities. It is worthy of examination.

such examination cannot take place without reference to concepts of attitude developed by psychologists and others involved in consumer research. In saying this it is recognised that other factors play a significant role in the purchase of holidays, and this will be considered more fully in chapter four. What is being argued is that the nature of the holiday as an experience of place and the interactions that occur within the geographical and social structures of that place are unlike most other consumer purchases. For over sixty percent of the UK population, the holiday represents a significant expenditure that is repeated annually. Past experience and expectations formulate attitudes that are goals to be achieved. If this is correct, then an analysis of the determinants of holiday satisfaction necessitates close examination of attitudes, and an appreciation of the means by which attitudes can be identified and measured.

## Chapter three - The level of holiday activity

The purpose of this chapter is to indicate the importance of the subject of the research by reference to the levels of consumer spending on tourism by UK citizens. It has been commented (Bull, 1991, Ryan 1991) that expenditure on holidays is one of the highest recurring household expenditures undertaken. Hence on the basis of both frequency and total value of such expenditure, holiday satisfaction would seem to merit further study. The chapter does not seek to assess the value of tourism to the UK. However, the importance of tourism to the UK economy can be gauged from the fact that from 1980 to 1993 tourism accounted for over a quarter of all UK service exports and accounted for approximately 3.5 percent of GDP. (Tourism Intelligence Quarterly, vol 15, No 4, 1994). The chapter is broadly divided into two. The first section briefly examines the importance of tourism from the perspective of world trends, while the second examines consumer expenditure and trends within the UK.

### The World View

The 1993 World Travel and Tourism Conference report reveals the growing importance of tourism in world terms. Often referred to as the world's largest industry, 'in 1991 travel and tourism created employment directly and indirectly for more than 180 million people, representing 10.2% of the global workforce' (WTTC, 1993). In 1994 the WTTC estimated

that travel and tourism accounted for:

- a) \$3.4 trillion in gross output;
- b) 10.1 percent of direct and indirect GDP;
- c) \$693 billion investment in new facilities and equipment (10.7 percent of total investment);
- d) \$655 billion of tax revenue;
- e) 10.9 percent of all consumer expenditure and 6.9 percent of government spending.

and that by 2005 travel and tourism's contribution to the world economy will have more than doubled.

Within the UK there has been some criticism of the jobs created by tourism as being seasonal, low paid and low skill. While studies of areas such as the south west of England (Shaw and Williams, 1993) provide evidence of this, the picture is beginning to change as tourism becomes less seasonal, more important, and more sophisticated. Larger hotels require more sophisticated management, tourist attractions such as theme parks create their own engineering challenges, while the boundaries between entertainment, leisure and tourism become blurred creating cross-overs in occupation skills and remuneration. The WTTC shows that in 1993 the ratio of travel and tourism compensation to average compensation for the OECD was 104.6 percent. However, the calculations include imputed contributions for aspects of the travel industry such as aircraft construction, and hence

the average 'ignores' a high standard deviation of the remuneration ratio. Nonetheless, it would appear that even within the traditional core components of the 'tourism industry' such as hospitality, in countries such as the UK, salaries are beginning to increase.

Although the number of international passengers is expected to increase from 400 million in 1990 to 500 million in 1995 and over 650 million in 2000, this increase is unevenly distributed. There are signs that the northern European tourist generating countries are nearing saturation, with only marginal increases as will be discussed below in the case of the UK. However, the Pacific Rim countries are expected to account for larger proportions of total growth. For example, South Korea has permitted holiday international travel for its citizens only since 1986, while the Japanese government has actually encouraged its citizens to travel overseas (Hall, 1994).

Recovery from recession is becoming marked in the British economy, and the BTA/ETB note an increase in overseas visits by British citizens of 7 percent in 1993 over 1992 (BTA/ETB, 1994:39). However, trips within the UK were down by 5 percent on the previous 12 months.

### The British Tourist

Table 3.1 indicates the number of long stay holidays (ie,

holidays requiring more than 4 nights accommodation away from home) undertaken by British citizens in the period 1981 to 1993. In this period the number of holidays increased approximately 15 percent, but it is noticeable that generally speaking holidays within the UK have tended to vary around a static figure of approximately 33 million, while in the same period the number of holidays taken overseas has increased from just over 13 million.

Table 3.1 The British on holiday

Estimated number of 4+ night holidays taken by the British

Year	Britain (millions)	Abroad (millions)	Total (millions)
1981	36.50	13.25	49.75
1982	32.50	14.25	46.75
1983	33.50	14.50	48.00
1984	34.00	15.50	49.50
1985	33.00	15.75	48.75
1986	31.50	17.50	49.00
1987	28.50	20.00	48.50
1988	33.50	20.25	53.75
1989	31.50	21.00	52.50
1990	32.50	20.50	52.50
1991	34.00	20.00	54.25
1992	32.00	21.75	53.75
1993	32.50	23.50	56.00

(Tourism Intelligence Quarterly, vol 15, No 4, May 1994, p 58)

in 1981 to over 23 million in 1993. Whereas in 1981 UK domestic holidays accounted for approximately three-quarters of all long stay holidays taken by UK citizens, by 1993 such holidays accounted for just under 60 percent of all such long stay vacations.

A significant reason for this was the continued growth of the popularity of the all inclusive tour charter (ITC) or

'package holiday', in part accounted for by the high levels of price driven competition between the tour operators who sought to expand their market share (Ryan, 1986, Middleton, 1991).

Table 3.2 The market share of 'package holidays' for overseas travel (%)

Type of holiday													
Year	'81	'82	'83	'84	'85	'86	'87	'88	'89	'90	'91	'92	'93
ITC	60	60	62	62	61	62	63	63	57	56	54	61	55
Indep	40	40	38	38	39	38	37	37	43	44	46	39	45

ITC - Inclusive Tour Charter      Indep - Independent  
 source - Tourism Intelligence Quarterly, vol 15, no 4, May p65

Table 3.2 shows the market share accounted for by package and cruise holidays, which throughout most of the 1980s has been at about 60 percent. How significant the 1993 figure is with package holidays accounting for only 55 percent of the total overseas holidays taken is currently difficult to assess. The literature has commented upon the growth of new trends that favour, for example, eco-tourism and adventure tourism products and more independent holiday taking (for example see Wheeler, 1993, for a provocative view on the development of eco-tourism), but on the other hand tour operators have proven able to develop packages that meet not only the conventional mass summer sun and beach holiday demands, but also packages for specific minority tastes, whether it be water sports (Sovereign Sailing), cycling holidays in France (Cycling for Softies), or educational walking tours in Italy (Alternative Italy). It is not the concern of this research, but these trends may not herald

the demise of the package holiday per se, but may generate new marketing challenges for the established main stream companies such as Thomsons and Owners Abroad, while creating opportunities for the membership of AITO (the Association of Independent Travel Operators).

Although the number of holidays have increased by only an average of about 1.2 percent per annum for the period shown in table 3.1, what is seemingly significant is the increasing expenditure upon holidays, as shown in table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Estimated expenditure on 4+ night holidays taken by the British

Year	Britain (£ millions)	Abroad (£ millions)	Total (£ millions)
1980	2420	3510	5930
1981	2710	4320	7030
1982	2500	4730	7230
1983	2640	5000	7640
1984	2970	5560	8530
1985	3080	6140	9220
1986	3050	6740	9790
1987	3100	8500	11600
1988	3740	9140	12880
1989	3820	10150	13970
1990	4140	10640	14780
1991	4670	11310	15980
1992	4450	12220	16670
1993	4580	13410	17990

In current terms total expenditure on holiday taking has increased approximately three fold for the period 1980 to 1993. However, the increase is far more noticeable in the case of overseas holidaying than for domestic holidays. Expenditure on long stay domestic holidays by UK British citizens has increased by approximately 94 percent in current expenditure terms, whereas expenditure on overseas



holidays has increased by almost 400 percent. However, caution needs to be exercised in interpreting these figures, if only because inflation is a factor that needs to be taken into account. Weighting the expenditure figures in table 3.3 to assess real increases in expenditure by the retail price index is not entirely satisfactory because:

- a) expenditure on overseas holidays is partly determined by:
  - i) rates of inflation overseas;
  - ii) the ability of tour operators to absorb overseas price increases;
  - iii) the ratio of independent to package holidays being taken;
  - iv) the level of price competition between tour operators.
  
- b) in the domestic market the ratio of serviced accommodation used to accommodation provided by friends and relatives is a key determinant of total holiday expenditure
  
- c) the potential for holiday switching between long haul, short haul, foreign and domestic destinations within any given level of expenditure may mean a lack of consistency of product. Hence, analysing trends in expenditure on holidays is not the same as assessing trends in purchases of consumer durables where there may be greater

homogeneity of product.

In consequence, a better means of assessing trends in expenditure on holiday taking may be to assess the proportion of consumer expenditure accounted for by recreational holiday taking. In 1981 expenditure on overseas holidays was equivalent to 1.64 percent of UK consumer expenditure, whereas in 1993 it was 3.01 percent. Total holiday expenditure, that is including spending both overseas and within Britain, in 1981 accounted for about 3 percent of consumer expenditure, and in 1993, for about 5.5 percent. It can be concluded that in both absolute and in real terms holiday expenditure by British holidaymakers has grown, albeit more slowly than the world average.

Table 3.4 Proportion of British Population taking Holidays per annum (%)

	(Holidays of 4+ nights)						
	'81	'82	'83	'84	'85	'86	'87
No of Holidays							
One	40	40	38	40	37	40	37
Two	15	14	14	13	14	14	14
Three or more	6	6	6	7	6	6	7
One or more hol	61	59	58	61	58	60	58
No holiday taken	39	41	42	39	42	40	42
	'88	'89	'90	'91	'92	'93	
No of Holidays							
One	37	37	36	36	35	36	
Two	16	15	15	16	15	16	
Three or more	8	7	8	8	9	9	
One or more hol	61	59	59	60	59	61	
No holiday taken	39	41	41	40	41	39	

Another symptom of the maturing market is that currently it would appear that a significant proportion of the current growth is being achieved at the margin. Some of the growth

population taking a holiday in the UK fell from 45 percent in 1981 to 37 percent in 1993, while the proportion taking overseas holidays increased from approximately a fifth in 1981 to a third in 1993.

### Conclusions

The above data indicates that taking holidays is an important component of consumer expenditure in the United Kingdom. Levels of expenditure are high, and growing. Additionally, brief though this survey has been, some changes have been noted. Such changes include:

- a) growing levels of expenditure in absolute terms, and as expressed as a percentage of total consumer expenditure;
- b) the emergence of the overseas holiday as the more important in terms of expenditure;
- c) the growth of second holidays.

On the other hand, some factors have remained consistent. Two main examples are:

- a) the proportion of the UK population taking holidays has remained consistently at about 60 percent, and
- b) the number of holiday trips within the UK has

Introduction

The initial factors that prompted this research were:

- a) an acquaintance with the literature relating to tourism;
- b) observation of tourist groups obtained from experiences in Greece as a windsurfing instructor/courier for a niche holiday company;
- c) discussions with individuals from the tourism industry over a period of years;
- d) access to customer satisfaction questionnaire returns and letters to an airline (Laws and Ryan, 1993).

In total, these experiences confirmed the published work by Lewis and Outram (1986), which is illustrative of much academic and commercial research into the determinants of holidaymaker satisfaction. Based on responses referring to items of specific concern to the tour operator, a common result is that high levels of potential repeat purchasing behaviour is reported, even while significant levels of dissatisfaction might be noted with reference to flight delays, standard of accommodation and other variables of the holiday experience.

Lewis and Outram (1986) report that the flight was on time in only 27 percent of cases. In 23 percent of cases good

food was not available, and the courier was not readily available in 30 percent of recorded instances. In total, 54 percent of the respondents agreed there were problems with their holidays. Yet, when asked whether they would recommend the holiday to a friend, 69 percent would do so! There is an apparent paradox. Large proportions of the respondents are indicating dissatisfaction with what might be thought to be significant elements of the holiday, yet overall there are high levels of satisfaction.

#### A paradox explained?

That the paradox may be more apparent than real can be due to a number of reasons. First, the holidaymakers are recording dissatisfaction with items that may be unimportant components of the holiday. With reference to multi-attribute theory, the questionnaires used by tour operators are failing to distinguish between the simple identification of attributes on the one hand, and their evaluation as contributors to holiday satisfaction on the other.

Second, as argued below, holiday-makers possess a series of social skills that in many cases permit them to reassess and re-value what is on offer, engage in displacement activities and search behaviours. The result is that they enjoy their holidays in spite of the deficiencies in the product they are offered. Clients possess a strong motivation to enjoy the holiday. This goal of requiring satisfactory

experiences shapes behaviour so that satisfaction is the outcome. In terms of the gap analysis referred to in chapter one, where satisfaction is the outcome of differences between expectation and performance, the model perhaps needs to be modified for the holiday experience. It can be contended that there is an intervening variable. Unlike situations such as meals in a restaurant, in the holiday context the client (holiday-maker) occupies a much more proactive role. Consequently, where there is a gap between expectation and performance, the tourist is able to behave in such a way as to close the gap and produce satisfaction. Because the holiday is longer in duration, and the client is freed from normal constraints, the tourist can initiate actions that permit the client to adopt, as it were, by proxy, the position of the supplier. If, for example, hotel meals are poor, the holiday maker can find an alternative source of supply. The reasons for this can include the strong motivation to enjoy the holiday, and the attempt to maximise the efficient use of available time to achieve enjoyment. (Complaining may be too long and laborious a process, especially if it is thought that the chances of success are small).

Third, a number of researchers have referred to a 'zone of tolerance'. Detailed discussions of this discussion can be found in the work of writers such as Laws (1986), and in the debate concerning what, exactly, is the SERVQUAL model measuring (eg Lewis, 1992, Cronin and Taylor, 1992). Lewis

for example argues that in the gap models, if respondents were being asked to measure between their 'ideal' level of service and their perception of actual service, then in most cases there is no need for a two stage questionnaire. The first set of questions relating to 'the desired ideal' would presumably consist entirely of maximum scores, and hence by definition the gap is simply the maximum score minus the actual score on the perception scale.

Hence, it is argued, what respondents actually note on the first of the two stages of any form of gap analysis, is not the desired, but the acceptable level of service that they expect. But in turn problems of interpretation arise. If the score on the first stage of the questionnaire represents a measure of that which is adequate and acceptable, does any one value truly capture this, and how is the gap then to be interpreted? Can a gap between that which is 'acceptable', and that which is 'perceived' really measure 'satisfaction'. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, while in their initial writings tended to use the terms 'satisfaction' and 'service quality' as almost interchangeable (Cliff, 1994), in later publications they tend to defend the SERVQUAL scale as a pragmatic measure of service quality designed to highlight issues for management (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1993). Evidence for this approach is demonstrated by Ryan and Cliff (1994, 1995) in that their study of New Zealand travel agencies was able to show significant differences in scores between different agencies and on specific items,

thereby permitting recommendations to be made to the management of these difference agencies.

The question of tolerances of a varying level of service has been likened to Herzberg's hygiene theory. Saleh and Ryan (1991) refer to the way in which choice about which hotel to use is in part shaped by the provision of certain services which do not add to the experience of the hotel stay because they are not used (services such as a gymnasium or swimming pool), but whose absence would mean that the potential client might view the hotel as possessing 'less quality'. Thus, the holidaymaker might like the presence of a swimming pool that is heated, but its absence is not going to deter from the total 'satisfactory' experience. This implies a further problem, and that is while gap models disaggregate the experience into a series of events and items, the total satisfaction derived may result from a synergy of these happenings - in short, satisfaction, or service quality, results from a holistic assessment of the parts. The theory of the critical incident may also be pertinent in this instance, as it implies that while events may be salient, determinant or important, any one event might accrue to itself any one, two or all three of these characteristics. Certainly the issue of the nature of the gap affected the form of the questions used in this study as is discussed in chapter seven. Arguably, what is being considered here, especially in the case of the holiday where the tourist has many opportunities to be proactive, is a form of contingency



behaviour. This is considered below.

The apparent paradox noted above might be explained by a fourth factor - the questionnaires asking inappropriate questions. The Lewis and Outram (1986) study found that in 95 percent of cases the weather was good. Perhaps the weather is a really important determinant of satisfaction? Many studies do not assess the comparative importance of destination attributes. Other important determinants of satisfaction do not appear on tour operators' questionnaires. One important variable is the nature of interactions between the holidaymaker and significant others. Of these, perhaps the most significant for a number of tourists is other holiday makers and their behaviour.

A fifth factor might be tourists' past experience. If satisfaction is the result of expectation being met by performance, then as Carman (1990) and others have observed, one logical way of increasing satisfaction is to lower expectation. It can be hypothesised that two processes are potentially involved. Past experience generates lowered expectation, so that performance can more easily exceed expectation to create satisfaction. Second, customers substitute for those factors that create dissatisfaction other factors that become more significant in creating satisfaction. For example, a past experience of late flights, poor accommodation and indifferent food might mean that customers devalue these components of the holiday, and

that satisfaction is derived from other elements such as being away from home and work in a sunny, warm climate. If the flight is on time - then this may be perceived as no more than what should occur, or be seen as a 'bonus', but one which does not contribute additional satisfaction.

#### A need to examine determinants of holidaymaker satisfaction?

For tour operators a number of important implications are involved. The conventional wisdom is that tourism is relatively resistant to recession (see table 3.1). Commentators such as Middleton (1991) have argued that the package holiday is now a 'mature product', and that furthermore its clientele are more experienced and more demanding. It is not the purpose of this section to repeat the arguments of chapter two, but it would seem that tour operators will need to examine more closely the determinants of holiday satisfaction. For example, it might seem that the major determinants of satisfaction would appear to be beyond the immediate control of the tour operator. Under the implementation of EC directives relating to tour operators, they must accept legal liability for their products; in particular for the performance of flight, accommodation and catering. Yet, if a major determinant of holiday satisfaction is the behaviour of other holiday makers, tour operators may still have dissatisfied clients.

It can be hypothesised that an important determinant of successful holidays is the creation of groups of like minded

people sharing the same experience. In this case the advertising material produced by companies becomes an important factor in establishing successful holidays. The brochures, videos and other promotional material and activities (including 'educationals' for travel agents) must attract the target segment and dissuade others from coming on the holiday. This 'dissuasion' process is almost as important as the persuasion mechanisms because a 'misfit' can generate significant tensions within a group. While this can be seen to be important for holidays which are composed around small groups, it may also be true for larger holiday groups or independent travellers. If satisfaction is determined in part by expectation, then it can be assumed that the publicity material and messages about the holiday disseminated by the tour operator are factors in establishing those expectations. Within the field of advertising research, it has become a cliché that the advertisement performs many functions besides promoting sales. One of its functions is that it confirms the wisdom of the purchase. This may be particularly true if it is the first time that the holiday maker is taking a specific type of holiday.

The origins of the holiday trip begin not when the holiday maker leaves home, but at the time when an information search begins. The act of looking through the brochures has been perceived by a number of authors as being part of the total holiday experience (eg Pearce, 1982; Ryan 1991).

Hence the brochure may be referred to several times prior to departure as the holiday maker seeks reassurance about holiday choice. Indeed, the process of making a booking several months prior to departure but also before making the final payment for the holiday would reinforce a process whereby the brochure is kept as a means of reference by the holiday maker. It is logical to assume that the brochure would be referred to, as are other channels of information such as the travel agent, at the time of making the final payment for the holiday. The brochure thus contains messages not simply about the location, but also about whether the holiday is right for the client. Consequently, it is implying something about, if not the holidaymaker per se and their lifestyle, then about their motivation for that particular holiday.

Gyte (1988) argues that holiday makers may distinguish between their holidays on the basis that separate holidays are being undertaken for specific and separate needs.

Lawson (1991), in a study undertaken in New Zealand, shows how holiday patterns are influenced by life stage.

Wealthier groups in wealthier societies are in a position of choice whereby holiday makers will distinguish between holidays which meet personal needs, holidays which meet the needs of other family members, holidays which meet relaxation needs, and those that are for developmental needs. Also, even within the same holiday, different needs might be met on different occasions by different activities.

The brochure must therefore communicate suitable messages that recognise that information about location alone is insufficient. To use yet another cliché, the brochure must refer to the 'holiday experience'.

From this it would appear that holiday satisfaction is determined by a number of variables which include past experience, purpose of the holiday, opportunities presented by the location for alternative search behaviour if so desired, personality of the holiday maker, the expectations created in part by marketing messages, lifestyle and lifestage.

Another factor that must be considered is at what point is the analysis being undertaken with reference to the holiday experience. It has been commented that the holiday experience is composed of not only the interaction of the tourist with the destination, people and facilities within the destination, but also the initial search activity, purchases made prior to departure, and recall of the holiday by the use of souvenirs of various types including photographs. The process of making a choice about a holiday destination as well as the choice itself are part of the sequence of generating satisfaction. Hence a two-stage model needs to be contemplated, one part considering factors pertaining to choice of location and the other relating to experience of destination. This is consistent with an extended model of multi-attribute attitudinal theory as

discussed in chapter six which takes into consideration cognitive 'knowledge' about attributes (for example, are they possessed by the destination), evaluation of those attributes, and the consequences of action or behaviour.

#### A case of contingency management?

It has been noted above that possibly what is being discussed is some form of operant performance within complex and open social settings. In short a process of contingency management is involved. Contingency management may be defined as programmes of behaviour modification based on the negotiation and implementation of a contract that specifies rewards and punishments contingent upon the performance of particular behaviours (Lowe, Horne and Higson, 1987). The situation of the holiday is one where there is high motivation to achieve goals, within an at least moderately high informational context. Foxall (1990) proposes a behavioral perspective model which 'stresses the situational factors that are systematically related to such behaviours (1990:140). Table 4.1 below is derived from Foxall (1990). The model owes much to Skinnerian modelling of learning behaviour where processes are learnt through appropriate reinforcement schedules. Adopting Skinnerian approaches permits the argument of contingency management to be widened from simply discussing response to a given situation within the holiday, to one of whether holiday taking is itself little more than a habit. Two broad opposing theories exist - the Skinnerian pattern of behaviour as patterns learnt by

the presence or absence of suitable reinforcement schedules, and, on the other hand, the concepts of psychic growth and maturation espoused by writers such as Maslow. Such discussion in itself is a 'weighty matter' but a brief review can indicate some implications for the process of holiday taking which might have to be taken into consideration.

Foxall (1990) includes within the reinforcement component the level of informational content. It can be argued that almost by definition the holiday experience would form a 'pleasurable' context requiring hedonic responses and hence the informational context provided by the tourist destination is important in determining holiday satisfaction. In terms of Foxall's table the holiday destination can be placed in at least one of two situations. If it is a holiday to a new destination, then extended problem solving is undertaken. Foxall argues (1990:140) that the situation is akin to an open situational setting with a high volume of both hedonic and informational reinforcers present. The response is one that is associated with new tasks, and high levels of exploratory behaviour. The best reinforcement schedule is hence high variable interval or ratio. That is, within Skinnerian terms, behaviour is reinforced best by satisfactory processes that occur frequently but at varying intervals or ratios. Indeed, for many explorative situations learning theorists would argue that this is the best reinforcement schedule.

The second case of holiday behaviour might be that of repeat visits to a destination. Again marked by a hedonic response, the setting is more closed, information needs are less, and reinforcers need to be less frequent. This approach raise an important question as to whether cognitive explanations of holiday behaviour and satisfactions are entirely appropriate. Laing (1987) has noted the almost habitual pattern of holiday taking, and Table 4.1

**Table 4.1** Contingency Categories, response patterns and reinforcement schedules



Source: Foxall G, 1990, Consumer Psychology in Behavioral Perspective, Routledge, London, p 140

under such circumstances reinforcement theory which seeks to explain behaviour through the occurrence of suitable reinforcements might be appropriate. On the other hand, Wearden (1988) reviews some of the literature relating to



experimental reinforcement schedules with human respondents, and concludes that 'reinforcers' are informational rather than hedonic or response strengthening; they inform respondents of the accuracy of their performance or that it has been otherwise satisfactory. Whether adopting Foxall's or Wearden's perspective, the conditions of the destination zone and consumer experience are such that they lead to extended problem solving (EPS). What is important in Foxall's model is the concept that:

The discussion of the Behavioural Perspective Model highlights the importance of distinguishing purchasing and consumption behaviours, which are separately controlled and reinforced but which impinge directly upon the rate of emission of one another (1990:143).

Thus, in the model of holidaymaker satisfaction described in the next chapter, implicit in Foxall's work there is a need to distinguish between the factors that generate choice (or purchase decision), and the actual experience of the holiday. Yet the two are linked, as the factors determining choice also, at least initially, determine the criteria by which the experience is evaluated.

Two apparent caveats to this approach might be mentioned. Both were referred to in chapter two. The first queries the degree to which the holiday experience is entirely one where EPS occurs, and the second is whether behavioral approaches are entirely valid bearing in mind Pearce's (1988) concept of the travel career based in Maslow's work. It was previously argued that at least parts of the holiday are characterised by 'mindlessness' and by scripted occasions.

For example, it can be contended that frequently repeated actions become routinised, and hence are characterised by a lack of distinguishing features. It becomes difficult for respondents to differentiate between the same action carried out on different occasions. Here the concept of the 'critical incident' referred to in chapter two might be of some significance. It can be contended that the scripted occasion is one which meets a set of not particularly high expectations - arousal levels are low, and the tourist goes with the 'flow' involved in a low arousal - low challenge - low skill situation. On the other hand, if the occasion becomes marked by a critical incident where performance either exceeds or is significantly below expectation, the situation ceases to be a scripted occasion.

#### The role of the scripted occasion

If the characteristic of the scripted occasion is one of repeated action, then by definition it is unlikely to occur in the early stages of a holiday when a tourist is learning about the destination zone. Again, caveats need to be mentioned. The scripted occasion may occur early in a holiday if it is a situation where the tourist has repeatedly returned to the destination (eg a 'holiday home'). Assuming that in most cases tourists are exploring new situations, it can be hypothesised that scripted occasions tend to occur only in the latter part of the holiday period, or where the tourist has significant levels of past experience of that type of situation. In short, the

scripted occasion occurs through familiarity, and, from the context of information theory, not at points of discontinuity. Such an analysis is from the perspective of the tourist. From the viewpoint of the provider of the service, what is to the tourist a new situation, may in fact be a very familiar one, and the skill of the service provider is shown by their ability to 'persuade' the customer of the 'novelty' of the tourist experience. Essentially however, a situation perceived by the tourist as a 'scripted, mindless' experience is one that is generating neither high levels of satisfaction nor dissatisfaction. It might be said to be satisfaction neutral. On the other hand, a series of scripted encounters might generate satisfaction if the motivation for the holiday is primarily one of relaxation and escape from daily pressures of family and work life. The 'mindless' occasion requires little decision taking, little mental exertion, poses little challenge, and thus might be entirely appropriate as a holiday experience.

However, the question also remains as to the degree to which the above model can fully explain holiday satisfaction. It is a deductive model based on observation, and like many behaviourist models it can only make inferences about cognitive mediation. The question is important because the motivational models reviewed in chapter two, and which give rise to the items used in the Ragheb and Beard questionnaire, were based on concepts of autonomy and

cognition associated with authors such as Maslow.

### An application of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

The role of Maslow's thinking in the tourist literature was reviewed in chapter two, and will not be repeated here. However, as part of the preliminary studies undertaken for this research the author followed a procedure described by Pearce (1982) and asked respondents to note the holiday situations that gave them most pleasure, and those that created the highest levels of dissatisfaction. The results were as predicted. The occasions that provided the highest levels of satisfaction could be easily categorised as belonging to the highest levels of Maslow's hierarchy, while the situations which caused distress belonged to the lower levels. This is possibly analogous to the critical incident approach within a holidaying context.

Examples of sources of dissatisfaction which obviously incorporated denial of basic motivational drives were derived from a sample of post-graduate students during pilot studies for the research undertaken in 1991. These included:

'I had spent all my money and arrived at Calais late - I had to spend the night at the railway station; it was cold and I was hungry.'

'.... while canoeing I fell in the water. It was colder than I expected, and I had no change of clothing. Nor was it that warm that I could dry out quickly. As a result I had a chill for a few days, and that rather reduced my enjoyment of the holiday.'

Some other examples are included within the appendices. One interesting example of psychological security being threatened came from a female respondent who was in her twenties and had been a travel agent. She ruefully described her worst holiday experience as being the realisation that she had left her cuddly bunny rabbit in a French hotel while taking a motoring holiday through France. This had happened the previous year. She had telephoned the hotel prior to leaving France on the cross channel ferry, and had been so upset at its loss that she had reported it to the French police. As she commented, what they made of a tearful English female asking them to find her pink fluffy bunny rabbit, she could only guess! She had even taken out an advert in the local French newspaper. She explained she had had this rabbit since being five years old, and it had been everywhere with her.

On a happier note respondents reported many sources of pleasure, and generally these experiences occurred at higher levels of the Maslow hierarchy. Out of the 25 respondents who provided a written response, over a third referred to the beauty and tranquillity that they had experienced. Quite unprompted, five specifically referred to the experience in terms that were resonant of Maslow's concept of peak experiences. For example, describing a trip to Greece, one respondent stated:

'... I stood there, and appreciated that this scene had been re-enacted every day from before the time of

Homer. It was a link with a distant past, an appreciation of that while an individual's life is but a moment in time, it is part of a chain of time.'

What had prompted these thoughts was the sight of a young boy driving out the goats to the pastures above Corinth in the very early hours of the morning.

In many cases however, the source of satisfaction could be described in terms of the respondent feeling that, in McCannell's terms, they had penetrated the 'back-room' in that they had established contact with local people that they had found to be particularly satisfying.

The sample selected for this exercise was conveniently drawn from students commencing their postgraduate course in tourism studies. The author uses this exercise to generate a discussion on processes that generate satisfaction. Such samples are not representative of a wider population - for example they tend to be greater users of independent travel. With such small numbers it also means that the significance of 'minorities' is difficult to assess. For example, in two cases where package holidays had been taken the source of satisfaction was not the direct experience of the holidaymaker, but a derived enjoyment at being able to provide for children within the family a holiday which they had enjoyed.

Such incidents can be incorporated into a model of determinants of tourist satisfaction, but is it legitimate

to incorporate concepts derived from humanistic psychology into a seemingly deterministic model? Skinnerian thought can be described as the proposition that observable behaviour can be explained in terms of contingent environmental stimuli; and the process whereby the rate of response is brought under the control of consequent stimuli (reinforcers and punishments). The model that is being proposed in the next chapter does not indicate the nature of reinforcement schedules, and is relativistic in its approach. It incorporates a plurality of paradigms. For example, while primarily arguing that the holiday experience by its nature uniquely meets a series of needs (for example escape and fulfilment needs) and primarily consists of extended learning behaviours, as discussed above, it recognises routinised procedures where, arguably, Skinnerian approaches are apt descriptors. The model accords to cognitive, internalised processes important functions as motivators for holidays. The cognitive processes are also called into play as means of adjustment to initially less than satisfactory scenarios where the holiday-maker can subsequently derive satisfaction from the holiday. These internalised processes are important, because a basic premise in the argument is that similar motivations and similar holiday settings are not sufficient to predict either behaviour or the final level of satisfaction experienced.

## Summary

It has been argued that holidaymakers possess motivations that develop goals of holiday satisfaction or enjoyment. Thus, in order to understand the process of holiday evaluation, a two stage model needs to be examined, namely the development of those motivations away from the destination, and secondly the processes of evaluation and behaviour adjustment that occurs at the holiday destination. However, the two are intimately linked, as the behaviour patterns at the holiday site are in part a response to the interaction of prior expectation formulated before the holiday and the perception of the holiday place while there. Additionally, the holidaymaker is indeed in the position of being a maker of the holiday, and hence any model of holiday satisfaction must also take into account the ability of the holidaymaker to react to circumstance and formulate their own plans and actions.

In the next chapter such a model is outlined, and from the model a series of propositions are stated; which propositions are subsequently examined by analysing results from responses by a sample of 1127 to a postal questionnaire.



## Chapter Five - A model of inter-relationships and propositions

### Introduction

In the previous chapters it has been argued that a two stage model is required to understand holiday experiences and their evaluation because:

- a) expectations are formulated prior to departure;
- b) expectations relate to motivations, which motivations become subsets of goals; the primary goal being enjoyment of the holiday whereby the motivations and expectations are fulfilled;
- c) perceptions of the holiday are, at least initially, developed with reference to those expectations, and the holiday destination is evaluated by its ability to meet those expectations;
- d) however, holidaymakers are indeed potentially makers of their holiday, in that the time and space available to them allows them to negotiate with their environment - some management of their situation is open to them;
- e) but, because there is a strong desire to achieve positive outcomes, and a need to do so within limited holiday time, in most cases, it can be argued, adaptive behaviours will take forms other than making complaint. Thus high levels of exploration behaviour might be expected, particularly in the earlier part of the holiday.



- e) Tourist destination preferences
- f) Formation of intention to visit
- g) Specific situational variables

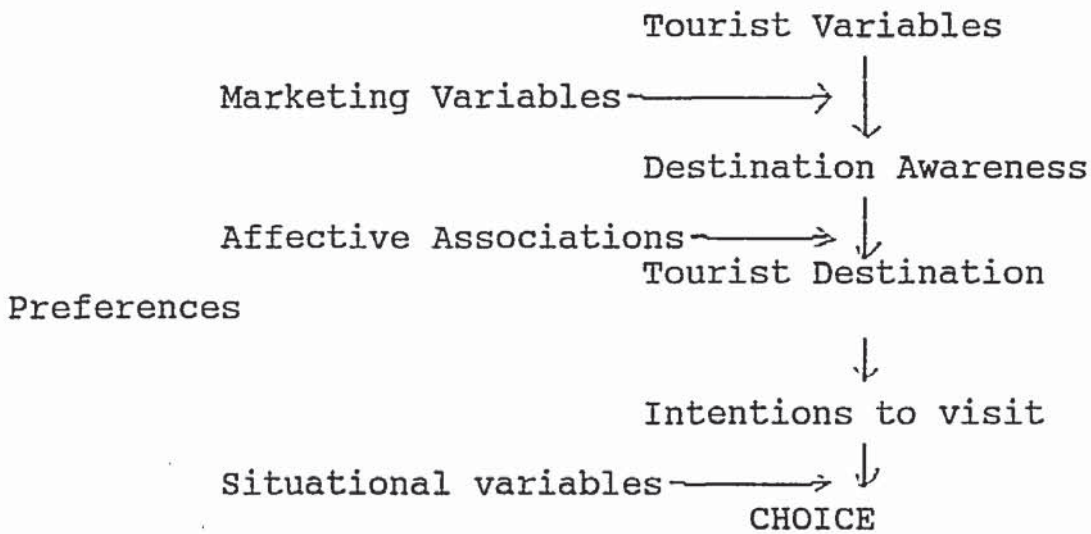
The actual process is described in figure 5.1. Within marketing theory it is generally argued that perceptions include at least three processes; awareness, categorising and associating (for example, see Woodside and Freeman, 1989). Consumer unaided recall of products has often been found to be associated with positive attitudes, high intention to buy and actual purchase (Woodside and Carr, 1988).

Consumer awareness is generally categorised, following Howard and Sheth (1969) as being unaware/unavailable, or aware of the product. Awareness is thus designated as being inert, that is the consumer is unable to associate any particular attributes with the product, inept, where the client generally associates unfavourable messages with the product, and finally an active set consisting of generally favourable attributes that are worth considering.

This approach to consumer behaviour and its application to holiday decisions has been used by Mill and Morrison, 1985, who modified the basic Howard and Sheth model, but retained the basic sequences and flows. Factors such as age, income, sex, education and lifestyle form part of the environment of decision taking, and the traveller's buying process is

described as a sequential process of attention, comprehension, attitudes, intention and purchase.

Figure 5.1 A Sequential Model of Tourist Decision Taking



It can be objected that Howard and Sheth's model is primarily concerned with the purchase of products rather than services, but it is a pertinent model when considering the processes prior to a decision to purchase in that it enumerates potential sources of influence upon the decision, and indicates a process of evaluation of that information. However, in the case of a service such as holiday, where there is a longer period of consumption of a series of events that form a whole, the process of evaluation and subsequent feedback becomes more complex, hence leading to a requirement to extend the model into a second, and arguably more important stage, as is outlined below.

From this perspective, the attributing of favourable or unfavourable affective responses to a destination is determined by the two factors, tourist characteristics and

marketing messages. The interaction between these factors and destination perception generates a list of preferred destinations within any time period. The theories of personal constructs as developed by Allport (1955, 1961) and Kelly (1955) would lead to the conclusion that the actual number of destinations considered at any one time are comparatively few. In fact Woodside and Freeman tested this model with New Zealand respondents and found 'The average number of countries in the respondents' consideration set was 4.2' (1989:12). The authors also quote other studies where the average number of countries being considered were 3.4 and 2.7 (Woodside and Sherrell, 1977; Thomson and Cooper, 1979).

If a destination possesses a positive and strong affective association it will probably be within the tourist destination preference list, and, following Woodside and Freeman, 1989, it will probably score highly on intentions to visit. As with much of consumer behaviour the problem is one of converting intention into behaviour. This is recognised by Woodside and Freeman when they note

'Positive and statistically significant relationships were found between preference and choice for the UK, Australia, Canada and Germany ( $r^2$ s all above 0.28). For the Fiji Islands and the US., the associations between preference and choice were low ( $r^2$ s of .00 and .08 respectively)' (1989:13).

It can be noted that the study does not specifically report correlations other than in these sentences, and it would appear that the correlations are low. A second caveat must

be noted that the sample was one of 92 New Zealand students.

### The Second Stage

However, from the viewpoint of this study, the choice marks only the completion of the first stage of the model. The second part relates to the actual experiences as a result of that choice. The holiday consists of further components, namely:

- a) travel to the destination;
- b) the nature of the destination;
- c) the nature of the inter-action with significant others;
- d) activities undertaken.

Consumer behaviour models such as the Howard and Sheth model can be criticised as being little more than a schematic descriptive model that, while identifying potential sequences, does not attempt to quantify the nature of the relationships. For example, inclination is conceived as being a precursor to attitude, even while attitude itself is a factor determining intention to purchase. Inclination is described as derived from 'linking motives with the alternatives available to us through a series of learned decision criteria (Mill and Morrison, 1985:17), but the distinction between inclination, attitude and intention is not well defined. Indeed, it might be argued that attitude subsumes cognitive, affective and conative processes, and hence the distinction cannot be defined. If this is the case, the Howard and Sheth approach becomes difficult to operationalise in terms of a developing a testable

hypothesis.

As noted above, though, the model is useful in identifying constraints upon choice that might have implications for satisfaction. The importance of the first stage of the model is simply one of establishing antecedent conditions that influence the actual goal setting, and satisfaction is defined as the attaining of those goals. A parallel with the SERVQUAL model can be drawn, in that expectation of desired ends from a holiday set up criteria by which the perceived experience can be judged - the gap between desired ends and perceived reality hence becomes a measure of satisfaction. The second stage of the model then might be said to consist of the stages shown in figure 5.2. Once the outward journey begins, so too does a process of evaluation. The nature of the trip; its comfort, ease of journey, delays, and the ease of accessibility to the destination become part of the total experience. It is tempting to describe these experiences, in Herzberg's terms, as hygiene factors. That is, the availability of ease and comfort etc are not in themselves predictors of high degrees of satisfaction, but their absence can generate dissatisfaction. They create dissatisfaction in two senses. Initially expectations are high, and an early disappointing experience might cause initial dissatisfaction. Second, on completion of the holiday, tourists become concerned about the need to return home in time for work, the need to make connections, or for the need to be picked up at airports by

friends and relatives. Delays etc at this stage of the holiday can cause a re-evaluation of the past otherwise satisfactory experience. If, however, the journey goes according to plan, then an expected service is delivered, but no addition to total satisfaction may occur.

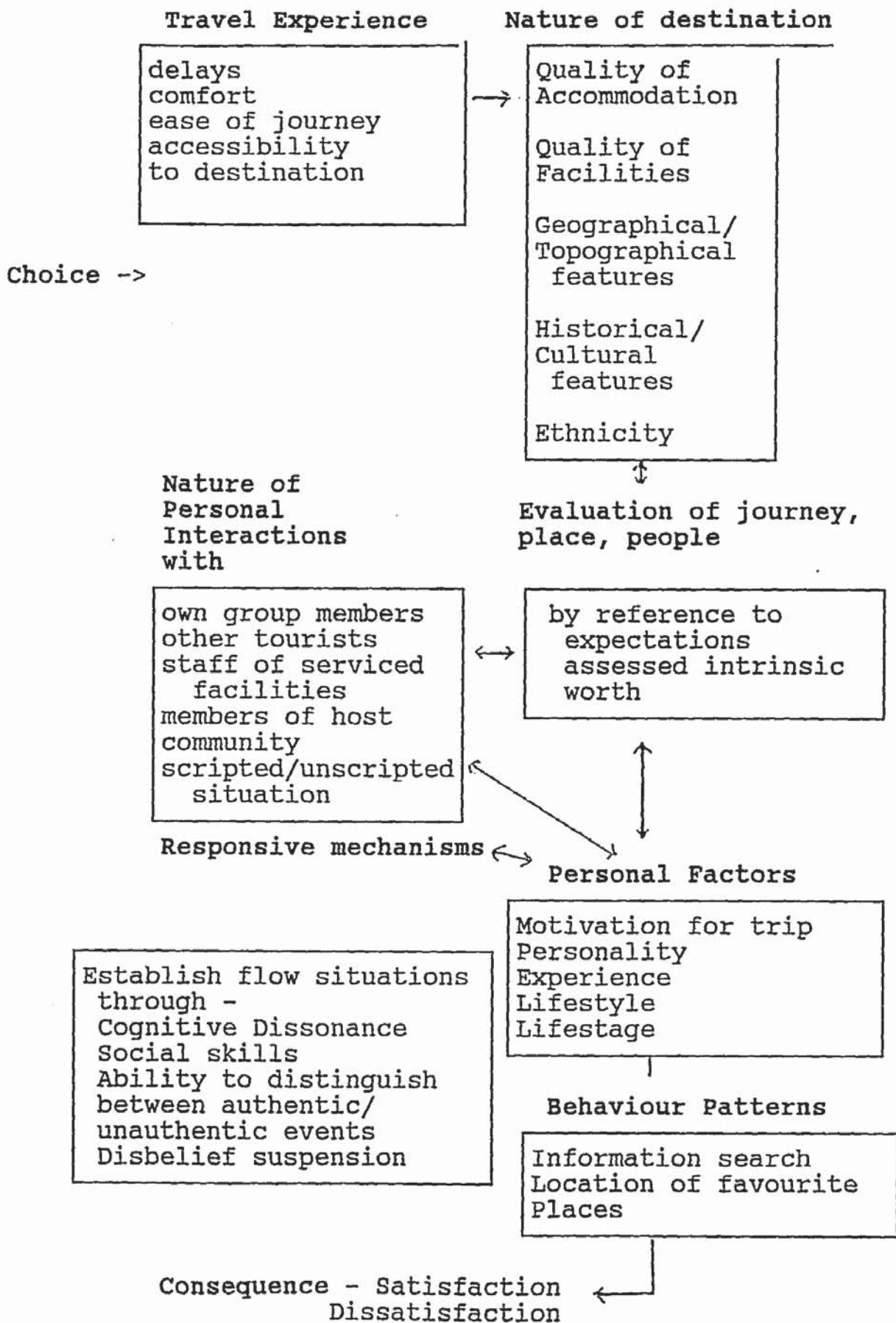
This scenario may be true of mass package holidays, but is not necessarily true of all types of holidays. For the 'explorer' type of tourist, the actual journey may be the purpose and rationale of the holiday. Indeed, acceptable levels of discomfort might actually enhance satisfaction with the holiday. Furthermore, the journey, like the rest of the holiday, consists of a series of events, and to refer to satisfaction with the trip as a whole implies a process of compensating between 'highs' and 'lows'. In short, inherent characteristics of the journey do not retain constant values, but can only be evaluated by reference to the tourists' needs and expectations.

The same is true of the destination tourist zone.

Conventionally the tourist literature refers to destination attributes as having different appeals to different types of tourists (Cohen, 1972; Plog, 1977). Although a number of writers (eg Gyte, 1988; Ryan, 1991) have sought to modify this by reference to changing tourist behaviour within a tourist zone, or from evidence of search behaviour by tourists in terms of physical exploration of sites, (Cooper, 1981). It is nonetheless recognised that the nature of the tourist destination is an important variable in determining



Figure 5.2 The Process of Creating Tourist Satisfaction



satisfaction. It is the milieu of the goal seeking behaviour, and must permit the sought goals to be achieved. If it does not possess this potential, the tourist will be dissatisfied. Thus, the inherent characteristics of the destination are evaluated against this matrix of needs, and expectations.

Figure 5.2 may thus be explained as follows. Once a choice has been made, the tourist experiences travel to the destination. This travel is itself part of the holiday, although historically regarded as travail rather than a pleasure; today the travel may be pleasurable, or indeed still retain elements of hardship as is noted in the comments and evidence from the survey results reported below. Whatever the experience, the tourist commences a process of evaluation, which is continued upon first sight of the holiday destination and accommodation.

However, the tourist is no passive party simply receiving perceptions. He or she is able to react with the environment, and negotiate with its component parts, and the evaluations include perceptions of significant others at the destination. These include representatives of the holiday company, the local people with whom they come in contact, and often of significance, the other tourists whose company they will share. The process of exploration and evaluation is thus not only one of place, but of people, and hence exploration is both physical and psychological.

These processes lead to a series of confirmations and disconfirmations of the original expectations, and an evaluation of whether initial motivations for the holiday will be achieved. People will then begin to engage in processes of re-valuation and re-assessment - a revaluation of the place that will often accentuate the positive, and a reassessment of motivations and needs to ensure that the goal of a satisfactory holiday is achieved. In this respect the very complexity of needs is an advantage. Most holiday destinations are capable of meeting some needs, and hence if needs of peace and quiet might be denied, alternative social needs of friendship might instead be achieved. In this way, dependent upon the strength of the original need and the adaptability of the tourist, high levels of holiday satisfaction might be recorded.

In referring to the expectations and motivations of the holidaymaker, these can be categorised as being the needs of relaxation, social and intellectual needs and an opportunity to demonstrate skills of mastery and competence. That is the needs are formulated according to the Leisure Motivation Scale of Ragheb and Beard. As indicated in the review of the literature, these needs are consistent with holiday motivations described by other authors, and furthermore the scale represents a credible form of measurement inasmuch as it has been replicated in other studies and found to be consistent over periods of up to five years.

### Causes of a lack of satisfaction

However, significant sources of dissatisfaction can still remain, and automatic holiday satisfaction cannot be assumed for a number of reasons. A destination may possess the right type of attributes, but still not generate a satisfactory holiday experience. For example, the holidaymaker might perceive the destination as lacking in quality. A mass tourist might view a zone as possessing hotels, bars, clubs, beaches etc, but also perceives them as being 'tacky', or over-priced, or otherwise not delivering 'value for money'.

A second reason for dissatisfaction might lie in the nature of the interactions between tourist and significant others. For example, the 'explorer' might find a destination to be 'authentically ethnic', but is unable, in McCannell's (1976) terms, to penetrate the 'back room'. The failure to establish contact with local people at what is thought to be a 'meaningful' level will leave the tourist frustrated, and hence dissatisfied. Equally, the mass organised tourist returning to a destination which is known to meet needs in terms of both product mix and quality of provision, might have a less than satisfactory experience because of a failure to get on well with fellow tourists. Also, although both staff and destination characteristics remain the same, the staff cannot sustain the same quality of service as fatigue occurs on the part of service providers. Thus, the quality of the product towards the end of the high season

might not be as high as at the beginning of the season (or at the end of season when pressures abate). (It is for this reason that some tour operators switch personnel at mid season as an attempt to retain 'fresh staff' on site).

However, the model does not predict that satisfaction will be generated by a gap between expectation and perceived reality at the time of the initial meeting of tourist and destination. It argues that there will be a process of information acquisition, evaluation of that information, and a process of either changing evaluations of place and/or behaviour. For example, the 'explorer' finds that the destination is more built up than expected, and thus either accepts the destination on its own terms, decides to have a 'relaxing' holiday by the swimming pool, and hence returns both physically relaxed and satisfied, or they decide to use the destination as a base from which to explore surrounding areas, or might in fact even leave the area altogether. Alternatively, they may complain bitterly to the tour operator. The model postulates a process of site evaluation, and a process incorporating an ability to suspend disbelief and a search for alternative and more satisfactory sources of potential goal solution. It does postulate a model of the tourist as a goal seeking, active participant making either internal motivational and external behaviour changes where initial expectations are not met.

### A model of satisfaction - not behaviour

Finally, it must be noted that the model outlined on page 153 is, at best, only a partial model. The outcome with which it is concerned is a measure of satisfaction, not of behaviour. The link between satisfaction and behaviour is viewed as an iterative process. That is, where performance meets or exceeds expectation, satisfaction is deemed to be an outcome. Where performance is inferior to expectation, then it is expected that adaptive behaviour results to achieve satisfaction because the motivation for satisfaction of wants is high within the holiday context. Where it is not possible to achieve those initial wants, alternative wants are substituted, behaviour changes, and again the goal is the satisfaction of those alternative wants. The consequence of achieving satisfaction from the holiday as to future holiday behaviour is not explored. Rather there is an implicit assumption that the link between satisfaction with a given type of holiday and repeat purchase of that holiday is, in fact, weak. The assumption is that holiday makers use different types of holidays to meet different types of needs. The realisation of a satisfactory holiday is no guarantee of a repeat purchase. Repeat purchases may be a function of a changing prioritisation of the needs that motivate holidays, or the ability of a holiday type to meet different needs. Those needs are primarily determined not by the nature of past holiday experience, but by other socio-economic factors such as lifestyle, lifestage and the interpretation of the resultant experiences through the

psychological network formulated by personality and learning abilities.

The model also lends credence to the theories of Plog (1977, 1990) in that specific destinations will be selected by tourists because those destinations possess the attributes that permit the fulfilment of primary leisure motivations.

Having generally discussed some of the implications of the model, the question arises, does it help to formulate specific hypotheses that can be tested? Briefly the model utilises a gap analysis approach drawn from the Servqual model that satisfaction is a consequence of expectation being met. The components of expectation, and the criteria against which performance will be judged is composed of two types of attributes. Extrinsic attributes refer to specific tangibles of the holiday destination - namely accommodation, scenic and other valued physical and cultural components of the destination, the types of people that reside in the resort (both indigenous people and other visitors). Intrinsic attributes refer to the motivations, which can be categorised on the basis of the four clusters described by Ragheb and Beard.

#### Propositions for analysis

It is now possible to formulate a series of specific propositions. These are:

- 1) satisfaction arises from the perceived attributes of the destination matching expectation;
- 2) expectation is formulated by reference to four primary leisure motivations, as described by the Ragheb and Beard Leisure Motivation Scale, namely components relating to:
  - intellectual;
  - social;
  - competence-mastery;
  - stimulus-avoidance needs.
- 3) the destination selected by a holidaymaker will possess attributes that match the primary source of motivation for that holidaymaker;
- 4) Experience is an important determinant for obtaining a successful holiday. This is because the more experienced the holidaymaker, the better is the match between primary motivation source and destination attributes, and the better the match between perception and expectation. One sign of the importance of experience is that, compared with experienced holidaymakers, less experienced holiday makers will tend to have lower satisfaction scores, and a higher standard deviation in such scores. Their lower ability to correctly match destination with motivation will lead to a greater chance of disappointment or



expectation being surpassed, hence the greater variation in the distribution of satisfaction scores; It can also be argued that more experienced holidaymakers will tend to show less evidence of adjustment behaviours at the holiday destination. Their greater ability to select destinations that match needs requires less exploration as a sign of search behaviour designed to overcome initial disappointment.

Three further indications of the importance of experience might also be identified, namely:

the more experienced the traveller, the smaller is the number of holiday destinations considered prior to choice;

the more experienced the tourist, the more homogeneous is the selection of holiday destinations considered before a choice is made.

from the concept of the 'travel career' it is expected that more experienced holidaymakers will score more highly on intellectual motivations;

- 6) If levels of expectation are low, the congruence between expectation and perception is not prima facie evidence of satisfaction. Under such circumstances alternative measures of satisfaction are required.

Additionally there exists a need to explain why a holidaymaker might wish to undertake a holiday that does not fulfil well the primary motivations of relaxation, social fulfilment, intellectual needs and mastery contained within the Leisure Motivation Scale.

Hence it is proposed that not all decisions are optimal, but a series of second best decisions might occur, where a holiday is chosen as not being 'ideal', but being 'satisfactory' under a range of constraints upon choice. These constraints include available time, income, or the need to consider the opinions or wishes of significant others such as the presence of children or partners with different needs.

It can be argued that the needs of significant others are contained within the social dimension of the motivations, but a distinction might be made between minimising potential social discord through compromise of holiday choice, and optimising social interaction with others of like mind and interest. A qualitative difference exists. In order to examine this it can be proposed that where constraints upon choice are identified by respondents as being important, lower levels of satisfaction might be recorded;

- 7) where there is initial disappointment in the holiday, higher levels of satisfaction are associated with

higher levels of search behaviour;  
The questionnaire therefore had to contain questions that permitted these propositions to be tested. The construction of the questionnaire thus forms the subject matter of chapter seven.

Introduction

As described in chapter eight, the main source of data was a questionnaire posted to 6,000 addresses. Prior to this process, substantial time was spent in devising the questions, with attention being paid to the technical components of questionnaire design, the means of obtaining a large enough sample and the ways in which the questionnaire would test the theories being developed. This chapter considers the following factors, viz

- a) the subject matter of the questions;
- b) the lay-out and design of the questionnaire; and
- c) the underlying theoretical constructs with reference
  - i) the nature of the investigation and
  - ii) the methods of analysis to be used.

The chapter also reviews some of the issues relating to questionnaire design by briefly summarising research findings. In part, this review is eclectic in the sense that it does not purport to be exhaustive, but rather relates to those factors specific to measuring tourist attitudes through postal questionnaires. Through past experience, and in undertaking a literature review for this work, it seemed that research into problems of questionnaire design is itself bedeviled by various problems. These include:

a) questions of comparability.

Studies relating to, for example, the usefulness of prenotification of a survey as a means of increasing response rates, often refer to different subjects and types of samples. Much of the work relates to commercial market research, and thus might not be applicable to academic research in that respondents might have different perceptions and attitudes towards the two types of surveys.

A related problem is:

b) questions of methodology.

These issues are also divisible as follows:

- a) research into the same issue can utilise different methodologies; and
- b) research utilising the same techniques when examining the same issues may not be a replication of the original due to minor, but important differences.

For example it will be noted that studies relating to the effectiveness of labelling and the number of divisions in scales refer to different types of scales. The problem of comparison is often further compounded by inherent differences in methods being studied. Where the methodologies are uniform they can differ as to a third consideration, namely:

c) questions of interpretation

Statistical tests used can vary considerably in their

sophistication, from the simple use of percentages to express differences, to complex methods of measuring significance of those differences. Schlegelmich and Diamantopoulos (1991) also draw attention to what they call a 'balance' problem, where some reports of studies omit cases that are contrary to the researcher's theme. In some cases, transcription errors arise.

Finally, a brief review of some issues relating to statistical techniques is undertaken. This review is discusses the contention that the development of a research instrument such as a questionnaire requires an integrated approach. This approach should a) incorporate an underlying concept or model - a series of hypotheses - that is being tested, b) appropriate methods of analysis that are considered prior to, and not after the design of the questionnaire has been written, and, of course, c) questions appropriately formulated. Additionally, research design needs consideration of the sample to be used.

#### LAYOUT AND DESIGN - General concerns

Questionnaire design is important. In part, results can be no better than the way and means in which the question is posed. Once respondents have replied, there is generally little opportunity to go back to them to clarify responses, or to correct possible misinterpretation of questions. This highlights the importance of a pilot questionnaire.

A number of general statements might be made about questionnaire design. In short, it can be contended that a questionnaire must:

- a) be interesting to the respondent, and be able to maintain that interest. Alternatively, a benefit might be offered to the respondent.
- b) logical development of the subject matter is necessary for both respondent interest and consistency of reply;
- c) the questionnaire must not be so long as to fatigue respondents;
- d) individual questions must be clear and address a single issue;
- e) questions must relate to the respondent's ability to provide data;
- f) there must be a means of classifying respondents that is pertinent to the study - this usually entails personal information, and conventionally is left to the end of the questionnaire. However, if there is a need to filter out certain types of respondents, such questions may occur early in the questionnaire;

g) simple language must be used - this requires the avoidance of technical terms; the avoidance of ambiguity. The search for specificity can, however, give rise to overlong questions as the questionnaire seeks to specify a particular set of circumstances. In short, there is a need for care. A common occurrence where specificity is required arises when seeking information about frequency of events where there is a need to specify a time period. For example, the questions:

- i) how many holidays do you take a year on average?
- ii) how many holidays did you take last year?

are superior to simply asking 'how many holidays do you normally take?', but each could produce different responses. In practice, it is thought that the responses to both questions are likely to be similar (Belson, 1964)

- h) avoid leading questions;
- i) carefully consider the order of questions - for example, if there is a need to assess the frequency of an event, it is better to insert this question before eliciting opinion about the event. To elicit opinion prior to requesting information



about frequency of behaviour can often lead to an over- or under-recording due to the respondent answering by reference to perceived norms of social acceptance, social status or possibly the levels of enjoyment associated with the event; and

- j) questions must be realistic in terms of the ability of the respondent to recall behaviour.

A number of other questions relating to questionnaires must also be considered. For example:

- a) are questions going to be closed or open-ended? The debate about the relative merits of each has been well rehearsed in a number of standard texts (eg Oppenheim, 1966; Moser and Kalton, 1989). Pre-coded questions offer advantages in terms of computer analysis, but may generate a loss of qualitative information. Much depends on whether or not the range of alternative answers are known prior to the questionnaire being constructed.
- b) What scales are going to be used? As noted above, three related questions are involved - the type of scale, the number of its divisions, and how it is labelled.

## Scaling

### The nature of scales

The advantages of the above mentioned scales and others such as the Thurstone and Guttman Scales, are generally well covered in the texts relating to questionnaire design, and hence only some of the more important issues will be briefly described as they pertain to the actual scales used. Osgood (1957) suggests scales whereby the extremes of the continua are described by opposite adjectives (eg good vs bad, hot vs cold, fast vs slow). Analyzing their results, Osgood and his colleagues concluded that the most dominant factor had high loadings on polar adjectives such as good-bad, positive-negative and true-false - that is, they were evaluative in nature. A second factor emerged, entitled 'potency' and was described by adjectives such as hard-soft, strong-weak and heavy-light. The third factor was 'activity' and referred to the continua active-passive, fast-slow and hot-cold. With reference to attitude measurement Osgood argues that the evaluative factor is the most importance, and hence an attitude scale can be devised by use of bi-polar adjectives incorporating evaluative criteria.

The type of scale chosen is thus related to underlying concepts of attitude measurement, and the relationship with multi-attribute theory discussed in chapter two is evident. The use of Likert and Semantic Scales possess the advantages of easily lending themselves to descriptive statistics. It

is possible to compute average scores for the sample and required sub-samples that not only permit comparisons, but allow the use of techniques such as t-tests and F-tests to assess the significance of differences. Response and acquiescence sets can also be allowed for by the use of t-tests where an 'universal' mean is calculated. For this study a Likert type scale was adopted for ease of response, while the characteristics of potency etc were covered in part by the multi-attribute/gap testing procedure adopted.

The numbers of divisions and labels

At least two further aspects of scaling need to be briefly considered. The first is the number of divisions used and the second is the labelling of such divisions. In order for any calculation to be undertaken the scales must be other than nominal in type, that is the scale does more than simply categorise groups. The conventional criticism of ordinal scales is that the respondent may have little difficulty in identifying, say, the most popular location, but the choice between second and third might, from their viewpoint, be difficult. A simple ranking of 1, 2 and 3, gives no information as to the nature of such thought processes. Moser and Kalton (1989:359) review the traditional concerns as follows:

A decision to be made with rating scales is the number of scale points to use: if the scale is divided too finely the respondents will be unable to place themselves, and if too coarsely the scale will not differentiate adequately between them. Often five to seven categories are employed, but sometimes the number is greater. The choice between an odd or even number depends on whether or not respondents are to be forced to decide the direction of their attitude; with an odd

number there is a middle category representing a neutral position, but with an even number there is no middle category, so that respondents are forced to decide to which side of neutral they belong. Another factor to take into account in fixing the number of categories is that respondents generally avoid the two extreme positions, thus effectively reducing the number they choose between'.

Two additional comments can be made. If the researcher is seeking to replicate previous research findings then it may be necessary to repeat the previous researcher's questionnaire, even if it is felt that this would unnecessarily restrict respondent choice. This may be important in, for example, comparing scores or establishing reliability by use of alpha coefficients or other similar measures.

Second, the author has found that the use of the neutral point reinforces the central tendency through respondents using it to record what in effect is a 'no-opinion' response as distinct from a genuine neutral stance. Arguably there is a real distinction between, on the one hand, some-one being knowledgeable about the subject, and the item being perceived as being of a 'neutral weighting', and, on the other hand, the respondent who, because they have no experience of the product, scores the mid-point because there is no other option open to them. The score of 3 on the 5 point scale thus represents very different realities, yet is interpreted as being the same for statistical purposes. Furthermore, if a sizeable minority of the sample is 'inexperienced', it can reinforce the tendency to the mid-point. Therefore there needs to be either clear

instructions indicating to respondents that they may omit items if they feel unable to comment, or there is a column which they might use to record a 'not appropriate'. Yet, even this strategy is also open to problems for it might encourage a nil response where attitudinal responses are required. This could be important if perceptions are being sought on the basis that what is 'perceived' is as important as the 'objective reality' of the situation being examined.

One problem to be considered is the descriptors to be used. Gendall, Esslemont and Day (1991) examined this issue. Their study compared labelling over an eleven point scale with responses gained from a non-verbal, probability-only scale. A sample of 1209 households was used, with the Juster Scale being used to predict consumer purchases. The sample was followed up three months later to ask which consumer durables had been purchased over the intervening period. Ten consumer durables were being considered. In seven of the cases 'the standard Juster Scale produced lower predictive errors than the probability-only scale' (Gendall, Esslemont and Day, 1991:259). The authors conclude:

The standard Juster Scale produced slightly more accurate purchase predictions than the probability-only scale, although the evidence for the former's superior predictive power was not conclusive. However, responses to the standard scale were more evenly distributed and non-response levels were consistently lower for the standard scale than for the modified scale. Furthermore, it was clear that at least some respondents were not entirely comfortable with pure numeric scales....' (Gendall, Esslemont and Day, 1991:262)

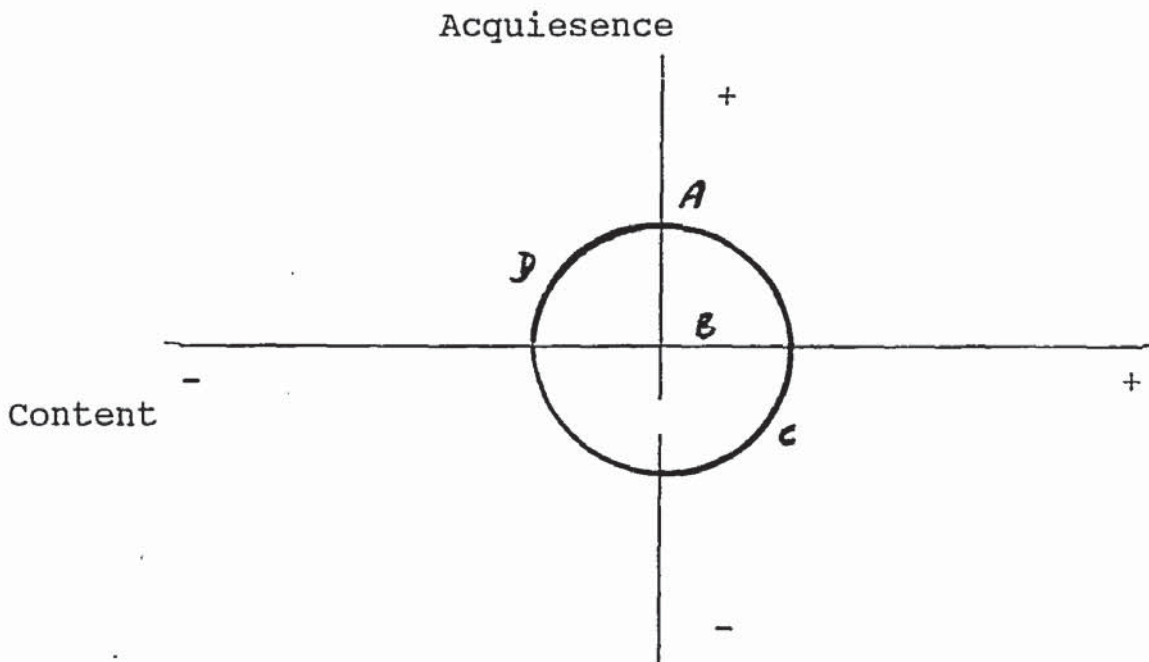
These results are consistent with those of Garland (1990) in his comparison of various semantic differential scales, some of which contained descriptors and others which did not.

#### The problem of Acquiescence sets

The question of acquiescence sets has been considered for at least 50 years. Since Cronbach's work of 1946, experimenters and test designers have been aware of the possibility of a response set operating that creates a general tendency for the subject to accept or reject items. Acquiescence is a response set that may determine a reply to a question where that reply is, to some extent, independent of the content of the statement. Indeed responses to a particular statement can be determined by many factors: the content, chance, the alternatives available, the mode of testing, external stimuli, and the juxtaposition of items being but some.

Of all response sets the acquiescence factor is probably one of the more difficult to quantify, and Berg (1967) indicates why in a series of figures. In figure 6.1 A will signify agreement on the basis of personality trait, whilst B does so on the basis of belief or knowledge. D could misrepresent the respondent's 'true' position as to content. C is finely balanced by a tendency to agree on the basis of content, counterbalanced by a trait towards disagreement. Such respondents may therefore show low test-retest reliability.

Figure 6.1 The problem of Acquiescence Sets



Arguably, if respondents' content and response style differ, it is not legitimate to collapse the two into one score.

Couch and Heniston (1960) indicate that personality differences do exist between what they term as 'yea sayers' and 'nay sayers' - the former are impulsive, emotional, under-controlled, stimulus accepting and extrovert, - while nay-sayers are cautious, rational, intellectually controlled, stimulus rejecting introverts. On the F-Scale for dogmatism they found that 'yea saying' accounted for 14% of the variance in scores.

One method for attempting to assess how important acquiescence might be is to use reverse questioning for part of the sample for comparative purposes. But reversal poses

three sets of problems. The first is to identify a logical opposite. In some instances this is quite easy. For example, 'I like going on holidays', can easily be reversed into 'I do not like going on holidays'. However, in many examples the simple insertion of the word 'not' does not suffice. Thus the second problem of difficulties of syntax and semantics might emerge - in short the problem of trying to propose a statement that is logically opposite may create increasingly complex worded questions.

Third, in addition to being logically opposite, the question needs to be 'psychologically' opposite. As one seeks to assess more complex sets of attitudes and emotions, the more this problem emerges.

There are reasons for believing that the verbal content of questions is, however, a much more important determinant of responses than any form of response set. For example, Christie, Havel and Seidenburg (1956:155) comment that:

'although the weight of evidence indicates that responses to the F scale are affected by response set, it does not support the notion that response set is the primary determinant.'

Such a finding, albeit specific to the F-Scale, is generally significant for attitude questionnaires as the F-Scale is one of a series that seeks to assess degrees of dogmatism and stereotyping in thinking patterns. If, within this subject where response sets might be thought to be more marked due to the nature of 'dogmatism', it appears (albeit



contrary to Couch and Heniston, 1960) to be relatively unimportant, it is likely to be even less important on less emotionally sensitive topics.

Another method of seeking to assess the extent to which subjects are agreeing for reasons other than an evaluation of the content of the questionnaire is simply changing the order of items in the questionnaire. Berg (1967) suggests, however, that:

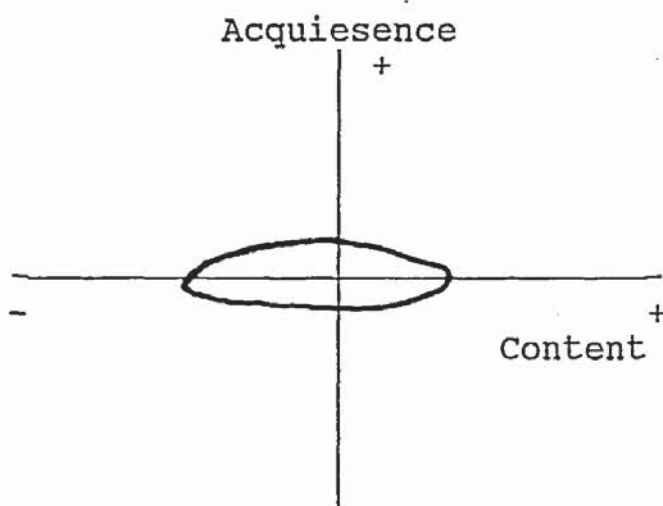
'the data suggests that reversing the sequence in which items are presented has little or no effect on the agreement responses produced to them... the conclusion is rather inescapable that the most likely explanation of these response patterns is the verbal content of the item.'

It can be contended that a factor contributing towards the development of acquiescence sets is simply the wording itself. In short, difficult and ambiguous items are required to elicit the acquiescence set. It would appear that the weight of evidence would suggest that where respondents are conversant with both the subject and wording of questionnaires, their responses tend to those shown in diagram 6.2a. That is, response set is determined primarily by the content of items themselves. If, however, the questionnaire is either about subjects with which they are unfamiliar, or expressed in a language with which they are not comfortable, or possibly where the topic is perceived as being sensitive, then responses might come to be dominated by acquiescence sets as indicated in figure 6.3b.

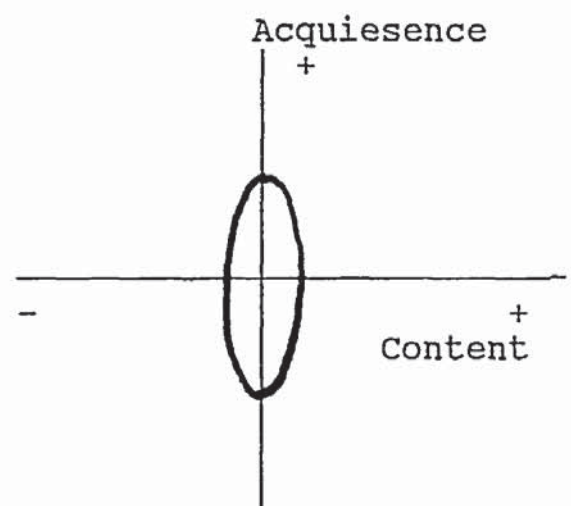
A question related to acquiescence sets is whether the location of favourable adjectives on semantic scales affects responses. Holmes (1974) reports that in a sample of 240 beer drinkers, comparing left-right with right-left scales, there was a definite bias towards the left side of the scales. Friedman, Friedman and Gluck (1988), examined three situations - a) where favourable

Figure 6.2  
 Domination by Content or Acquiescence - a diagrammatic representation

a) Domination by Content  
 by Acquiescence



b) Domination



adjectives were placed on the left hand side of the page, b) where the favourable adjectives were consistently located on the right hand side of the page, and c) where a mixture of locations were used. The sample was one of university students asked to assess features of their university life. A five-point scale was used, and there were no significant differences between the overall mean scores, although significant differences did occur on individual items. The authors concluded:

Randomly mixing right-to-left and left-to-right scales had the effect of reducing the inter-correlations among ten items in the semantic differential scale. On the other hand, placing all the favourable descriptors on the left side of the semantic differential scale had the effect of shifting responses to the left, that is, toward the more favourable side of the scale. Placing all the favourable descriptors on the right side of the semantic differential scale appeared to produce less than consistent results.

Thus placing all the favourable descriptors on the left side of the scales would seem to have a possible biasing effect. Researchers are advised to use 'mixed' scales in order to minimise this bias'. (Friedman, Friedman and Gluck, 1988:480)

The complete questionnaire is not included in their report, but the semantic differential scales appear to have been applied to ten items. One of the customary reasons why consistency in either left-right or right-left scales is used is that whilst mixing scales may produce, logically, valid results, they also tend to confuse respondents. To that extent, the Friedman, Friedman and Gluck study seems to invalidate this argument, except that the number of scales used seem to have been limited, whilst secondly the sample used is not representative of the wider population.

Arguably, confusion can be avoided by consistency of scale direction, but reliability can be assessed by replication of the topic. The problem with this procedure is that it may unduly lengthen the questionnaire.

#### Response Rates

The marketing literature contains a number of articles concerning means by which response rates to postal questionnaires can be increased. Postal questionnaires contain many advantages with reference to implementation.

It is possible to carefully specify the sample profile by utilising geo-demographics and/or psychographic profiles based on post code databases. They are easy to undertake, and can be very time effective in obtaining data from large sample sets quite quickly. They are also effective in terms of labour; a single researcher can quite easily and quickly obtain a sample that is both valid in size and composition. They can be cost effective in obtaining quantitative data. For example, a postal questionnaire, including printing and mailing costs can be less than £2 per person mailed, and given a 20 per cent response rate, still cost less than £10 per response. The use of a field interviewer undertaking individual surveys would normally cost a minimum of £10 per respondent.

But these advantages of postal questionnaires are nullified if the response rate is too small and un-representative. A number of methods to increase response rates have been used. Dommeyer (1989) found that 'offering mail survey results to respondents in a cover letter or lift letter does not increase the rate or speed of response, and has only a minor effect on reducing the number of item omissions' (Dommeyer, 1989:406). He comments that whilst having no effect on response rates, it does increase the number of requests for results! In an earlier study in 1985 the same author hypothesised that the level of interest of the questionnaire was a factor in determining response rates. In constructing a 'boring' and 'interesting' questionnaire, and randomly

distributing them to university students, he found no effect on the response rates.

Another method used is that of some form of monetary award. Since the current researcher is struggling for funds, it was heartening to note the results of the study of Dommeyer, 1988. A comparison was made between a control group with no monetary inducement, the use of a 25c coin, a 25c cheque, a 25c money order, a promise of refunding post paid costs to respondents, and the chance to enter a sweepstake. (25c was the relevant cost of postage). The response rates to each of these methods were 37%, 50%, 37%, 38%, 33% and 30%. Mosher (1968) would argue that the success of the coin was due to the fact that people experience feelings of guilt when they violate internalised standards of proper conduct.

One of the commonest methods used to increase response rates is pre-notifying respondents of the survey. Murphy, Daley and Dalenburg (1991) report that in two cases, the use of a post card prenotifying potential respondents of the survey increased response rates from 10.67% to 16.51%, and from 19.54% to 27.60% - the measures of significance being  $p=0.07$ , and the second,  $p=0.046$ . Whilst having a significant effect on response rates, they note that 'Prenotification by postcard did not significantly increase response speeds nor did it significantly influence response quality' (Murphy, Daley and Dalenburg, 1991:341)

Peterson, Albaum and Kerin (1989) assessed the effect on response rates of the varying numbers of contacts made with respondents. These contacts included pre-notification (either by postcard or letter), follow up (once or twice, again by postcard or letter), as well as the actual sending of the questionnaire. Their results are indicated in table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Effect of Number of Contacts on Response Rates



source:-Peterson R A, Albaum G and Kerin R A, 1989, A note on alternative contact strategies in mail surveys, Journal of Market Research Society, vol 31, no 3, July, p414

It can be argued that the prenotification is but a crude means of establishing what has been termed as the 'foot-in-the-door approach' (Kamins, 1989). Kamins describes the foundation of this method as follows:

'With a basis in self perception theory ... and Kelley's discounting principle, the foot-in-the-door technique involves gaining a subject's compliance with a small request (the foot) with the goal of obtaining subsequent compliance with a much larger request..... The idea is that people make self attributions conditional upon observations of their own behaviour and the situational context in which the behaviour occurs. Hence, if a person willingly agrees ... to perform a small request .... he/she is likely to develop a self perception of being helpful and compliant.' (Kamins, 1989:273).

In his study five experimental conditions were observed. In each case the main questionnaire was of a postal self completion type.

a) the solicitation control group - subjects were telephoned and simply asked if they would complete a questionnaire. The response rate was 48.51%.

b) the simple foot condition - respondents were asked four questions on the telephone and then asked if they would respond to a questionnaire. The final response rate was 52%.

c) the probe foot condition - this was the same as in the simple foot condition, except that respondents were asked their reasons for their replies. The response rate to the questionnaire was 60.78%.

d) the labelled probe foot condition - in this case the same procedure was followed as for the probe foot condition, but in the follow up postal questionnaire a covering letter made specific reference to the respondent in the following terms:

'Thanks for your help, you are a very cooperative and helpful individual. I wish that more people would be as willing to participate in important research studies as you were' (Kamins, 1989:278)

Under these conditions the response rate increased to 71.57%.

Kamins subsequently examined the hypothesis that such an approach might generate differences in the actual response patterns, and concludes that:

'only one importance measure out of 69 comparisons .... revealed a significant effect at  $p < 0.05$  .... it can be concluded that the pre-contact conditions administered did not differentially affect the subject's actual response and hence resulted in no significant response bias.'  
(Kamins, 1989:281).

What then can be concluded from this review? Basically it would seem that prenotification does increase response rates. The nature of the prenotification is also important. Offers to forward results have little effect on response rates. Small inducements have limited effects. From the practical viewpoint of a lone researcher attempting to undertake a postal questionnaire with limited funds, the ability to undertake prenotification by letter or telephone is obviously limited. However, 'foot in the door' techniques can be used, albeit to a limited effect. What Kamins does show is that the message of the covering letter can be important in increasing response rates. However, what he does not cover is whether or not the nature of the sample is itself changed by the foot-in-the-door methods he advocates. Whilst, in his study, this could be controlled by the researcher in terms of the selection of respondents to match a sampling frame, this is not open to the user of a one-shot postal survey. Alternative strategies can exist. The first is the use of a targeted mail shot. Ryan (1991) found this to be effective when seeking to assess the



attitudes of a specific geo-demographic group interested in cruise holidays, and obtained a response rate of 54%.

#### The use of geo-demographics for generating samples

The problems involved in sampling are well described in any text book on statistics. Hence this section will initially summarise the findings of Marsh and Scarborough (1990) with reference to potential biases that can occur within samples. Second, since it is intended that the sample will be drawn from the geo-demographic data summarised in chapter two, issues surrounding geo-demographics as a means of sampling will be briefly reviewed.

Marsh and Scarborough (1990) forward nine hypotheses commonly maintained in the marketing literature. These are that quota samples are biased:

- a) towards the accessible;
- b) against small households;
- c) towards households with children;
- d) against low status individuals;
- e) against workers in manufacturing;
- f) against extremes of income;
- g) against the less educated,

while random samples are biased against:

- a) employed people;
- b) against men when compared with quota sampling.

Marsh and Scarborough then report their findings with reference to each of these contentions, and conclude,

broadly speaking, that the position is in fact more complex than at first sight appears. Certainly, it would appear that it is more difficult to contact males, but otherwise many of the above contentions cannot be supported, or if so, important caveats need to be made. They comment:

'Our general conclusion, then, is that random and quota samples are different, but not entirely in the way predicted in the literature. And if our experiment suggests that the existing literature does not give a definitive account of the performance of quota sampling, there may be other methodological questions which, similarly, need to be kept under review' (Marsh and Scarborough, 1990: 502).

They conclude that it is therefore important that survey researchers should use their surveys to answer methodological questions. From the viewpoint of this study, an important consideration will have to be the nature of the actual respondents as against the sample frame, and a comparison with what is known of the socio-economic background of holidaymakers. What is evident from the geodemographic data provided by CCN Marketing (see chapter two), and from the surveys undertaken by the national Tourist Boards as reported in the United Kingdom Tourism Survey (UKTS), the market for holiday-taking is significantly skewed towards higher income social classes.

In cases where there is a known bias within the population, Baker (1989) argues that whilst not the 'universal panacea', geodemographic systems offer significant advantages as a tool for disproportional sampling. He notes that '... the sampler is free to over-sample areas of high product potential whilst having the facility to calculate the likely

effects on standard errors' (1989:41). From the viewpoint of the subject matter of this work, it is also worth noting his argument that geodemographics are of significant help in minority product sampling - a factor that might be of interest to those concerned with market research into niche holiday products. Sleight and Levanthal (1989) also make the same point - 'Geographic targeting can be a highly effective tool for identifying the likely members of a minority population' (1989:82).

From a practical viewpoint the advantages of using geodemographics for constructing a sample has been demonstrated in the development of the Businessman Readership Survey and the National Readership Survey. Cornish (1989) notes that in 1986 ACORN was used for the first time with a resultant improvement in discrimination, and that from 1988 MOSAIC was used as it proved to be an even more powerful discriminator (Cornish, 1989:47).

This raises the question, are there significant differences between the different geo-demographic systems? In establishing the sample for the 'One in a Hundred' top income earners survey conducted by Harris Research, Sleight and Leventhal found that though Pin and ACORN performed best, 'all the classification systems are statistically highly significant (and) this analysis does not tell us much about how well they would perform in practice and whether some systems are superior to others only in particular

circumstances' (1989:87). In general most of their analysis is at the broad grouping level, ie, in, for example the case of MOSAIC, it is operating at the 10 lifestyle groupings stage rather than the full 58 MOSAIC typing level, and hence their results are limited to this analysis. They specifically add that the comparisons are 'to illustrate the available evaluatory techniques and should not be used in isolation to judge the different systems' (Sleight and Levantahl, 1989:89).

Humby (1989:55) offers further evidence of the ability of geo-demographic systems to generate highly effective sample sets. Seeking, say high income, AB groups, by using a random sample, then one would expect that if 10% of the population is sampled, 10% of those so sampled would fall into the target groups. Using ACORN, he argues, it is possible to select 26% of the target market from a sample of 10% of the population, and 44% of the target AB groups can be reached from sampling 20% of the population.

What is worth noting is his point that geo-demographics omit one important variable that would significantly improve sample construction, and that is age. He notes that if age is added to geo-demographic data, then on a sample of 10% of the population, it becomes possible to increase penetration of American Express holders from 30% to 44%. An intermediate stage in improving accuracy was the construction of MONICA by CACI, but this has been bypassed

by more recent techniques. Many market research companies such as BMRB are now able to offer an analysis of product purchasers by not only geodemographics, but also by psychographics. In the case of BMRB they offer not only ACORN but also OUTLOOK classifications, whilst CCN Marketing, drawing on the National Shoppers Survey of CMT Ltd, offer MOSAIC overlaid by Persona. Persona is a psychographic, or in their terminology, a 'behaviourgraphic' profile of consumers based on conventional psychographic variables. These include, as was described by Plummer in 1971, data as to behaviour, opinions, values and demographics. In discussion with personnel from CCN, it would appear that at present, selection of a sample based purely upon Persona would not be recommended, but overlaying MOSAIC with Persona profiles which can be mapped on a geographic basis does represent significant advances on solely geo-demographic data. Currently it is being primarily used for catchment area assessment for retail and financial services.

Persona, at the time of the sampling (February 1992) was still in its first year of commercial use. Attempting to construct sample sets from Persona alone would pose problems. Unlike MOSAIC it does not include primary data relating to all post code sectors - rather gaps must be 'filled in' by use of data fusion techniques. It is also the opinion of this author that, whilst sufficient as a

complement to MOSAIC, the original data obtained from the National Shoppers Survey (NSS) is, in fact, limited. Certainly this is the case compared to the 192 lifestyle questions of the Target Group Index (TGI) which underlies the Outlook system. In addition, whilst the NSS has a much larger sample base than the TGI (over 3 million responses were used in the construction of Persona), it contains biases - for example more females complete it than males - and hence again data fusion techniques need to be used. Baker, Harris and O'Brien (1989:211) comment that 'the accuracy of the fusion process is a function of the size of the donor file' and hence there is a need to utilise as much NSS data as is possible, but in doing so, the time scale relating to the collection of the data expands, thereby creating the possibility that aggregated data contains responses that hide changing social conditions.

Accordingly, in the current study, the sample has been drawn from geo-demographic data only. In practice, this was a decision not based on grounds relating to the quality of 'Persona', but rather on the basis of cost, and the feeling that whilst undoubtedly the ability to cross-reference with psychographic groupings would have helped, the additional benefit to be gained could be foregone.

#### Differences arising from various techniques

The use of geo-demographics or psychographics is to use systems that are based in part upon attitudes. It might be

summed up as 'you are where you (choose to?) live, and 'you are what you do.' In particular, the latter type of classification is based upon responses to questions devised to identify attitudes. But, conventionally attitude measurement might be undertaken by at least one of four means; namely direct elicitation of the attitude by interviews or open-ended questions, selective ranking, direct rating or conjoint measurement. Yet, as Jaccard, Brinberg and Ackerman (1986:464) report:

...the vast majority of research comparing measures of attribute importance has used a ... methodology wherein subjects complete only one measurement task and where comparisons of methods are based on aggregate-level analyses. This approach has limitations because inconsistency can exist between measures at the individual level that are consistent at the aggregate level. A more sensitive index of convergence would be to obtain measures on each of the methods for each individual and then correlate measures across subjects.'

Whilst each of the above methods have the same objective, ie the measurement of attitude, each is significantly different in the means by which it elicits the information. Direct elicitation is primarily qualitative, it is generally the unprompted response in the respondent's own words, and often little specific disaggregation between relative priorities might be forthcoming, although at an implicit level they might be discerned. Its strength is the descriptive and emotional content, and possibly its proximity to the way 'people actually think.'

Ranking procedures require respondents to indicate priorities by indicating the relative importance of attributes by ranking them from the most to the least important. If the attributes have been initially identified by prior studies using either simple elicitation, or structured elicitation by use of techniques such as Kelly triads, this approach tends to generate more data. However, the conventional criticism of simple ranking is that the data does not actually reflect the relative importance of the attributes in terms of the intervals between the rankings. Rating scales have been previously discussed, and are often associated with multi-attribute analysis.

Conjoint analysis has been attracting more attention since its first use in the early 1970s, possibly because the continuing spread of computing power makes the technique more available. For examples of its use in tourism the reader will find examples and explanations of the technique in Ryan (1991), and for fuller technical explanations a good introduction is to be found in Hair, Anderson and Tatham (1987). Unlike simple ranking procedures, the technique presents a composite picture to the respondent, and hence the respondent is referring to 'complete' rather than partial images. For example, if the holidaymaker is considering choice of holiday destination, and the three variables of destination, price and time of year are important, then the respondent will be asked to compare groupings composed of all three variables. Kohli (1988)



indicates both the strengths of, and a problem with the technique, when he writes:

...the major application of conjoint analysis is in product design settings, it is useful to assess attribute significance at a segment level rather than separately for each individual. However it is not desirable to base the testing on 'average' segment preferences, which ignore the information on preference heterogeneity within a segment. The difficulty of developing testing procedures that retain idiosyncrasies across consumers, has been the .... major impediment in the development of significance testing methods for conjoint analysis' (1988:124).

Conjoint analysis approaches attitude measurement from the opposite direction of that associated with multi-attribute analysis. This latter, decompositional measure, implies that judgements are made on a combination of independently evaluated attributes associated with a product or service. Toy, Rager and Guadagnolo (1989) note that the method includes

'a strong and thoroughly tested conceptual foundation, ease of operationalisation, and relatively high levels of predictive and interpretive validity' (1989:277).

On the other hand, it might suggest a sophistication of decision taking that does not exist in fact.

At this point, in the original text a detailed review of conjoint analysis was undertaken, but subsequently it was decided not to use this technique within the research. This was partly because of the conclusions of Myers and Alpert (1977) who argue that elicitation methods generate responses based on salience, rating scales tap importance, and

correlational techniques identify determinance. It is argued that conjoint measurement requires a specificity not normally associated with decision making, where, in practice, consumers adopt decision making techniques which exclude from consideration many of the choices they are being asked to rank in the research design. Yet, because of the nature of questionnaire design based on conjoint analysis, such choices are being awarded values. While conjoint measurement subsequently rates the contribution of the variables to final choice, it might have a possible over-statement of less important considerations where they have been combined with an item that is attractive to the respondent. Additionally, the selection of a multi-attribute approach also lent itself to a gap analysis, which became an important measure of satisfaction in the analysis of the results.

#### Techniques and questionnaire design

Any discussion concerning hybrid conjoint measurement and multi-attribute analysis highlights an important aspect of questionnaire design. This is, what is the underlying conceptual framework to be adopted in analysing data? This question has at least two components to it. First, what is the model or framework of relationships that is being hypothesised. The second question relates to the methods of analysis to be used. In this research concerning attitudes towards holiday-taking, the conceptual components consist of two parts. Firstly, there is the set of relationships

between the determined variable, satisfaction, and the determining variables of adaptation to 'stressors' in the holiday-environment (see chapter two). Secondly, there is the question as to how attitude is to be measured.

Questionnaires differ in design and appearance as a result of whether multi-attribute analysis, conjoint measurement or other methods such as multi-dimensional scaling are being used. Failure to consider this at an early stage in the questionnaire creates a proclivity towards a series of questions which are unrelated, and thus leading to a loss of richness and diversity in the analysis.

Attempts to create a questionnaire where it becomes possible to utilise more than one attitude measurement tend to generate overlong questionnaires, or forces compromise whereby it becomes uncertain as to what in fact is being measured, or indeed may generate inconsistency of results. The danger of at least apparent inconsistency of results has been discussed with reference to the work of Jaccard et al (1986). Compromise emerges if, for example, the rankings required by conjoint measurement are imputed to respondents based on product scores derived from multi-attribute measures. If, arguably, the one method assesses importance, and the other determinance of decisions, what does this hybrid actually measure?

Whilst the different means of attitude measurement require a different mode of questioning, there are obvious overlaps in

the statistical techniques associated with each measure. For example, hybrid conjoint measurement employs regression analysis in determining part-worths at various stages to reduce the number of selections presented to respondents. Toy, Rager and Guadagnolo (1989) note that:

'the regression weights in this model may be thought of as a derived set of importance weights that are fitted at the total sample level. This allows for statistical tests of goodness of fit and predictor significance to be applied to the model so that the relationship between variables can be more accurately assessed' (1989:281).

Similar overlaps between techniques can be identified in other areas. Thus, the items associated with multi-attribute analysis might permit either factor analysis or multi-dimensional scaling to be used. The two techniques are related. Both multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) and factor analysis attempt to identify the inherent structure with data. However, factor analysis requires the variables to be measured on at least an interval scale, whereas MDS does not require this condition. Fenton and Pearce (1988:237) also note that 'the researcher using MDS usually finds relatively fewer dimensions than would occur if the data were analyzed through factor analysis' because the latter utilises rigid assumptions of linearity.

The researcher, in assessing the means of analysis to be used, must also take into account the wording of the questions to be used. For example, if MDS is to be used, it must be appreciated that MDS is based upon measures of proximity, and that the conventional mode of questioning is

for respondents to make pair-wise comparisons between how similar, or dis-similar items elements are. Another method is to rank order items on the basis of how similar they are to a predefined standard. One problem with this is that the number of questions required increases rapidly. For example, with 8 items, 28 paired comparisons are required; with 12 elements, 66 paired comparisons are needed. This was one of the reasons why the present research did not use a multi-dimensional scaling method. Nonetheless, it should be noted in passing that MDS has been successfully used in a number of tourism research projects, and some of these are summarised by Fenton and Pearce (1988). Additionally, one of the advantages of MDS is that it permits a visual description of inherent data sets through its mapping process, but this is not unique to MDS, and many factor analysis programs (eg that of NCSS) also permits mapping of factors.

A further question that the researcher must consider when designing a questionnaire is whether the researchers are seeking, from their hypotheses, to make predictions of, in this case, holiday behaviour. One thing the researcher would be able to do is to assess the degree to which elements within the research design correlate with each other. Indeed, the use of a coefficient of correlation matrix would be part of an initial screening in assessing whether the data was able to support the emergence of underlying factors or clusters. Regression analysis simply

takes the procedure further in that it predicts a dependent variable (eg holiday satisfaction) on the basis of values attached to independent variables (such as age, expectation, travel career or other variables thought to determine satisfaction). Indeed, the outcome, satisfaction, can be measured with reference to the scores derived from clusters ascertained from factor analysis.

In a linear relationship, the formula between the dependent variable,  $y$ , and the independent variable,  $x$ , is  $y = bx + a$ . Assuming that a least squares line of best fit through a scatter plot of  $x$  and  $y$  is used, the slope of the line as given by  $b$ , is calculated as  $b = r_{xy}(s_y/s_x)$  where  $s_y$  and  $s_x$  are the standard deviation of  $y$  and  $x$  respectively, and  $r_{xy}$  is the correlation between the two variables. The value  $a$  is the intercept (ie the value of  $y$  when  $x$  equals zero), and is the value of the mean of  $y$  minus the mean of  $x$  multiplied by the value of  $b$  as defined above.

Utilising this approach, it becomes possible to either predict the value of the dependent variable, or, to utilise the difference between the predicted and actual value as a measure of the validity of the proposed set of relationships. However, if the regression model is being used for either purpose, the researcher must be aware of some of the sources of prediction errors, and the means of measuring them. Least squares estimation uses squared errors (because errors are squared to eliminate the sign, ie

whether the error is positive or negative). But, because it is normal to be interested in errors in the dependent (predicted) variable, it is the standard deviation of errors in the y variable that is calculated. This is given by the formulation  $se = s_y \sqrt{1 - r_{xy}^2}$ . However, this assumes equal variability across all groups, ie, the homoskedacity assumption. Errors can also be measured by use of standardised scores rather than raw scores.

The errors that can arise are normally associated with three types of problem. These are, bias in sampling, sampling error and error of measurement. The question of the sample is discussed in chapter eight. Sampling error is the departure of sample statistics from population statistics that derive from chance differences between the sample and the population. Errors of measurement occur when there is a discrepancy between a measurement observed and the intended measurement, and may arise through faulty research or, in this instance, questionnaire design. If the measurements are systematically wrong, then they lack 'validity'. If the measurements are erratically at fault, then they are said to be 'unreliable'.

The impact of error of measurement on the correlation is straightforward; the correlation is reduced in direct proportion to the amount of error in the dependent and independent variable. For example, suppose a large sample was used, and the variables were perfectly measured, and the

resultant correlation was found to be 0.60. Under these circumstances the error of measurement would approach zero, and the correlation could be used for predictive purposes with high degrees of confidence. On the other hand, suppose an attitude was measured by the use of a single item.

Levine and Hunter (1983) note that under these circumstances, 'studies of the error of measurement usually have a reliability of .50 or less' (1983:338). Under these circumstances the correlation of 0.60 would be cut by half, that is, it becomes 0.30. Levine and Hunter further note that if the effect of sample error is superimposed upon reductions of correlation due to an error of measurement, then 'the results could be disastrous' (1983:339).

Improvement of results can be obtained by increasing the size of the sample and improving measurement.

Reliability might be measured by the correlation between the observed and the perfect measurement, and is usually defined as the square of the correlation between true and observed scores. One obvious problem in much of social science research is a lack of knowledge about the 'true' score. Accordingly tests of reliability can often be more correctly described as scores of internal consistency. Various techniques can be used. Within large samples, respondents can be divided into two and the consistency of results between the two sub-samples can be used as one means of assessing reliability. A similar approach is to split a multi-item scale in half by randomly assigning items to one



of the two halves, and then correlating scores. One approach that has gained wider acceptance in many research findings relating to tourism studies has been the use of Cronbach's alpha coefficient. For the alpha coefficient to work it is required that data is presented in other than a nominal scale. It is therefore perfectly adapted for use with the Likert type scales used in any multi-attribute approach towards attitude measurement as undertaken in this research, although it is problematical whether the Likert Scale is an interval scale (see discussion on page 171).

#### Implications for the research project

This review has indicated a number of questions that need to be addressed in designing the research. Essential to it is a series of testable hypotheses, and these will be discussed in chapter five. These hypotheses will then, in turn, require the formulation of a questionnaire that incorporates the three requirements indicated right at the beginning of this chapter - that is a) a concept to be tested, b) an awareness of the means of analysis to be adopted, and c) appropriate questions. By careful attention to these questions the problems of validity of measurement, and the reliability of those measurements can be addressed. Yet, as indicated above, measurement is also a function of the size and nature of the sample that is used, and thus in chapter eight this is addressed in some detail. The validity of any research outcome is thus dependent on the interplay of factors crudely indicated in figure 6.3. The figure, as a

two dimensional representation of the problem omits one important feature - the nature of the hypotheses. Modes of measurement and the nature of the sample, the means of measurement - all of these may be correct, but if the ideas being researched lack an inherent consistency, the end result may be of limited value.

Figure 6.3 Determinants of Value of Research Findings

M  
E  
A  
S  
U  
R  
E  
M  
E  
N  
T

		Nature of Sample	
		Appropriate	Inappropriate
Appropriate		Valid/ Reliable	Invalid Unreliable
Inappropriate		Invalid/ Reliable	Invalid/ Unreliable

In this respect, there is a challenge which has not yet been discussed. While social sciences are deemed to be a science because the disciplines of scientific enquiry are adopted (in at least certain types of research), any activity involving human behaviour of necessity incorporates normative judgements. Indeed, at one level research itself incorporates a normative judgement on the part of the researcher. That is, the researcher is seeking to obtain knowledge about a matter which he or she considers to be important for reasons that are of value to them. Subjectivity, normative thought, evaluation, judgements - all are part of the research activity, and, to a greater or lesser degree, the value of the research findings will rest upon the nature of the hypotheses being tested.

## Chapter seven - The development of the questionnaire

### Introduction

This chapter describes the construction of the questionnaire used in the research. As noted in chapter six, the questionnaire had to relate to previous conceptual work on tourist motivation and satisfaction, while also permitting modes of analysis consistent with these theories. The construction of the questionnaire therefore required consideration of:

- a) the items that comprised the holiday motivation scale;
- b) the duplication of those items to permit a gap between desired and perceived experience of the last holiday;
- c) open-ended questions referring to images and perceptions;
- d) other 'independent' measures of satisfaction to assess the importance of any gap measure of satisfaction;
- e) a measure of constraints on holiday taking behaviour and choice;
- f) socio-economic variables;

- g) means of obtaining data permitting factor and cluster analysis.

Constructing the Holiday Motivation Scale - a pilot study

The basis of the holiday motivation scale was the Ragheb and Beard Leisure Motivation Scale. The reasons for this included:

- a) it was derived from a known motivational theory - Maslow's hierarchy of needs;
- b) the scale has proven consistency, and pilot testing showed it to be applicable to a British sample;
- c) it permitted an assessment of reliability by subsequently analysing results to see if the current study could replicate the factors in the scale; and
- d) its construction with Likert type scales lent itself to the testing of comparative scores between desired holiday attributes and perceived holiday experiences, and to factor and cluster analysis.

The first problem was that replication of the full scale twice over would, when combined with the other questions, create an over-long questionnaire for a postal sample. Hence the decision was made to abbreviate the scale. Such abbreviation

of scales had been shown to work in other, related, research others. For example, partly because of the work of Bakabus and Boller, 1992, who argued the uni-dimensionality of the Servqual Scale, an abbreviated version of that scale has been utilised in practical management consultancy. An important component of the construction of the holiday motivation scale was a pilot study undertaken using the Ragheb and Beard Leisure Motivation Scale (1982) with a British sample of respondents. The Scale was used with a sample of staff drawn from the Nottingham Business School. Ninety-four staff responded with completed questionnaires, representing a response rate of 89%. Whilst the sample cannot be said to be representative of the wider British population, it did mean factors such as educational level and occupation were held constant.

The purpose of the exercise was to:

- a) establish whether the four dimensions identified by Ragheb and Beard with an United States sample would apply within a British context;
- b) if so, was it possible to utilise some of the questions in a wider questionnaire relating to holiday satisfaction? Thus, if there were high correlations between items, was it possible to incorporate a shorter version of the Leisure Motivation Scale within the Holiday Satisfaction

Scale that was to be devised? The full 46-item Leisure Motivation Scale was used for the pilot study.

Compared with the original Ragheb and Beard study there were differences. As Ragheb and Beard (1983) used a rotated solution to identify the factors, the same process was followed for this sample. Ragheb and Beard state that initially their analysis using a 103-item questionnaire revealed more than four factors. At an intermediate stage in their work, they refer to seven factors being extracted, the last of which accounted for only 2.2 per cent of the variance, and not being interpretable. A similar process was revealed by this work. The initial analysis revealed 12 factors, of which four accounted for 52.79 per cent of the variance, as is indicated in table 7.1. The twelve factors consisted of the items shown as shown in the appendices. From the appendices it can be noted that whilst factor 3 accounted for 10.52 percent of variance, it consisted of two items, namely, item 11, 'to learn about myself', and item 37, 'to slow down'. Interpreting these two items as they stand is open to some difficulty, although they can be interpreted as some form of introversion, ( $r=0.35$ ). Factor 9 also contained two items, item 10, 'to restructure time' and item 46, 'to get away from the responsibilities of everyday life', which item correlated with item 10 at  $r=0.49$  implying some possible overlap, yet again posing problems in interpretation of this factor.

Table 7.1 Results of Ragheb and Beard Leisure Motivation Scale applied to staff of Nottingham Business School (N=94)

Eigen Value Summary

No	Eigenvalue	Percent	Cumulative Percentage
1	9.81	20.87	20.87
2	5.82	12.39	33.25
3	4.94	10.52	43.77
4	4.24	9.01	52.79
5	3.09	6.56	59.35
6	2.71	5.77	65.12
7	2.19	4.67	69.79
8	2.08	4.43	74.23
9	1.87	3.99	78.21
10	1.58	3.37	81.58
11	1.19	2.53	84.11
12	1.19	2.20	86.31

This 12-factor analysis revealed very strong communality scores in excess of 0.85 for most of the items. Yet, there were potential areas of overlap revealed by this clustering. For example, the distinctions between the introversion and the need to be alone dimensions needed analysis in terms of whether they were two distinct dimensions, ie a) of introversion and b) crowd avoidance, or whether they were but two aspects of the same psychological profile. A case could also be made for the altruistic, status and social/friendship clusters being closely related, and some evidence (albeit not conclusive) existed within the correlation matrix in that a number of items across the dimensions correlated at  $r > 0.50$ .

What could be ascertained was that there existed within the 12 factors the embryonic forms of Ragheb and Beard's four





Factor 2 - Competency-Mastery -  
components relate to achieving, developing skills, being active and also involve physical skills

Factor 3 - Avoidance-Relaxation -  
components relate to the seeking of rest and avoidance of everyday responsibilities. It also includes the avoidance of crowds.

Factor 4 - Social interaction -  
components relate to seeking relationships with others, and helping and influencing them.

The 12th item in the Ragheb and Beard study is 'to seek stimulation', but in the current study this forms a weak part of another cluster. In the original Ragheb and Beard work, this item has the lowest loading in its factor (0.336), and here it is placed in the avoidance/relaxation factor as a negative item. It can be concluded that the item is not a strong variable to use in this type of study.

The second factor that the current study identifies is the competence-mastery factor. This contains the same items as the Ragheb and Beard Scale, but there are some differences worth noting. Firstly, in the original study, this was the third, not the second most important factor. In the original Leisure Motivation Scale, the item 'to keep in shape physically' had a loading of 0.70, whereas for this sample it was 0.40. For this item, it can be hypothesised that age and possibly other considerations affect perception of the item. What is of interest is that the current sample carry an additional item into this factor, namely 'so others would think well of me for doing it' - which is logical within a

competence-mastery cluster of items, but in the Ragheb and Beard Scale, was located in the Social component.

The third factor to emerge from the current study was an Avoidance - Relaxation factor. Again, this corresponds well with the original research, but there are minor differences. In the original work, the item 'to restructure my time' appeared in this dimension, whereas in the current study it was a weak item and, as seen from appendix 1.2, was marginally stronger as a factor 1 item rather than as an item in factor 3.

The final dimension to emerge was the Social factor, which corresponded closely with the Ragheb and Beard factor, even to the comparative ranking of items.

There are obvious problems as to sample size in the current pilot study. It fails the requirement that the sample should possess at least five respondents for every item (Nunneally, 1967). However, the initial findings were encouraging in that they generally supported the validity of the items and the concept. The study also showed support for the use of a shortened scale of 8 items per factor, in that examination of the alpha coefficients across both the 12 item per factor scale and the shortened 8 item per scale were acceptable, all being in excess of 0.90. This is thought to be important, in that the inclusion of the items into a questionnaire on holiday-maker satisfaction required some selectivity of the

items.

The construction of the Holiday Motivation Scale

Therefore, from the pilot study items were selected from the Ragheb and Beard Leisure Motivation Scale that were known to be good discriminators of the four motivations. The items selected (with their loadings from the pilot study shown in brackets) and then randomly allocated were:

From cluster one:

to use my imagination (0.85)

to expand my knowledge (0.85)

Two items, to learn about things around me (0.82) and to discover new things (0.75) were collapsed into one item - to discover new places and things.

From cluster two:

to use my physical abilities (0.78)

to challenge my abilities (0.76)

From cluster three:

to avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life (0.88)

to be in a calm atmosphere (0.71)

to relax physically (0.69)

to relax mentally (0.66)

From cluster four:

- to build friendships with others (0.84)
- to develop close friendships (0.82)
- to gain a feeling of belonging (0.80)

To this last groupings was added one item, 'to have a "good time" with friends'. It was thought that the items in cluster four could be interpreted, within the holiday context, to mean the forming of new friendships rather than the confirmation of existing friendships. The use of the term 'good time' was thought to be sufficient ambiguous to cover a range a situations from 'drinking with mates' to sharing more cerebral situations.

The next step was to consider how these motivations might be applied to a specific holiday. Two strategies were used. The first was to utilise a simple Fishbein style approach, where respondents were asked to consider first how important were the type of activities they liked to undertake while on holiday, if given a free choice. The second stage was to subsequently ask respondents to consider their last main holiday, and to state to what degree they were able to carry out these activities.

This process permits several forms of analysis. In the first case it generates a gap between that which is desired and that which is experienced, and can be interpreted as a measure of satisfaction. Additionally the gap can be correlated with other questions relating to satisfaction, thereby potentially

confirming or rejecting the notion of gap analysis as a means of measuring satisfaction.

Second, the results between what is desired or motivates and the perceived reality of the holiday can be diagrammatically illustrated on a four cell matrix, as is undertaken in the analysis of Fishbein disaggregated models. It can be hypothesised that different grids would emerge between different categories of holiday makers. For example, more experienced holidaymakers would be able to obtain a higher number of pairings in the cells that measured low motivational need with those experiences not found in the resort, and high motivational need with high resort opportunity to satisfy those needs.

Third, as respondents are asked where their last main holiday took place, it might be possible to illustrate different location types by different grids.

This process also overcame a potential objection. In applications of other measures of consumer satisfaction, the measure is always applied to a specific product or service. Here, the application had to be to a holiday, not a specific destination. Asking respondents to assess the importance of holiday needs and attributes, assuming a lack of constraints, overcame problems of measurement of expectations and perceptions of differing specific holiday destinations. It also kept open the question of the role of general constraints

and experience in enabling tourists to achieve a congruence between what was desired, and what was actually achieved.

The second approach was to seek data on specific resort facilities. Motivational need could then be linked with desired physical attributes of both the desired and the actual last main holiday. This required a listing of physical holiday attributes. Fortunately, the literature is full of examples of desired physical attributes. For example, Krippendorf (1987), and Moutinho (1991) are amongst those that provide lists. With reference to intellectual needs, these were matched by the following items:

- an interesting history
- beautiful scenery
- an interesting culture

Social needs were matched with:

- an active nightlife
- many nightclubs and bars
- local people who were friendly
- good facilities for children
- a chance to mix with lots of people

Competence-mastery needs were matched with:

- good sporting facilities
- able to converse easily with local people

Relaxation needs were matched with

offers a chance to get away from it all.

#### Other questions

To these items were added three others from the basic physiological and safety needs of the Maslow hierarchy. It has been noted that Laing (1987) records that risk aversion is an important factor in the selection of package holidays and hence the item 'supportive couriers' was also added. Items relating to climate and accommodation were also added. Other than the use of the adjective 'good' no attempt to define the type of climate was used on the basis that what is good for one type of holiday is inappropriate for another - eg sun bathing and skiing. Accommodation was included on the premises that for some types of holidays it is an important part of the product mix (eg villa holidays), it is a factor promoted by the tour operators as possibly part of the risk aversion strategy adopted by some holiday takers, and finally because, whatever the type of accommodation used, it was hypothesised that at the least it operates as a basic factor. Ryan (1991) reports that holiday makers would seem to have a wide tolerance of types of accommodation, but for any given type of holiday, there are basic markers below which poor accommodation can be a cause of complaint.

Again, respondents were asked to indicate preference and perception of their last main holiday destination by these attributes. This permits an examination of the gap between desired and perceived holiday attributes as well as the relationship between motivations and physical aspects of the

resorts.

In the questions relating to perceived and desired attributes a seven-point Likert type scale was selected. As discussed in chapter six, the scale has to possess sufficient points to permit discrimination by the respondent. A seven-point scale was adopted because of evidence of a need to guard against British reluctance to use the extreme values. Some time was spent on the scale descriptors. Initially a scale ranging from 'very important' to 'very unimportant', but finally a scale ranging from 7, 'very important', to 1, 'of no importance' was developed, with 0 offering the respondent an opportunity to record 'no opinion'. In analysing the data all responses containing a zero were disregarded, that is the software was programmed to treat zero as a piece of missing data. Therefore, in any t-tests and similar statistics pair wise comparisons and not list or group comparisons were calculated. In doing this it is assumed that the pattern of zero responses were random, and the initial frequency counts of the distribution of responses was examined. In practically all cases relating to the motivation scales and the holiday attributes the pattern of zero responses were random. One important exception was the question relating to the role of couriers where, of course, those not on packaged holidays coded this item as zero.

As it is hypothesised that holiday experience is a key determinant of the ability to match place with holiday need,



a section of the questionnaire asks whether respondents had been to the destination before, and how many times they had taken a similar holiday previously. One of the main types of holidays taken, as evidenced by ETB data (see chapter three), is that involving visits to relatives and friends (VFR), and this is identified in the question about accommodation used. It might also be important to identify VFR business as a separate component for a number of other reasons. It can be argued that in these cases holiday destination becomes incidental rather than a causal factor, especially if other constraints such as a lack of income are also being identified. In short, complicating factors arise in the case of VFR business, and hence the questionnaire requires some means of identifying these respondents so that, if necessary, they may be omitted from any analysis or treated as a separate subgroup.

It is also hypothesised that adaptive learning takes place at the holiday destination. Arguably, the longer the holiday, the more opportunity exists for exploration, and hence the questionnaire also asks respondents to indicate the length of their holiday in terms of nights away from home.

There is a significant problem concerning people's recall of adaptive behaviour, and that is the questions are posed after the event. Second, although people tend to retain a clear image of their initial reaction to the destination, subsequent events and their exact chronology may be more difficult to

recall with precision. Unfortunately it was not possible to identify a sufficiently large enough number of people to adopt a diary method of enquiry. In cases where diaries have been maintained, sample sizes have generally been small (eg Pearce, 1982; 1988). A question was also added about when the last main holiday was taken, so ensuring that the sample analyzed was comprised of those who had taken a holiday within a given period. One problem was just how far back could one go in utilising responses? The initial thought was to simply use those who had holidays within the last twelve months. However, discussion with those in the holiday industry, and with marketing personnel actually led to this period being extended to 18 months. The reasons for this were:

- a) it is argued that as holidays are so important, recollection over such a period is generally quite good, especially as the most important positive and negative experiences;
- b) even if recollection is not precise, the main questions relate to 'desired' and 'perceived' holiday attributes;
- c) the methodology could not assess satisfaction at the time of consumption, only satisfaction as currently rated at the time of completion of the questionnaire. The implications of this are discussed in the final chapter.

Another problem was the means by which adaptive behaviour can

be measured. In one aspect, the spatial, adaptive behaviour might be measured by the degree to which respondents made exploratory trips. This was assessed by questions relating to exploration of the resort and places away from the resort. But exploration also refers to examining relationships at the holiday destination. This was measured indirectly by asking respondents how friendly they found people at the first two days and then subsequently how friendly they were within a later stage of a holiday. If people were subsequently rated as being more friendly in the latter stage of the holiday, this was interpreted as evidence of exploratory behaviour. In practice, however, the position is more complex. If initial scores for friendliness are high, other factors must be examined. Previous knowledge of the destination and its occupants might be revealed, or the responses are being influenced by the fact that the holiday is with friends or relatives, or simply because respondents possess the ability to make friends quickly. Factors such as previous knowledge, and holidaying with friends could be identified from other questions.

The importance of friendliness for respondents might also vary, and this could be assessed by correlating replies with those for social motivations from the first part of the questionnaire.

Another problem to be considered in the questionnaire was to establish means of creating checks on the measurement of

satisfaction. As discussed in chapter two, satisfaction might be assessed as the congruence of expectation and perceived reality, *ceteris paribus*, but establishing this requires more direct questioning about whether respondents enjoyed their holiday. Traditionally, tour operators have assessed this by asking if respondents would recommend this holiday to a close friend, and this question was also included. Additionally, respondents were asked to state the level of their satisfaction with the accommodation, the location and whether they regarded it as 'value for money'. They were also asked the extent to which they enjoyed their holiday, and whether they thought their travelling companions also enjoyed the holiday.

Finally the questionnaire sought details of socio-economic variables, and a check on the attribution of MOSAIC categorisation.

#### The Sequence of questions

The questionnaire was constructed so that respondents were first asked to consider the attributes of their desired holiday in terms of both meeting motivational needs and physical characteristics of the holiday site. This was not immediately followed by the perception of their last holiday. Two reasons accounted for this. First, it was thought appropriate that respondents should be given another task to complete so that thoughts of what were desired would not

'spill-over' into a second section which would affect their perception of their last holiday. So, questions relating to image of desired destination, and a testing of Woodside's and Freeman's hypothesis of evoked set were posed. Questions were then asked about respondents' level of holiday taking experience in terms of numbers of holidays undertaken, number of times a destination had been visited, and the number of times a particular type of holiday had been taken. Only then did questions relate to the last holiday. Respondents were asked to name it, and then followed a series of factual questions about that holiday. This sequence was designed to take respondents away from the characteristics of a desired holiday, and to sharpen their memory of the actual holiday in a comparatively objective manner. It was at this point that the holiday motivation scale was replicated. These questions were immediately followed by open-ended questions asking for data about the 'highs' and 'lows' of the holiday.

These questions were asked to provide a check on the thesis of Pearce (1982) that a pattern could be discerned based on Maslow's hierarchy, but also to assess whether any categorisation of these questions would show a significant difference between their content and that of the scale. If any form of content analysis indicated totally different sets of concerns, then it could be argued that the scale was inappropriate. As shown in appendix two, there was little evidence of this, and indeed, this author was surprised by the detail provided by respondents. Such detail, as will be

shown, even contained highly personal data about family relationships, both positive and negative.

The penultimate section of the questionnaire was concerned with alternative measures of satisfaction, and an attempt to assess the level of adaptive behaviour that occurred after the first two days of the holiday. On the assumption that the first two days were spent with recovery from the journey, and exploration of the holiday destination, (following Cooper, 1981), respondents were asked about their level of initial satisfaction and exploration of the site. The time period was divided into three, the first two days, after the first two days, and the end of the holiday. Hence the questions were pertinent to any long stay holiday as defined by the English Tourist Board and World Tourist Organisation, ie a holiday requiring four or more nights away from home. It mattered little if the holiday was of one week, two weeks or more - the same time division was applicable. The 'end of the holiday' section asked respondents to measure their satisfaction with the holiday by using questions traditionally used by tour operators. These included, 'was the holiday value for money', 'would it be recommended to a close friend' and 'how satisfied were they with the holiday'. One item referred to courier's services, so permitting a check on package holidays vs independent holidays. As described in chapter fourteen, these items could then be used separately or summed to construct a 'satisfaction' score, and correlated with the differential scores between desired and perceived items.

As noted above, the final section of the questionnaire was concerned with socio-economic data. This required careful consideration. The questions were deliberately located at the end of the questionnaire in the hope that by this stage respondents had got into a pattern of answering questions, and hence this information would be forthcoming. It was also decided to simplify a number of issues, partly because they were not important to the main theme of the hypothesis. Questions pertaining to occupation and class are notoriously difficult to 'get right'. The final classifications were derived primarily from the construction of the MOSAIC database, and permitted cross checking with that scale and the categorisations used by the United Kingdom Holiday Survey in order to assess how representative the sample was. The section was also constructed so as to enable analysis of specific sub-markets if the sample size permitted. For example, students were specifically categorised in the occupational groupings, but single unmarried mothers could be implied by appropriate responses to marital status, the presence of children under 16 and age. The question on income related to household income rather than the income of the respondent alone.

Of importance was the ability to assess lifestage from the construction of the questionnaire. The use of age, marital status, the presence of children under sixteen, and occupational classifications that included retired and students permitted the construction of an abbreviated

lifestage grouping that amalgamated full nest one and full nest two stages, and which consisted of single young, young marrieds without children, marrieds with children, older marrieds without children under sixteen (empty nesters) and retired. A combination of age, marital status, and self description as being retired would have permitted the latter stages of sole survivor to be 'guessed', but this was not undertaken.

The design of the questionnaire therefore permits:

- a) an analysis of gaps between desired and perceived holiday attributes;
- b) the association between motivation and physical attributes of holiday destinations;
- c) an analysis of satisfaction by direct questioning and  $\bar{B}$  analysis;
- d) a measurement of the role of experience in holiday type selection;
- e) the role of experience in generating satisfactory holiday experience;
- f) testing an abbreviated Leisure Motivation Scale;



- g) identification of the role of intervening variables such as consideration of the needs of other family groups and constrained time;
- h) an opportunity to assess differences between different gender, age, income and MOSAIC groups;
- i) assessing support for the concept of a travel career where experience tends to generate a need for the satisfaction of higher motivational needs from the Maslow hierarchy;
- i) the possibility of using disaggregated Fishbein style analysis and various other statistical techniques to map responses.

Specific statements of the model's propositions are considered in chapter fifteen and in the prior chapters where the results are analyzed. Additionally, the design of the questionnaire takes into account four dimensions of what constitutes the image of a holiday destination.

These can be identified as being:

- a) functional characteristics - the provision of facilities permitting relaxation, sport, required climate etc;
- b) psychological characteristics - the ambience and ethos of the place that creates a specific type of experience;

- c) the attributes of place - the perceived quality of individual components;
- d) the holistic assessment of image - the place as a collection of attributes.

These dimensions are represented in figure 7.1. Items from the questionnaire are located in various cells to illustrate how these dimensions have aided in the construction of the questionnaire. It can be argued that the psychological characteristics and the holistic imagery of a destination are the prime contributors to that which is unique about a destination. Thus, Torremolinos is not representative of Spain, but has its own ethos.

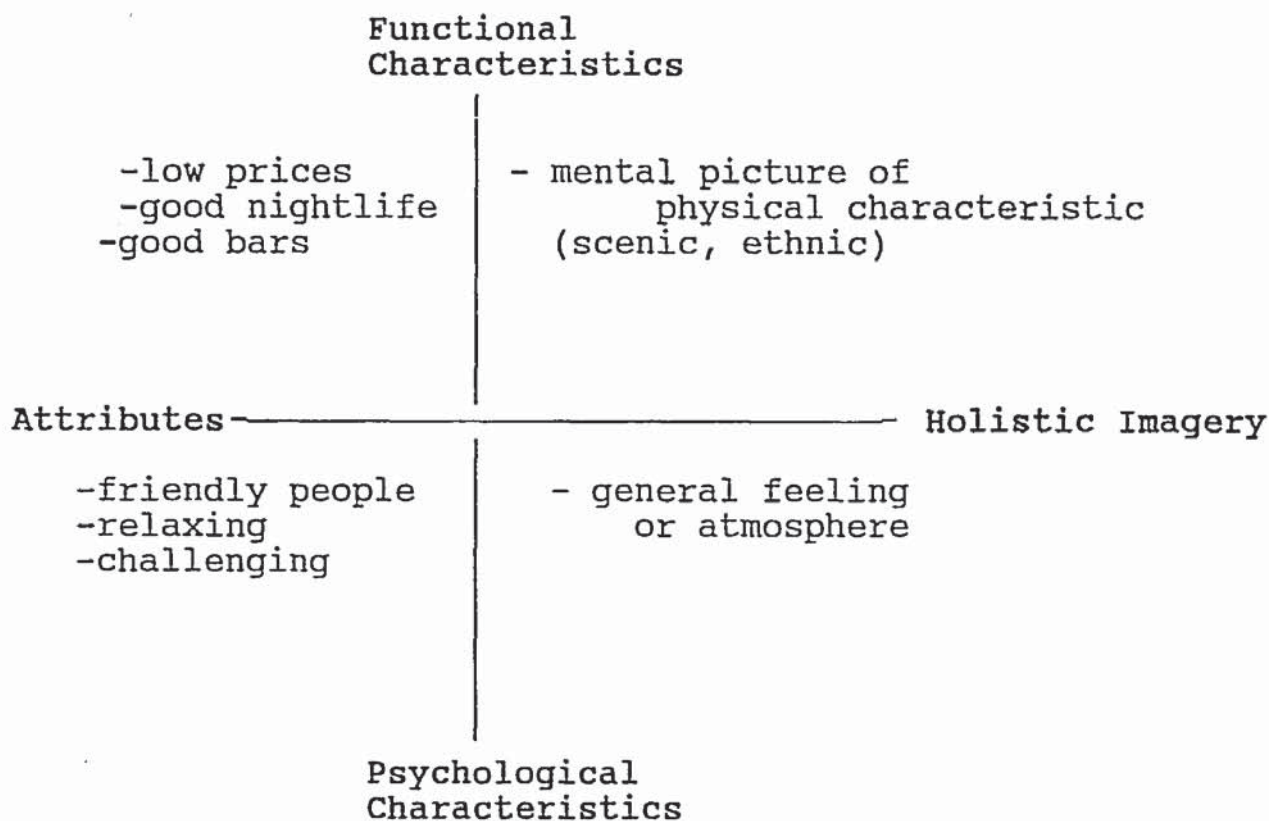
The items selected for the questionnaire have thus been selected on the basis of items mentioned by respondents in initial discussion groups and from observation as a courier/instructor in Greece. They are also drawn from the literature including sources such as Krippendorf (1985), Gyte (1988) and Ragheb and Beard (1982). Additionally the items have been selected on the basis formulated by Etchner and Brent Ritchie (1991:11), namely:

'destination image should be envisioned as consisting of two main components; those that are attribute based and those that are holistic. Each of these components of destination image contains functional, or more tangible, and psychological, or more abstract characteristics. Images of destinations can also range from those based on

'common' functional and psychological traits to those based on more distinctive or even unique features, events, feelings or auras. In order to capture all of these components, a combination of structured and unstructured methodologies should be used to measure destination image.'

The questionnaire thus also permits a testing of this hypothesis that distinctions can be made between the functional and psychological characteristics.

Figure 7.1 Images of a Holiday Destination - the component dimensions



Final stages in questionnaire design

The questionnaire went through two stages of testing, and changes were made to earlier versions. The first stage was that ten individuals well known to the researcher were asked to complete the questionnaire. The group was divisible into

two, clerical workers at the Nottingham Business School, and lecturers in the Department of Strategic Management and Marketing who had research experience. They were asked to note the time taken to complete the questionnaire, and to note any questions which seemed unclear. When the questionnaires were collected, these points were discussed. After amendments a second pilot stage was adopted using other ten other administrative and academic colleagues, again divided into two groups of five, and the questionnaire was administered to a class of final year undergraduates. This pilot confirmed that the questionnaire took approximately 20 minutes to complete.

The questionnaire was posted with a covering letter. The covering letter contained the following messages:

- a) the questionnaire would enable the author to complete a degree. This was stated to elicit 'sympathy' as indicated in chapter six in order to increase the response rate;
- b) confidentiality was assured, and it was noted that the questionnaire did not require respondent's name and address;
- c) a prize draw was offered, and to enter all that respondents had to do was to return the covering letter. This enabled a check on MOSAIC coding to be undertaken. This was fortunate because in practice many respondents used the Post Office Code rather than the MOSAIC code on

their form. It also allowed a geographical check to be undertaken;

- d) respondents were given a 'phone number where they could seek further information if required;
- e) respondents were informed of the content of the research in the following terms.

'Holidays are important to most people. However, contradictory evidence is emerging about how satisfactory our experiences are. I believe that the results obtained by tour operators arise because of the nature of their questionnaires. Of necessity they are short, refer only to their clients, and tend to concentrate on the specific services they provide. As a result we get a confusing picture of the sources of holiday satisfaction.

The enclosed questionnaire attempts to adopt a much wider context. I would be very grateful if you could spend 15 minutes or so completing the questionnaire. It is part of my degree studies, yet could have some important implications for the way in which holiday companies market their holidays. As a result, people will be less likely to book holidays that do not match their requirements. The questionnaire refers to both package and independently organised holidays, and relates to your last main holiday.'

- f) It was pointed out that a free post paid envelop was enclosed.

In this way the covering letter attempted to follow the guidelines outlined in chapter six as to the best means of obtaining a high response rate in a postal questionnaire.

Having tested the questionnaire and carefully constructed the covering letter, there remained the task of determining the

sample and identifying respondents. This task was significantly made easier by being able to use guidance from CCN Systems marketing division, and the help of Julie Stone of CCN should at this point be acknowledged. The details of the sample form the subject of chapter eight.

Finally, it should be noted that when replies were received, a sample of non-respondents was identified, and 20 such respondents were telephoned and as a test were asked questions drawn from the shortened Leisure Motivation Scale. There appeared to be no difference in response patterns. The next stage to discuss is the nature of the sample.

## Chapter Eight The Main Survey sample

### The Use of the East Midlands Region

The main survey sample was drawn from MOSAIC and Census data for the East Midlands (ie the counties of Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Northamptonshire and Lincolnshire). The East Midlands was selected:

- a) to reduce the computing cost of selecting 6,000 names and addresses compared with a similar selection derived from national data;
- b) to increase response rates (respondents would see the research originating from a local university);
- c) because a regional sample would be more representative of the national population than one drawn from Nottinghamshire alone;
- d) because in some sub-groups, the number of households within Nottinghamshire are comparatively small in number, and hence would have required a higher response rate to obtain representative data. Additionally, an increased mailing of Nottinghamshire alone would generate more near neighbour addresses, and hence possible collusion by respondents.

Table 8.1 shows certain demographic characteristics of the East Midlands and Nottinghamshire populations. The index number indicates a comparison with national (British) data. A figure of 100 means that the proportion of any one group within the total population of the East Midlands or Nottinghamshire is identical with the proportion that group forms of the total population. Figures over 100 mean that specific group is over-represented in the East Midlands; figures under 100 mean that group is under-represented.

From table 8.1 it can be seen that the East Midlands is representative of the country with respect to basic

**Table 8.1 Population characteristics of the East Midlands and Nottinghamshire**







Illustration removed for copyright restrictions

Source of data:- CCN Systems, derived from Census of Population, Electoral Register, Household Surveys and other sources.

demographics in that gender and age characteristics are generally representative of the UK population. However, differences in employment exist with a greater proportion involved in primary and secondary industries. This subsequently accounts for a significantly different distribution in social class. Classes two and three (skilled non-manual) are under-represented, as, to a lesser degree, is class one. The skilled and semi-skilled manual groups are over-represented. Owner occupied homes are above the national average, while furnished rented accommodation is below the national average.

With reference to the MOSAIC groupings known to be high holiday spenders on holidays it is significant that the

East Midlands is under-represented in some important groups. High spenders are defined as being those with spending one standard deviation above the mean, ie approximately the third highest spenders.

#### Disproportionate Sampling

From table 8.1, it can be seen that in order to obtain a sample that is representative of high spending holiday takers the sample has to be based on disproportionate sampling of the population of the East Midlands. One concern of the researcher was whether the region possessed a sufficiently large number of households within the desired MOSAIC geo-demographic groups to produce a workable sample size if the total response was 600 in total. Available financial resources permitted a mail shot of 6,000.

One example of the problem was the case of MOSAIC Group 25, smart inner city flats. A 10 percent response rate could only result in 4 replies - a figure far too small for any analysis. It was therefore decided to select the sample primarily by the MOSAIC lifestyle groups rather than specific MOSAIC geo-demographic groups, but with a few, key, specific geo-demographic groups identified where these were known to be high holiday spenders. Thus, for example, lifestyle group 1, prosperous pensioners, was over-represented to obtain a large enough sample. After discussion with personnel from CCN the lifestyle



distribution of the 5,800 addresses mailed indicated in table 8.2 was undertaken.

To these numbers were added 200 further addresses drawn from those that are unclassified under the above headings.

These are referred to as MOSAIC Group 58. The reason for this was because it was suggested to me by Julie Stone from CCN that this group had previously shown above average spending on holidays.

The total number of households in the East Midlands in 1989 was 1,529,914. The initial mailing of 6,000 therefore represented 0.39 percent of these. (The total number of households in Great Britain for the same year was 22,013,696). These data are taken from CCN's MOSAIC database, which in turn is derived from the Post Office Address File and Electoral Register. Hence the 6,000 would represent 0.027 percent of GB households. However, as explained, the sample was biased to reflect not the population of households, but the population of high spending holiday-takers, and more specifically, those taking 'main' holidays. Based on calculations derived from ETB data, the 6,000 mail shot represented approximately 3 percent of households in the East Midlands which had taken holidays of four or more days in 1991. The response rate meant that approximately 0.5 percent of the target population was surveyed.

Both data from the English Tourist Board (ETB) as to socio-

economic profiles of holiday makers and the BARB Target Group Index indicate that holidays are primarily taken by the richer two-thirds of society. Table 8.3 indicates the profiles drawn from ETB data. This was taken into account when deciding the allocation of the 6,000 mailings. Thus it was decided that a number of the MOSAIC groups should be omitted from the study. For example, from Lifestyle six only MOSAIC Group 34 was retained. Additionally, obtaining a workable sample from groupings less likely to take main holidays would have meant much higher costs per usable response than from other groupings. This would have meant less money to sample these other groups. The inclusion of other low income groups in lifestyle four which were easier to reach would, it was thought, have maintained the socio-economic profile.

Table 8.3            Socio-Economic Groupings of Holidaytakers:  
Percent of Social Class taking Holidays



source            UK Tourism Survey, 1992

Again, for example, in lifestyle group 8 some MOSAIC groups were omitted. These included those living in military accommodation and post-1981 council housing. The latter were left out on the premise that the BMRB/CCN data indicated that they were under-represented amongst holiday taking groups, and second, it was thought that discretionary income might be low due to council house

purchasing amongst this group. Lifestyle group 8 was therefore represented by the MOSAIC groups 40 and 41.

Table 8.4 gives the composition of the British and East Midlands households by MOSAIC grouping, and the percentage of high holiday spenders that each group accounts for.

#### Timing of the Questionnaire

The questionnaires were sent out in the third week of October 1992. This month was selected on the premise that it would cover those who had holidayed in the main summer season, and those who tended to holiday in the early autumn. The holidays would still be fairly fresh in the minds of potential respondents. The questionnaires were accompanied by an explanatory letter and a 'freepost' envelope. Although, as previously discussed this might have reduced the response rate in that return envelopes with stamps on have been shown to increase replies but it did mean reduced postage costs.

The names and addresses were drawn at random from the files of CCN within the MOSAIC categories indicated in table 8.4.

The 6,000 questionnaires resulted in 1127 usable returns; a response rate of 18.78 percent. This was thought to be 'quite good' in that it was higher than the 'minimum' expected return of 10 percent.

Table 8.4 MOSAIC Groups as percentage of Populations of High Holiday Spenders, UK and East Midlands



Notes to table - data obtained from CCN/BMRB database. East Midlands data relates to household categorisation. Totals add to 100 percent.

### Aspects of Response Rate

The questionnaire, as described in chapter five, included questions to identify respondents' socio-economic characteristics. Additionally, respondents were encouraged to return the covering letter by being offered a chance to partake in a draw for ten small prizes of £5 plus a possibility of winning a week-end break holiday in Nottingham. The return of the letter allowed a precise categorisation of MOSAIC grouping of the respondent, as this was marked on the letter. If respondents did not wish to enter the draw, they were asked to record the code on the questionnaire. As expected, for those that did not return the letter there was some confusion about the codings. This arose because Post Office regulations require that those using the cheapest form of 'mailsort' mailings (which I was) have to print a Post Office code on the letter. Many respondents therefore quoted this number. Nonetheless, of those replying, 66.2 percent (n=746) quoted their MOSAIC code. Table 8.5 indicates the response rates by each of the MOSAIC lifestyle groupings.

### Socio-economic characteristics of sample

Comparing columns three and four in table 8.5 indicates that the sample is representative of MOSAIC lifestyle groups 1, 2, 5, and 8, and it under-represents lifestyle groups 3 and 4 (but with numbers that are appropriate as sub-samples for purpose of inter-group comparison) and the



Table 8.5 Response rates and composition of the sample by  
MOSAIC Lifestyle Groupings



unclassified group. Finally, it over-represents lifestyle group 9, the young mortgaged families, but as this includes the higher income groups that most interest significant sections of the holiday industry, this is not without its advantages. As approximately 80 percent of the sample were between 25 to 65 years of age, it is of little surprise to note that 376 respondents (33.4 percent of the sample) had children below 16 the age of 16. This would permit analysis of this sub-group to assess whether the presence of children had any impact upon holiday choice or satisfaction. Of the 376, 345 indicated that their children under the age of 16 had accompanied them on their last main holiday.

## Description of the sample

Of the 1127 respondents 73.6 percent (n=829) were married, 523 were male, 490 were female, and 114 were not coded by gender. This was because respondents either choose not to divulge this information, or both partners had answered the questionnaire jointly. The significance of spouses in holiday choice will be discussed later. Table 8.6 shows the age distribution of the sample.

Table 8.6 Respondents' Age Distribution

Age	%	Valid %	Number	E.Midlands(%)	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(5) (6)	
0 - 15	0.2	0.2	2	22.9	
16 - 24	5.3	5.5	60	13.8	17.8
25 - 35	22.0	22.2	248	20.9	27.0
36 - 65	59.2	60.8	667	25.6	33.2
66 - 75	8.3	8.5	93	11.5	14.9
over 75	2.4	2.5	27	5.4	7.1
missing	2.7		30		

### Notes to table 8.6

Columns (1),(2) and (3) relate to sample data  
 ETB data relate to age structure of holiday makers  
 derived from the ETB Tourism Intelligence Quarterly.  
 East Midlands (5) refers to percentage of total population.  
 East Midlands (6) refers to percentages  
 of population over the age of 16 on the  
 premise that they are decision takers  
 about holidays.

Question 111 sought information about the respondents' household income. Eight percent of the sample choose to withhold this information. Table 8.7 summarises the responses to this question. Responses relate to household income and not to personal income. The decision was made not to probe further into income details for reasons of space on the questionnaire (additional questions would have necessitated a further page).

Table 8.7 Respondents' Household Income

Income Group	Number	percent of total	percent of valid response
less than £10,000	228	20.2	22.2
£10,001 to £15,000	171	15.2	16.5
£15,001 to £25,000	309	27.4	29.9
£25,001 to £35,000	179	15.9	17.3
£35,001 to £50,000	98	8.7	9.5
over £50,001	49	4.3	4.7
non-response	93	8.3	
Total number of respondents	1127	1127	1034

Table 8.8 Respondents' Socio-class

	Numbers	percent	E.Mid (est)
Class 1 Professional etc	360	32.0	4.4
Class 2 Intermediate	105	9.3	17.5
Class 3 Skilled Manual	153	13.6	38.3
Class 4/5 Semi and Unskilled Manual	46	4.1	18.7
Self Employed			
- small business	130	11.5	9.0
- large business	3	0.3	
Unemployed	10	0.9	12.0
Retired	285	25.3	17.0
Housewife/Single Parent not working	16	1.4	2.0
Student	18	1.6	
Non-response	32	2.8	

Notes: East Midlands data does not add to 100 percent due to elements of double counting between occupation, self employed and unemployed.

Additional information was obtained about social class by asking respondents to tick that box which best described their type of job. Again utilising 1991 CCN data (1991 Census data not available at the time of writing), table 8.8 compares the sample with the East Midlands and ETB information on the basis of social class.

### Conclusion

Other characteristics of the sample such as the type of

holidays undertaken, locations visited and other items are described in the following chapters. It is suggested that the sample was both sufficiently large and, as indicated, valid as a disproportionate random sample, to permit appropriate statistical testing of the total and its sub-samples.

The following chapters now analyse the results, beginning with a consideration of the holiday destinations selected, and the respondents' perceptions of these places. Chapter eight then seeks to assess the factors that impinge upon the choice of these destinations, and subsequent chapters then begin to analyse responses based upon replies to the Holiday Motivation Scale.

Chapter Nine - Factor Analysing the Holiday  
Motivation Scale

The Mean Scores

In chapter four it was argued that a number of items from the Ragheb and Beard Leisure Motivation Scale were applicable to holiday taking behaviour. From a sample of academic staff at the Nottingham Business School, a number of items were found to have high predictive ability of attitudes towards leisure. As described in chapter seven, these items were used to develop a Holiday Motivation Scale. The items with their mean scores and standard deviations from the sample of 1127 respondents are shown in table 9.1.

Table 9.1 Mean Scores on Holiday Motivation Scale  
(n=1127)

	MEAN	STD DEV
While on holiday I like to:		
relax mentally	5.96	1.47
discover new places and things	5.93	1.33
avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life	5.63	1.66
relax physically	5.50	1.69
be in a calm atmosphere	5.39	1.71
increase my knowledge	4.39	1.70
have a good time with friends	3.84	2.09
be with others	3.71	1.78
build friendships with other	3.47	1.69
use my imagination	3.45	1.90
gain a feeling of belonging	2.81	2.60
challenge my abilities	2.69	1.84
use my physical abilities/skills in sport	2.56	1.93
develop close friendships	2.47	1.74
Total number of respondents	1127	

Notes:- Scale runs from 1 to 7, with seven being the highest score

From table 9.1 it can be seen that relaxation needs are to the fore. The items 'to avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life', 'be in a calm atmosphere', and 'to relax physically and mentally', all score over 5 on the seven-point scale. In conventional terminology the 'escape' motivation is present. But equally so is the 'pull' factor of holiday destinations. The item to 'discover new places and things' scores above 5, while to 'increase my knowledge' also scores highly. The sports motivation is low as an overall score, yet obviously it can be hypothesised that for a sub-sample of respondents it could be quite important. For example, the analysis of comments reported in appendix one indicates that water-sports facilities and hill walking/climbing were important to some respondents. Therefore, while a t-test between the item scores and the mean of all items indicate that the escape and discovery needs are significant in their importance, while sports and the need to develop a sense of belonging are relatively unimportant to holidaymakers, such conclusions do not necessarily relate to the whole sample. For example, the need to develop a sense of belonging is important for those who are loyal to a destination, and who comment that its very familiarity is an attraction.

The item, 'to develop close friendships', posed a problem to some respondents. From the Ragheb and Beard questionnaire the purpose of the item is to indicate the

level of interest that people have in sustaining and nourishing existing close friendships. This did not seem to emerge from this sample, but a number of respondents made comments about this item to the effect that the holiday was a means of sharing time with their family. This was supported by comments to the open ended questions as discussed in appendix one. It is thought that if the item had been reworded to refer to the need to sustain family relationships, then higher scores would have resulted. The problem with the item is that if it were reworded to refer specifically to families, it excludes other forms of close friendships. As an item it is different from the other social items which are concerned with the development of friendship and company with new people, or enjoying others' company. It is meant to indicate a qualitative difference, and perhaps its low score represents a distinction between the way American and British samples respond to the item. The mean of all items is 4.1 with an inter-item correlation of 0.16. The correlations between the items range from -0.16 to 0.61; values which indicate the possibility that groupings between items may exist. For a factor analysis to be undertaken, a number of steps need to be considered:

- a) is the scale reliable?
- b) does a pattern of correlation exist between items that reflects the possibility of item groupings?
- c) factor extraction;

d) calculation of factor scores.

Correlation coefficients were calculated for the above items. A number of items correlated highly. For example, to relax physically and to relax mentally correlated at  $r=0.55$  ( $p<0.001$ ). In fact all the items relating to 'escape' and 'relaxation' needs tended to correlate at levels above 0.4: all at significant levels of probability. Equally, low correlation occurred at 'logical' places - for example the item, 'to avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life' correlated with 'to be with others' at  $r=0.002$ . On the other hand, the items, 'to avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life' and 'be in calm atmosphere' correlated at  $r=0.52$  ( $p<0.001$ ). In short, a review of the correlations indicated the possibility that a four factor solution might be feasible.

This impression was confirmed when further analysis of the correlation matrix was undertaken. Bartlett's test of sphericity in essence is based on a chi-square transformation of the correlation matrix where all the diagonal values are assumed to have a value of 1 and the off-diagonal scores are 0. Norusis (1988:B44) comments:

'If the hypothesis that the population correlation matrix is an identity cannot be rejected because the observed significance level is large, you should reconsider the use of the factor model.'

For the data above the results yielded a significance of 0.0000. Equally the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of



Sampling Adequacy was satisfactory at 0.73. This test is based on a comparison between the sum of squared correlation coefficients and the sum of partial correlation coefficients, and is expressed as a value ranging from 0 to 1. The higher the score the better, and generally it is interpreted as meaning that if scores are less than 0.65 then factor analysis should not be undertaken. Additionally, it is possible to undertake further tests using a matrix of partial correlation coefficients. The partial correlation coefficients should be close to zero in that they measure correlations between items when linear effects are removed. This test was undertaken and the 'anti-image' correlation matrix examined. Only two off-diagonal correlations were above 0.4 and the great majority were below 0.1. There seemed every reason to proceed with the analysis.

#### The Factor Analysis

Four factors emerged with eigenvalues greater than one, which together explained 61.6 percent of the variance in the sample. A varimax rotation was undertaken, it being assumed that the factors are unrelated to each other (West, 1991). The results are shown in table 9.2.

It can be seen that the item 'to gain a sense of belonging' has the lowest weighting of those located in factor one. The communality score for this item is only 0.27, that is the four factors account for only 27 percent of the variance on this item. It may be seen

from table 9.1 that this item has a fairly low mean score (2.8). This item will be considered further when the gap

Table 9.2 Derivation of the Factors

	F A C T O R S			
	1	2	3	4
<b>Social Factors</b>				
be with others	.84	-.08	.01	-.01
have a good time with friends	.79	-.01	-.10	-.06
build friendships	.73	.03	.14	.11
develop friendships	.68	.09	.15	.30
gain a feeling of belonging	<u>.46</u>	.27	.36	.13
<b>Relaxation Factors</b>				
relax mentally	.03	.81	.03	-.02
be in a calm atmosphere	.04	.76	-.02	.13
relax physically	.09	.75	.05	-.28
avoid the hustle and bustle	-.05	.73	-.05	.04
<b>Intellectual Factors</b>				
to increase my knowledge	-.05	-.01	.80	.14
discover new places and things	.10	-.05	.72	-.24
use my imagination	.18	.04	.67	.36
<b>Physical competency factors</b>				
use my physical abilities	.11	-.01	-.08	.84
challenge my abilities	.14	-.05	.45	.74

analysis is undertaken, but there seem to be a number of variables operating. First, as noted previously, this item is only important for a small proportion of the sample. In this respect it is of interest to note (table 9.1) that it had the largest standard deviation of all the items. Second, the gap analysis will indicate that this item actually increases its score significantly after people have been on holiday. That is, it is not generally valued prior to going on holiday, but after an experience of a place it can be hypothesised that respondents now feel a greater sense of identity with the

place. A further consideration is that it is loaded relatively highly on factor 3 (0.37). This implies that some respondents might have interpreted the item more in terms of being part of a process of self-actualization rather than simply one of seeking a sense of identity with place.

If the item is dropped from the analysis, the four factors 'explain' 64.8 per cent of the variance of the other items, a marginal 'gain' of 3.2 per cent. For further research it is suggested that careful attention be given to this item as conceptually it is important, but the current wording does not perhaps convey the full meaning.

It can also be noted in table 9.2 that the item 'challenge my abilities also loads highly on factor 3, implying an intellectual component to this item as well as a physical-mastery element, and equally the 'use of imagination' also loads highly on factor 4 (0.36). These are noted below. Table 9.2 indicates the four factors that emerge from the responses. The factors might be described as being:

Factor one                      **The social dimension**

This factor is concerned with establishing and sustaining existing relationships while on holiday.

It accounts for 22.7 percent of the variance.

Factor two                      **The relaxation dimension**

This factor accounts for 17 percent of the variance and appears to have two sub-dimensions. One is an escape motivation, ie, a wish to get away from the pressures of daily life. Second, there is a related search motivation. Namely the search for those areas that offer calm and peace. This need was evidenced in the descriptions of holiday destinations listed in appendix one.

Factor three                      The intellectual dimension

This factor 'explains' 12.9 per cent of the variance. The key words associated with it are 'knowledge', 'imagination', and 'discovery'.

Factor four                      The competence-mastery dimension

This factor accounts for 9 percent of the variance. It is concerned with the challenge of abilities and their use. The two items correlate at 0.49 ( $p < 0.001$ ), and hence function well within the scale. As in the original Ragheb and Beard Scale there is an orientation towards physical activities. It could be contended that if a measurement of holiday motivation was to be established with many more items, a distinction might occur between intellectual and physical challenge. On the other hand, table 9.2 does indicate a much more significant loading on factor four than on factor three for the item 'challenge my abilities', although it does fail the convention that ideally such loadings should not exceed 0.2 on the factor to

which they are not allocated.

It is seen that the four factors correspond closely to the factors identified by Ragheb and Beard as discussed in chapter two. In one sense this is not surprising in that the original items are being duplicated, and are of course, selected as being those items that scored most highly from the pilot study as reported in chapter seven. From another perspective, it confirms the use of the abbreviated scale as a potential measure of holiday taking behaviour as distinct from simply leisure motivation. It is also to be noted that the dimensions are consistent with the factors referred to by respondents in the pilot discussion groups as reported in chapter eight.

The factors thus confirmed were the intellectual, social, competence-mastery and stimulus avoidance factors.

However, within the holiday context the stimulus avoidance, or relaxation dimension, becomes the second most important of the four. In the original scale the intellectual component explained most of the variance, whereas in the current sample it became the third most important factor.

One way of checking whether the factors are orthogonal (ie, are statistically unrelated) is to undertake a oblimin rotation. Under SPSS-PC this produces a factor

correlation matrix and the researcher is looking for a pattern whereby correlations between the factors is minimised. This was undertaken with the results as shown in table 9.3. The results show small correlations between the factors; hence justifying the use of varimax factor analysis.

Table 9.3 - - - - ORTHOGONAL FACTOR ANALYSIS - - - -  
 between holiday taking dimensions  
 Factor Correlation Matrix:

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4
FACTOR 1	1.00			
FACTOR 2	.11	1.00		
FACTOR 3	.17	.07	1.00	
FACTOR 4	.17	-.01	.17	1.00

Other methods of testing also exist. A common means of reliability testing is the use of Cronbach's alpha coefficient. One way of interpreting Cronbach alpha is to view it as a correlation between the test being considered, and all possible tests of the same characteristics. For example, there may be many tests of relaxation needs, but the question is whether the items actually used correlate highly with all such tests. Like the Pearson Coefficient of Correlation, the range of scores varies from 0 to 1, with the desired range being between 0.6 and 0.9. The method of calculation of Cronbach's alpha is explained in Davis and Cosenza (1988:165), but the SPSS command 'reliability' was used. The alpha scores for the factors were:

Factor	Dimension	Alpha
one	social dimension	0.78

two	relaxation dimension	0.76
three	intellectual dimension	0.63
four	competence-mastery dimension	0.66

For factors one and two, the alpha scores were above 0.70. For factors three and four they were above 0.6. As the fourth factor consisted of simply two cases the test was not appropriate. These results are satisfactory, and are further evidence of the reliability of the items as measures of holiday motivation.

A number of questions need now to be examined. The four factors potentially give rise to a number of clusters. For example, holidaymakers might rate relaxation needs low, social needs high, and be sports orientated. Such a holidaymaker could be classified as a social-sports active person. On the other hand, another holidaymaker might be designated as a low social minded seeker after peace and quiet. In short, the four dimensions permit the postulation of several different types or clusters of holidaymakers. The sample is sufficiently large to permit a cluster analysis of the data.

A further question arises. Do different clusters of holiday makers seek different types of holiday resorts? The second section of the questionnaire permitted such an analysis. A third question is whether these motivations were satisfied by the holidays actually taken, in short, did a congruence between needs and perceived reality occur? Four, did the holiday resort visited actually

possess the attributes of the desired holiday resort?  
Finally, the sample is sufficiently large to examine the consistency of the factors between various sub-samples. For example, do the factors persist between males and females, young and old, and high and low income groups. A null hypothesis would be that these factors can be found groups based upon categorisations of age, gender, and income. These questions are the subject matter of appendix two.



Analysis of variance also indicated a lack of distinction between 2 of the smaller groups. Everitt and Dunn (1991:108) suggest that a cophenetic correlation matrix is a means of assessing the global fit of a dendrogram, but, as they discuss, even this is not without problems of interpretation. In this study the alternative technique, a 'correlation of confusion' was used.

Initial sorts indicated that a 13-cluster solution produced a result where 3 groups contained only 3 percent of the total sample. One such group consisted of only 5 respondents characterised by very low scores across all items. These apparently 'reluctant holiday takers' are obviously of interest, but too small a group for meaningful analysis in this study. Another 7 were also discarded being mainly 'isolates'. These groups are of psychological interest, but possibly they of little interest to those marketing holidays. One interesting possibility is that a substantial proportion of non-respondents might fall into these categories.

Table 10.1 gives distances between the clusters. Ideally, clusters will have centres that are far apart, while cases within a cluster will form 'tight' groups with values close together. An examination of table 10.1 indicates that cluster 1 (termed 'friendly discoverers') and cluster 13 ('mental relaxers') are far apart, as are

clusters 3 and 13 ('challenged intellects' and 'mental relaxers'). On the other hand the distance between clusters 10 and 4 is much closer. These groups were termed 'unimaginative relaxers' and 'relaxing moderates'. The cluster analysis also confirmed the dominance of the relaxation motivation amongst the sample as predicted by the factor analysis.

Variability within a cluster can be assessed by an analysis of variance. The results are shown in table 10.2. The between clusters mean square is labelled 'Cluster MS', and the within cluster mean square is titled 'Error MS'. The ratio between the two is found in the column headed 'F'. The 'cluster MS' scores should be high, while the 'Error MS' scores small - this combination representing the desired objective of coherent clusters of closely grouped items while the distances between the clusters are large. Table 10.1 indicates that this was the case for the 13-cluster solution. The probabilities associated with the analysis of variance in table 10.2 indicate that on each question the cluster means significantly differ from each other. Care needs to be taken before the 13-cluster solution is accepted as optimal. Everitt (1980) and Norusis (1990) note that as clusters have been selected deliberately to maximise differences and where observed differences have not been corrected for this, the F-tests are at best a guide and cannot be interpreted as rigorous tests of the

Table 10.1 Distances between Final Cluster centres.

Cluster	1	2	3	4	
	(n=12)	(n=133)	(n=59)	(n=197)	
1	.00				
2	5.71	.00			
3	5.38	6.97	.00		
4	6.66	4.35	6.44	.00	
5	8.09	8.20	7.34	8.16	
6	9.17	7.17	9.00	5.92	
7	6.92	5.42	5.88	5.33	
8	9.81	11.23	8.99	9.69	
9	9.53	6.96	7.90	6.66	
10	6.44	3.55	6.91	4.21	
11	6.34	5.71	5.17	6.82	
12	9.03	9.50	7.51	7.60	
13	10.78	7.71	10.74	7.42	
Cluster	5	6	7	8	
	(n=7)	(n=10)	(n=120)	(n=5)	
5	.00				
6	10.12	.00			
7	10.38	7.26	.00		
8	10.68	13.15	12.57	.00	
9	9.29	11.01	8.74	8.50	
10	7.56	7.32	7.06	8.69	
11	7.86	10.73	7.18	8.35	
12	6.94	9.68	11.18	7.15	
13	10.29	10.25	11.28	8.59	
Cluster	9	10	11	12	13
	(n=29)	(n=416)	(n=83)	(n=20)	(n=36)
9	.00				
10	5.19	.00			
11	4.93	5.02	.00		
12	9.32	7.90	8.82	.00	
13	5.95	5.25	8.11	8.49	0.00

Table 10.2 Analysis of Variance.

Variable	Cluster MS	Error MS	F
Increase knowledge	96.73	1.87	51.62
Avoid daily bustle	84.84	1.86	45.54
Build friendships	89.34	1.91	46.80
Challenge ability	128.30	2.06	62.37
Use imagination	142.54	2.13	67.04
Calm atmosphere	79.29	2.09	38.00
Close friends	107.17	1.91	55.99
Physical skills	117.98	2.51	47.08
Relax physically	79.79	2.03	39.33
Discover new places	40.95	1.34	30.55
Relax mentally	76.88	1.34	57.24
Be with others	117.96	1.93	61.21
Have good time	199.33	2.27	87.89

Notes Degrees of freedom for each question - 12  
All F-ratios significant at p<0.001

null hypothesis of no difference between means. However, from the descriptive viewpoint, it can be argued that the F-test does signify whether clusters are discriminatory variables for differences in attitude scores.

Although not reproduced here, an examination of individual cases was undertaken using scores based on both original and standardised scores. This revealed that a large number of these had scores indicating relative closeness to the cluster mean, while a few were peripheral to the cluster, while not being part of another cluster. To delete these cases would reinforce the clusters, resulting in little more than a tautological exercise where 'awkward data' is conveniently discarded. After due consideration, only one case seemed significantly awry, and hence only this one was deleted.

Other tests are also available. The Wilks' Lambda test measures the ratio of within groups sums of squares to the total sum of squares. Hence a value of 1 indicates that the observed mean group means are all equal - a value close to zero will mean that within group variability is small compared with total variability, and hence most of the observed variability is attributed to differences between groups. SPSS allows, as a

Table 10.3 Percentage of respondents 'correctly' allocated

	% allocated	N
Cluster 1	91.7	12
Cluster 2	93.2	133
Cluster 3	81.4	59
Cluster 4	87.9	197
Cluster 5	100.0	7
Cluster 6	100.0	10
Cluster 7	95.8	120
Cluster 8	100.0	5
Cluster 9	100.0	29
Cluster 10	67.7	416
Cluster 11	78.3	83
Cluster 12	100.0	20
Cluster 13	94.4	36

sub-command of its analysis of discriminant analysis, the Wilks' Lambda test to be undertaken when the number of groups is known. Using the 13-cluster solution, the test was applied to the items that provided the basis of the Leisure Motivation Scale. The values of Wilks' Lambda varied from 0.51 in the case of 'use of my imagination' to the highest value of 0.89 in the case of 'to gain a feeling of belonging' (an item that was actually dropped in the creation of the clusters). The 'usual' value for the items was approximately 0.61. Given the size of the sample, and following Everitt (1980) and Everitt and Burns (1991), this is an acceptable result.

SPSS also permits the establishment of what Norusis (1990:B9) calls a 'confusion matrix'. This indicates the degree to which an individual respondent has been allocated to the correct cluster where the calculation of the correct cluster has been based upon posterior probability using Bayes rule. Additionally, it becomes possible to test for each individual respondent. The

results of this calculation are shown in table 10.3

Cluster 10 has 416 respondents and is the largest individual grouping, but it appears that only 67.7 percent have been correctly allocated to this group. The full table was therefore analyzed, and in all but 2 cases for the 32.3 percent seemingly 'wrongly' allocated to cluster 10, it emerged that cluster 10 was either the most likely or second most likely group for membership. What also emerged was that of these 'problem' cases, most were scattered in terms of competing group membership, indicating therefore no obvious bias towards another cluster. The data is difficult to interpret, but when taken as a whole generally confirms the groupings. It must be noted that these results are obtained from tests within SPSS's catalog of sub-commands of the discriminant analysis command. As such they are based upon an assumption of a linear combination of independent variables. Discriminant analysis requires knowledge of an outcome and attempts to 'explain' that outcome by a combination of independent variables. Cluster analysis commences from a starting point where the outcome is unknown. To then take the results from the latter and apply the tests of the former is of interest to assess the viability of the groups, but to expect a close fit with such a large sample would be unrealistic. That the data fits as well as it does is 'encouraging', but the validity of the clusters will depend upon other factors

as indicated below.

Table 10.4 is a summary of the characteristics of the clusters derived from the four factors of the Ragheb and Beard Leisure Motivation Scale, and labels are attached to these clusters.

Table 10.4 Clusters of Holiday-takers

Cluster	Labels	Motivations			
		Relaxation	Social	Intellect.	Competency
Friendly	Discoverers	medium	medium-high	High	medium
Relaxed	Discoverers	high	low-medium	high	low
Competent	intellectuals	medium	medium	high	high
Relaxing	moderates	high	medium	medium-high	medium
Social	relaxers	high	high	medium	low
Positive	holidaytakers	high	high	high	high
Reluctant	holidaytakers	low	low	low	low
Active	relaxers	high	low	medium	high
Unimaginative	relaxers	high	low	high	low
intellectual	active	medium	low	high	high
	isolates				
Noisy	socialisers	low	medium	low	high
Mental	relaxers	high	low	low	low

The final cluster centre scores are listed in the appendices. The 'unimaginative relaxers' are a group that score highly on some items of the intellectual factor, but were noteworthy for low scores on the item 'to use my imagination'. 'Active relaxers' tended to score highly on the 'physically active/use of skills in sports' item as well as indicating a need for relaxation. Possibly physical exercise is a source of relaxation for these respondents. It would be expected that they would emerge as the sports takers and walkers amongst the sample. The group entitled 'competent intellectuals' (!) scored highly on both the scales measuring a wish to indicate mastery-competence and the intellectual factors. On the

other hand the 'mental relaxers' scored highly on the item to 'relax mentally' while scoring relatively highly on other items of the relaxation factor. 'Noisy socialisers' scored low on all social factor items except having a good time with friends. The Reluctant holidaytakers' were a very clear group, but only numbered 5 in total! Table 10.5 shows the numbers in each cluster, and the percentage of the total sample each cluster accounts for.

Table 10.5 Numbers in each Cluster (n=1127)

Cluster Label	N	% of total
Unimaginative relaxers	416	37%
Relaxing moderates	197	17%
Relaxed Discoverers	133	12%
Positive Holidaytakers	120	11%
Intellectual active isolates	83	7%
Competent Intellectuals	59	5%
Mental relaxers	36	3%
Active relaxers	29	2%
Noisy Socialisers	20	2%
Social relaxers	12	1%
Friendly Discoverers	11	<1%
Reluctant holidaymakers	5	<1%
Unclassified	16	2%
Number of respondents		

The unclassified and reluctant holidaymakers were omitted from subsequent analysis.

#### Socio-economic characteristics of the clusters

The clusters were examined to determine whether they had any specific social characteristics. In the following text, results are described as being 'significant' where a chi-square test indicates  $p < 0.05$ . From table 10.6 it can be seen that 'friendly discoverers', 'noisy socialisers' and 'competent intellectuals' were



significantly more likely to be single than married, while 'mental relaxers' were more likely to be married than single. It also seems that 'noisy socialisers' are significantly more likely to be male, as are 'friendly discoverers'; otherwise gender is not a significant determining variable. 'Noisy socialisers' also seem to conform to the clichéd picture of 'The Club' holiday-maker by significantly tending to be under the age of 35. Equally, the 'Friendly discoverers' tend to be under 35 years of age. 'Social relaxers' tend to be grouped around the age of 36 to 65, with a further 20 percent being over the age of 65. The 'competent intellectuals' are also significantly younger than sample mean. Those over 75 years of age seemed to be distributed proportionately through the different clusters except for two groupings. They were over-represented in the 'intellectual active isolates' (forming 6 percent of this group compared with 2.5 percent of the total sample) and interestingly, also formed 5.6 percent of the 'noisy socialisers'.

'Noisy Socialisers' are also significantly more likely not to have children under the age of 16 years old, while at the opposite end of the scale 'relaxing moderates' and 'mental relaxers' are much more likely to have children of that age. 'Positive holidaymakers' also tend to have young children, whereas the 'relaxed discoverers',

Table 10.6 Socio-demographics characteristics of the Clusters

	% married	% male	% age 36-65	% with children < 16 yrs old
Friendly Discoverers	58.3	70.0	25.0	25.0
Relaxed Discoverers	74.8	47.9	67.7	28.1
Competent intellectuals	51.8	61.8	43.9	26.3
Relaxing moderates	74.6	47.5	53.8	42.1
Social relaxers	66.7	55.6	70.0	20.0
Positive holiday-takers	75.2	49.6	65.5	37.5
Active relaxers	75.0	66.7	57.1	21.4
Unimaginative relaxers	84.3	47.3	65.0	35.3
Intellectual active isolates	78.8	61.3	66.3	30.1
Noisy socialisers	50.1	73.3	27.8	16.7
Mental relaxers	88.2	72.7	58.8	42.4
Total sample	77.0	51.6	60.8	34.3

Table 10.7 Income Categories of Clusters

	Income groupings (000s)					
	<£10 %	£10- %	£15 %	£25 %	£35- %	>£50 %
Friendly Discoverers	27.3	18.2	27.3	9.1	18.2	0
Relaxed Discoverers	30.0	12.5	36.7	13.3	6.7	0.8
Competent intellectuals	29.1	14.5	29.1	14.5	5.5	7.3
Relaxing moderates	16.0	18.2	34.8	15.0	11.2	4.8
Social relaxers	55.6	11.1	22.2	11.1	0	0
Positive holiday-takers	22.1	18.6	27.4	17.7	8.0	6.2
Active relaxers	10.7	7.1	35.7	25.0	14.3	7.1
Unimaginative relaxers	18.8	18.3	29.2	19.1	10.1	4.5
Intellectual active isolates	19.5	10.4	19.5	26.0	14.3	10.4
Noisy socialisers	52.9	29.4	5.9	11.8	0	0
Mental relaxers	30.0	13.3	33.3	13.3	6.7	3.3
Total sample	22.1	16.5	29.9	17.3	9.5	4.7

'friendly discovers' and 'competent intellectuals' tend to be without young children. Table 10.7 indicates the income distribution of the clusters. The 'noisy socialisers' appear not only to be young, childless and male, but also belonging to the lower income groups. 'Active intellectual isolates', when compared to other groups, are skewed to the higher income groups, as are

'active relaxers'. 'Social relaxers' are skewed towards the lower income groups.

Predominant socio-demographic characteristics of the cluster groups are summarised in figure 10.1

Figure 10.1 Dominant socio-demographic characteristics of cluster groups

Friendly discoverers	- male, young
Relaxed discoverers	- married, middle aged
Competent intellectuals	- youngish, tendency not to be married.
Relaxing moderates	- tend to follow the characteristics of sample population, ie not particularly young or old, high or low income!
Social relaxers	- middle age, lower income, slight tendency to be single
Positive holiday-takers	- similar to relaxing moderates
Active relaxers	- tend to be male - tend to higher income
Unimaginative holiday-takers	- tend to be married
Intellectual active isolates	- relative bias to higher income groups
Noisy socialisers	- male, young, low income
Mental relaxers	- married, male, with children.

Figure 10.1 indicates that while some social differences do exist between groups, they are not strongly marked in a number of groups, indicating a number of motivational

differences exist independently of socio-demographic determinants.

Cluster groups and desired attributes of holiday destinations

The question arises as to whether motivational differences between groups can account for different preferences for the attributes of holiday destinations. Table 10.8 indicates that differences in preferences do exist. The 'noisy socialisers' rated the presence of an active nightlife and the existence of many nightclubs and bars the highest out of all the clusters, thus confirming their prime holiday interests. They had little interest in the culture of the location or of its history and gave below average scores for the importance of 'friendly locals'. On the other hand 'friendly discoverers', 'relaxed discoverers' and 'intellectual active isolates' rated the culture and history of a place as desirable holiday attributes. The 'positive holiday takers' also shared this interest, but they also sought a place that allowed them to 'get away from it all' - an attribute also valued by the 'social relaxers' and 'relaxed discoverers'. The 'mental relaxers' tended to score below average in their listing of desired holiday attributes with the exceptions of an area possessing good facilities for children and accommodation that is comfortable.

Table 10.8 Mean scores on holiday destination attributes

		Night -life	Bars	Hist- ory	Scen- ery	Acomm	Comfort	Loc als
Friendly	Discoverers	2.9	1.8	6.0	6.7	6.3	6.1	5.7
Relaxed	Discoverers	2.2	1.8	5.7	6.6	6.3	6.4	6.1
Competent	intellectuals	4.3	3.1	4.9	5.8	5.1	5.3	5.7
relaxing	moderates	3.1	2.6	4.2	5.9	6.2	6.3	5.8
social	relaxers	2.4	2.3	4.1	6.0	6.4	6.1	6.0
positive	holiday-takers	3.3	2.6	5.5	6.5	6.3	6.3	6.2
Active	relaxers	1.8	1.5	4.3	6.2	5.3	5.5	5.4
Unimaginative	relaxers	1.9	1.6	5.1	6.1	5.9	5.9	5.6
intellectual	active	2.0	1.7	5.4	6.2	5.4	5.4	5.3
	isolates							
Noisy	socialisers	4.1	3.9	2.6	4.2	5.3	5.4	4.8
Mental	relaxers	1.8	1.4	3.5	5.3	5.7	6.1	4.9
Total	sample score	2.5	2.0	4.9	6.1	5.9	6.0	5.7
		Cul- ture	Get Away	Child- ren	mix	courier	climate	
Friendly	Discoverers	6.1	5.6	1.7	4.4	4.5	6.6	
Relaxed	Discoverers	5.8	6.4	2.6	3.2	4.2	5.9	
Competent	intellectuals	5.3	5.0	2.3	4.4	3.1	4.9	
relaxing	moderates	4.7	6.3	3.6	3.8	3.9	6.0	
social	relaxers	4.0	5.9	1.9	5.2	3.1	6.8	
positive	holiday-takers	5.8	6.3	3.2	4.8	4.7	6.1	
Active	relaxers	4.6	6.2	1.9	1.7	3.0	5.6	
Unimaginative	relaxers	5.3	5.8	2.9	2.7	3.7	5.8	
intellectual	active	5.5	4.9	2.3	2.2	2.9	5.3	
	isolates							
Noisy	socialisers	3.0	3.8	2.3	4.3	3.0	5.4	
Mental	relaxers	3.2	5.6	3.2	1.6	2.7	5.2	
Total	sample score	5.1	5.8	2.9	3.2	3.7	5.7	

All groupings tended to rate highly the factor that an area should possess a 'nice' climate, but there were significant differences between groups. The social relaxers scored this item as high (6.8), whereas the 'intellectual active socialisers' score less at 5.3.

One way of trying to clarify the detail is to simply list the attributes and the groups that scored highest and lowest on each of them. This produces the result shown in table 10.9.

Table 10.9 Summary of cluster scores

Attribute	Highest Scoring Cluster	Lowest Scoring Cluster
has an active nightlife	Competent intellectuals	mental relaxers
has many nightclubs and bars	noisy socialisers	mental relaxers
has an interesting history	friendly discoverers	noisy socialisers
has beautiful scenery	friendly discoverers	noisy socialisers
has good standard of accommodation	social relaxers	competent intellectuals
is comfortable	relaxed discoverers	competent intellectuals
has local people who are friendly	friendly discoverers	noisy socialisers
has an interesting culture	friendly discoverers	noisy socialisers
offers a chance to get away from it all	relaxed discoverers	noisy socialisers
offers good facilities for children	relaxed moderates	friendly discoverers
offers a chance to mix with lots of people	positive holidaymakers	mental relaxers
supportive couriers	positive holidaymakers	mental relaxers
nice climate	social relaxers	competent intellectuals

There are obviously a number of other ways in which the differences between the groups can be analyzed, but these issues are covered in later chapters. Having established the validity of these clusters, the clusters can be treated as another variable influencing or determining other variables such as levels of satisfaction, or as having differing attitudes to price or other factors. Therefore these relationships are examined in subsequent chapters.