Tourist Behaviour

An International Perspective
Tourist Behaviour

An International Perspective

Edited by

Metin Kozak

Dokuz Eylul University, İzmir–Turkey

and

Nazmi Kozak

Anadolu University, Eskişehir–Turkey
## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>About the Editors</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contributors</td>
<td>ix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Metin Kozak and Nazmi Kozak</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART I. INFLUENTIAL FACTORS</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Influence of Cultural Distance in Comparison with Travel Distance on Tourist Behaviour</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Daisy Suk-fong Fung and Bob McKercher</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Women’s Travel Constraints in a Unique Context</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Mojtaba (Moji) Shahvali, Reihaneh Shahvali and Deborah Kerstetter</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Can Perceptions of Italian Organized Crime Affect Travel Behaviour?</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ilenia Bregoli and Francesca Ceruti</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Women's Strategies in Golf: Portuguese Golf Professionals</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Helena Reis, Antonia Correia and Lee Phillip McGinnis</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART II. MOTIVATIONS</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Semi-automatic Content Analysis of Trip Diaries: Pull Factors to Catalonia</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Estela Marine-Roig and Salvador Anton Clavé</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Motivations for Wedding Tourism: A Demand-side Perspective</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Giacomo Del Chiappa and Fulvio Fortezza</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART III. DECISION MAKING/CHOICE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Hotel Disintermediation and User-generated Content in the Czech Republic</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Giacomo Del Chiappa, Šárka Velčovská and Marcello Atzeni</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td>Title</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Mapping Destination Choice: Set Theory as a Methodological Tool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Effects of Personal and Trip Characteristics on Holiday Choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Drivers of Trip Cancellations among Australian Travellers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Cognitive and Affective Bases for Tourists’ Consumption of Local Seafood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>PART IV. CONSUMPTION/EXPERIENCE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Experiential Travel and Guided Tours: Following the Latest Consumption Trends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>What Makes Visitors Spend More? Effects of Motivations on Daily Expenditure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>We are not Tourists. We Fit in this Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>PART V. POST-CONSUMPTION/POST-EXPERIENCE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Do Negative Experiences of Hospitality Services Always Lead to Dissatisfaction?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Structural Equation Modelling – Restaurant Guest Behavioural Intentions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Effects of People in Photographs on Potential Visitors’ Evaluations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Index</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
About the Editors

Metin Kozak is Professor of Tourism in the School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Dökuz Eylül University, Turkey. He holds both Master's and PhD degrees in tourism management. His research focuses on consumer behaviour, benchmarking, destination management and marketing, and sustainability. He acts as the co-editor of Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research and has been to various universities in the USA, Europe and Asia as a visiting scholar.

Nazmi Kozak is Professor of Tourism in the School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Anadolu University, Turkey. He gained both his Master’s and PhD degrees in tourism management. His research activities focus on tourism marketing, history of tourism and bibliometrics. He is the editor of Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi and the co-editor of Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research and has been to several universities in the USA as a visiting scholar.
Contributors

Stephen G. Atkins spent his early adult life as a manager and industrial engineer in spacecraft operations and later as a behavioural scientist in the study of astronaut performance in shuttle and space station environments. He now serves as Research Coordinator (Business) for Otago Polytechnic’s College for Enterprise and Development, New Zealand. Mailing address: Otago Polytechnic of New Zealand, PB 9010, Dunedin, New Zealand. E-mail: satkins@op.ac.nz

Marcello Atzeni is a PhD student in Business Administration at the Department of Economics and Business, University of Cagliari, Italy. His research interests include tourism marketing, cultural tourism and authenticity in tourism. Mailing address: Department of Economics and Business, University of Cagliari, Viale Sant Ignazio 74, 09100 Cagliari, Italy. E-mail: marcelloatzeni@icloud.com

Christopher Beagley holds a Higher Diploma in Hospitality Management, QRC, Queenstown, and a Bachelor’s Degree in Applied Management, Otago Polytechnic, Dunedin, all situated in New Zealand. He is currently employed as an accounts manager for Heartland Bank New Zealand. His interest in hospitality management has led to an ongoing tourist-restaurant research programme. Mailing address: Heartland Bank New Zealand, Auckland, New Zealand. E-mail: christopherbeagley@gmail.com

Ilenia Bregoli is a Senior Lecturer in Marketing at the Lincoln Business School, UK. She was awarded her PhD at the Catholic University of Milan, Italy. Her research is focused on destination branding, destination governance, experiential marketing in multi-stakeholder environments and wine tourism. Mailing address: Lincoln Business School, University of Lincoln, Brayford Wharf East, Lincoln, Lincolnshire, LN5 7AT, UK. E-mail: ibregoli@lincoln.ac.uk

J. Michael Campbell is a Professor at the University of Manitoba, Canada. He received his PhD from the University of Waterloo, Canada. His research interests focus on the human dimensions of natural resource management, sustainable nature-based tourism and parks and protected areas’ planning and management. Mailing address: Clayton H. Riddell Faculty of Environment Earth and Resources, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada. E-mail: Michael.Campbell@umanitoba.ca

Francesca Ceruti is a Research Fellow at the University of Milano-Bicocca, Italy. She received her PhD in Business Administration, Management and Territorial Economics and served on several advisory committees to the Italian Ministry of Economic Development. Her research is focused on raw materials, e-commerce and multichannel customer management. Mailing address: Department of Business Administration, Finance, Management and Law, University of Milano-Bicocca, Piazza dell’Ateneo Nuovo, 1, 20126, Milan, Italy. E-mail: francesca.ceruti@unimib.it
Salvador Anton Clavé is a Professor of Regional Geographical Analysis at the Rovira i Virgili University in Catalonia, Spain. Currently, he is a Research Scholar at the George Washington University. His research concentrates on the evolution of tourist destinations, the role of ICT in tourism and tourism policies and local development. Mailing address: Faculty of Tourism and Geography, Rovira i Virgili University, Joanot Martorell, 15, 43480 Vila-seca, Catalonia, Spain. E-mail: salvador.anton@urv.cat

Antonia Correia is a Professor of Tourist Behaviour and Tourism Economics, University of Algarve and Universidade Europeia, both in Portugal. Her main research interests focus on consumer behaviour, tourism economics and modelling. She has a number of papers published in tourism, leisure and economics journals. Mailing address: CEFAGE, Faculty of Economics, University of Algarve, and School of Tourism, Sports and Hospitality, Universidade Europeia, Rua Antonio Henrique Balte, lote 78, 8005-328 Faro, Portugal. E-mail: ahcorreia@gmail.com

Guliz Coskun-Zambak is currently working for American National Investments in San Diego, California. She received her PhD in Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management at Clemson University, South Carolina. Her research focused on understanding tourist couples’ influence on each other in local food choices while travelling. Mailing address: American National Investments, 3515 Hancock St, San Diego, CA, USA, 92112. E-mail: gcoskun@clemson.edu

Stefano Dall’Aglio is a statistician with a broad experience in the field of tourism development. He is managing director and co-founder of Econstat, a renowned Italian research and advisory company based in Bologna. His projects are related to competitive planning of destinations and tourism services, consumer behaviour and development of new products. Mailing address: Econstat, Via Vallescura 45, 40136 Bologna, Italy. E-mail: sda@econstat.it

Giacomo Del Chiappa is an Assistant Professor at the Department of Economics and Business, University of Sassari, Italy. He acts as a senior research fellow at the School of Tourism and Hospitality, University of Johannesburg, South Africa. His research is related to destination governance and branding, consumer behaviour and digital marketing. Mailing address: Department of Economics and Business, University of Sassari, Via Muroni 25, 07100 Sassari, Italy. E-mail: gdelchiappa@uniss.it

Sara Dolnicar is a Professor at the Business School, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia. Her research interests are measurement and methodology in marketing research. She has applied her work to a range of areas, including tourism and social marketing. Mailing address: School of Business, The University of Queensland, Sir Fred Schonell Drive, St Lucia, QLD 4072, Australia. E-mail: s.dolnicar@uq.edu.au

Fulvio Fortezza is an Assistant Professor at the Department of Economics and Management of the University of Ferrara, Italy. His research is related mainly to experience economy, collaborative consumption and happiness. Mailing address: Department of Economics and Management, University of Ferrara, Via Voltapalotto 11, 44121 Ferrara, Italy. E-mail: fulvio.fortezza@unife.it

Homa Hajibaba is a PhD candidate at the Faculty of Business at the University of Wollongong, Australia. Her research interests include quantitative marketing, market segmentation and tourism marketing. Mailing address: Faculty of Business, University of Wollongong, Northfields Avenue, Wollongong, NSW 2522, Australia. E-mail: hhb896@uowmail.edu.au

Shoji Iijima is a Professor of Architecture at University of the Ryukyus, Japan. He obtained his PhD in environmental engineering from Okayama University, Japan. He has analysed townscape environments in and outside Japan, applying theories and methods employed in studies of light and visual environments. Mailing address: Graduate School of Tourism Sciences, University of the Ryukyus, 1 Senbaru, Nishihara, Okinawa, 903-0213, Japan. E-mail: iijimash@tm.u-ryukyu.ac.jp

Marion Karl is a Research Associate at the Department of Geography, LMU Munich, Germany, and PhD candidate at the Chair of Economic Geography and Tourism Research, LMU Munich, Germany. Her research focuses on the destination choice process and relevant influencing factors, among them perceptions of risk. Mailing address: Department of Geography, LMU Munich, Luisenstrasse 37, 80333 Munich, Germany. E-mail: marion.karl@lmu.de
Deborah Kerstetter is a Professor of Recreation, Park, and Tourism Management in the College of Health and Human Development at Penn State University, USA. She has written nearly 100 manuscripts and multiple book chapters on travel decision making, as well as the impacts of travel on individual travellers and residents of host communities. Mailing address: Department of Recreation, Park, and Tourism Management, Penn State University, 801D Ford Building, University Park, Pennsylvania, USA. E-mail: debk@psu.edu

Muhammet Kesgin is an Assistant Professor in the School of International Hospitality and Service Innovation at Rochester Institute of Technology in Rochester, USA. He obtained his PhD from Coventry University, UK. His research interests are in the production and consumption of services and experiences in hospitality and tourism. Mailing address: Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Rochester Institute of Technology, 14 Lomb Memorial Drive, 14623, Rochester, New York, USA. E-mail: muhammet.kesgin@rit.edu

Metin Kozak is a Professor of Tourism in the School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Dokuz Eylul University, Turkey. He holds both Master's and PhD degrees in tourism management. His research focuses on consumer behaviour, benchmarking, destination management and marketing and sustainability. Mailing address: School of Tourism, Dokuz Eylul University, Foca, Izmir, Turkey. E-mail: metin.kozak@deu.edu.tr

Nazmi Kozak is a Professor of Tourism in the School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Anadolu University, Turkey. He gained both his Master's and PhD degrees in tourism management. His research activities focus on tourism marketing, history of tourism and bibliometrics. Mailing address: School of Tourism, Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey. E-mail: nkozak@anadolu.edu.tr

Hanjung Lee obtained her MA in Recreation Studies from the University of Manitoba, Canada. Her research interests are primarily in the areas of tourists’ behaviour and cross-cultural management in the field of international volunteer tourism. She currently works with Habitat for Humanity Korea as a manager of the International Projects team. Mailing address: Habitat for Humanity Korea, Seoul, 04598, South Korea. E-mail: hjlee1@habitat.or.kr

Mimi Li is an Associate Professor in the School of Hotel and Tourism Management, the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. She received her PhD from Purdue University, USA. Her research interests include consumer behaviour in hospitality and tourism, destination marketing, children tourism and tourism planning. Mailing address: School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, 17 Science Museum Road, TST East, Kowloon, Hong Kong. E-mail: mimi.li@polyu.edu.hk

Tingting Liu is currently a Corporate Management Trainee in the Starwood Hotel Group. She received her Master's degree from the School of Hotel and Tourism Management, the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. Her research interests focus on tourist behaviour and destination marketing. Mailing address: School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, 17 Science Museum Road, TST East, Kowloon, Hong Kong. E-mail: lindatingting.liu@connect.polyu.hk

Estela Marine-Roig is a Visiting Professor at the AEGERN Department of the University of Lleida, Catalonia, Spain. She holds a European PhD in tourism and leisure. Her research interests include the analysis of the image and identity of tourist destinations through tourism online sources. Mailing address: Department of Business Administration and Economic Management of Natural Resources, University of Lleida, Jaime II Street, 25001-Lleida, Catalonia, Spain. E-mail: estela.marine@aegeern.udl.cat

Lee Phillip McGinnis is an Associate Professor of Marketing at Stonehill College in Easton, Massachusetts, USA. He earned a PhD in marketing from the University of Nebraska. His research interests include underdog consumption, gender and sports, ritual consumption and brand communities. Mailing address: Business Department, Stonehill College, 101B Stanger Building, 320 Washington Street, Easton, MA, USA. E-mail: lmcginnis@stonehill.edu

Bob McKercher is a Professor of Tourism in the School of Hotel and Tourism Management at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. He has been awarded the Lifetime Achievement Award of
the International Academy of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research and is the President of the International Academy for the Study of Tourism. Mailing address: School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, 17 Science Museum Road, Hong Kong. E-mail: bob.mckercher@polyu.edu.hk

Taketo Naoi is an Associate Professor of Tourism at Tokyo Metropolitan University, Japan. He obtained his PhD from the School of Management, the University of Surrey, UK. His research interests are related mainly to theories of environmental psychology, consumer behaviour, town planning, heritage tourism and destination image. Mailing address: Department of Tourism Science, Graduate School of Urban Environmental Sciences, Tokyo Metropolitan University, 1-1 Minami-Osawa, Hachioji City, Tokyo, 192-0397, Japan. E-mail: naoi-taketo@tmu.ac.jp; tnaoi@hotmail.co.jp

Masahiro Ogawa is a Master’s student of Graduate School of Urban Environmental Sciences, Tokyo Metropolitan University, Japan. He has researched the effects the presence of other people at destinations has on visitors’ evaluations of the destinations. He has currently been investigating the characteristics of other people and places on potential visitors’ evaluation of the places, using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Mailing address: Department of Tourism Science, Graduate School of Urban Environmental Sciences, Tokyo Metropolitan University, 1-1 Minami-Osawa, Hachioji City, Tokyo, 192-0397, Japan. E-mail: ogabo_stream784@yahoo.co.jp

Christine Reintinger is a Research Associate and Lecturer at the Department of Geography, LMU Munich, Germany. One of her main research interests is the perception of global change aspects and travel decision making. Mailing address: Department of Geography, LMU Munich, Luisenstrasse 37, 80333 Munich, Germany. E-mail: c.reintinger@lmu.de

Helena Reis is a Professor at the School of Management, Hospitality and Tourism of the University of Algarve, Portugal. With a Masters in women’s studies, her main research interests are gender participations in tourism activities. Her current research interests relate to consumer behaviour, gender and tourism. Mailing address: CIEO, School of Management, Hospitality and Tourism, University of Algarve, 8005-139 Faro, Portugal. E-mail: hreis@ualg.pt

Mojtaba (Moji) Shahvali is currently a PhD candidate in the Department of Recreation, Park, and Tourism Management in the College of Health and Human Development at Penn State University, USA. His dissertation focuses on travel and individuals’ well-being, applying the theories of positive psychology to tourism studies. Mailing address: Department of Recreation, Park, and Tourism Management, Penn State University, 801C Ford Building, University Park, Pennsylvania, USA. E-mail: mojtaba.shahvali@gmail.com

Reihaneh Shahvali holds an MA in sociology from Shiraz University, Iran. She investigates how travellers’ culture at various levels impact their travel destination choice. She is also interested in cultural interactions between tourists and host communities. Mailing address: 144, 3rd Avenue, Mirzaye Shirazi Boulevard, Shiraz, Iran. E-mail: reihan.shahvali@gmail.com

Han Shen is an Associate Professor in the Department of Tourism, Fudan University, China. She obtained her PhD from the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences and she specializes in consumer behaviour, tourism marketing and service management. Mailing address: Department of Tourism, Fudan University, 220 Handan Road, Yangpu District, Shanghai, China. E-mail: shen_han@fudan.edu.cn

Daisy Suk-fong Fung is a Lecturer of Hong Kong Community College, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong. She has worked for about 20 years in the tourism industry. She is an appointed Executive Board Member of the Hong Kong Association of Registered Tour Coordinators by the Hong Kong Tourism Board. Mailing address: Hong Kong Community College, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, PolyU West Kowloon Campus, 9 Hoi Ting Road, Yau Ma Tei, Kowloon, Hong Kong. E-mail: ccdaisy@hkcc-polyu.edu.hk

Tonny Tonny holds a Graduate Diploma in Applied Management from the Otago Polytechnic, New Zealand, and a Bachelor’s Degree in Engineering from Universitas Atma Jaya Jakarta, Indonesia. Currently, he is a Sales and Marketing Professional in Wellington, New Zealand. He is
interested in retailing management, services management and consumer behaviour. Mailing address: Otago Polytechnic of New Zealand, PB 9010, Dunedin, New Zealand. E-mail: tonnt1@yahoo.co.nz

Šárka Velčovská is an Assistant Professor at the Department of Marketing and Business, Faculty of Economics, Technical University of Ostrava, Czech Republic. She received her PhD in Business Economics and Management. Her research is focused on product management in the B2C market, food quality labels and consumer behaviour. Mailing address: Department of Marketing and Business, Faculty of Economics, VŠB – Technical University of Ostrava, Sokolska 33, 701 21 Ostrava, Czech Republic. E-mail: sarka.velcovska@vsb.cz

Anita Zátori is an Assistant Professor at the Tourism Center, Institute of Marketing and Media, Corvinus University of Budapest, Hungary, and is currently a Visiting Scholar at Pamplin College of Business, Virginia Tech, USA. Her research interest is in cultural and city tourism, with a special focus on tourist experience. Mailing address: Tourism Center, Corvinus University of Budapest, Fovam ter 8, 1093 Budapest, Hungary. E-mail: anita.zatori@uni-corvinus.hu
1 Introduction

Metin Kozak1* and Nazmi Kozak2
1Dokuz Eylul University, Turkey; 2Anadolu University, Turkey

In the modern world, the investigation of consumer behaviour is of central importance in understanding key influences on our changing world and newly emerging lifestyles. Competition between similar products has become increasingly fierce, and this competition exerts a significant influence on consumer decision making, even when the products in question are in different categories. Migration for the purposes of education or employment has pioneered significant economic transitions. Most importantly, from the early 21st century onwards, rapid advances in information and communication technologies have opened up a new era of products and services intended to make people’s lives much easier. As a result of these developments, a focus on consumers has become central to marketing, and more specifically, marketing in the tourism industry has focused increasingly on specific destinations.

Research into consumer behaviour is focused on understanding the questions of who, what, why, when and how that underlie consumer decisions. The field blends the disciplines of psychology, sociology, anthropology and economics, seeking to develop a better understanding of decision making. Such an interrelated and multidimensional structure can explain better how and why consumer behaviour is dynamic and continuous across different time zones. The same consumer may have different experiences of the same product/brand category on each separate occasion of the use or consumption of a product/brand. Consumer behaviour is also dynamic across different product categories. On the other hand, a consumer may react to different products in different ways. The same consumer may have different motivations, may search for information in different ways, and may employ different decision-making strategies or obtain different outcomes, post-experience. The changing nature of social, economic or geographic factors can play an important role in the stability or instability of these interrelated factors.

As a particular subject of enquiry within social or economic psychology, consumer behaviour first attracted the attention of academics in the 1960s, when the first books on the topic appeared (Engel et al., 1968; Howard and Sheth, 1969). Research in the field is anchored in two seminal research journals, the Journal of Consumer Research (founded in 1974) and the Journal of Economic Psychology (founded in 1982). In subsequent years, additional journals have been launched, and these have expanded the limits of consumer behaviour and widened the scope of the academic

*Corresponding author, e-mail: metin.kozak@deu.edu.tr
literature by introducing contemporary research topics. There have already been a number of relevant publications in the last millennium (Engel et al., 1968; Howard and Sheth, 1969; Schiffman and Kanuk, 1978), although the past decade has witnessed a significant increase in the number of book contributions on consumer behaviour (Hanna and Wozniak, 2001; Solomon, 2013). Some of these have been published in several editions over the years.

Consumer behaviour attracted the attention of tourism scholars from the late 1970s and the early 1980s. However, empirical investigation of the topic has gained rapid momentum since the dawn of the new millennium. We are likely to see an increasing number of journal papers, book chapters and conference presentations focusing on the subject of tourist behaviour as the central topic of tourism studies. While the most frequently researched subjects include motivations, information search, satisfaction and loyalty, other aspects of the consumer behaviour model, for example the evaluation of alternatives, choice and experience (or consumption), remain potential topics for further investigation.

Over the years, we have become increasingly familiar with each stage of tourist behaviour, due to the publication of an increasing number of books, conference papers and journal articles on these topics. There have been a great many journal articles and conference papers on consumer behaviour in general and on tourist behaviour in particular. The past two decades have also witnessed an increase in the number of book contributions on tourist behaviour (Pizam and Mansfeld, 1999; Decrop, 2006; Swarbrooke and Horner, 2007; Bowen and Clarke, 2009; Kozak and Decrop, 2009; Pearce, 2011). Tourist behaviour has also been introduced as a single subject into the curriculum of many tourism schools or programmes worldwide, at Bachelors, Masters or PhD level.

Moreover, new conference initiatives have been created with a clear focus on tourist behaviour/psychology. In particular, a symposium was launched in 1998 specializing in the consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure. A tradition emerged of selecting papers from this symposium for inclusion in a special book edition, and several volumes have already appeared (Mazanec et al., 2001; Crouch et al., 2004; Woodside and Kozak, 2014a,b). The symposium is soon to celebrate its 10th series, in 2017. It aims to develop a strong focus on consumer behaviour in the field of tourism, hospitality and leisure, from both a theoretical and a practical perspective.

Many conference organizations have brought to the fore hot topics relating to tourist behaviour, by focusing on these issues as conference themes. To take just one example, the Advances in Tourism Marketing Conference (ATMC) was held in Bournemouth, UK, in September 2009. The idea motivating this present volume originated during discussions that took place prior to two conference series held in Istanbul, Turkey, on 4–9 June 2014, entitled the Interdisciplinary Tourism Research Conference and the World Conference for Graduate Research in Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure. This series has attracted the participation of over 260 scholars from across the world, providing the opportunity for an interactive debate on key topics that have included sustainable tourism, destination marketing, competitiveness, tourism economics and tourist behaviour. To complete the missing material, two more chapters written by invited contributors have been included (Chapters 10 and 14).

In this respect, Tourist Behaviour: An International Perspective can also be considered a new contribution to the advancement of the literature, bringing new questions for the field to address in the future. The book aims to review and to stimulate interest in a number of emerging and fresh topics in tourist behaviour and experience from a distinctively contemporary perspective. The book can be differentiated from others by virtue of its focus on understanding the real tourist experience. It has been designed to follow a systematic order, first following the major stages of the consumer behaviour model, then introducing influential factors such as cultural distance, travel constraints and organized crime. The book has five main parts and 18 chapters.

### 1.1 Part I – Influential Factors

Examined from a broad perspective, there appear to be many factors influencing the changing
patterns of consumer behaviour. The (in)stability of consumer behaviour is likely to be influenced by social, cultural, economic, psychological or geographic factors; for example, social media, transition among generations, cultural or physical distance and snobbishness, among others (Hofstede, 1980; Plog, 2002; Buhalis and Law, 2008; McKercher and Bao, 2008; Nyau-pane and Andereck, 2008; Pendergast, 2010; Xiang and Gretzel, 2010). Specifically, the selected chapters in this part examine the external factors influencing the travel and tourism behaviour of consumers. The discussion includes three chapters on cultural distance, travel constraints and organized crime. From a more general point of view, the discussion concerns quality of life and its relation to travel constraints and organized crime, and addresses some of the leading strategies available to overcome such undesirable outcomes.

The impact of cultural distance is considered a very important topic in the examination of travel behaviour. Thus, Chapter 2, by Daisy Suk-fong Fung and Bob McKercher, examines the extent of the influence of cultural distance on tourist behaviour, then compares this to travel distance. The study compares the profile, travel patterns and activities of eight different markets that vary in their cultural distance from Hong Kong. Departing from the existing literature, Chapter 3, by Mojtaba Shahvali, Reihaneh Shahvali and Deborah Kerstetter, investigates the influence of social privilege and culture on the constraints of Iranian women who travel for leisure and pleasure. Through the adoption of ‘stock of knowledge’, Chapter 4, by Ilenia Bregoli and Francesca Ceruti, provides another cross-cultural study, and examines how the image perceptions of Italian and British travellers towards Italian organized crime affect behaviour. Chapter 5, by Helena Reis, Antonia Correia and Lee Phillip McGinnis, suggests an innovative contribution to the explanation of why women engage in golf as a strategy for dealing with gender inequities. Results show that Portuguese professional golfers conform to three strategies: accommodating (highest perception of interpersonal constraints), unapologetic (highest perception of structural constraints) and unaware (highest perception of intrapersonal factors).

### 1.2 Part II – Motivations

Motivation is a key variable in understanding the changing direction of tourist behaviour. Central to motivation is the concept of need (Dann, 1981; Pearce, 1988). Needs motivate behaviour, and in order to understand motivation, it is necessary to discover what those needs are and how they can be fulfilled. It is especially important to understand needs in the context of the tourism industry, as it is not the product or the service that people purchase but the expectation of having their needs satisfied by amenities and benefits (Crompton and McKay, 1997). Visitors purchase expectations, and it is whether these expectations are met or exceeded that gives satisfaction or delight (Kotler et al., 1998). The aim should be to enhance and maximize visitor satisfaction with the experience (Pearson and Sullivan, 1995). Further assessment will then aid the development of efficient marketing strategies such as product development, market segmentation and branding. This part of the book examines tourist motivations when participating in various tourism- and travel-related activities at the first stage of the tourist behaviour model.

Chapter 6, by Estela Marine-Roig and Salvador Anton Clavé, proposes a method to conduct a massive computerized quantitative content analysis of travel blogs and online travel reviews. The findings relate to the pull factors that motivate the trip, and can be compared with earlier studies based on surveys dealing with tourism motivation. Chapter 7, by Giacomo Del Chiappa and Fulvio Fortezza, investigates the main motivations that drive couples to celebrate their wedding ceremony outside their hometown as an emerging market segment of the future tourism industry. The findings suggest that the theoretical lens of the experiential approach and consumer value can be applied usefully in order to interpret couples’ decision making as driven by the motivation to seek functional, social, emotional and altruistic experiential values.

### 1.3 Part III – Decision Making/Choice

The topic of decision making is a cornerstone in marketing and consumer behaviour. Choosing
and buying products involves decisions, and thereby involves a decision-making process. Van Raaij and Crotts (1994) identify consumer decision making as a topic of particular concern in economic psychology. Likewise, central chapters are devoted to ‘decision processes’ in most consumer/tourist behaviour textbooks (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000; Decrop, 2006; Kozak and Decrop, 2009; Solomon, 2013). Because it is influenced by an extensive list of internal and external factors, choosing between alternatives demands a great deal of time and effort to be accomplished successfully. Making a choice or a decision is a ceaseless human activity. In our daily lives, we are tireless decision makers in a vast range of contexts, such as education, occupation, marriage and travel. Almost every day, we make decisions about the use of our time and money. We commit ourselves to meeting people, we decide to buy products, to watch television, to perform certain activities, to go to bed. The investigation of decision making is worthwhile, given that decisions direct our behaviour and therefore our futures. Decision making has generated a lot of interest in many disciplines, including economics, sociology, the political sciences, law, psychology and the management sciences. This part provides a number of relevant and interesting study findings and theoretical approaches.

Chapter 8, by Giacomo Del Chiappa, Šárka Velčovská and Marcello Atzeni, investigates the perceptions of students regarding the topic of disintermediation and considers the influence of user-generated content on hotel choice. The findings suggest that hotel marketers and travel agencies should monitor Generation Y views on the topic of disintermediation and should create effective commitment in young customers through online channels in order to maintain long-term relationships. Chapter 9, by Marion Karl and Christine Reintinger, uses set theory as a methodological tool to investigate and understand better the structure of destination choice process. The results show that choice sets vary in regard to size, composition and the homogeneity of alternative destinations. Unsurprisingly, while alternatives are more diverse at the beginning, they are fairly similar towards the end of the choice process. Chapter 10, by Muhammet Kesgin, examines the role and relevance of personal and trip characteristics on holiday choice. The study shows that the length of stay, location, education and country have a certain degree of influence, while gender has no influence. Chapter 11, by Homa Hajibaba and Sara Dolnicar, asks whether the nature of the unexpected event, traveller characteristics and trip characteristics are associated with cancellation behaviour. The results indicate that international travel experience, personality, risk-taking, travel party composition and motivations affect cancellation behaviour. Chapter 12, by Guliz Coskun-Zambak, proposes a conceptual model for understanding the impact of attitudes on the local food purchasing intentions of couples visiting coastal areas.

1.4 Part IV – Consumption/Experience

Consumption and experience constitute the central part of the consumer behaviour model, as this is the output of why and how consumers make decisions and exert effort (Morgan and Watson, 2009). A relatively new and important development is emerging in the literature that establishes a causal relationship between the service environment and the behaviour of the individuals being served in that environment (Mattila and Wirtz, 2006; Joseph-Mathews and Bonn, 2009). This suggests that the environment in which a service is being consumed is critical to the success or failure of the purchase from the consumers’ perspective (Bonn and Joseph, 2007). The three chapters included in this part focus on the content of tourist experiences in this context while on a holiday.

Chapter 13, by Anita Zátori, pays particular attention to sightseeing tours in order to understand better the implications of the new trend for experiential travel and tourism behaviour. The results of the primary research are discussed in terms of the frames of the identified needs and consumer behaviour of the ‘old’ tourist, the ‘new’ tourist and the ‘newest’ experiential tourist, as based on the literature review. Chapter 14, by Tingting Liu, Mimi Li and Han Shen, examines the relationship between the travel motivation of tourists and their daily expenditure at the destinations. The results reveal that the most significant variables determining tourists’ spending are the respondents’ motivations for self-development, prestige and social status, escape and relationships.
Chapter 15, by Hanjung Lee and J. Michael Campbell, aims to shed light on the social relations between volunteer tourists and residents, and suggests that volunteer tourism may not be superior to so-called ‘mass tourism’ in terms of the relationships between volunteer tourists and residents.

1.5 Part V – Post-consumption/ Post-experience

Focusing on the final stage of the consumer behaviour model, this part looks at the issue of how the quality of tourists’ experiences is likely to contribute to their perceptions of compliments, complaints and intentions. Such outputs are measured as intentions and given various names, such as ‘repeat visit intentions’, ‘loyalty’ or ‘word-of-mouth recommendation’ (Kozak and Rimmington, 2000; Foster, 2009; Li and Petrick, 2009). How single items can contribute to the quality of generic experience or generic perceptions of the experience with single items is called ‘overall customer satisfaction’. The way to establish the association between dependent (intentions) and independent (overall satisfaction) outputs is to include the content of the post-consumption stage. The literature on tourist behaviour differentiates itself from work on consumer behaviour in that the former lacks any evidence of attitudes towards ‘recycling’ that include the process of how to dispose of the recycled materials (Kozak and Decrop, 2009; Kozak and Kozak, 2013; Solomon, 2013).

Chapter 16, by Giacomo Del Chiappa and Stefano Dall’Aglio, aims to test whether or not negative/positive experiences of hospitality service always lead to visitor dissatisfaction/satisfaction. The findings suggest that reviews connected to visitors’ dissatisfaction/satisfaction often include negative/positive sentiment. Chapter 17, by Christopher Beagley, Stephen G. Atkins and Tonny Tonny, identifies potential predictors of favourable guest intentions and finds atmosphere and food quality to be impressive predictors involved in maintaining repeat visit intentions to the same restaurant. Chapter 18, by Masahiro Ogawa, Takeo Naoi and Shoji Iijima, explores the relationship between visitors’ evaluations of tourist sites and the presence of other people pictured in photographs. The results of the analysis suggest that the presence of people may strengthen touristic implications in public spaces, but may negatively affect viewers’ impressions of objects of ‘the romantic gaze’.

1.6 Final Words

To sum up, this volume includes chapters dealing with a wide range of topics related to tourist behaviour. The methodologies of the contributing authors include both qualitative and quantitative methods and range from surveys (e.g. interviews and questionnaires) to advanced qualitative methods (e.g. travel writings, diaries, ethnography and content analysis). As part of a broad collaborative effort, a number of different perspectives on a wide diversity of topics from influential factors to post-consumption are presented by 37 authors from 29 different institutions and 17 countries. As such, the richness of the volume derives not only from the cultural diversity of its contributors, but also from the content of the chapters, each of which explores the significance of understanding tourist behaviour in a different way and considers the elaboration of case studies from an international perspective.

In this context, the book will be of help for readers who wish to expand their existing knowledge of tourist behaviour by discovering new and additional approaches. As a whole, the book opens new lines for future research topics. This book will appeal to tourism researchers, such as faculty and postgraduate students, worldwide. In addition, practitioners will also benefit greatly from the study and use of the case studies to create a more positive tourism experience through their service provision.

We acknowledge and thank all the authors for their remarkable contributions and for their respectful commitment and continuous cooperation that has been of such help in bringing this project to fruition. We would also like to thank CABI for giving us the unique opportunity to publish this volume in such a smooth and professional manner. Without your endless support, positivity and understanding and close cooperation we would never have been able to make this happen. We are grateful for the opportunity to publish this volume and hope that it will make a useful contribution to the growing literature on tourist behaviour.
References


2 Influence of Cultural Distance in Comparison with Travel Distance on Tourist Behaviour

Daisy Suk-fong Fung* and Bob McKercher
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, SAR China

2.1 Introduction

The impact of travel distance on tourist demand is well recognized by industry practitioners and academics. Distance decay theory argues that the absolute volume of tourists declines exponentially with an increase in distance. Distance also exerts great influence on tourist behaviour. Distance dynamics represent a cumulative effect of many factors, such as time availability, cost, risk, cultural distance and motive (McKercher, 2008a,b). The impact of cultural distance is also considered a potentially important aspect in examining travel behaviour. This study examines the extent to which cultural distance influences tourist behaviour in comparison with travel distance. This is accomplished by examining the profile and activities of eight different markets attracted to Hong Kong that have varying cultural distances. The measurement of their cultural distances is based on Hofstede’s (1980) Uncertainty Avoidance Index. The data are generated from the Visitor Profile Report 2010 on Vacation Overnight Visitors published by the Hong Kong Tourism Board.

2.2 Literature Review

This effect of distance on the movements of people is commonly referred to as the distance decay effect. Demand for tourism varies inversely with the distance travelled. According to Bull (1991), the further one travels from the point of origin, the less demand there will be for the tourism product. This is because most people are unwilling to invest the greater time, money and effort required to travel longer distances if the same benefit can be obtained nearby.

2.2.1 Impact of travel distance on visitor profile and destination choice

Travel distance plays a crucial part in understanding the visitor’s profile and his or her choice of destination. In their study on the effect of distance on tourism, Lau and McKercher (2004) note that long-haul tourists tend to be older and usually travel with their spouses. A high percentage of first-time long-haul tourists take multi-destination trips. In contrast, short-haul tourists are generally younger, more likely to be female and travel with friends. They are usually repeat visitors who travel to one main destination (McKercher and Bao, 2008).

2.2.2 Impact of travel distance on visitor characteristics and activities

The study by McKercher and Bao (2008) also reveals that visitors from short-haul markets are

*Corresponding author, e-mail: ccdaisy@hkcc-polyu.edu.hk
usually short-break visitors who are more interested in a pure pleasure-based holiday. They place more emphasis on shopping, built attractions and other hedonistic activities. Visitors from long-haul markets are more likely to engage in general sightseeing and experiencing the cultural distance of the destination. They spend proportionately less time shopping.

2.2.3 Definition of culture

National culture is one of the main factors influencing tourist behaviour. Culture is the way of life of a group of people, whose patterns of behaviour are passed from one generation to another (Hofstede, 1980). It includes elements such as food, music, art, language, religion and dress. Some hidden dimensions of culture include issues such as values, notions of cleanliness, male–female relationships and sanitary practices. Soloman (1996) defines culture as the accumulation of shared meaning, rituals, norms and traditions among members of society. It is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes members of one society from another.

2.2.4 Impact of cultural distance on destination choice

Cultural distance (CD) measures the extent to which national cultures are different from or similar to the culture of the host (Shenkar, 2001). The study by Ng et al. (2006) confirmed a negative relationship between cultural distance and intention to visit: the greater the cultural distance between a country and a destination, the less likely tourists were to visit that destination. They suggested that tourists might experience culture shock when visiting culturally distant destinations. They may experience stress when facing differences in language, food, pace of life, cleanliness, standard of living, intimacy and etiquette, even if they are mentally prepared to enter different cultures. Thus, visiting culturally similar destinations reduces the impact of cultural shock and is likely to result in a positive experience.

2.2.5 Impact of cultural distance on tourism activities

The results of Crotts’s study (2004) on the characteristics of inbound visitors to the USA indicated that visitors travelling to countries with similar cultural values reported travelling alone more often, making longer trips, visiting more destinations and joining fewer escorted tours. Those visiting countries with a high cultural distance were 5.8 times more likely to purchase package tours, travel for shorter periods and visit fewer destinations.

2.2.6 Measure of cultural distance

Researchers have put forth different ways to measure cultural distance. Ng et al. (2006) tested five different cultural distance measures in their study of the relationship between cultural distance measures and their potential impact on travel destination decisions. These measures are: (i) Kogut and Singh’s (1988) Cultural Distance Index; (ii) Clark and Pugh’s (2001) Cultural Cluster Distance Index; (iii) rating of perceived cultural distance; (iv) West and Graham’s (2004) linguistic distance; and (v) Jackson’s (2001) Cultural Diversity Index. These measures were developed from different underlying constructs. The results obtained differed across the five measures. It is clear that the different bases for these cultural measures produce different distance scores.

Hofstede (2001) evaluated 66 nations and created index scores for each of his five constructs: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism or collectivism, masculinity–femininity and the Confucian dynamic of long-term or short-term orientation constructs. Hofstede believes that uncertainty avoidance is more important than other cultural dimensions in predicting cross-cultural behaviour. According to Hofstede, each nation has evolved to include its own norms regarding its overall tolerance of risk and uncertainty, as measured by the Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI). The UAI was computed on the basis of the tested country’s mean scores based on three aspects: (i) rule orientation; (ii) employment stability; and (iii) stress.

The study of Litvin et al. (2004) on cross-cultural tourist behaviour was based on Hofstede’s
Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension. Each country was given a score based on Hofstede’s (2001) UAI in relation to the USA. They found that the greater the cultural distance, the greater the influence that dimensions such as Hofstede’s UAI (2001) had on travel behaviour. The result corresponds to other studies on the impact of cultural distance on the behaviour of tourists.

As many different measures for cultural distance have been developed from different underlying constructs, each measure employed in the same study may lead to a substantial difference. Hofstede’s UAI was chosen for the analysis in this study as it seemed to be simpler and employed more widely in studies by other researchers.

### 2.3 Methodology

This study examines the extent to which cultural distance influences tourist behaviour in comparison with travel distance. It was carried out by examining the profile of inbound visitors from different markets visiting Hong Kong. The relationship between cultural distance and the potential impact on travel destination decisions was examined by using the data from the Vacation Overnight Visitor segment in the 2010 Hong Kong Tourism Board’s Visitor Profile Report. These statistics provide the most up-to-date key tourism data, such as arrivals, visitor spending and activities.

Eight markets were selected for analysis: four long-haul markets (USA, UK, France and Australia) and four short-haul markets (Japan, Thailand, Singapore and Malaysia).

#### 2.3.1 The markets and their cultural distance from Hong Kong

To begin with, the cultural distance of these eight markets from Hong Kong must be determined. Based on Hofstede’s (2001) UAI, each of these eight countries is associated with a UAI score according to its tolerance for risk and uncertainty. This value is subtracted from the UAI score of Hong Kong (29). The difference represents the gap in the UAI dimension. Table 2.1 shows the CD scores of the eight countries in relation to Hong Kong, from those countries with the highest CD scores to those with the lowest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>UAI</th>
<th>CD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>-63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>-57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>-35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>-22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>-17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>-6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: CD = cultural distance; UAI = Uncertainty Avoidance Index.

Figure 2.1 shows that higher mean age is spread across countries with low cultural distance from Hong Kong and countries with high cultural distance from Hong Kong. Visitors from the UK (lowest CD), the USA, Australia, France and Japan (highest CD) are of a relatively higher mean age, whereas the mean age of visitors from Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand is relatively lower.
Little association is apparent between cultural distance and the age of visitors from these eight markets. However, a substantially different picture emerges when we compare the data by their travel distance from Hong Kong. If we look at the countries that belong to long-haul markets (UK, USA, Australia and France), the mean age of visitors from all these countries is over 40, with Australia having the highest at 44.5 years. In contrast, in short-haul markets except for Japan, the mean age of visitors is lower, with Malaysia the lowest at 37.5 years.

The investment in time, effort and money is much lower for these short-haul markets, so younger visitors are more likely to travel to Hong Kong. In contrast, visitors from long-haul markets usually view Hong Kong as part of a multi-destination, long-break Far East or China itinerary. Many tourists from long-haul markets view the trip as ‘once in a lifetime’.

Does a relationship exist between gender and cultural distance? Male visitors from the UK, with the lowest cultural distance from Hong Kong, account for 55% of all UK visitors, whereas the figure for Malaysia, with the second lowest cultural distance from Hong Kong, is only 42%. The figures for the two markets with the highest cultural distance, Thailand and France, are 37% and 57% male travellers, respectively. This reveals that cultural distance has little influence on the gender profile of visitors to Hong Kong. On the other hand, if we analyse the gender profile by regrouping these eight countries into long-haul and short-haul markets, we immediately see the higher percentage of males in the long-haul market. Male visitors account for nearly or over 50% of total visitors from the four long-haul markets. By comparison, for the short-haul markets, male visitors account for around 40%, with Thailand the lowest at 37%. Female visitors account for a relatively higher percentage of total visitors from the short-haul markets to Hong Kong.

2.4.1 Trip characteristics

Figure 2.2 shows that a higher percentage of visitors from Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand and Japan choose Hong Kong as their only destination. On the other hand, a much lower percentage of visitors from the UK, the USA, Australia and France choose Hong Kong as the only destination. In other words, visitors from the latter four countries are more likely to include Hong Kong as just one part of their itinerary. Only 9% of visitors from the UK, the country with the least cultural distance from Hong Kong, choose Hong Kong as their only destination. In contrast, about 44% of visitors from Japan, which has the greatest cultural distance from Hong Kong, and almost half of all visitors from Thailand, which has the third greatest cultural distance from Hong Kong, treat Hong Kong as their only destination.

This kind of mixed pattern can, however, be explained by the travel distance of these eight countries from Hong Kong. Those countries that choose Hong Kong as their only destination all belong to the short-haul markets. In contrast, the UK, the USA, Australia and France belong to the long-haul markets. Long-haul markets usually choose Hong Kong as a through destination, and travel onward to one or more countries in the region. They are likely to view Hong Kong as an en route stop to China or a stopover destination in Asia. As distance from
the origin increases, the likelihood of people taking multi-destination trips also increases (McKercher, 2008a). In this sense, travel distance exerts more influence than cultural distance.

We also notice in Fig. 2.2 that the markets with a higher number of first-time visitors to Hong Kong are spread across the chart. Little association is apparent between cultural distance and first-time visitors to Hong Kong. However, quite a different picture appears if we view the data by travel distance: the long-haul markets have a much higher percentage of first-time visitors, while the short-haul markets have a higher percentage of repeaters. The decay effect of distance becomes obvious.

The average length of stay (nights) among all vacation overnight visitors in 2010 was 2.7 nights. Visitors from the UK (the country with the lowest cultural distance) stayed for an average of 4.1 nights, whereas visitors from Japan (the country with the highest cultural distance) stayed for an average of only 1.9 nights, a difference of 2.2 nights. Those visiting from other countries stayed for between 2.7 and 3.6 nights. Cultural distance does not influence length of stay.

However, when we look at the countries by their travel distance from Hong Kong, we find that visitors from long-haul markets tend to stay longer than those from short-haul markets. The decaying effect of distance becomes evident in that the greater the distance from the point of origin, the longer visitors stay in Hong Kong. This can be explained by the fact that the time and effort the tourists have spent are much greater and that there are more first-time visitors.

Visitors from the four countries with the lowest cultural distance from Hong Kong (UK, USA, Singapore and Australia) are relatively less likely to join guided tours (less than 10%). On the other hand, a higher percentage of visitors from Thailand and Japan, with the greatest cultural distance from Hong Kong, employ a tour guide (26% and 36%, respectively). Crotts’s study (2004) reveals that visitors will engage in more risk-reducing travel behaviour by using travel packages, travel agents and escorted tours. Cultural distance does affect tour arrangement in this aspect.

However, this characteristic of the tour arrangements of visitors from these countries can also be explained by the effect of travel distance. Cohen (1972) and Hyde and Lawson (2003) illustrated that independent travellers who made their own travel arrangements tended to travel further compared with package tourists. This may explain why the UK, the USA, Australia and France, the countries most distant from Hong Kong, have the lowest percentage of visitors who join guided tours.

Figure 2.3 shows that visitors from five out of the eight countries in the study spend a much higher proportion of their money on shopping. However, these countries range from that with the second lowest cultural distance from Hong Kong (Malaysia) to that with the highest (Japan). Spending on other tourism sectors (hotel, meals, entertainment and tours) also shows an up-and-down pattern throughout the chart. Cultural distance thus has little influence on spending patterns. Additionally, the influence of cultural distance on per capita spending was tested.
Influence of Cultural Distance in Comparison with Travel Distance on Tourist Behaviour

Again, little pattern can be derived from this. Cultural distance has very little effect on the spending of these visitors.

When we refer back to Fig. 2.3 and look at travel distance, we can see that a very large proportion of spending by visitors from short-haul markets is on shopping. Although shopping is also a major part of spending for long-haul markets, hotel bills take up a relatively high percentage of their spending. This higher spending on hotel bills can also be explained by the fact that long-haul tourists tend to stay longer in Hong Kong than short-haul tourists. On the other hand, the average per capita spending of the long-haul market is also higher than that of the short-haul market. As distance increases, so does spending.

Similar tests were performed with other travel characteristics, such as the percentage of travel with a companion and the rating of the overall satisfaction level of Hong Kong by visitors from these eight markets. Little association is apparent between cultural distance and these characteristics. However, when viewing these markets in relation to travel distance, quite a different picture appears. The decay effect of distance becomes obvious.

**2.5 Conclusion**

This study examined the extent of the influence of cultural distance on tourist profile and behaviour in comparison with travel distance. The results found little correlation between cultural distance and the profile and trip characteristics of the eight countries included in the study. No age pattern or gender pattern was found to be dominant in either high cultural distance markets or low cultural distance markets. This also applies to the examination of trip characteristics. Only a moderate relationship was found between higher cultural distance and a tendency to join more guided tours. A close relationship could not be demonstrated between cultural distance and the remaining trip characteristics.

A substantially different picture emerges when the data are analysed by travel distance. The effect of travel distance on tourist behaviour becomes evident when comparing the data by regrouping these countries into long-haul and short-haul markets. Visitors from short-haul markets tend to be younger, with relatively more females who travel with friends. Visitors from short-haul markets are more likely to be repeaters who identify Hong Kong as their only destination. The purpose of their trips is likely to be a short break for pleasure, and they will engage more in shopping and visiting built attractions.

Conversely, long-haul tourists tend to be relatively older, with a high proportion of first-time visitors, who travel with their spouse to Hong Kong. Their trips to Hong Kong are more likely to be part of a stopover or a multi-destination
trip. They tend to be less interested in shopping compared with visitors from short-haul markets. The effect of travel distance on visitor behaviour is therefore clearly demonstrated in this study.

It is important to note that the result of this study on the impact of cultural distance is based on defining the cultural distance of the tested markets by using Hofstede’s UAI. As mentioned above, this was computed on the basis of three aspects, rule orientation, employment stability and stress. This uncertainty avoidance dimension has been used fairly extensively in the human resource arena to explore expatriate worker adaptability (Litvin et al., 2004). However, using this dimension alone may not be appropriate in a tourism context. Some substantial cultural elements, such as language, food, religion, pace of life, etc., should be taken into account in defining cultural distance.

Language difference not only is considered a large barrier between tourists and their ability to experience and understand the host country, but also it hinders tourists from moving around the host country and tends to restrict them to staying in tourist-concentrated areas where they feel safer. Religion shapes the culture of a nation as it affects the nation’s values, behaviour and relationships between people. The strangeness of the destination will be much reduced if people visit a place that shares the same, or a familiar, religion. At the same time, tourists will find more support from the destination that they visit in both hardware and software. Their activities in such destinations will be much more convenient: for example, it is much easier to find places to dine and to pray. Food is a very important determinant of the experience of the destination. Although there are tourists who like to try exotic food for the experience, food similarity will reduce the stress and increase the level of comfort, especially when travelling to developing countries. The more cultural elements that can be incorporated into the measure of cultural distance, the more appropriate and applicable the notion of cultural distance is to the context of tourism.

Among the eight markets, Japan, Thailand, Malaysia and Singapore belong to the short-haul markets of Hong Kong and have more characteristics of Asian culture, whereas the UK, the USA, Australia and France are long-haul markets of Hong Kong and have more characteristics of Western culture. The markets within each group share more similarity in terms of cultural elements, which may explain the similarity of tourist profile and behaviour within the long-haul and within the short-haul markets in this study.

Cultural elements play a very significant role in affecting the demand and behaviour of tourists. It is suggested that more work should be done on the study of the measure of cultural distance by incorporating more elements of culture. These elements should include the obvious dimensions such as food, language and religion, but also other, more hidden dimensions such as ethics, values, sanitary practices and male–female relationships, so as to develop a more practicable measure for analysing the influence of cultural distance in tourism.

References


3 Women’s Travel Constraints in a Unique Context

Mojtaba (Moji) Shahvali,1* Reihaneh Shahvali2 and Deborah Kerstetter1
1The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, USA;
2Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

3.1 Introduction

Most people’s financial resources are limited and they find it difficult to indulge in all they want to do in their free or ‘leisure’ time. Their accessibility to a place where they can get involved in leisure activities can also affect their participation in leisure significantly, as can the perception of their own skill in performing a particular leisure activity. Factors such as these that inhibit or prohibit participation or enjoyment of leisure are termed ‘leisure constraints’ (Jackson, 1991).

In 1991, Crawford, Jackson and Godbey introduced the hierarchical constraints model (HCM), which has been the primary conceptual framework guiding studies of leisure constraints. They argue that leisure constraints exist at three levels: intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural. Intrapersonal leisure constraints include factors such as perceived self-skill, sense of entitlement and subjective evaluations of the appropriateness of a certain activity. For example, a female who finds cycling to be inappropriate in her home community or a boy who finds rock climbing with friends to be intimidating and out of reach would be examples of an intrapersonal leisure constraint. The second level, interpersonal constraints, are experienced when an individual is unable to find a suitable partner with whom to engage in a particular activity; for example, not having someone with whom to play tennis. And structural constraints are represented by factors such as lack of money, time or transportation. All three levels or dimensions of constraints intervene between an individual’s preference to participate in a leisure activity and his or her actual participation (Crawford and Godbey, 1987).

While the HCM has served as a valuable conceptual framework for leisure constraints research, it has also received its fair share of criticism. For example, researchers have questioned if constraints that an individual experiences are linear and hierarchical. In other words, do individuals always overcome their most proximal or intrapersonal constraints before experiencing and negotiating their most distal or structural constraints? Take, for example, a recreation activity such as boxing. Women have to first overcome the subjective perception of boxing being inappropriate for women before finding someone to box with or a place to practise boxing? In addition to the criticism of the hierarchical nature of constraints, the content validity of the three constraint dimensions has also been challenged. Some researchers have questioned

*Corresponding author, e-mail: mojtaba.shahvali@gmail.com

whether each dimension actually comprises second-order subdimensions. Others have asked if the composition of the constraint dimensions changes depending on the nature of the leisure activity (e.g. indoor versus outdoor activities). Do characteristics such as age, ethnicity and gender affect the type of leisure constraints the population faces (cf. Nadirova and Jackson, 2000; Mannell and Loucks-Atkinson, 2005; Walker et al., 2007; Nyaupane and Andereck, 2008)?

Of particular interest to the research reviewed in this chapter is the influence of social privilege and culture on constraints. Alexandris and Carroll (1997) document that less educated and less wealthy individuals are more likely to experience constraints to their leisure participation. When gender is accounted for, females, particularly those who are less socially privileged, tend to experience more constraints than males (Shaw and Henderson, 2005). In terms of culture, leisure constraints research has been conducted primarily in North America using a social psychological approach to leisure and focusing on individual experiences and perceptions (Samdahl, 2005). As a result, most researchers have not accounted for culturally determined social structures that will affect residents’ leisure participation. Paying attention to the intersections of work, home, family, leisure, even ideologies and societal values, is necessary when conducting leisure constraints research. In response to the call for constraints research that accounts for social privilege and culturally determined social structures, we investigated constraints associated with one type of leisure – pleasure travel among women living in a unique non-Western country, Iran.

3.2 Literature Review

A small number of studies have looked at what prevents individuals from travelling more often (Nyaupane and Andereck, 2008), despite the fact that identifying constraints to travel benefits members of the travel industry as well as tourists. Travel planners, for example, benefit by being able to identify and potentially eliminate constraints that affect one’s travel behaviour. Alternatively, individuals benefit when the constraints that directly impact their psychological health are removed. According to Henderson et al. (1996), those who will benefit most are women.

More than two decades ago, Hochschild (1989) indicated that a ‘leisure gap’ existed between men and women and within groups of women. While different across societies in both nature and degree, women do not have the same opportunities as men have for leisure, have fragmented leisure time, are focused more on social relationships in leisure, find most leisure at home and through unstructured activity and even sometimes lack a sense of entitlement to leisure (Henderson, 1990). This leisure gap is due to multiple factors that affect the way women live their lives and are beyond the scope of this chapter. However, these changes have not equally impacted or elicited the same outcomes from all women. For example, in the USA, women are waiting longer to get married, and many are choosing not to have children (Sobolewski, 2013). As a result, they may have fewer familial responsibilities (Kahn, 2011) and more opportunities for self-fulfilment. Women in other countries, such as Iran, may not have the same opportunities to choose their life course. Hence, as various authors have found, constraints cannot be studied without consideration of the cultural, religious and ideological context in which women live (Stodolska and Livengood, 2006; Asbollah et al., 2013).

Before elaborating on the travel constraints identified by Iranian women in this study, a description of the context of the study would be beneficial. Iran, officially the Islamic Republic of Iran, is a country in south-western Asia. Previously referred to as Persia, Iran is known for its carpets, caviar, saffron, pistachios and its importance as one of the world’s major oil producing nations. Yet, Iran is much more than that. Iran is also home to one of the oldest civilizations in the world, with a culture that has been enriched through ‘…diverse philosophical, artistic, scientific and religious influences…’ (Goats on the Road, 2014). Despite the negative media attention in the West, Iran received 4 million international tourists in 2014, and is perceived as one of the most ‘hospitalable’ nations in the world (World Bank, 2015; Shahvali et al., 2016). Four million visitors a year is small considering the wealth of cultural and heritage tourist
attractions in Iran and the world’s one billion yearly international travellers, but the growth is promising, especially after the new political relations between Iran and the West.

With regard to leisure, the leisure activities that Iranian women take part in are quite similar to those that women participate in elsewhere in the world, such as watching TV, reading books, going out for a coffee or a meal, exercising and spending time with family and friends. However, there are activities that have specific meaning within the Iranian culture. These activities include: religious activities (e.g. learning from the Quran, taking part in ceremonies conducted by women on holy days and going to shrines and other holy places); attending scientific clubs; participating in vocational activities (e.g. attending computer classes, sewing classes, cooking classes); and engaging in cultural activities (e.g. playing music, poetry, writing). Travelling is another leisure activity that increasingly is gaining popularity in Iran. In spring 2014, 53% of Iranian families travelled, almost half of which were overnight trips (INPS, 2014).

However, leisure life in Iran cannot be studied without reference to religion and to Iranian culture. According to the Iranian National Portal of Statistics (INPS, 2011), the dominant religion among Iran’s 78.4 million inhabitants is Islam (mostly Shia), accounting for 99% of the population. For many of Iran’s inhabitants, faith and spirituality play an important role in their everyday life. Islam emphasizes modesty in public interactions between members of the opposite sex. Females are required to wear a hijab (i.e. a veil covering one’s head, chest and bosom and other private parts) as part of the overall teaching, but this may vary based on the country’s cultures and its politics. Males are encouraged to embrace the ‘hijab of the eyes’ (Quran, 24:30–31). Further, the governments in Muslim countries, including Iran, generally advise women to wear long, loose dresses.

Women in Iran are highly educated. Sixty-five per cent of all university students are female (Honarbin-Holliday, 2008). They also have a great deal of freedom to plan their own future. Women are free to choose their future spouses, establish rules in their households, including how to raise their children, and express their beliefs. In addition, women are able to drive personal vehicles, play what is traditionally thought of as men’s sports and pursue what have historically been considered male-dominant occupations. Despite these realities, Iranian women are perceived to be more constrained in their leisure activities (including travel) than men (Arab-Moghaddam et al., 2007).

Following is a review of a study whose primary objective is to document a sample of Iranian women’s perception of constraints to travel. The secondary objective is to do this in a unique cultural context that theoretically is impacted by culture and social privilege.

3.3 Methodology

Using snowball sampling, 26 women were invited to participate in 1 of 6 focus group interviews that were conducted in June and July 2013. All participants were educated women from two major cities in Iran, namely Tehran, the political capital, and Shiraz, the cultural capital of Iran. The participants ranged from: young single women who were currently in college and living with their parents; to recently married women; to mothers with children, some of whom had secondary jobs; to mothers whose children had moved out; to single mothers. While religiosity was not a variable that was examined directly, the participants had different levels of adherence to Islam. Three of the focus groups comprised single females and three involved married or single mothers.

The first and second authors conducted each of the semi-structured interviews. First, participants were asked to: (i) describe their favourite trip and whether they had taken similar trips recently; and (ii) discuss whether they were satisfied with the number of trips they had taken each year and, if not, why. Then, other questions emerged as the interviewees interacted with each other. While the number of participants in each group was expected to be around six, the actual number ranged from two to seven. The interviews lasted from 20 to 60 min and were recorded with a digital voice recorder. Additional equipment included a whiteboard, which was used by the interviewer to jot down key words that were later referenced to induce further conversation.
The results of the focus group interviews were transcribed in Farsi, translated into English and then coded line-by-line (Charmaz, 2006). Each of the authors independently coded the interview transcripts and then created up to nine overarching categories. Then they came together to compare their categories. This process continued until they reached a consensus on second-order categories or underlying themes.

### 3.4 Results

Seven themes were retained after content analysing the transcripts generated from the focus group interviews. Each of the seven themes is reviewed below.

#### 3.4.1 ‘I need to have solid reasons to leave my kids and family and travel…’

The partial quote used to introduce this theme represents the sense of responsibility Iranian women feel towards their families and how it can affect pleasure travel decisions. For example, one woman stated:

‘Before our kids grew up and entered college, we didn’t travel much. [This was because] we felt responsibility on our shoulders, more than men do. Not that we were constrained, we just didn’t want to travel. Taking family responsibilities is the highest pleasure for us, more than a trip…’

Another suggested that she might travel alone for business reasons, but her family should not be ignored: ‘... Well, if it is necessary for some reason, like a conference, that’s fine. I don’t see why I need to leave my family behind and travel alone otherwise.’ The responsibilities both women felt towards their family members influenced their desire to travel and likely stemmed from the society and culture in which they were raised. Alternatively, a single, unmarried graduate student living away from her hometown stated: ‘It wasn’t like my parents would fight with me or close the doors on me. All it took was a simple “no” from my Dad. When I felt that he was not happy with me doing something, I wouldn’t do it.’ Hence, knowing that travelling alone is considered unacceptable is enough to constrain the behaviour of these women.

#### 3.4.2 ‘It would not look nice or something normal for a group of girls to travel together’

Gender norms also affect the travel behaviour of this group of Iranian women: ‘Some families might be OK with single girls traveling, while some might say, it’s only OK [to travel alone] after marriage.’ This sentiment of social disapproval was echoed by two other single graduate students in their mid-20s: ‘I have had numerous travel opportunities but couldn’t go because my parents simply said, “you can’t go”’, and ‘My father won’t allow me to travel with anyone I want. Although I usually just plan and go, but he isn’t very comfortable with that.” Moreover, some hotels refuse to sell hotel rooms to women travelling alone. According to the law in Iran, hotel regulations are the same for males and females, and for single individuals and married couples (ISNA, 2014). However, a few women indicated how some hotels, even in bigger cities, refused to give them rooms when travelling alone. A single mother in her late 50s indicated that she was afraid of being judged when she travelled alone: ‘People might wonder why I am travelling alone.’ Her comments provide evidence of the gender-based limitations that women may face when they want to travel alone in Iran. The only exception raised in this study was by one woman, who suggested that married women could travel alone for religious purposes: ‘We as women if we travel alone, it’s mainly [for] pilgrimages.’

#### 3.4.3 ‘I don’t have the time to travel’

While some women indicated how retirement and children moving out had provided them with more chances to travel than before, in every focus group interview there were women who referenced the constraints of having a job or being a student. Examples of their comments included: ‘the amount of work we have is definitely constraining,’ ‘in my free time I get back to my 20-item to-do list and get some of that done [instead of thinking about travelling]’
and ‘when I get home, my mind is still at work’. Schooling was also perceived to be a constraint to pleasure travel. According to a single, graduate student in her mid-20s, her own schooling was constraining: ‘As students we have tons of school work to do. We hardly get a chance to do our grocery shopping!’

3.4.4 ‘Not everyone can afford to travel regularly’

Another dominant theme was monetary constraints that families faced: ‘Travel is expensive in Iran, especially when you want to have a decent trip.’ Accommodation expenses, entrance fees to tourist attractions and the cost of fuel were some of the travel expenses mentioned. In two of the focus groups, the notion of high expectations and luxury trips came up. Some people expected all the comforts of home during their trips, thus making it hard to travel often, while others travelled more easily and valued the experience. One mother noted, ‘When I was a kid and we went to Mashhad, we didn’t care about having a fancy hotel, expectations were low’.

3.4.5 ‘A companion to travel with is not always available’

Having friends or companions to travel with is important to Iranian women. However, some interviewees indicated that a companion to travel with was not always available. Some cited their children’s and/or partner’s schedule: ‘kids might have things to do or your partner might be busy’. Associated with this theme was the impression that travelling alone could be scary. One woman suggested: ‘... Places like Kurdistan are not safe, at least that’s how I think... While I have heard that Kurdistan has beautiful nature... because we are unaware of safety, we are afraid.’

3.4.6 ‘I don’t like the quality of the services there’

The quality of travel products and services made travel harder for the women in this study and, in some cases, the perception of quality changed their travel destination, mode of travel or the length of their trip. For example, while domestic tourism is growing in Iran, some women suggest that many tourism destinations are not well developed or well maintained: ‘They start off good, and when they earn enough customers, they don’t try as hard to maintain it.’ For some, the quality of a tour was directly tied to the amount of value tour leaders bestowed on their customers’ religious customs as Muslims (i.e. planning space or time for performing daily prayers at ease). (Note: Since this theme came up a lot during the interviews, religion-related issues and the hijab are discussed as a separate theme.)

Traffic congestion also limits families’ ability to travel. One mother talked about how traffic during the school holiday season discouraged her from planning trips with her family: ‘New Year and summer holidays are when the roads are really crowded...if we had more options as when to travel, maybe we would travel more often.’ Another discussed how ‘a four hour drive to Shomal would take 12 hours during some holidays’. Poor advertising appears to be linked to this traffic congestion. A number of women alluded to destinations that were very popular and to ‘some [that] are not known at all’. They suggested this was ‘an advertisement and information deficit issue’.

3.4.7 ‘While that might be acceptable or even desirable by a woman who is less religious, I am not comfortable with that’

Hijab and religion were perceived differently by the study participants. Some found the religious mandate of a hijab limiting, particularly when they wanted to sunbathe or swim at the beach: ‘There are designated swimming areas for women in Iran, but in public beaches, you cannot wear whatever you like [and that’s limiting].’ On the contrary, religious women found the lack of proper hijab practices at some travel destinations a sign of a lack of respect for their religious values. As one woman suggested, ‘there are people on the tour that are all about partying’. Another articulated how difficult it was to get involved in watersports or even just
sit by the Caspian Sea with her family or to enjoy looking at the water: ‘... All of a sudden you might see a family that decides to jump into the water all together, with inappropriate clothing which might be acceptable or even desirable by a woman who is less religious, but I won’t be comfortable with that. The same cultural issues are present in Kish Island, especially with younger ladies... I myself am not happy with how women dress there. More regulations should be enforced.’

3.5 Conclusion
Higher financial autonomy and lower social expectations of marriage and raising children compared to previous generations has resulted in women being a growing market for the tourism industry (Wilson and Little, 2005). Yet, many of these women, particularly those who live in non-Western societies, face constraints to leisure participation, including travel (Henderson et al., 1996; Koca et al., 2009). The results of this study show that Iranian women may face difficulties in a number of ways with regard to their ability to travel.

Seven types of constraints or ‘constraint themes’ were identified. The first two themes, which underlay most of the identified constraints, are culture based: sense of responsibility towards family and gender norms that limit women’s travel behaviour. Family is highly valued in Islamic cultures, perhaps more than in the West. This can provide an opportunity for women to travel and spend leisure time with family, but at the same time it can be limiting, due to greater feelings of responsibility towards family and housework.

However, there was a notable difference between the two themes. While the first theme (i.e. sense of responsibility towards family) includes voluntarily accepted beliefs and ethics of care (i.e. prioritizing family over oneself), the second theme (i.e. gendered norms) highlights the effects norms can have on women’s pleasure travel behaviour. While both are rooted in the society and culture in which women are raised, there is preliminary evidence in this study that suggests women overcome (i.e. negotiate) constraints differently, depending on whether the constraints are linked to a voluntarily accepted belief or if they are linked to cultural norms. For example, single Iranian women appear to travel alone (which is against social gender norms) more often when they become economically independent. This may be a sign of resistance among the Iranian women who participated in this study. And/or, it may be a sign of what Dressler (2012) refers to as ‘cultural consonance’: the degree to which individuals follow cultural models in their beliefs and behaviour. Chick et al. (2014) found that the degree to which an individual followed a certain cultural model of leisure was affected by his or her social economic status (SES). For example, if the dominant cultural model regarding women and travel in Iran was that women should not travel alone, according to Chick et al. (2014), educated women of a higher social economic status would be more likely to resist it and travel as they found appropriate. Alternatively, less educated women who were economically disadvantaged would be more likely to accept the dominant cultural model with regards to travel, despite the fact that they might not think it was right.

While some of the study participants were comfortable resisting gender norms, they varied in their perceptions of social norms. Some indicated that ‘travel norms [in Iran] are in favor of men’. One woman said, ‘If my brother wants to travel with his friends, he is allowed to, but not me.’ Another stated, ‘I don’t believe that there is much difference between men and women [in Iran] when it gets to travelling and hijab is in no way limiting’. Additionally, some women did not believe that a woman needed to travel alone for pleasure, leaving her family behind. Why do these differences exist? Could they be due to the degree of exposure Iranian women have had to Western media or international travel experiences that might influence their perceptions of the appropriateness of pleasure travel? Issues like this should be addressed in future research.

Furthermore, women’s perceptions of responsibilities and gender norms do not lie clearly within one dimension of the constraints hierarchy, supporting the authors who have challenged the notion that three levels of constraints form distinct categories or constructs. For example, it could be argued that women’s
feelings of obligation to the family are intrapersonal constraints that limit travel decisions. Or, one could argue that they are socially imposed and as such are structural constraints. Another might argue that while women want to travel with their families, sometimes children cannot or do not want to accompany their parents, and this is a form of interpersonal constraint. In sum, these findings indicate that constraints are impacted by the environments in which women find themselves. They are not static and can be negotiated.

Women in every focus group mentioned lack of time as a major constraint to pleasure travel; however, the way they spoke about it varied. Some women referenced household responsibilities or secondary commitments, such as school or a job outside the home, leading to a lack of time for leisure activities including travel – i.e. a structural constraint. Some talked about lack of time as a result of their ethic of care, prompting women to prioritize care-related activities over travel – i.e. an intrapersonal constraint.

With regard to financial constraints hindering travel, like anywhere around the world, not all families have the disposable income necessary for travelling. While most of the women in this study were affluent enough to travel at least once annually, some indicated that, ‘financial problems are a big barrier [to travel] for some people in Iran these days’.

Not having someone to travel with was also perceived to be a constraint. The underlying reasons, which would not be apparent with an etic approach (i.e. using a 7-point Likert scale instrument for assessing the extent to which one feels interpersonal constraint), were because friends did not want to or were unavailable to travel with them. The conflicting schedules of family members also were an obstruction to women’s hopes to travel. While simply conjecture at this point, finding someone to travel with might be more prevalent in Eastern societies like Iran where travelling is most often performed with family or in groups. Future research in similar countries could potentially validate this argument. Moreover, as discussed earlier with respect to gender norms, wanting to travel with parents or partners adds to the complexity of securing enough time and money for travelling.

With regard to the quality of travel services, the data revealed that women had different expectations for and perception of quality. While some women were not happy with the quality of services at some tourism attractions or the quality of tours being offered in Iran, others expressed that they were grateful for the variety of high-quality tours available: ‘There are tours being organized by companies like Zhiwaar these days that are very nice. They have tours to great places, catering to differing age groups and interests.’ The varying perception of quality may be due to a number of factors such as insufficient advertising, and a limited number of school holidays (mainly New Year and summer holidays), which has resulted in crowding and traffic congestion, leading to lower satisfaction levels with group tours. The Iranian government is planning to address this former issue by dispersing school and summer holidays throughout the year (Soltanifar, 2014).

One other finding that has received very little attention by constraints researchers is the influence of religion on activity participation. In this study, some religious women considered tours that allowed the mingling of males and females that were not in a relationship disrespectful or not family friendly, and as such, of bad quality. The influence of religiosity was not limited to perception of tour quality or travel companions; it permeated the entire discussion of constraints. Hence, we suggest that researchers consider the importance of religiosity when studying travel decision making generally, and travel constraints specifically. For societies like Iran, where religion plays a substantial role in people’s lives, it can be an important construct in explaining their travel decisions.

It should be noted that in the Holy Quran, everyone, regardless of his or her faith, is encouraged to travel and learn (Quran, 3:173). In other religious scripts, travel is known as a source of both physical and mental health (Kalantari, 2009). Moreover, women are specifically encouraged to partake in all social activities including travel, while adhering to Islamic values (Mazinani, 2006). However, our study sample expressed difficulties with regard to travel; constraints that were not all structural or related to the governance of the country. Underlying these constraints are issues of
beliefs, social norms, religiosity and more, factors that need to be studied in more depth to understand the degree to which they affect perceptions of constraints and women’s ability to negotiate them.

Researchers also need to keep in mind that while some women face constraints before or during travel, others do not want to travel; it is not the number one activity they would choose to participate in during their leisure time, particularly when accounting for life stage. One participant, who happened to be a graduate student in sociology, suggested:

‘I strongly believe our lifestyles affect how much free time we have and what we do in our free time... I know a lot of people who don’t have very high incomes, but travel more than anyone else. They spend the smallest earnings that they make towards travelling; like in Norooz, they travel the entire holiday. While you might have the money, time, everything, but still come up with excuses not to travel.’

This quote provides evidence that:

‘Any study of leisure must take into account the interacting influence of socialization, life changes, and lifestyles. The meanings of leisure and the presence of leisure constraints may change over the course of women’s lives as roles, responsibilities, life issues, and values change.’

(Henderson et al., 1996, p. 21)

In this study, the women cited a number of constraints that impacted their decision to prioritize travelling for pleasure. These ranged from, for example, high expectations for the quality of services, to lack of familiarity, to fear of safety associated with the less known travel destinations, all of which discouraged them from prioritizing travelling for pleasure over other activities.

While we acknowledged the value of using theoretical frameworks in research, we chose not to tie our data to the seminal leisure constraints framework proposed by Crawford et al. (1991). We did this because, as Samdahl (2005) argued, checking the fitness of the framework of leisure constraints would not have allowed us to capture the complexity of our participants’ lives. This decision was the right one in the context of this study, which involved women from a different culture. Our data provided insight into the way in which some Iranian women with varying demographic characteristics perceived constraints to pleasure travel. This would not have been possible if the women were asked to respond to a list of constraint items derived from the literature.

All in all, the primary objective of this study was to document Iranian women’s perception of constraints to travel, and to do this in a unique cultural context that theoretically was impacted by culture and social privilege. While we feel we have met this objective, this study is not without its limitations. We recognize that our sample is not representative of all women in Iran. Also, the results suggest that married and more religious women have different concerns about travelling compared to single, more liberal women. We suggest that researchers recognize this potential difference prior to conducting additional research on constraints and use what we refer to as a ‘triple C’ approach – constraints, contexts and customs.

References


4 Can Perceptions of Italian Organized Crime Affect Travel Behaviour?

Ilenia Bregoli1* and Francesca Ceruti2
1University of Lincoln, Lincoln, UK; 2University of Milano-Bicocca, Milan, Italy

4.1 Introduction

The study of the relationship between crime and tourism has attracted the attention of scholars over time. They have, for example, developed a classification for this relationship, studied this link by considering different destinations and analysed the effects of fear of crime on tourist behaviour (Ryan, 1993; Dimanche and Lepetic, 1999; Kathrada et al., 1999; Pizam, 1999; Leventis and Gani, 2000; Mawby et al., 2000; Alleyne and Boxill, 2003; Michalkó, 2003; Tynon and Chavez, 2006). Although the study of this relationship is not new, it must be pointed out that in the literature, nobody has specifically taken into account the relationship between organized crime and tourism. Only Pizam and Mansfeld (2006) explicitly considered organized crime with reference to crimes committed against businesses. Thus, the relationship between organized crime and tourists’ perceptions has been neglected in the literature. As a consequence, this chapter is aimed at studying this relationship with the intention of partially filling this gap in the literature.

The term ‘organized crime’ is difficult to define, due to, for example, the different approaches that countries adopt to deal with the problem (Adamoli et al., 1998). None the less, attempts have been made to define it; for instance, Adamoli et al. (1998, p. 9) point out that organized crime is characterized by ‘violence, corruption, ongoing criminal activity, and the precedence of the group over any single member. Organized criminal groups are characterized by their continuity over time regardless of the mortality of their members’. Scholars have acknowledged that organized crime groups not only are involved in illegal activities but also are operating in legal markets (Paoli, 2002). For example, criminal organizations invest the profits from illegal activities into the legal economy, for several purposes: money laundering reasons; developing a new business for making profits; gaining consensus within a local community; or controlling the territory (Transcrime, 2013). Even the tourism industry is not immune from this phenomenon, because investments are made in order to control the territory.

Since organized crime has become a global phenomenon and is not confined to just a few countries (Schloenhardt, 1999; Europol, 2004), in this research it was decided to focus only on the major Italian organized crime associations such as Cosa Nostra (from Sicily), ‘Ndrangheta (from Calabria), Camorra (from Campania) and organized crime associations from Apulia (such as the Sacra Corona Unita). Although the origin

*Corresponding author, e-mail: ibregoli@lincoln.ac.uk
of these organizations is linked to some regions in the south of Italy, they are nowadays spread all over Italy, as well as abroad.

This research studies how perceptions towards Italian organized crime are affecting tourists’ behaviour. In order to carry out this study, the theoretical lenses of the ‘stock of knowledge’ were adopted (Schutz and Luckman, 1974) to find out how much the ‘stock of knowledge’ held by visitors and non-visitors to the south of Italy was affecting their perceptions about the destination and their subsequent behaviour. More specifically, in this research, the images of the south of Italy and Italian organized crime were analysed. Next, the sources of information used by interviewees to form their perceptions on Italian organized crime were studied. Finally, the impact that these perceptions had on tourists’ behaviour was investigated. In this study, a cross-cultural analysis aimed at assessing the similarities and differences between Italian and UK interviewees was carried out. Indeed, these two national cultures are characterized by opposing levels of uncertainty avoidance (The Hofstede Centre, 2014), which can affect visitors’ perceptions of risk and safety (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2006).

4.2 Literature Review

In this research, the theoretical construct of ‘stock of knowledge’ (Schutz and Luckman, 1974), which has been deemed to be useful in the study of tourist decision making (Selby, 2004; Selby et al., 2010), was applied. According to Schutz and Luckman (1974), the ‘stock of knowledge’ is useful in order to understand the world around us, because it is a sedimentation of direct (i.e. lived by individuals) as well as indirect experiences (i.e. transmitted by others such as family, friends, journalists, etc.) (Selby, 2004). It can be said that when a visitor travels, he or she experiences a destination and interprets it through: (i) the knowledge that he or she possesses on tourism destinations in general and collected through direct experience; (ii) as well as information acquired over time through, for example, documentaries, travel literature, newspaper articles, experiences lived by friends and relatives and so forth (Hyde, 2009). Moreover, when a visitor travels, he or she also acquires new experiences that will increase his or her overall stock of knowledge, which, as a result, can change over time (Schutz and Luckman, 1974).

In tourism terms, the stock of knowledge influences a person’s perceptions of a destination as well as their travelling behaviour (Selby et al., 2010). For instance, Govers and Go (2009) highlight how different types of information sources are useful in the formation of the destination image in the tourist’s mind. On this point, however, Selby (2004) distinguishes between images and experiences on the basis of the degree of mediation that exist in the visitor’s knowledge (with the former being mediated, while the latter being constituted by direct experiences). In particular, Selby (2004) found a difference between the experiences visitors had of a place and the images held in the mind of non-visitors: with the former being more positive compared to the latter.

Not only the stock of knowledge influences the perceived image of a destination but also it influences the perceptions of safety that tourists hold about destinations, which in turn influence their behaviour in terms of choice of the destinations to visit and the types of activities to do while on holiday. For example, previous research found that visitors considered the safety of a place when choosing the destination to visit, thus suggesting a negative relationship between crime and tourism (Mawby, 2000). On the other hand, it is also recognized that in some cases a positive relationship between crime and tourism exists, for example in the cases of tourists travelling to destinations in which they can find drugs easily or where prostitution is spread (Selby et al., 2010). Regardless of the type of relationship existent between crime and tourism, it has also been acknowledged in this area that tourists’ perceptions towards crime, i.e. the ‘fear of crime’ (Box et al., 1988; Mawby, 2000; Selby et al., 2010), are influenced by the amount of information available to them through, for example, news media (Holcomb and Pizam, 2006), independent travel guides, travel agents and past visitors (Levantis and Gani, 2000). Thus showing, once again, the importance of the concept of ‘stock of knowledge’ in the present and future behaviour of tourists.
Not only can the amount of information available to visitors affect their behaviour, but also culture can play an important role. Indeed, research shows how cultures that are different with reference to the Hofstede's dimensions (Fig. 4.1) may be characterized by different tourist behaviours in terms of perception of risks while travelling and the information search prior to travel (Reisinger, 2009). For example, it was found that tourists from low uncertainty avoidance cultures (such as the British) had a low perception of risk while travelling and had information-search strategies based on travel guides and advertisements. While visitors from high uncertainty avoidance cultures tended to acquire information from friends and relatives, travel offices and tour operators (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2006; Reisinger, 2009). However, it must be pointed out that cultural differences are not the only factors that should be taken into account when studying tourist behaviour; instead, a mix of factors should be considered.

4.3 Methodology

Due to the lack of previous research aimed at studying the impact that tourists’ perceptions towards Italian organized crime have on travel behaviour, focus groups as a self-contained method (i.e. as the only data collection method being used) were adopted. Indeed, they are deemed to be useful in exploratory research when new topics must be investigated (Morgan, 1997; Stewart et al., 2007).

Given the nature of focus groups, a theoretical sampling framework was developed (Morgan, 1997). First, it was decided to develop focus groups involving people who did not visit the south of Italy (with particular reference to the following regions: Sicily, Campania, Calabria and Apulia), as well as previous visitors. Indeed, as Selby et al. (2010) stressed, the degree of a traveller's experience can influence his or her perceptions of fear of crime. Moreover, focus groups were developed by also considering other variables such as culture of origin and age (Box et al., 1988; Selby et al., 2010). In particular, Italian and British interviewees were recruited due to the different level of uncertainty avoidance that characterizes these groups. This choice was also made considering the different knowledge of Italian organized crime that the residents of the two countries would possess, and which, in turn, would allow different results to be gained from the study. Furthermore, focus groups were created on the basis of the age of participants, in particular the following age ranges were considered: 18–30 years old; 31–60 years old; over 60 years old.

A focus group discussion guide was developed in order to elicit the opinions of participants on the four main topics of the research: perceived image about the south of Italy; perceptions about Italian organized crime; sources of information about Italian organized crime and the impact of the participants’ perceptions.

![Fig. 4.1. Comparison between the UK and Italy’s national culture. (From our elaboration on data from the Hofstede Centre, 2014.)](image-url)
Can Perceptions of Italian Organized Crime Affect Travel Behaviour?

The discussion guide was written following Krueger’s division (1994), and it allowed the discussion to move from the general to the specific (Table 4.1). The discussion guide was developed in Italian and then translated into English by the two researchers, who worked independently. Finally, a back translation was carried out in order to assess that no ambiguities existed in the text.

The study population included Italian (29) and British (10) participants, who were involved in nine focus groups (five Italian groups and four UK groups). Groups ran for approximately 1.5 h and were facilitated by a moderator. Although the researchers had planned to recruit six to eight people in each group, in some cases (for the UK interviewees) they were able to have fewer people, thus working with mini-focus groups, which usually consisted of four to six participants (Greenbaum, 1988; Krueger and Casey, 2009). This aspect should not be considered problematic to the research because, as suggested by some authors, smaller groups are easier to manage (Morgan, 1996; Morgan et al., 2002; Madriz, 2003), provide a less threatening environment (Krueger, 1994; Fern, 2001; Munday, 2006) and encourage discussion and interaction among participants (Carey, 1994; Krueger, 1994; Hopkins, 2007; Krueger and Casey, 2009; Toner, 2009).

In this research and for the UK groups alone, researchers had to run groups smaller than four people, due to the difficulty in recruiting participants, although they were offered free food and drinks and a £10 voucher from a shop of

Table 4.1. Focus group discussion guide.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Visitor</th>
<th>Non-visitor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introductory questions</td>
<td>[After having drawn a mind map of the south of Italy in which participants had to write all the images that they associated with that area.] Please share with the rest of the group which images you have written and explain the reasons why you wrote them.</td>
<td>In your opinion, what are the main reasons why you never visited the south of Italy?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>What are the main sources you used to obtain information about the south of Italy?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>What are the main reasons why you decided to visit the south of Italy? Can you describe the type of travel you did in the south of Italy?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Transition questions</td>
<td>[After having written on a Post-It the two things that came to participants’ minds while thinking about ‘Italian organized crime.’] Please share your views with other participants and explain to the others why you wrote those words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>What are the main sources you used to obtain information about ‘Italian organized crime’?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Key questions</td>
<td>Was your choice to visit a certain destination affected by the fact that you knew that Italian organized crime existed?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Rethinking about your trip, was your choice of the activities to carry out during the travel influenced by the fact that you knew that Italian organized crime existed?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Did you return to the same destination?</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
their own choice. However, the smaller size of the UK focus groups does not represent a problem. Indeed, the literature suggests that when there are difficulties in recruiting focus group participants, smaller groups (less than four people) can be run without affecting the research (Conradson, 2005).

Data were collected using only an audio recorder. As argued by Polgar and Thomas (1995), participants might refuse to speak in the presence of a camera or may sanitize their ideas and views. The interviews were then transcribed verbatim, the transcripts were read in depth by the researchers, and the data were coded through structural coding. MacQueen et al. (2008) argue that structural coding applies a phrase, conceptual or content-based, to a segment of data related to the research questions, then similar segments of data are analysed together. Structural coding is particularly appropriate for multiple participant studies and exploratory investigations (Saldaña, 2009). This method also allows researchers to access quickly data that are relevant to a particular theme (Namey et al., 2008).

Coding was carried out independently by the two researchers, who developed their own coding book. Once the coding process was finished, the two researchers discussed the analysis carried out until an agreement was achieved on the final themes.

4.4 Results

The coding process has focused on three areas: the image held by interviewees on the south of Italy, their perceptions towards Italian organized crime and the sources of information used in order to acquire knowledge on Italian organized crime. Excerpts taken from the focus groups are presented in Table 4.2.

4.4.1 Perceived image of the south of Italy

With regard to the first aspect, that is, the perceived image of the south of Italy, analysis of the data showed that Italians and Britons shared very similar images. Both groups cited elements related to the themes ‘natural scenery’ (e.g. sun and sea), ‘food and wine’, ‘culture and heritage’, ‘climate’, ‘north/south divide’. Both visitors and non-visitors referred to these aspects, although slight differences emerged with regards to the ‘north/south divide’. British interviewees referred mainly to socio-economic differences, such as the different degrees of economic and tourism development between these two areas. To the contrary, Italians, in addition to citing these socio-economic differences, also mentioned cultural differences, such as the different ways of life.

Other themes on which the two groups differed were ‘hospitality’, ‘cities’ and ‘issues’. For instance, Italian visitors referred to the warm ‘hospitality’ they experienced in the south of Italy, but this theme was not mentioned by British interviewees.

Furthermore, Italians referred to tourist destinations by citing names of places; thus, a theme called ‘cities’ emerged. Moreover, with ‘issues’, participants referred to problems that public organizations were facing or had to sort out in the past, such as the issue of waste in Naples.

Finally, the theme ‘mafia’ emerged from both groups, although among the British participants just two of them cited it, while all the Italian non-visitors and just two visitors mentioned it. From this first part of the analysis, it can be said that, similarly to the results obtained by Selby (2004), the images held by those who had already visited the south of Italy were more positive than those held by non-visiters, thus demonstrating the impact that direct experience can have on tourists’ perceptions.

4.4.2 Perceived image of Italian organized crime

From the analysis of the interviewees’ perceptions towards Italian organized crime, it emerged that there are more differences between Italian and British tourists than there are similarities, although in both groups the theme ‘crimes’, which respondents linked to Italian organized crime (e.g. extortions, prostitution, drug trafficking), was cited.

With regard to the British interviewees, perceptions related to the theme ‘mafia’ were cited by seven interviewees, but none of them
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Italian</th>
<th>British</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived image</strong></td>
<td>‘The first things that come to my mind are sun, sea and hospitality. I will explain myself, because [in the south of Italy] there are places in the summer where the sun is burning. The sea, I think, is one of the most beautiful things I can think of in the south [of Italy]. The hospitality, because every times that I have been to the south I always received such hospitality, so ... I do not know how I can explain ... ‘welcome’ is perhaps the most exact word I can use’ (Isabella, 31–60 age group)</td>
<td>‘One image that has stuck with me forever is that there are very, very narrow coastal roads, and seeing scooters with a family of four sitting on the scooter and things like that, but it was not once that you’d see it; you would see it all the time, you know, this mother, father and two little children packed on to the scooter and going on these narrow roads and think “how they are still alive?”’ (Melanie, 31–60 age group)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the south of Italy</td>
<td>‘I have drawn a gun, to show that if I go to the south of Italy I think it will be different there. On TV we can see lots of incidents of crime in the south, whether organized or not. I think they are most prevalent in the south but I am not sure of it’ (Riccardo, 18–30 age group)</td>
<td>‘I think about the mafia because of news and TV’ (Sam, 18–30 age group)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘[I drew] a whole series of figures that I associate [with Italian organized crime]. The chameleon, because it is always able to reinvent itself. The mafia still knows how to enter and exit from businesses, with the right timing, and it knows how to identify new ones [...] . The figure of the lizard, because you cut its tail off but it always grows back. You can arrest somebody but the organization goes on. Cinematography helped me a little bit and [I drew] an octopus because it is tentacular, and it can get you everywhere and go everywhere’ (Angelo, 18–30 age group)</td>
<td>‘[I think about] ... mobsters with cigars, it is a stereotypical image, I think it is because I watched The Simpsons growing up’ (Ben, 18–30 age group)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived image</strong></td>
<td>‘I wrote of the bad reputation that [Italian organized crime] gives us abroad. In fact, in recent years the mafia has spread abroad, such as mafia associations that have widened, for example, in the USA. And this gives us a very bad reputation because this is one of the things that other people often remember of Italy’ (Valerio, 18–30 age group)</td>
<td>‘My perception [of Italian organized crime] is about pride. While if you think about Mexico, the cartel, it is all about drugs. I feel with Italy it is more a family pride kind of thing and rivalries between families’ (Luke, 18–30 age group)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Italian organized crime</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visitors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-visitors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>British</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sources of information on organized crime</td>
<td>‘[I attended] meetings organized at my high school. I attended a testimony of a father and son who had to deal with the mafia’ (Jessica, 18–30 age group)</td>
<td>‘Certainly I can remember, you know, from the ’70s onwards ’cause there were judges who were assassinated and all the trials and all that sort of things and that’s what sticks in my mind the most’ (Melanie, 31–60 age group)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Then I wrote the word “mafia”, because many newscasts just talk about it. Lots of newscasts talks about ’Ndrangheta and Camorra, and they put them in these areas [in the south of Italy]. However, it should not be underestimated that the mafia is also here in the north [of Italy]’ (Diego, 18–30 age group)</td>
<td>‘I read the news daily on websites and things, so … it is very rare that you find things about organized crime in Italy. I am not sure whether it’s because the Italian government wants to keep it quiet or anything like that, but there is very little in the news until […] they find criminal bosses that have been in hiding for so many years, but that is the only time you hear it’ (Sam, 18–30 age group)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_Tabel 4.2. Continued._
clarified whether they were talking about it in a broad sense or whether they were referring to the Sicilian Cosa Nostra. Another major theme that emerged across the discussions with the British was ‘movies’, which was cited both in broad terms and with specific reference to The Godfather.

With regard to the Italian respondents, the major themes that have been identified are the ‘presence in the north of Italy’, stressing the fact that Italian organized crime is now spread across the country; ‘places’ linked to Italian organized crime, such as Sicily, Naples and Palermo; and ‘real episodes’, such as the investigations on the presence of Italian organized crime in works related to EXPO2015. Another theme that emerged across all the focus groups with Italians was the ‘bad reputation of Italy abroad’. For example, one interviewee who lived in the USA for 1 year said:

‘When you are abroad and you talk about the south of Italy or about Italy in general, the first thing that foreigners say is “mafia, mafia!” For foreigners, the mental association is automatic. Apart from pizza and pasta, the third thing that they say is “mafia”.’

(Carol, Italian visitor, 18–30 age group)

Another common theme across focus groups was related to the ‘people fighting Italian organized crime’, such as Giovanni Falcone or Paolo Borsellino, two anti-mafia prosecutors who were killed by Cosa Nostra in 1992.

4.4.3 Sources of information

Another area in which differences between the Italian and the British interviewees emerged refers to the sources of information that respondents used in order to form their ideas about Italian organized crime. Italian interviewees relied on ‘mass media’ such as newspaper articles, TV news, etc., and on ‘non-fiction books’. ‘TV series’ were also cited, while just a few people cited ‘movies’. Interestingly, among the latter, some of the respondents cited movies based on real facts, such as ‘The Mafia Kills Only in Summer’. These types of movies were cited by people who were interested in deepening their knowledge of the history of Italian organized crime. Some of the interviewees referred also to ‘high-school activities’; that is, teachers at high school inviting people involved in the anti-mafia movement to talk to students about their experiences. In contrast, British interviewees were more reliant on ‘fiction movies’ such as The Godfather, ‘novels’, ‘TV series’ such as CSI or The Simpsons, while just three interviewees cited ‘documentaries’. Interestingly, none of them cited TV news or newspaper articles.

4.4.4 Effects on tourist behaviour

This research also analysed how much tourists’ perceptions of Italian organized crime affected their behaviour of both visitors and non-visitors. Consistent with the analysis of national culture through Hofstede’s model, this research found that British interviewees had the lowest perception of risk compared to Italians, which was in line with previous studies that had considered the cultural impact of perceived risk (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2006). However, this result cannot be generalized to the overall group of Italians, since differences between visitors and non-visitors were found. For example, those people who had direct experience of travel to the south of Italy and who had information on Italian organized crime were not afraid to travel to those places. To the contrary, non-visitors were more afraid to travel to the south of Italy, probably due to their lack of direct travel experience. This result thus supports the idea that a mix of variables should be taken into account while studying the fear of crime (Box et al., 1988; Selby et al., 2010).

The difference in travel behaviour between British and Italian tourists could be explained on the basis of the ‘stock of knowledge’ held by interviewees. British participants, due to the fact that their knowledge relied on fictional sources of information, tended not to consider Italian organized crime as an obstacle for them to travel to the south of Italy. For example, one of the interviewees argued:

‘Probably naively, but I associate the Italian mafia with the terms of family, respect and things like these. Whereas for places like Mexico with the cartel it is something which would definitely influence [my decision whether] to go to Mexico. I would like to see Mexico but the stuff you hear about [crime] is
34 I. Bregoli and F. Ceruti

more scary to me. Whereas with Italy […] I
associate more with respect and family.’
(Luke, non-visitor, 18–30 age group)

Other British visitors shared a similar view, and
interestingly, in all cases they cited Mexico and
the Mexican drug cartels as the reason for not
travelling to Mexico. Moreover, in all these
cases, participants stated that with regard to
the Mexican cartels, their sources of informa-
tion were represented by TV news and newspa-
per articles, which is the opposite compared
to Italian organized crime, where information
is collected through fictional sources of informa-
tion (i.e. movies). In general, British inter-
viewees stated that the existence of Italian
organized crime was not a factor affecting their
choice of whether or not to travel to the south
of Italy. In general, they had a perception of a
safe place in which criminal activity was no
different or worse from that of any other tourist
destination. For example, one participant stated:‘I
do not think it [Italian organized crime] af-
facts tourists ’cause it is more about big crime,
for instance, drugs, prostitution, that sort of
thing’ (Sally, visitor, 31–60 age group)

In the case of Italians, it was found that the
’stock of knowledge’, with particular reference
to direct experiences of the place, was useful in
lowering the perception of risk. Moreover, the
’stock of knowledge’ affected the way in which
some people approached their travel to the
south of Italy, and there were people who
started making responsible choices in the light
of the pieces of information they had. For
example, there were people who wanted to make
sure that through their travel they were not fi-
nancing criminal organizations, so they chose
organizations that supported businesses not
paying protection money, such as Addio Pizzo.
As one person stated: ‘When I booked my holiday
in Sicily, I got in touch with the associations
that are members of Addio Pizzo [Farewell Pro-
tection Money] because I prefer to give money
to them’ (Graziano, visitor, 31–60 age group).

4.5 Conclusion

The aim of this research was to study how per-
ceptions towards Italian organized crime were
affecting tourists’ behaviour and the role of the
’stock of knowledge’ in this relationship. In
order to do so, focus groups concentrating on
the south of Italy were made up of Italian and
British participants.

The results show that these two groups are
similar with regard to the images perceived of
the south of Italy, linked to beautiful scenery
and food. On the other hand, differences
emerged with regard to the perceptions that
were held towards Italian organized crime and
the sources of information adopted in order to
form these perceptions. Hence, it can be said
that the ‘stock of knowledge’ is affecting parti-
cipants’ perceptions towards organized crime.
Not only is the amount of information avail-
able important, but the type of the source of
information also has a crucial role. British par-
ticipants who relied primarily on fictional
sources of information (e.g. movies) had a more
’romantic’ view about Italian organized crime,
which they did not perceive as dangerous, so it
did not affect their travelling behaviour. To the
contrary, Italians who relied primarily on real
sources of information (e.g. mass media) and
who had never travelled to the south of Italy,
were more afraid of travelling towards those
areas. It was also found that previous visitors to
the south of Italy, when they had a broader
knowledge about Italian organized crime,
started making responsible choices in terms of
service providers.

Similarly to other studies, in this case there
are also limitations that affect this study. First,
given the limited focus of the research, the re-
sults cannot be generalized to other worldwide
destinations affected by organized crime (e.g.
Russia, Mexico, China). Second, data collect-
ion was affected by problems in recruiting par-
ticipants. Indeed, it was very difficult to find
British participants who were willing to coop-
erate, regardless of the incentives offered. There
were also problems in the case of the Italian
groups. In particular, it was very difficult to rec-
cruit participants who had never travelled to the
south of Italy. Third, differences in terms of gen-
der have not been considered in this research,
although this is one of the variables that affect
fear of crime, as asserted by Selby et al. (2010).

In the light of the aforementioned limita-
tions, further research is necessary. For example,
a quantitative study could be carried out in
order to investigate statistically the relationships
between variables and, in so doing, understand how much fictional and non-fictional sources of information are affecting travel behaviour. Moreover, studies could be carried out in other countries where other types of criminal organizations are established, in order to understand whether there are differences compared to the results presented here. Finally, other studies could be aimed at investigating gender differences among respondents.

References


5 Women’s Strategies in Golf: Portuguese Golf Professionals

Helena Reis,1* Antonia Correia1 and Lee Phillip McGinnis2
1University of Algarve, Faro, Portugal; 2Stonehill College, Easton, USA

5.1 Introduction

Research on leisure and sports acknowledges golf as a male-dominated activity, reflecting a prevalent strong masculine culture (Haig-Muir, 2000; McGinnis et al., 2009; Vamplew, 2010). Gender inequities in leisure and the masculine hegemony of several sports have been the subject of a large body of research (see: football, Kim and Chalip, 2004; motorcycling, Roster, 2007; tennis, Thomsson, 1999; and golf, McGinnis and Gentry, 2006; Hudson, 2008).

Due to its specific characteristics, golf could be seen differently from other sports (e.g. football) because it provides balanced procedures such as a handicap system and differentiated teeing grounds, offering equal opportunities to both genders irrespective of physical strengths. Discrimination has been an enduring practice since the 18th century to date (Chambers, 1995), even if the Rules of Golf written in 1744 by the Gentlemen Golfers of Leith (see, for example, http://golf.about.com) do not instruct the exclusion of women from the clubhouses and the game. This exclusion has been a regular practice, especially in countries where the game was introduced by the British, whose cultural tradition of the ‘for-gentlemen-only’ clubs strongly influenced golf participation: for centuries, women were not allowed in the clubhouses.

In fact, the low participation of female golfers is recurrent in the USA (McGinnis and Gentry, 2006; Licata and Tiger, 2010), the UK (George, 2010), Australia (Haig-Muir, 2000) and even Portugal (European Golf Association, 2012, hereafter EGA; Reis and Correia, 2013).

McGinnis et al. (2009) have analysed the ritual-based negotiation strategies women golfers in the USA employ to handle golf bias; applying the same strategies to understand if Portuguese female golfers react in similar ways is the ground motivation for the present study. In fact, Portugal is more traditionally gendered than the USA, which may stress major difference (see Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, 2013).

The aim of the present research is to understand whether and to what extent the life contexts and backgrounds of Portuguese women influence their choice to play golf by means of a framework provided by the three dimensions of factors (hereafter 3D) by Crawford et al. (1991) and Godbey et al. (2010) and the constraints (Jackson, 2005) and facilitators (Raymore, 2002) paradigm. A further objective is to analyse whether these women’s behaviours fit with
the three types of aforementioned strategies (McGinnis et al., 2009).

Above all, we want to comprehend how these or similar negotiation strategies interact with leisure constraints, making this a unique contribution to this burgeoning area of study. The merger of the aforementioned frameworks is needed because, in order to truly grow the game and make it more enjoyable for women, it is necessary for female golfers to come in and define their own rituals, which will allow for maximum transcendence.

For this study, we interviewed six Portuguese female golf professionals and champions. Even though the sample is very limited, it is exhaustive, comprising all the participants in this category in Portugal: four professionals (out of 110 only four are women) and the national professional and amateur champions. Yet, as we only have six cases (that account for the total population), we couch this study under ‘the extended case study’ method (hereafter ECM) (Burawoy, 1991, 2009a,b). Grounded in Burawoy’s ECM (1991, 2009a,b) and by means of content analysis applied to these women’s interviews, we intend to confirm if the strategies chosen by each woman arose from the set of factors found in the facilitators and constraints framework. Overall, our aim is to understand:

1. What are the strategies women who excel in golf use in order to participate? Are these strategies moderated by their life contexts?
2. Do the perceived facilitators and constraints moderate the adopted strategy?

To the authors’ best knowledge, these negotiation strategies are still under-researched.

The present chapter will test the trade-off of these three strategies (McGinnis et al., 2009) and attempt to contribute to the literature in this way. From a theoretical perspective, the application of the facilitators/constraints paradigm contributes by consolidating theoretical frameworks to study gender issues. It allows comparing and illustrating the factors that influence women’s choice to participate in a male-dominated sport. The authors consider this the most powerful contribution. Investigating the cross-section of these theories will deepen our understanding of how and why women adopt a specific strategy. This is not only critical on a theoretical level but also is fundamental in understanding why gender differences persist over the centuries, and, above all, to identify solutions women golfers use to persist in the game. In fact, their contribution to golf and to make golf environments more women-friendly may imply that women will have to participate on their own conditions, introducing necessary changes.

5.2 Literature Review

Golf has been known as one of the last male bastions due to its masculine hegemony that has persisted over the centuries. This secondary position of women in the clubhouses echoes over the years. When looking at narratives and life stories of Anglo-American women who excelled in golf in the 19th and 20th centuries (Crane, 1991; Mair, 1992; Tinkler, 2004; Hudson, 2008), examples of exclusion from clubhouses or limitation practices are difficult to accept from a contemporary perspective. This fact emphasizes even better the effort and persistence these women showed when facing prejudice. In a modern context, for Bourdieu (1997):

‘The membership of a golf club was a major modern indicator of social capital, a concept which he viewed instrumentally believing that individuals would intentionally build relationships within the club for their own benefit, especially the facilitation of business networks.’

(Vamplew, 2010, p. 360)

Other authors report this same view: ‘golf links and country clubs are the locale for developing professional and business contacts. Golf and the country club lubricate the advance of careers’ (Hudson, 2008, p. 117). Scholars such as Haig-Muir (2000) or McGinnis et al. (2009) have exposed practices that do not motivate women to participate in golf. Statistics released by the EGA in 38 European countries between 1985 and 2010 confirm that women golfers make up less than 30% of golf participants and this status quo has persisted over those 25 years (EGA, 2012). Portugal follows this same general pattern, with a low percentage of female golfers (20.03%). This position has been decreasing at an annual average growth rate of 3.6% from 2005 to 2012, which doubles the decreasing rate of the male market (EGA, 2012). The number of female players registered in the Portuguese Golf Federation has decreased from 3594 in 2005 to 2681 in 2012.
5.2.1 Facilitators/constraints to participation in leisure

For several years, a stream of studies have considered the three dimensions (3D) of factors (Crawford et al., 1991; Godbey et al., 2010) – intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural – as functioning as constraints (Jackson, 2005) and/or facilitators (Raymore, 2002), which is the most adequate framework to understand leisure participation (Kim and Chalip, 2004; McGinnis et al., 2005; Hudson et al., 2010). Woodside et al. (2005) posit that the facilitators–constraints interaction is that ‘specific combinations of facilitators and constraining factors create paths leading to … certain outcomes’ (Woodside et al., 2005, p. 2). This conforms with our suggestion that such combinations will lead to different strategic behaviours selected by the different women golfers.

A combination of the 3D factors acts as enablers or inhibitors of the decision to participate at different levels and stages, depending on the life contexts of each participant. Analysing and describing these behavioural outcomes will allow for identifying the type(s) of strategies female golfers choose to negotiate their participation in the game. According to McGinnis et al. (2009), the negotiation strategy may vary depending on how intense the perception of these factors is.

5.2.2 Three types of ‘negotiation strategies’

Few studies address the strategies individuals choose when they are facing a travel/non-travel decision-making process (Woodside et al., 2005; Silva et al., 2010). This scarcity is also evident on strategies undertaken by women to handle golf bias (McGinnis et al., 2009). The authors list the following strategies:

- Accommodating – these participants do not confront the male hegemony of the game, prefer to participate in separate groups from men and help to perpetuate this status quo. This group also tends to defer to their male partners’ wishes (McGinnis et al., 2009).
- Unapologetic – they find that women are as entitled as men to play golf and want to change the male-dominating culture of the game and make golf rituals and golf play more inclusive of women (McGinnis et al., 2009).
- Remaining unaware – ‘they enjoyed golf intrinsically and did not experience or even think about gendered structures in the same way the women in the two previous categories did’ (McGinnis et al., 2009, p. 29).

Our objective is to understand how the perception of enabling/constraining factors may determine the choice for one type of strategy to stay and play golf. Based on the literature and proposed framework on which our research relies, the present chapter examines the following research propositions:

- P1: golf participation choice is moderated by intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural factors; since cultural/social factors relate to these women’s contextual life settings, these factors can influence their choice.
- P2: strategies manage to overcome constraints and avail enablers, so contextual life settings (even if not perceived) and cultural/social contexts can moderate these women’s strategies.

Building from the above assumptions, the research seeks to illustrate how and in what contexts different strategies emerge.

5.3 Methodology

The opportunity to obtain a sample was limited to the existing top women players and teaching professionals in Portugal: there are two champions (amateur and professional) and four golf professionals working in golf clubs (out of 110, only four are women).

The extended case method was considered the most appropriate for our research, since it ‘applies reflexive science to ethnography in order to extract the general from the unique, to move from the ‘micro’ to the ‘macro’’ (Burawoy, 1991, 2009a,b). The extended case method ‘constructs genetic explanations, that is, explanations of particular outcomes (…) in the genetic mode the significance of a case relates to what it tells us about the world in which it is embedded’ (Burawoy, 1991, pp. 280–281). Considering that
our population constitutes a ‘unique social situation’, the ECM ‘pays attention to its complexity, its depth, its thickness’ (Burawoy, 1991, p. 281). To achieve a holistic interpretation of the participants, their past and present contexts and to understand their participation decision, the in-depth interview (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Ragin, 1994; Woodside et al., 2005; Jennings, 2010) was used. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. A qualitative method of empirical material interpretation, the content analysis (Jennings, 2010), was applied to the comparative study of these interviews. The interviewees’ verbalizations were interpreted by using ‘purpose software tools’ (La Pelle, 2004): a theme codebook was created including the three dimensions and a set of intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural facilitators or constraints that had emerged from the literature as the most important ones. The content analysis of the interviews provides detailed information that allows interpretation on various levels, according to different contexts.

5.4 Results

The interpretation of these women’s discourses led to a characterization of each life story. By comparing their backgrounds, past experiences, interaction with family and friends, their perception of the gender prejudice that derives from social and cultural traditions (i.e. the gendered male-dominated focus of the game), we add insight into how we comprehend gender in golf participation. In order to assess our first proposition, we used a theme codebook that informed the number of times each factor was mentioned (instances) and the number of women who mentioned it (informants). The analysis showed that within the intrapersonal dimension only a low number of factors are perceived as constraints, while facilitators culminated in three factors: personality; self-esteem/competitiveness; motivation. This may derive from the fact that this is a specific group of women, with special characteristics (all champions). Because they have achieved a high level of success, they more likely view constraints as less imposing than the average female golfer might. Or, though perhaps tautological, they achieved success because interpersonal constraints were not an issue. In any event, although they have to deal with or negotiate gender bias, these women’s motivation and determination to succeed seem to make them undervalue the constraints.

To the contrary, facilitators are numerous. Considering that these findings could only be realized post hoc, we suggest that the intrapersonal factors are experience dependent, meaning that the more advanced golfer has moved beyond personal inhibitions that other less experienced golfers still face. On the intrapersonal level, facilitators and constraints are more balanced. Whereas some participants began playing with their family, for two women the crucial facilitator was a group of friends; the strongest constraint is the ethics of care (women tend to look after the others’ needs before their own). Because all the participants are professional golfers, they are aware of this issue and how it penalizes mostly women, but only two admit to feeling it in their daily lives. Finally, on the structural dimension, dissimilarities are visible, but contrary to the intrapersonal dimension, the inhibitors undoubtedly outnumber the facilitators. The most relevant are course policies/conduciveness/golf institutions, which act as constraints, followed by cultural/social attitudes. Two participants strongly criticize the institutions, wanting to change the male-dominated culture of the game and make golf play more inclusive of women. Angela highlights the injustice imposed on the ladies’ national team when they participated in the 2008 world tournament in Australia:

‘The men’s team was booked in at a 5-star hotel along with some accompanying guests who did not even play golf, while the national female team stayed at a 3.5 star hotel. When we questioned them, they answered that the Federation could not afford to put us all in the 5-star!’

Judith says jokingly:

‘Every year they call me to ask for my shoe size and promise they’ll send me a pair of shoes but, so far, I have never got them… the male team gets all the bags and caps, so we kind of steal from them because we never get anything!’

Although aware that cultural/social attitudes can hamper female participation, four interviewees find it possible to overcome this constraint. These women were educated in Portugal according to social values, which respect traditions and hierarchies, and they accept almost completely
within a consensual way that marks the Portuguese culture. They all learned to play golf with male members of their families (father, grandfather, husband) or in school groups with a male coach. In conclusion, by means of content analysis and a theme codebook applied to the six in-depth interviews of the Portuguese golf professionals/champions, the present study confirms that these women acknowledge and perceive the intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural facilitators and constraints previously proposed by the literature. Considering that most of them have different trade-offs in between the aforementioned factors that characterize their social life contexts, the second proposition was introduced in our research.

Next, we detail the interaction between the perception of the 3D factors and the three ritual negotiation styles advanced by McGinnis et al. (2009), an interaction not covered by previous research.

5.4.1 Case 1 – accommodating strategy

One might presume that the accommodating strategy would not be present among the top-level players but our study concludes differently, as indicated in Fig. 5.1. Two of our interviewees (Claire and Caroline) prove to be aware of cultural/social attitudes that affect female participation. Yet, on the other hand, they accommodate this status quo rather than confront it; they adapt themselves to the male-dominated culture of the game, adhering to tradition. Claire has grown up in a family of golfers and works at her father’s golf academy, so she has absorbed the norms and perpetuates them without question. Caroline has always played with a group of friends, male and female, and she finds that women can adapt to the game, as different tees and other rules favouring women balance any physical inequities. Another behaviour they show in common is that they coach men and women separately: ‘I try to separate husbands and wives because men can be very aggressive with their wives on the golf course’ (Claire). Caroline admits: ‘I like to coach ladies separately, so we are all more “at ease” than when men are present’.

These participants do not like to confront the rules or cannot introduce changes, so they end up accommodating and perpetuating golf bias.

5.4.2 Case 2 – unapologetic strategy

Paula and Angela appear to be unthreatened by tradition and are confident interpersonally; the structural constraints are openly verbalized, as in Fig. 5.2. These two interviewees are highly critical of the golf institutions/course policies and cultural/social attitudes, reflecting the

![Fig. 5.1. Accommodation strategy.](image-url)
unapologetic behaviour. Paula was coaching the national female team working for the Federação Portuguesa de Golfe (FPG) but resigned when she failed to introduce changes that would favour women. Much younger than Paula, Angela complains: ‘At present, we [the female national team] don’t even have a coach; the male team coach doesn’t have time for us. They [FPG] say they’ll get us a coach if and when we get good results, but some of us do and they still do nothing about it.’

Of course, receiving a coach only after the team earns ‘good results’ represents a catch-22, a paradoxical situation that precludes escape or advancement. This attitude also ‘creates conflict with the establishment’ (McGinnis et al., 2009, p. 26). None the less, both women enjoy playing so much that they play often and with whomever they can.

5.4.3 Case 3 – remaining unaware

Remaining unaware is the third strategy and relates to the two Portuguese champions (Fig. 5.3). The intrapersonal factors outnumber the other dimensions because these two participants manifest strong personalities and high self-esteem: ‘I’m the best! I always win!’ On the interpersonal level, Maria and Judith highlight family incentive and group of friends as the main drivers for their participation. These two golfers were taken to the course by their fathers in their early years. The inhibitor ‘missing social life’ is highly valued by both women, but they clearly choose to play and be successful. They concentrate on the enjoyment that playing with the best of your ability and skills provides. On the structural level, neither Judith nor Maria are interested in changing the game. To the contrary, Maria accepts the rules and ‘plays by the book’. She is highly competitive, likes to bet and accuses other women of being too accommodating to comfortable positions and victimization instead of joining the competition more often: ‘I agree with the handicapping system, staggered tees and all that. I take advantage of all the rules that favour women.’ Judith admits she does not mind which tees she starts from because: ‘Above all, I enjoy the game. I want to play, to compete and to win!’

Although we have grouped these participants according to the more prominent characteristics, because this is not a static process, all women show characteristics from the other strategies. As an example, we quote the latter group (unaware): Maria likes to bet, a challenging attitude of the ‘unapologetic participants’ conforming to McGinnis et al. (2009), and Judith admits: ‘Sometimes I let them win, so they keep on playing with me’, which reflects the ‘accommodating’ strategy.

In conclusion, when applying the McGinnis et al. (2009) research to a much more restricted
and clustered sample, we found that most of the characteristics of the three categories were relevant and present. Portuguese golf professionals/champions negotiate their participation in golf by means of the participation styles upheld by these authors regarding American female golfers.

5.5 Conclusion

By examining the lives of the six top female golfers in Portugal, we have drawn some conclusions. These women have been educated in Portugal, in a society that values traditions, hierarchies and consensus (Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, 2013), which they accept almost unconditionally. They all learned how to play (and continue to play) golf with male members of their families (father, grandfather and husband) or in school groups with a male coach. These women are determined to win and have the inherent desire to compete engrained in their attitudes. The interviewees accept unconditionally women’s lower status in society, physically and socially, stating that women have to work harder to get similar recognition for their achievements. By means of in-depth interviews and supported by Burawoy’s (1991, 2009a,b) extended case method, it was possible to confirm that all women clearly recognized most of these factors, even if at different levels of perception. As a consequence, they develop ways of dealing with the constraints. In order to play and stay in golf, the interviewees ‘negotiate’ their participation in different ways:

1. Two of the married players ‘accommodate’ the current male hegemony, often deferring to their husbands’ wishes and playing by men’s rules, helping to perpetuate this status quo. Their main approach is to accept separation from men: coach separate teams and compete separately.

2. The second group (unapologetic) is more defiant, denouncing cultural and social attitudes, speaking out openly against gender-biased policies and conduciveness, but still adapt to the game because golf is their passion.

3. The more competitive women (unaware) prefer not to question golf policies, even if they perceive gender inequalities rather than not being accepted in the game. They love competing and do so on men’s grounds. Their main concern is ‘to stay in the game, no matter what’.

In fact, the findings imply that even among the most experienced and accomplished players, the three negotiation strategies are still used. One might assume that the accommodating strategy would be least used among experienced golfers, but our data suggest otherwise. Either by deferring to their husbands’ wishes or trying to compensate him for the long hours and weekends spent playing golf, these golf professionals accommodate male supremacy as a cultural value that they accept tacitly. Moreover, they coach groups of men and women
separately, helping to perpetuate the status quo. This result indicates that cultural traditions still influence experienced golfers’ behaviours. Further, and as mentioned before, in order to truly grow the game and make it more enjoyable for women, it is necessary for women to define their own rituals, which allows for maximum enjoyment and transcendence. Clearly, the unaware strategy is the most effective one toward this end, and understanding the constraints that still exist in this experience mode sheds light on how practitioners can approach growth initiatives.

The contribution of this study compared to previous studies refers to the heterogeneity that is evident in this particular cultural background. In general, social values prevail even when women are encouraged to take part in leisure activities such as golf. Seeing how this heterogeneity plays itself out in other sports and leisure activities in Portugal remains a question for further enquiry.

Even though the three negotiation strategies are put into play, it is also evident that the way these strategies are adopted varies according to the cultural and contextual backgrounds of women’s lifestyles. These results open paths for other research as well; multicultural contexts comparisons should be analysed to enact a more generalizable and universal understanding of women’s behaviours. Furthermore, for comparison purposes, other groups of women players should be analysed.

Contributions are also present at a theoretical level. Expanding the facilitators/constraints perception sheds additional light on the factors that influence women to participate in male-dominated sports. Analysing their behaviour leads to better knowledge of the exposed and/or ‘hidden’ discriminatory practices that still persist in golf. Furthermore, by studying strategies used by top Portuguese female golfers, we open paths for ways to make golf more appealing to women and for other women to understand how to negotiate their participation irrespective of their desired participation levels and golf experience. Factors of participation found in Portugal match the ones mentioned in research from other countries (Haig-Muir, 2000; McGinnis and Gentry, 2006; Hudson, 2008; McGinnis et al., 2009) and related to various levels of golf experience (professional, amateur and social golfers), indicating that these factors are prevalent in various nationalities.

Previous research shows that the accommodating strategy is mostly experienced by amateur golfers. Nevertheless, due to the cultural framework of Portugal, the accommodating strategy is experienced even among golf professionals. This is a surprising result, indicating that when cultural values demand respect for traditions and hierarchies, Portuguese golf professionals are able to excel through a consensual position, which is also a characteristic of this culture: women learning and copying from men. One might consider that in order to excel at golf as a female in Portugal, it is necessary to focus on the game. Trying to make societal- and cultural-level changes in a society still beholden to traditional values would require too much effort and time, leaving less time to develop high-level golf skills, which probably explains why there are so few highly competitive and accomplished female golfers in Portugal. Yet, the present research focuses only on Portuguese champions, which is limited and not generalizable. Perhaps, by using this sample, the inhibitors should be outweighed, as these women are capable of standing out even in an adverse context. The need for additional studies is evident to assess the relevance of these factors and adopted strategies among other nationalities, cultures and levels of golf experience and practice, in a broader and more diversified group of female players and within different cultural contexts and sporting activities.

References


6 Semi-automatic Content Analysis of Trip Diaries: Pull Factors to Catalonia

Estela Marine-Roig* and Salvador Anton Clavé

1University of Lleida, Lleida, Spain; 2Rovira i Virgili University, Vila-seca, Spain

6.1 Introduction

Gardiner et al. (2013) suggest that future research on travel decision making should be done with a greater involvement of narrative-based approaches, including storytelling. Dann (2014) states that the motivation for travelling studied from tourist narratives should employ personal information such as interviews and diaries; ‘when the data are content analysed, categories emerge that are uniquely founded on the ipsissima verba of the subjects’ (p. 49). Uysal et al. (2008) include destination attributes and formed destination images as pull factors in the push–pull model of tourism motivations.

Online trip diaries have yet to be used as sources to analyse tourist motivations related to the attraction factors or attributes of a destination once the experience has already taken place and as the tourists themselves have expressed it. Travel blogs and online travel reviews (OTRs), as spontaneous user-generated content (UGC) are a reliable source of information to do so and to learn about perceived destination image (Marine-Roig, 2013).

The aim of this chapter is, therefore, to propose a methodology to identify pull factors through massive computerized quantitative content analysis of travel blogs and OTRs concerning a specific tourist destination. This method has been applied to analyse 18,569 trip diaries of foreign tourists, from countries posting more than 300 entries written in English about Catalonia in 2013. This analysis focuses on the perceived (and transmitted) destination image through the categorization of attraction factors (Marine-Roig, 2013) to see what factors prevail and whether nationality influences the perceived image. The findings are related to some pull factors (destination attributes) that have been analysed previously in other studies using structured questionnaires in the push–pull model of tourism motivations.

Through this approach, the paper overcomes the criticism raised by Lu and Stepchenkova (2015), who assert that despite the huge growth of UGC information, UGC data are still collected ‘by hand’ in most studies, limiting the sample size. It also overcomes the burden of the manual collection of data, which is highly time-consuming, and deeply transcends the small and non-random samples that hardly represent the population usually selected in this type of study (Banyai and Glover, 2012).
6.2 Literature Review

Dann (2014) offers a relevant path in his push-pull model of tourism motivation, which is of utmost interest for the research explained in this chapter:

- Push motive(s) → Pull motive(s) →
- Decision where to go →
- Experience(s) → Satisfaction →
- New motive(s)

Push factors are related to tourists’ desire to escape routine, rest, relaxation, adventure and social interaction, and are linked to the demand side, while pull factors are inspired by the destination’s attractiveness, such as beaches, cultural attractions, entertainment and natural landscape, and are more related to the supply side (Kozak, 2002; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). So, pull motives are directly related to the attributes and identity of a given destination, to several attraction factors that will attract or ‘pull’ the tourist to that place. The combination and relationship of both push and pull factors is what makes the tourist decide where to go. These elements of the model are bound to the pre-trip phase.

Then comes the actual experience at the destination, and it is during and after this experience that the tourist relates both these push and pull factors to his or her own experience at cognitive and affective levels, and by doing so, acquires a certain level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, which in turn influences the new motives of the tourist and what he or she will transmit to others in the post-trip phase. Uysal et al. (2008) include the formed negative/positive destination images of tourists as a fundamental element within the pull factors; these images arise from this evaluation of the experience during the post-trip stage and the new motives generated, as well as the several information sources such as tourists’ accounts of their travel experiences, in which satisfaction and new motives are expressed. Today, this transmitted image from tourist to tourist largely occurs online through UGC spaces such as online trip diaries (Marine-Roig, 2013). Indeed, the domain satisfaction and an ensuing (new) motivation, in the post-trip stage, allow for the reformulation of pre-trip motives in light of the tourist’s new role as a promoter to himself or herself and/or other potential tourists (Dann, 2014). As Dann (2014) puts it, in terms of explanation the model should be understood from right to left, as only when we ask the ‘why’ of the motive (e.g. why would or would you not revisit a destination?), to understand it, we must ask further ‘whys’ regressively about satisfaction, experience, decision, pull and push motives.

6.3 Methodology

Web content mining aims to discover and extract useful data or knowledge from web page contents; for example, to classify and cluster web pages automatically according to their topics, or mine user reviews and forum postings to discover consumer opinions and sentiments (Liu, 2011). Abburu and Babu (2013) propose a framework for web data extraction and analysis based on three basic steps: finding URLs of web pages, extracting information from web pages and data analysis. The system architecture they propose is divided into three modules: web crawling, information extraction and mining. Schmunk et al. (2014) present a process broken down into five stages: selecting and collecting OTR pages, document processing, mining, evaluation and usage. These researchers, in the document processing stage, perform the following steps: information extraction, removing reviews with no text, filtering English texts and generating sentences.

The method that we propose is similar to the above, but instead of extracting information from web pages, we download all useful HTML pages and eliminate all the noise so that the web page is reduced to what has been written and uploaded by the user, without modifying the original HTML format.

6.3.1 Case study

Catalonia is a Mediterranean destination with a millenary history, its own culture and language and a wealthy historical and natural heritage. According to the official statistics of the Catalan government, in 2013 Catalonia welcomed 20 million tourists as their principal destination of the trip, 15.6 million of whom came from abroad. Foreign tourists by source country were: Belgium
(562,000), Canada (131,300), Switzerland (397,058), Germany (1,277,600), France (4,139,400), Ireland (187,839), Italy (1,117,400), Japan (196,900), the Netherlands (695,400), Portugal (202,451), Russia (977,200), the UK (1,685,200), the USA (568,700) and the rest of the world. Foreign tourists’ motivations for their trip were: holidays, leisure and recreation (12,890,300), business and professional (1,667,500), family, health and shopping (545,800) and other.

6.3.2 Data source selection

The first big step to be able to process large quantities of information by computer is to create a consistent and suitable database. Several authors manifest difficulties in locating travel blogs in relation to a case study (among others Carson, 2008). Here, we propose searching for destination blogs and reviews in specialized websites due to their clear advantages for blog mining, data download and analysis as they concentrate hundreds or thousands of travel blogs and OTRs about a destination in a single space. Travel blogs and reviews, as post-trip diaries, contain a wealth of information on the tourists’ experiences that highlight the attributes or attraction factors of the destination and tourists’ satisfaction. This is especially interesting to give an insight into the motivations that ‘pulled’ tourists to visit a destination, which are directly related to certain destination attributes.

However, most studies targeting information within specialized travel blog and review websites do not justify objectively why they choose certain websites or others in relation to their case studies. Therefore, here we propose to check former works, consult bibliographical sources, subject guides, blog search engines and standard search and meta search engines using keywords (e.g. travel blog, travel review, travel journal, etc.). After the exploration of specialized websites, a selection criterion should be applied: the presence of blogs or reviews concerning the case study should be significant (more than 100 entries on the same website) and allow obtaining date, destination and source country of bloggers and reviewers.

With the selected websites, a ranking was devised by applying the weighted formula ‘TBRH = 1*B(V) + 1*B(P) + 2*B(S)’ (Marine-Roig, 2014), where ‘B’ corresponds to Borda’s ordering method, ‘V’ to the visibility of the website (quantity and quality of inbound links), ‘P’ its popularity (received visits and traffic in general) and ‘S’ the size (number of entries related to the case study). TBRH consists of the weighted aggregation of rankings: based on the three full lists (L) of websites ranked by ‘V’, ‘P’ and ‘S’, the function ‘B’ assigns a score for each candidate (c), which consists of the number of candidates ranked below ‘c’ in ‘L’. This score is multiplied by the weight of each ranking. Once the additions have been completed, the candidates are then sorted in descending order of total score. Finally, the first three in the rank are selected: TripAdvisor.com (TA), VirtualTourist.com (VT) and TravelPod.com (TP).

6.3.3 Data collection and download

Most studies gather very small samples of blogs and reviews, usually not exceeding a few hundred entries. Ideally, to conduct massive quantitative analyses, samples should be as broad as possible. Manual or semi-manual collection of data is not feasible with large data sets. Therefore, all the relevant blogs and reviews should be downloaded to the computer through web copiers, as it is the best means to gather and be able to process large numbers of entries. Manual exploration of the websites hosting travel blogs and OTRs should be undertaken to view their structure and locate the HTML files relevant to the case study.

For example, Catalonia has a homepage in TA with hyperlinks to all related OTRs (hotels, restaurants, attractions, activities, etc.), but it also contains links to other destinations and services (more than 200 million hyperlinks at several levels): http://www.tripadvisor.com/Attractions-g187496-Activities-Catalonia.html.

It is observed that the name of all TA useful webpages contains the word ‘Catalonia’. The web pages that have hyperlinks leading to the OTRs begin with Attraction, and the ones containing OTRs begin with Show User Review. With this information, you can configure the web copier with the appropriate filters to save download time and space on the local hard disc. In this research, we used a free and easy-to-use offline browser utility (HTTrack Website Copier) to download,
Data mining should be conducted in order to extract useful information from the HTML structure of tags. When HTML pages are downloaded, the information is directly contained in the Web address or URL (scheme or protocol, server, domain and subdomains, subdirectories or folders, filename and file type). However, to sort entries properly, we need to know the destination, date of writing or update, language, travellers’ country of origin and theme, if available. It is also useful to have the web page title. These data are usually within HTML pages of trip diaries and/or user profiles. A search utility accepting Regular Expressions is used to extract this information automatically; for example, the web page title between two HTML tags (<TITLE> and </TITLE>).

Data arrangement

To enable multiple classifications of HTML entries, we adopted the following structure of folders and files (Fig. 6.1): root\host\brand\destination\date_lang_isfrom_pagename_[theme].htm. Host: website hosting travel blogs or OTRs; Brand: territorial tourism brand; Destination: the name of the destination, joined by hyphens if it is a composite name; Date: with the format YYYYMMDD, based on ISO 8061 standard, to enable sorting by entry date; Lang: written language of trip diary (ISO 639-1 two-letter code); IsFrom: blogger’s country of residence (ISO 3166-2 two-letter code); Pagename can contain a combination of codes and/or words; Theme: if the website has a thematic classification of entries.

Data cleaning

Online sources are often full of noise (Carson, 2008) and should be cleaned prior to analysis. The purpose is to remove from the downloaded web pages all information which has not been generated by the user without losing the HTML format. As examples of noise, Liu (2011) gives navigation links, advertisements, copyright notices, etc., and asserts that data cleaning is commonly website-specific. However, there is a large volume of common code and data entered by the web server, such as meta tags, comments, iframes, forms and scripts, which can be removed without affecting user content.
Given that web pages, downloaded from each host (TA, TP and VT), have homogeneous structure and coding, you can locate on one page all needless HTML directives, such as header and footer sections. To identify these directives, a web editor like Microsoft Expression Web (free edition) can be used as follows: selecting non-user-generated sections in the Design-screen so that its HTML code is highlighted on the Code-screen; then, opening and closing HTML tags, such as <header> and </header>, can be copied to a TBL (generic table) file. To automate cleaning an ad hoc program is needed (Marine-Roig, 2013). This program reads the pairs of tags in the TBL file and removes them, as well as the content between the two, in all downloaded pages from the same host.

### 6.3.7 Data debugging

The first problem is due to character encoding higher than ASCII 127. Travel diaries contain local proper nouns with accent marks, e.g. Güell (park) can be encoded in at least four other ways: Guell (misspelling), GÄ¼ell (UTF-8), G&#252;ell (HTML number) and Guuml;ell (HTML name). One solution here is to replace this special character by the corresponding ISO-8859-15 code (Western European languages). Then, the data should be debugged through the implementation of a preliminary frequency count and the identification of misspelled keywords and most common mistakes (MCMs). Misspellings and MCMs, especially of proper nouns, distort content analysis and should be corrected through a massive search-and-replace utility.

### 6.3.8 Language detection

Language detection must be done after the cleaning stage, because the UGC only represents a minimal part of the web page content (Marine-Roig and Anton Clave, 2015, Figure 3). The language of blog and review entries should be detected through an ad hoc Java program (Marine-Roig, 2013), based on the Language Detection Library (LDL) of Shuyo (2014). This library, based on the Naïve Bayes classifier, detects each language with a probability higher than 99%. For the case study, only entries in English remained.

### 6.3.9 Content analysis

Banyai and Glover (2012) emphasize that researchers are still trying to ascertain the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of analysing travel blogs. In this case, content analysis was found to be the most suitable technique to perform massive analyses of blogs and reviews. This technique is especially rich and meaningful, because it relies on coding and categorizing the data (Stemler, 2001) and it presents several advantages for the analysis of travel blogs and reviews. We propose analysing the text within travel blogs and OTRs.

The approach to address content analysis is quantitative as it is the best method to analyse massive data sets and to be able to summarize results in a way they can be rendered useful for researchers and destinations. This approach is objective, systematic and relies on scientific methods (Neuendorf, 2002), and usually deals with the number of appearances of a subject, how it is distributed and its relation to other subjects. As explained by Neuendorf (2002), in content analysis many words are classified into far fewer categories, consisting of one, several or many words. Such categorization is crucial, since without a good structure, content analysis ends up being ineffective. To be useful, categories should be very well defined and mutually exclusive (Stemler, 2001).

We propose using a thematic approach and following the a priori (deductive) (Stemler, 2001) model to create categories, according to certain theoretical backgrounds or established frameworks (Banyai and Glover, 2012). However, Stepchenkova et al. (2009) acknowledge the possibility of combining deductive and inductive reasoning for category creation, and in the application to Catalonia, some inductive adjustments were made.

Destination attributes are chosen as analysis categories as they are recognized as being directly linked to reasons for travel or motivations. For instance, the UNWTO (2014) classified the
main purpose of a trip into: (i) personal (holidays, leisure and recreation; visiting friends and relatives; education and training; health and medical care; religion/pilgrimages; shopping; transit; and other); and (ii) business and professional. Besides, Eurobarometer (2014) groups the reasons for going on holiday into sun and beach, visiting friends and family, nature, culture, city trips, sports, wellness, specific events and other. Most of these reasons are directly related to the attributes of the destination.

In our case, based on previous work on keyword categories used to analyse destination attraction factors and attributes, and adhering to the research goals, the general topics conforming tourist image were grouped into: food and wine; intangible heritage; leisure and recreation; nature and active tourism; sports; sun, sea and sand (3S); tangible heritage; and urban environment (Marine-Roig, 2013). These categories, reflecting different destination attributes or attraction factors, will be useful to study motivations, especially pull factors that are directly related to them.

The smaller analysis units are keywords within categories. The process of including keywords within categories should follow two complementary criteria: inductive, by including significant words with a minimum density (e.g. the first 20,000 words), and deductive, by consulting different tourist documents about the destination and including words with special relevance or belonging to closed lists that had not been included.

The researchers encountered many keyword-related difficulties in content analysing user-generated texts, such as misspellings, synonyms, multi-word concepts, singular/plural forms (Stepchenkova et al., 2009), homographs and negative forms. In our methodology, most of these problems are solved through the system of categorization by including or excluding certain words. Multi-word problems are solved through the creation of a list of composite words.

The most basic counting system is word frequency counts that are then accumulated for categories and subcategories. It is assumed that words which are more frequently mentioned are the ones that reflect the greatest concerns (Stemler, 2001). Site content analyser (SCA) software was selected to conduct keyword counts. This software generates a CSV (comma-separated values) file for each blog entry conveying all the words appearing in that entry file, their count, weight and density. It was chosen because it provides CATA (computer-aided text analysis) software advantages for text analysis but is especially designed for web analysis, enabling the processing of HTML information maintaining HTML hierarchy. It can process thousands of files at the same time. This software enables working with composite words (i.e. Basilica of the Sagrada Familia) and providing a black list of non-significant words to be excluded, such as conjunctions, prepositions and pronouns.

The results obtained with SCA software can be used to conduct other studies, such as grouping keywords into thematic categories, assessing the weight of certain tourist activities, attraction factors, feelings, dichotomies, etc., in the region as a whole region and in subregions. These studies can be conducted at Catalan brand level or at municipality level, for certain periods, by analysing the corresponding HTML subset with SCA software.

6.4 Results

To be able to study the pull factors related to the case study, first a quantitative content analysis of the most frequent keywords within the selected HTML subset is carried out and then analysis of the main attributes related to the destination is conducted based on the categories mentioned before. To sum up, Table 6.1 includes the 15 most frequent keywords in all travel blogs and OTRs sent in 2013 by tourists coming to Catalonia from nine study countries.

Among the 15 most frequent keywords (Table 6.1), Barcelona stands out with a high density and weight. The surname of architect Antoni Gaudi (ranked No 9) also appears, and two of his masterpieces (Sagrada Familia and Park Guell) stand out for their great weight within their respective web pages (ranked No 4 and No 15). Finally, there are six common words related to tourism activities and five good feelings. Findings in Table 6.1 are consistent: Barcelona is the sixth most powerful city.
Table 6.1. Fifteen most frequent words of 29,001 unique words. (From 18,569 travel blogs and OTRs [TA, TP and VT] written in 2013 about Catalonia.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Site-wide density (%)</th>
<th>Average weight</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>barcellona</td>
<td>35,995</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>63.64</td>
<td>Capital of Catalonia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>tour</td>
<td>19,257</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>33.25</td>
<td>Common word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>great</td>
<td>12,592</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>25.04</td>
<td>Good feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>sagrada familia</td>
<td>7,024</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>69.52</td>
<td>Gaudi’s masterpiece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>visit</td>
<td>6,159</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>15.82</td>
<td>Common word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>amazing</td>
<td>5,833</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>24.62</td>
<td>Good feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>park</td>
<td>5,819</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>32.14</td>
<td>Common word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>5,658</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>16.86</td>
<td>Good feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>gaudi</td>
<td>5,782</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>18.82</td>
<td>Architect A. Gaudi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>worth</td>
<td>5,519</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>17.86</td>
<td>Good feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td>5,313</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>23.68</td>
<td>Good feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>place</td>
<td>5,261</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>Common word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>city</td>
<td>5,199</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>12.74</td>
<td>Common word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>way</td>
<td>4,596</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>16.37</td>
<td>Common word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>guell park</td>
<td>3,986</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>71.90</td>
<td>Gaudi’s work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

brand in the world (Michael, 2014), and thus far outnumber all other Catalan cities and tourist brands, and the works of Antoni Gaudi are registered (Ref 320) in UNESCO’s World Heritage List.

Additionally, we found five positive adjectives or good feelings (33%) among the top 15 keywords (Table 6.1) that indicate a good perceived destination image, transmitted via travel blogs and OTRs, suggesting ‘satisfaction’ and ensuing ‘new motive(s)’. SCA (site-wide key phrases mode) mainly relates these positive adjectives to the keywords with more site-wide density and average weight (Barcelona, Sagrada Familia and Park Guell). Therefore, these good feelings point to the satisfaction of tourists and hence can generate new motives in the path model (Dann, 2014) of tourism motivation.

Second (Table 6.2), trip diaries are separated according to user nationality, and the most frequent words of each segment are grouped into eight categories (Marine-Roig, 2013). Since segments are unequal, the results are expressed as percentages. As can be seen in Table 6.2, even though Catalonia is bathed by 580 km of shoreline, enjoys a temperate and mild Mediterranean climate and is widely recognized as a 3S Mediterranean destination, cultural attributes (tangible heritage, gastronomy and intangible heritage) are the most frequent among UGC users, followed by urban environment and leisure.

Regarding bloggers’ nationality, Canada and the USA stand out for cultural activities, Israel and the Netherlands for urban environment and nature, Ireland and the UK for leisure and sports, and Ireland, the Netherlands and the UK for 3S. Moreover, our findings indicate that a relationship exists between the ‘pull motive(s)’ preceding the ‘decision where to go’ and ‘attraction factors’ categorized from performing frequency analysis of travel blogs and OTRs. We observe some parallels in terms of the relationship of nationalities and their main reasons for going on holiday.

Compared with other surveys, such as the European flash survey (Eurobarometer, 2014: Q5A), it should be highlighted that in a similar vein, the results support that the Irish, the Dutch and the British cited the sun and beach (3S) as their main reason for going on holiday in 2013 (30%), more than Germans (29%), French (25%) and Israelis (16%), and that Israelis (22%) and Dutch (21%) cited nature as their main reason, while others (Germans, French, Irish and British) did not exceed 19%. Conversely, in the above-mentioned survey, 3S is chosen much more often than culture (religious, gastronomy and the arts) as the main reason for going on holidays, which does not coincide with our results.

This difference could be explained by the nature of the source used, the behaviour of the visitors using it and the fact that Catalonia (and
especially Barcelona) has a wide range of cultural activities on offer, and, for example, Gaudi’s works are visited by hundreds of thousands of tourists and mentioned in thousands of trip diaries every year (Table 6.1). Actually, it can be understood that tourists who are motivated by these attributes and wish to have unique travel experiences are also most likely to create their own histories and narratives and to share them with others (Gardiner et al., 2013). In this vein, it can be hypothesized that writing about a visit to a World Heritage Site (WHS) may have a higher social value than writing about having sunbathed on a beach.

Furthermore, looking at the activities by nationality (Table 6.2), the results show that the British excel in leisure and recreation compared with Canadians and Germans who stand out in cultural activities (gastronomy and heritage). This is consistent with previous research on tourist motivations by nationality in different destinations that indicates that the British are more motivated by having fun (Kozak, 2002; Andreu et al., 2005; Jonsson and Devonish, 2008), while the Germans (Kozak, 2002) and Canadians (Jonsson and Devonish, 2008) are more likely to have stronger cultural motivations.

Thus, these findings reinforce the relationship between destination pull factors and motivations. When the most frequent words are analysed, and segmenting by nationalities and attraction factors (Table 6.2), cultural attributes stand out, followed by the urban environment and leisure. These results are not in accordance with those of a European survey of the same year in which 3S stands as the main reason for holidays.

### 6.5 Conclusion

The proposed methodology enables the massive gathering of UGC data from the most suitable sources for a specific case study. The hierarchical territorial structure of folders and the articulation of the name of the downloaded diary files allow multiple classifications to be obtained by using utilities to order and manipulate files of the same operating system. Moreover, with this structure of folders and files, analyses can focus on a specific region, place, period, language, nationality or theme (if available), specifically or combined, by selecting the corresponding subset or random sample. The cleaning and debugging phases are fundamental to be able to obtain quality information, limited to the web content that the diary author has written and posted, that is devoid of the most significant errors.

This study should be understood as a partial analysis of Dann’s (2014) path model within the context of the push–pull model of tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attraction factor</th>
<th>au (%)</th>
<th>ca (%)</th>
<th>de (%)</th>
<th>fr (%)</th>
<th>ie (%)</th>
<th>il (%)</th>
<th>nl (%)</th>
<th>uk (%)</th>
<th>usa (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food and wine</td>
<td>9.84</td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td>11.66</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>10.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intangible heritage</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure and recreation</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>8.74</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>21.73</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>7.45</td>
<td>14.85</td>
<td>5.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature and active tourism</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>7.23</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sun, sea and sand</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>10.89</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>10.21</td>
<td>8.94</td>
<td>3.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangible heritage</td>
<td>50.53</td>
<td>53.23</td>
<td>49.92</td>
<td>54.54</td>
<td>37.90</td>
<td>52.03</td>
<td>45.23</td>
<td>39.68</td>
<td>54.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban environment</td>
<td>16.20</td>
<td>16.89</td>
<td>18.06</td>
<td>16.41</td>
<td>13.84</td>
<td>22.61</td>
<td>19.30</td>
<td>17.68</td>
<td>18.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
motivation, starting from the ‘pull motive(s)’ step, based on the quantitative content analysis of ‘experience(s)’ narrated first-hand by the traveller. Our results indicate that a relationship exists between the ‘pull motive(s)’ preceding the ‘decision where to go’ and ‘attraction factors’ or attributes categorized from frequency analysis of travel blogs and OTRs. This method has enabled the identification of these destination attraction factors that are related strongly to the pull motives that led to the trip, in trip diaries as expressed by tourists after the experience. It also enables an insight into tourists’ satisfaction by identifying a set of positive feelings and detecting new motives that have materialized in the post-trip phase, reflected in the attraction factors that tourists deem important to transmit to others in social media.

Moreover, when the results are compared with previous research on travel motivations on other destinations, based on surveys of tourists from various countries, a set of meaningful matches and parallelisms are found, which shows the validity and consistency of the data obtained. These parallelisms support the value and validity of travel blogs and reviews as sources of information to study travel motivations, including studies by nationality, and that the data obtained with the technique used in this study are consistent. On the other hand, differences with these studies may also point to the nuances and richness contributed by the source, since travel blogs and reviews, which are elaborate stories reflecting the perception of the travel experience after it has happened, can give a deeper insight into the difference between the initial motives for travelling and the creation of new motives (Dann, 2014) once the experience has occurred and the tourists have confirmed their satisfaction, through the analysis of destination pull factors. It can also give insights into the value of the data and on the different tourist segments related to branding, which can be useful for destinations to orient their branding according to both existing motivations and new motives. Moreover, these sites contain vast and rich quantities of information that are freely accessible to anyone, anywhere, any time. In this respect, social media trip diaries (travel blogs and reviews) should be regarded as valuable tools for tourism destinations to orient their branding strategy, according to pull factors and new motivations.

Although the findings of this study are circumscribed to the analysis of 18,569 trip diaries of tourists from nine countries who visited Catalonia in 2013, the proposed method does allow the sample to be extended to other destinations, years and nationalities. Therefore, future research should assess the variability in destination pull factors in different periods and for nationalities, in order to see what effects certain events or new products may have on tourists’ motivations. Moreover, further research should continue to assess how pull factors are central components of a destination’s image and its formation.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (Grant ID: MOVETUR CSO2014-51785-R).

References

7 Motivations for Wedding Tourism: A Demand-side Perspective

Giacomo Del Chiappa1* and Fulvio Forteza2
1University of Sassari, Sassari, Italy; 2University of Ferrara, Ferrara, Italy

7.1 Introduction

Over the past two decades, there has been increasing scholarly interest and scientific research concerning events as relevant motivators of tourism (Getz, 2008). Recently, the idea of weddings acting as a motivator of tourism flows is generating a new strand of research in the context of event management and event tourism (Getz, 2008). Referring to this strand of research, weddings can be considered as belonging to the category of religious and/or civil and private events (Goldbatt, 2002).

Wedding tourism is booming, and several destinations (such as Las Vegas, Hawaii, the Caribbean, Mexico, Fiji, Jamaica, Europe, etc.) are currently positioning themselves in this lucrative market (Daniels and Loveless, 2007). According to the Fairchild Bridal Group (cited in Daniels and Loveless, 2007), 86% of couples would be willing to celebrate a destination wedding, and 16% of these opted for this solution. In 2005, UK citizens took part in 45,000 weddings abroad, generating an average expenditure of US$12,000 per capita.

According to the International Journalism Observatory, 8% of Italy’s 44 million tourists visit the country due to a wedding, honeymoon or anniversary. According to JFC, in 2012, 6180 weddings of foreign couples were celebrated in Italy, thus generating 1221 million overnight stays and a total revenue of more than €315 million (JFC, 2012). Since a wedding should be a once-in-a-lifetime event, couples generally spend a considerable amount of money in order to have everything they wish for (Durinec, 2013).

Some researchers have analysed tourism and honeymoons (Kim and Agrusa, 2005), but very little research exists on wedding-based tourism, despite its growing importance in many destinations. Given the almost complete lack of research on the topic, further studies are needed to extend the investigation into the wedding tourism phenomenon, adopting both supply- and demand-side perspectives (Del Chiappa, 2015). The present study fills this gap, adopting a demand-side perspective.

This research presents and discusses the findings of a qualitative research that was carried out through 37 in-depth interviews, with the specific aim of gaining knowledge about the main motivations that drive couples to celebrate their wedding ceremony outside their home town.

*Corresponding author, e-mail: gdelchiappa@uniss.it
7.2 Literature Review

A destination wedding is a wedding ceremony celebrated outside the bride and groom’s home town (Daniels and Loveless, 2007). According to Tourism Intelligence International (cited in Durinec, 2013), wedding tourism could be defined as all those ‘international trips that are taken by tourists to either get married or celebrate their wedding’. It could be argued that a weakness of this definition is that it tends to confine the concept only to international travellers and to ignore those tourist flows that arise when the bride and groom get married at a different domestic location from where they live.

In order to also consider the domestic market fully and explicitly, wedding-based tourism can be better defined as tourist flows arising from participation in weddings that are held at a different location from where the bride and groom (both heterosexual or gay), or just one of them, live (Daniels and Loveless, 2007; Schumann and Amado, 2010; Fortezza and Del Chiappa, 2012; Del Chiappa, 2015).

Another type of wedding flow is when the event takes place in a bride and groom’s home town and guests arrive from other places (Del Chiappa, 2015). Overall, different market segments can be considered when analysing wedding-based tourism, namely: first-time marriages, remarriages, same-sex marriages and commitment ceremonies, and renewal vows (Major et al., 2010).

The current literature, and even business reports, devoted to wedding-based tourism, similarly the literature on event tourism (Bowdin et al., 2006; Daniels and Loveless, 2007) and even broader studies related to the impact of any type of tourism (Brida, 2010), concur that wedding-based tourism can produce several social, environmental, economic (direct, indirect and induced) and marketing effects (showcasing, boosting the local authenticity and destination brand) for the hosting destination (Del Chiappa and Fortezza, 2015). Despite this, there is little research on the motivations that drive couples to celebrate destination weddings.

This is the case despite the fact that a deeper understanding of motivations when analysing tourists’ behaviour is a relevant topic for both academia and industry (Ellis et al., 2014). Motivations can be seen as ‘forces’, ‘needs’ or ‘states’ that push people to adopt certain behaviour, and thus they are a relevant variable for segmenting the market and for developing more effective marketing strategies that suit the need of the identified segments better (Correia et al., 2007).

There are several key factors that help to explain the growth of destination weddings. Del Chiappa and Fortezza (2015) categorized them into: cost-related factors, sociocultural factors and supply-side and demand-side characteristics. Based on demand-side characteristics, the main motivations that push couples to celebrate a destination wedding are related to the possibility of enhancing and expressing their social status (Moira et al., 2011) and to seek an experience that is more affordable, exotic, intimate, unique, experiential and memorable (Major et al., 2010): something that is intrinsic to the needs of couples getting married (Chadiha et al., 1998).

Further, destination weddings represent a means by which couples, and their respective guests, shape and experience the destination identity and authenticity and appreciate its landscape sensorially (Johnston, 2006). Another relevant motivation that pushes people to celebrate a destination wedding is the possibility of escaping any social and family obligations that are a latent part of the wedding, as well as the couple’s triangulation with wedding officials and state, such as those that do not allow gay marriages (Freeman, 2002; Johnston, 2006; Schumann and Amado, 2010; Appleton, 2014).

In addition, destination weddings usually save on cost due to the smaller number of people who are willing to travel to participate in the ceremony, and/or the possibility of couples combining their wedding with their honeymoon (Schumann and Amado, 2010). Finally, they may allow the bride and groom to enjoy their experience with participants, thus avoiding the anxiety or detachment that couples sometimes experience when leaving for their honeymoon (Ingraham, 1999).

The current tourism-related literature states that ‘the tourist product is best seen as predominantly an experiential product’ (Goldsmith and Tsiotsou, 2012, p. 208); further, it acknowledges that different approaches for defining and interpreting the nature and scope
of the tourist experience can be used (Gallarza and Gil, 2008; Laing et al., 2014).

A key concept in any experiential approach is consumer value. Based on the pioneering study of Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), and more recent ones (Holbrook, 1999; Woodward and Holbrook, 2013), consumer value is a cognitive, affective assessment in which consumer behaviour is not only objective and rational but also rather subjective, emotional and symbolic driven. This means that consumer choices about products and services are driven mostly by the search for a value that resides not only in the products and services themselves, but rather in the consumption experience derived thereof.

The different type of values that consumers do experience when consuming a product or service can be classified based on three dimensions: extrinsic versus intrinsic value; self-oriented versus other-oriented value; and active versus reactive value. Accordingly, eight dimensions of value can be considered: efficiency, excellence, play, aesthetics, status, esteem, ethics and spirituality (Holbrook, 1999). When omitting the active/reactive distinction, the typology turns into a fourfold categorization (Holbrook, 1999; Gallarza et al., 2011) that includes the following: functional, social, emotional and altruistic.

Referring to this approach, we could assume inductively that the motivations that push consumers and even tourists (in our case, couples celebrating destination weddings) to make specific choices are mainly those that are functional- (e.g. to save costs), social- (e.g. to socialize with others), emotional- (e.g. to feel excited) or altruistic- (e.g. to facilitate others in some behaviour) driven in nature. Obviously, the extent to which each of these motivations drives actual tourists’ choices, and the respective intensity, might change among couples.

This means that segmentation by motivation (Lee et al., 2004) is really relevant in better supporting destination marketers and policy makers in their attempt to formulate and implement more effective marketing strategies to boost wedding-based tourism in their destinations. This research was therefore carried out with the intention of presenting and discussing the findings of an exploratory qualitative study aimed at deepening the understanding of the main motivations that push people to celebrate a destination wedding.

### 7.3 Methodology

This study adopts a constructivist approach that is effective in developing knowledge based on the subjective views of participants and the multiple meaning shaped by social interaction and the personal history of participants, thus contributing to theory generation (Creswell and Clark, 2011). Specifically, it is based on an exploratory qualitative study in which 37 couples who had decided to celebrate a destination wedding were interviewed using an interview protocol specifically designed for the purposes of the study.

The interview protocol included two parts. The first aimed at collecting some information about the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents. The second included some open-ended questions aimed at investigating the main motivations for celebrating a destination wedding and for relying on a wedding planner (if any was used), and the main characteristics that a destination needs to be attractive as a wedding destination. The semi-structured questionnaire was sent out via e-mail, with the collaboration of some Italian and international wedding planners who agreed to support our research project.

In total, 100 couples were invited to give their answers, and 27 complete questionnaires were returned, thus giving a response rate of 27%. The text of the questionnaire was analysed by the research team with the aim of extracting the main motivations/themes for celebrating a destination wedding.

### 7.4 Results

Analysing the text and the transcribed narrative of the in-depth interviews, it seems that several motivations can drive couples to celebrate a destination wedding. The most common motivation is the possibility of saving money:

‘... the price of an overseas wedding is usually a lot less than a UK wedding.’

(an English couple celebrating their wedding in Prague)
‘... we would have had to invite a lot of relatives and friends ... getting married abroad helped us to cut expenses. Indeed, we got married alone. None of them were with us, not even our parents who were unable to join us ... the chance to cut costs was crucial for us,’
(an Italian couple celebrating their wedding in Seychelles)

‘We aimed at keeping expenses low ... if we had been married in Italy, we would have probably been forced to respect some traditional rules such as invitations or fancy wedding favours,’
(an Italian couple celebrating their wedding in Seychelles).

Another main motivation is to escape from social norms and routines and have something different and fun that can allow people to feel a sense of freedom and easiness, avoiding any type of showing-off behaviour; this was particularly evident in couples living in countries (such as Italy and Japan) where couples need to cope with several social rules:

‘We wanted to have our wedding our way, and remember it as a happy moment ... without stressing out about family and relatives,’
(a Russian couple celebrating their wedding in Prague)

‘We didn’t like the idea of a traditional wedding. We wanted to be free to experience something special just for us, stressless and wild,’
(an Italian couple celebrating their wedding in Seychelles)

‘... marriages in Japan are very traditional and with a lot of rules to cope with and to respect ... in Japan you must strictly respect many specific rules. For example, it is necessary to involve the family of both the spouses in the organization of the event ... and when the families have different views, wishes and priorities this creates a huge problem. To avoid this issue, so that we could make our life easier and have the freedom to enjoy our wedding experience, we decided to get married abroad,’
(a Japanese couple celebrating their wedding in Italy)

‘... my outfit was very casual, with casual trousers, a white shirt and flip-flops as shoes. My wife dressed very simply as well...’
(an Italian couple celebrating their wedding in Seychelles)

‘We didn’t want to have all the stress usually caused by the need to cope with all the conventional rules and steps of organizing wedding ceremonies, such as invitations, floral decorations, fancy wedding favours, photos and so on,’
(an Italian couple celebrating their wedding in Mauritius).

In this sense, some respondents also refer explicitly to the fact that celebrating a destination wedding is a way to experience more intimacy:

‘The most important reason to get married far from the place where we were living was mainly to have privacy and a more intimate wedding experience, discouraging our acquaintances that we would have otherwise been forced to invite,’
(an Italian couple celebrating their wedding in an Italian region that was different from where they were living)

‘We wanted to experience a very intimate wedding,’
(a couple residing in Lithuania)

‘Celebrating our wedding abroad was a way to be far from anyone, in a remote place ... Just me and my husband,’
(an Italian couple celebrating their wedding in Seychelles).

The idea of celebrating a destination wedding as a way to feel/live consciously the spirituality of the moment and to experience something that is authentic is evident in the narratives:

‘To be in the moment, to feel it ... in our opinion, people have to experience the real sense of the wedding, the magic of the feelings between those who are getting married ...’
(an Italian couple celebrating their wedding on Cook Island)

‘We were concerned only about our feelings, therefore we didn’t want to have a big party with “unknown” people and share things with them;’
(an Italian couple celebrating their wedding in South Africa)

‘We didn’t like the idea of feeling obliged to scale-up each detail of our wedding just to impress others, in order to express a status symbol to neighbours and residents of the village, who join wedding ceremonies just to nose around ... this would not have allowed us to focus on the real and most important meaning of the wedding ... the intimacy, the authenticity and the spirituality of it ... the
desperate search for status, which is part of a number of weddings, would have entrapped us in a commercially driven wedding.’

(An Italian couple celebrating their wedding in an Italian region different from the one in which they lived)

‘We wanted to share the wedding experience with just a few people that we love. It was a very simple and authentic marriage,’

(An Italian couple celebrating the wedding in Seychelles).

Sometimes, couples were reported to have decided to celebrate a destination wedding to experience a dream, something that could also be stimulated by a movie, thus creating a certain type of ‘film-induced tourism’, as suggested by one of our respondents:

‘A few years ago I went to see the movie “A Good Woman”, which is based on the play Lady Windermere’s Fan by Oscar Wilde (a favourite author of mine); ... the movie was super, and I was astonished by the “setting”. I waited until the last credits came up to see where it was filmed and it was on the Amalfi Coast. I decided I had to go there and I contacted a friend of mine in the USA who used to travel regularly to Italy. He recommended Ravello as being the most beautiful part of the Amalfi Coast. A few weeks later I was in Ravello and I fell in love with the place and the people ... I had an affinity with the place ... balmy weather, beautiful setting with many historic buildings and most of all the dreamy feeling when sauntering the narrow pathways ... we decided to get married there ...’

(An Irish couple celebrating their wedding in Ravello, Amalfi Coast, Italy).

According to the experiential approach proposed by Pine and Gilmore (1999), the desire to experience something that is unique and memorable is also suggested by the participants:

‘We wanted to make our wedding and honeymoon memories as magical as possible,’

(A Russian couple celebrating their wedding in Prague)

‘The possibility of having an extraordinary and magic place, like NY, was exciting ... especially at Christmas ... the Christmas tree at the Rockefeller Center is something special and unforgettable,’

(An Italian couple celebrating their wedding in New York)

‘We wanted to celebrate our wedding somewhere special ... that no one would ever forget,’

(An English couple celebrating their wedding in Prague).

Finally, destination weddings have been reported as being used to allow the decision of whether to participate in the wedding to be easier for people to make, thus representing an example of altruistic-driven motivation; the following quotes highlight this point:

‘Our aim was to gain the maximum satisfaction and joy from a very intimate wedding experience without forcing anybody to participate, giving those people not liking the idea to take part in the wedding to have an excuse for not coming ... have you ever seen somebody happy at getting a wedding invitation?’

(An Italian couple celebrating their wedding in Seychelles)

‘We had guests from all over the world and to make them travel we needed a beautiful location, a special place and the promise of a short vacation,’

(A Swiss couple celebrating their wedding in Positano, Amalfi Coast, Italy).

Overall, our findings highlight that the decision to experience a destination wedding is driven by both egocentric and altruistic reasons, and that the main motivations can be categorized as functional (e.g. to save money) and experiential (e.g. to have fun).

7.5 Conclusion

It could be argued that the current body of knowledge about the motivations that drive couples to celebrate their wedding ceremony outside their home town, thus experiencing a so-called ‘destination wedding’, is still poor and confined largely to business reports. This exploratory and qualitative study was therefore carried out to deepen the understanding around this topic, and to contribute to the scientific debate that is emerging in the current academic literature with regard to wedding-based tourism.

The findings reveal that the decision to experience a destination wedding is driven
by both egocentric and altruistic reasons and, broadly, that the main motivations can be categorized as functional (save money, to make it easier for people to decide whether or not to participate and to escape social rules) and experiential (have fun, experience something unique and unforgettable, experience intimacy, authenticity and spirituality).

Specifically, it is evident from the narratives that couples are driven mainly by motivations that are functionally (e.g. to save costs), socially (e.g. to socialize with others), emotionally (e.g. to feel excited, to experience something which is unique and intimate) or altruistically (e.g. to facilitate others in some behaviour) driven in nature. Further, in accordance with the well-established idea that culture does influence tourist behaviour (Pizam and Sussmann, 1995), the findings seem to suggest that some motivations are more recurrent based on the cultural background of respondents (e.g. celebrating a destination wedding for Italian and Asian people seems to be viewed mainly as a way of escaping social rules).

The findings are useful for both academia and industry. On the one hand, they contribute to further deepening the scientific debate around the topic of wedding-based tourism, adopting a demand-side perspective and discussing a research based on qualitative data. Overall, they provide evidence of the opportunity to rely on the theoretical lens of an experiential approach and consumer value (Holbrook, 1999; Gallarza et al., 2011; Woodward and Holbrook, 2013) when investigating couples’ decision making with regard to the possibility of celebrating a destination wedding.

On the other hand, they also provide fresh and useful information to destination marketers and policy makers in their attempt to formulate and implement marketing and promotion strategies that can create and expand the size of the prospective market.

To achieve this goal, they could, for example, develop advertising campaigns in which they could first stress the several economic, psychological and social costs of celebrating a traditional wedding (focusing on the costs of having a lot of guests, the need to cope with specific social rules, etc.) and then propose the idea of celebrating a destination wedding as being an ‘exit strategy’ that allows couples to gain the benefits that are related with it (cost saving, the freedom to organize the event, to escape social rules, to avoid any dress code, to experience intimacy, spirituality, authenticity, etc.).

In this sense, for example, the findings suggest the main dimensions/themes that could be ‘stressed’ when managing the copy strategy for planning and running marketing and promotion operations aimed at boosting effectively the positioning of the destination brand in the wedding-based tourism market. Further, even if it is just in a preliminary way, the findings seem to suggest that these marketing and promotion strategies and operations should be tailored coherently with the characteristics (in terms of culture, motivations, etc.) of the different market segments.

Although this chapter helps to fill a gap in the existing knowledge in the literature and proposes some implications for practitioners, as in any study some limitations still remain.

The main limitation is intrinsic to the specific methodology used; as is known based on academic research related to research methods (Creswell and Clark, 2011), a qualitative approach has some advantages, but also some shortcomings. As far as the advantages are concerned, qualitative research allows the underpinning and uncovering, relying on the detailed voices and participant perspectives, of the relevant dimensions of a phenomenon that is not yet clear and well studied. On the other hand, the main shortcomings of such a type of qualitative study are related to the fact that findings cannot obviously be generalized, and to the fact that some bias could exist due to the personal interpretation that may be made by the researcher when analysing the narratives and creating themes.

This main limitation of the study needs to be acknowledged, as it suggests potential and interesting future research avenues. Specifically, and in accordance with the strand of research related to a mixed-method approach (Creswell and Clark, 2011), the exploratory findings of this study, and
specifically the main themes and motivations that they uncover, could be used to inform a second quantitative study, which could/should also include other relevant variables (such as the personality of respondents), aimed at generalizing the findings and/or to segment respondents based on their socio-demographic characteristics, cultural background and motivations for celebrating a destination wedding so that a cross-cultural comparison can also be achieved.

Acknowledgements

The authors are deeply grateful to the municipality of Verona and all the wedding planners who kindly supported our data collection, namely: Sposa Mediterranea, Ravello, Amalfi Coast, Salerno (Italy); Sposami a Verona, Municipality of Verona (Italy); Viaggi di Nozze Network, Milan (Italy); Zenzero Italia, Sorrento (Italy); Chicchi d’Arancio, Salerno (Italy); Cartoline dal Mondo, Milan (Italy); PragueWeddings, Prague (Czech Republic).

References


8 Hotel Disintermediation and User-generated Content in the Czech Republic

Giacomo Del Chiappa,1* Šárka Velčovská2 and Marcello Atzeni3
1University of Sassari, Sassari, Italy; 2Technical University of Ostrava, Ostrava, Czech Republic; 3University of Cagliari, Cagliari, Italy

8.1 Introduction

According to Internet World Stats (2014), there are currently around 4.5 billion Internet users in the world, with significant penetration ratios in countries all over the world. The overall population in the Czech Republic is 10,627,448, with an Internet penetration rate of 78.3% (Internet World Stats, 2014). According to ČTK (2011), in 2011, 52% of Czech Internet users older than 16 years used the Internet to search for information about products and services, and 28% also used it to make purchases. In 2012, 36.08% of the overall Czech population used Facebook. The largest age group of Facebook users in the Czech Republic was the 25–34 group, with a total of 1,103,589 users, followed by users in the age range of 18–24 and then 35–44 (Passport to Trade 2.0, 2014).

In the past two decades, there has been growing academic interest in studies aimed at analysing the impact of the Internet, information and communication technologies (ICTs) and social media on consumers, firms and the marketplace (Yadav and Pavlou, 2014). One of the reasons why the Internet’s influence on tourist choices has grown is related to the greater use of wireless devices (MacKay and Vogt, 2012), with tourists using it to gather information, compare alternatives and make purchases and reservations (Money and Crotts, 2003). Tourism has become the foremost industry in terms of online market share, and travel planning and booking are two of the most popular online activities (Guo et al., 2013).

The Internet, and more recently user-generated content (UGC), have reshaped the way in which people plan, buy and consume tourism products and services (Buhalis and Law, 2008; Cox et al., 2009); in this scenario, the role of tourism intermediaries has changed dramatically (Kracht and Wang, 2010). Generation Y (Gen Y) can surely be considered as a new sizeable market (Sullivan and Heitmeyer, 2008), and an economically robust generation that spends US$200 billion annually (Djamashbi et al., 2010). In 2012, as reported by the UNWTO (UN World Tourism Organization), youth travel generated US$182 billion and represented more than 20% of the more than 1 billion international arrivals; the total number of international trips by Gen Y is estimated to rise to 3000 million trips a year by 2020 (IPK International, 2013). These figures explain why

*Corresponding author, e-mail: gdelchiappa@uniss.it
Gen Y is widely recognized as being the future market of the travel and tourism industry (Benckendorff et al., 2010).

Despite the relevant role that Gen Y seems to play in the health of the global tourism travel sector, limited attention has been devoted to deepening the understanding of the behaviour of this segment (Nusair et al., 2011). In particular, little research still seems to exist aimed at investigating in depth the views of Gen Y regarding hotel disintermediation and UGC. Only a handful of academic papers have addressed this issue (Prayag and Del Chiappa, 2014), and most of the current knowledge around the topic appears to be confined largely to business reports. This study was therefore carried out to provide deeper and updated knowledge about Czech consumers’ views for and against disintermediation (Internet versus high-street travel agencies) and UGC. Students can be considered as an appropriate target for this study, for several reasons: they represent a considerable proportion of Gen Y (Nusair et al., 2013), are technologically savvy in handling online activities and rely to a great extent on the Internet for searching for travel-related products (Bai et al., 2004). Specifically, the data collection on a sample of 393 Czech students was managed with the aim of investigating the extent to which Gen Y was in favour of or opposed to the disintermediation of hotel reservations and used UGC when making hotel reservations.

8.2 Literature Review

As noted in prior research (Seekings, 1998), as well as in relatively recent studies (WTO, 2008), there is little consistency in the age ranges used to define young tourists. For example, according to Brosdahl and Carpenter (2011), Gen Y includes those born after 1981. Sheahan (2009) defined Gen Y as those people born between 1978 and 1994. Similarly, for the purpose of this chapter, we defined Gen Y travellers as aged between 16 and 35 (Carr, 1999).

The existing literature usually categorizes factors that are able to influence travellers’ choice of information into three categories (Fodness and Murray, 1999): personal characteristics, situational characteristics and product characteristics. That said, tourists can use the Internet to make their hotel bookings in various ways, and can be divided into those who only wish to acquire information (‘lookers’) and those who also use it to buy tourism services and products (‘bookers’).

In general, Gen Y is more involved in travel planning (Xiang et al., 2015) and is technologically savvy and well immersed in online behaviours (Bolton et al., 2013). This explains why Gen Y has usually been reported to rely more on Internet services for travelling (Richards, 2007), is influenced significantly by UGC (Lester et al., 2006; Ip et al., 2012) and uses social media quite extensively with the aim of exchanging travel advice and experiences (Benckendorff et al., 2010; Nusair et al., 2013) and uploading comments, reviews, photos and videos on service providers (Jin et al., 2014). According to Gretzel et al. (2007), the authors of online reviews are most likely to be younger than 35 years old and men; similar findings have been provided by Yoo and Gretzel (2011).

According to Rong et al. (2012), women aged 26–35 likely tend to be browsers and sharers in the travel 2.0 domain. In 2008, 65% of the members of Generation Y made travel arrangements online (Jones and Fox, 2009) and spent a considerable amount of time using social media (Pempek et al., 2009). However, other studies have shown that Gen Y travellers mostly tend to use the Internet when planning their trips and use travel agents when booking (Richards and Wilson, 2003; Beldona et al., 2009), thus acting mostly as lookers. Similarly, Pizam et al. (2004) studied a sample of 1429 students at 11 universities located in 11 different countries and showed that 46.5% of the respondents booked and purchased their trip using a travel agent, especially those respondents who scored low on risk taking and sensation seeking. Conversely, respondents with high risk taking and sensation seeking relied more on the service provider’s website to book their travel products. This confirms the relevant role that the perceived risk can play, even when considering Gen Y, in influencing online tourist behaviour.

Overall, as far as the current studies on the influence of socio-demographics on online behaviours are concerned, contradictory findings
seem to exist. Gender generally has no influence on online behaviours (Kim and Kim, 2004; Ip et al., 2012), except in the study by Del Chiappa (2013). The education level influences online behaviours in some studies (Weber and Roehl, 1999; Morrison et al., 2001; Ip et al., 2012) but not in others (Kim and Kim, 2004). Likewise, in some studies the income level has no influence on online behaviour (Kim and Kim, 2004) but does have an influence in others (Ip et al., 2012; Del Chiappa, 2013). Further and deeper research is needed to investigate whether such differences exist within a seemingly heterogeneous population of Gen Y.

8.3 Methodology

For the purposes of this chapter, a questionnaire was developed based on a literature review (Del Chiappa, 2013; Prayag and Del Chiappa, 2014) and included three sections.

The first section assessed the usage patterns of online hotel reservations and traditional travel agencies using questions such as ‘How do you usually book your accommodation?’ ‘How often do you use the Internet for hotel reservations?’ and ‘How often do you use traditional travel agencies to make hotel reservations?’.

The second section asked the respondents to express the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with a list of 16 statements specifically chosen to investigate their views on the topic of hotel disintermediation and UGC. A five-point Likert scale was used (1 = completely agree; 5 = completely disagree).

The third part included questions concerning the use of the Internet for different types of pleasure travel on different geographical scales (national, regional – Europe and international) and lengths of trip (short versus medium/long). Various socio-demographics, such as age, gender, education level and monthly average income, were also asked.

The questionnaire was originally designed in English and was translated into the Czech language; the method of back-translation was used for quality assurance. The final version of the survey was then pilot tested by 20 students from the target population with the aim of validating its content and the comprehensibility of the questions. The questionnaire was pre-tested using an online version but, given the very low response rate, the paper-and-pencil version was preferred. No concerns were reported in the pilot tests.

The target population for this study was defined as Czech student travellers aged between 18 and 35, to conform with the definition of Gen Y. A paper-and-pencil questionnaire was administered face to face by three trained interviewers at VSB – Technical University, Ostrava, during March 2012. An incentive (assigned through a blind, randomized draw) was offered to encourage participation in the study. A total of 600 questionnaires were distributed, forming a convenience sample; 401 were returned and 398 were usable for data analysis, thus resulting in a reasonable response rate of 65.7% (Baruch, 1999).

8.4 Results

Table 8.1 provides the demographic profile of the sample. The respondents are mostly female (66.5%), belong to the 18–25 age bracket (80.20%) and have a university degree (40.61%) or post-graduate degree (50.76%) and a monthly household income lower than 1000 CZK (15.71%) or falling into the bands 1001–2000 CZK (10.47%) and 2001–3000 CZK (11.52%).

Most of the sample (73.10%) reported having previously booked hotel accommodation online, with 83.22% having booked once or twice in a year, thus meaning that most of the respondents could be considered as occasional online buyers (Del Chiappa, 2013). Specifically, the respondents declared that they booked online mostly using the official website of the hotel (31.94%), an online travel agency (OTA) (28.47%) or a flash deal (15.28%). However, only 19.15% of the sample had ever changed the hotel accommodation recommended by a street travel agency after reading UGC on the hotel.

Of the sample, 63.45% had previously booked hotel accommodation using a traditional travel agency. When the respondents were asked how they usually booked their
accommodation, they reported behaving mainly as bookers (63.27%), with a lower number of people behaving as lookers (26.53%) or offline bookers (8.16%).

Further, 2.04% of the respondents reported booking through the Internet after having gathered information from a traditional travel agent.

Table 8.2 highlights that the respondents in general express very positive feelings toward the role of the Internet and technology in supporting tourists’ choices. Specifically, they strongly agree with the idea that the Internet allows consumers to perform most hotel searching and purchasing conveniently (M = 4.27) and to save time (M = 3.74) and money (M = 3.68) in making hotel room reservations compared with using street travel agencies. Further, they think that the Internet makes a wider set of choices available than travel agencies (M = 3.63) and allows them to book whenever they want, 24 h a day (M = 4.19). Finally, Czech students from Gen Y reported searching for information on the Internet and checking UGC (M = 4.09) when making hotel bookings, with UGC being considered relatively trustworthy (M = 3.46).

Conversely, they do not agree with the idea that it is more convenient to seek advice from travel agencies than to use online technology only (M = 2.66). However, the respondents in general expressed, even if slightly, a positive feeling towards the role of travel agencies. Specifically, they think that travel agencies are professional counsellors (M = 3.23) who can reduce booking insecurity (M = 3.45), offer a human touch and interface with the hotel industry (M = 3.38), understand the needs of their customers (M = 3.25) and personalize products and services (M = 3.16).

Meanwhile, Gen Y travellers also agree with the idea that consumers ultimately have to bear the cost of commission to travel agents for their hotel rooms (M = 3.43) and think that travel agencies place their financial interests before the needs of their customers (M = 3.58). The aforementioned findings and considerations may explain the prior research that found tourists, especially young ones, mixing the Internet and other offline information sources for their travel booking (Seabra et al., 2007).

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA), specifically the principal component analysis (PCA) method with Varimax rotation, was used to gain a better understanding of the latent dimensions underlying the perceptions of Gen Y travellers (Table 8.2).

The final factor analysis resulted in three factors that summarized 56.37% of the total variance, based on the Kaiser criterion. The KMO index (Kaiser–Myer–Olkin = 0.857) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity (chi-square = 1167.48, p-value < 0.0001) confirm that the factor analysis is appropriate for explaining the data (Hair et al., 2014). Cronbach’s alpha was then calculated to test the reliability of the three factors. Values higher than 0.7 (F1 and F2) or close to this standard (F3) are recommended by Nunnally (1978) for the reliability of the factors, as in the present case.

Factor 1 (‘benefit of online reservation’) explained 34.07% of the variance and included items that were in favour of using the Internet.
Table 8.2. Results of the factor analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disintermediation items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
<th>F3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technology, particularly the Internet, allows consumers to perform most hotel searching and purchasing conveniently</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Websites are more flexible and can offer many more choices than travel agencies for hotel rooms</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.534</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is more convenient to seek advice from travel agencies on hotel reservations than from using online technology only(^a)</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When choosing hotels, I search for information through the Internet and I check reviews, comments, photos and videos uploaded online by tourists</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.791</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I trust the tourism information available online through reviews and comments posted online in blogs, social networks and online travel agencies</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.763</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Internet allows people to save a lot of time in making hotel room reservations compared with the use of traditional travel agencies</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.708</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Internet allows people to use their time in a very productive way as they can search for information and make reservations whenever they want (24 h × 7 days)</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.775</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Internet allows people to save money when making hotel reservations</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.708</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Internet provides tourist information in such a way that it is easy to choose hotels and spend free time online</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel agencies offer a human touch and interface with the hotel industry</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.699</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel agencies are professional counsellors for hotel rooms and offer valuable services and advice</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel agencies can reduce booking insecurity as they are responsible for all the arrangements</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.596</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel agencies are able to personalize the products/services they provide to their customers</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>0.773</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel agencies are able to understand the needs and desires of their customers and recommend the most suitable hotel accommodation</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.784</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumers ultimately have to bear the cost of commission to travel agencies for their hotel rooms</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel agencies are usually in favour of companies that offer more attractive commission or partners and thus make biased recommendations for hotels</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>0.782</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalues</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent of variance</td>
<td>34.07</td>
<td>14.97</td>
<td>7.34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent cumulate</td>
<td>34.07</td>
<td>49.03</td>
<td>56.37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: \(^a\)This item was deleted from the findings of the factor analysis because it was reported to have a factor loading < 0.3.

for the reservation of hotel rooms. Among the others, the following could be considered: money and time savings, the possibility to check trustworthy UGC, greater flexibility and higher personalization opportunities. Factor 2 (‘benefit of travel agencies’) explained 14.97% of the variance and included items that were in favour of using traditional travel agencies for booking hotel rooms, such as the human touch, the face-to-face interaction and the reduction in booking insecurity that they can guarantee. Finally, Factor 3 (‘transaction costs of travel agencies’) explained 7.34% of the variance and included items depicting the transaction costs...
associated with the use of travel agencies. The three scales were created with the regression method to identify the influence of socio-demographics on these factors.

For the purposes of this study, a series of t-tests and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were conducted, when appropriate, to indicate whether any significant differences existed in the perceptions of Czech students from Gen Y regarding the three identified factors.

The t-tests reveal that gender has a significant influence on F2 (t = −2.073; p < 0.05), whereby females (M = 3.36) have slightly higher agreement levels than males (M = 3.15) on the benefits of using travel agencies for hotel reservations. Age has a significant influence on F3 (t = 1.94; p < 0.05), whereby the younger Gen Y (18–25 years old) (M = 3.57) has slightly higher agreement levels than the older Gen Y (26–35 years old) (M = 3.25) on travel agents having costs. The ANOVA tests reveal that the education level and average monthly income have no significant influence on the identified factors.

The respondents were also asked about the most common purpose and duration of their travel. In previous studies (Law et al., 2004), the propensity to purchase travel products online was influenced by the travel purpose and the duration of travel (short haul versus long haul). The results (Table 8.3) indicated that the respondents booked accommodation online for domestic (51%) or European (50%) travel more than for travelling outside Europe (32%), thus providing some evidence that was contradictory to Prayag and Del Chiappa’s (2014) study on a sample of French students from Gen Y. Specifically, in their study, the findings reported respondents booking accommodation online for travelling in other European countries (81.3%) more than for travelling domestically (79.8%) and outside Europe (64.3%). On the whole, this seems to suggest that cultural differences still exist in the way in which tourists use the Internet for searching for and booking hotel rooms.

Finally, the respondents also reported using the Internet slightly more often for booking medium-term (5 days or more) journeys (48%) than for booking short-term (4 days or fewer) journeys (44%), thus confirming prior studies in which the propensity to buy online increased with the median length of stay (Woodside and Ronkainen, 1980; Del Chiappa and Balboni, 2013).

### 8.5 Conclusion

This study examined the views of Czech students of Gen Y regarding hotel disintermediation and UGC. The findings revealed in general very positive feelings toward the role of the Internet and technology in supporting tourists’ choices and, even if slightly, a positive feeling toward the role of travel agencies, especially due to their ability to act as professional counsellors who were able to reduce booking insecurity, to offer a human touch and interface, to understand the needs of their customers and to suggest personalized packages. Overall, these findings confirmed the prior research (Lester et al., 2006; Nusair et al., 2013) highlighting the importance of the Internet as a significant holiday planning tool. Similarly to Prayag and Del Chiappa (2014), our study found three underlying dimensions of perceptions of disintermediation, namely: ‘benefits of online reservation’, ‘benefits of travel agencies’ and ‘transaction costs of travel agencies’.

The findings revealed that Gen Y perceived both travel agencies and the Internet as playing a significant role in providing travel services; however, overall, the benefits of the Internet for hotel booking outweighed the benefits offered by travel agencies. Travel agencies should be concerned by this result and

---

**Table 8.3.** Type of travel and online booking of hotels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Trip</th>
<th>Domestic</th>
<th>European</th>
<th>Intercontinental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short-term journeys</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4 days or fewer)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium to long-term</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>journeys (5 days or more)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---
should attempt as much as possible to shift toward a more consultancy-oriented business and to create and maintain a presence in the electronic marketplace (Del Chiappa, 2013). In doing so, they should also consider the possibility of focusing as much as possible on a technology/Internet-oriented marketing strategy that will allow them to enhance the face-to-face communication with their customers (for example, using a cybermediary on their website to automate customer requests).

In addition, socio-demographics have an influence on perceptions of disintermediation. The findings revealed that females had slightly higher agreement than males on the benefits of using travel agencies for hotel booking, thus contradicting Prayag and Del Chiappa’s (2014) study on French students from Gen Y, in which females were found to be more likely to use the Internet than males. Similar to previous studies (Prayag and Del Chiappa, 2014), significant differences also exist based on age, with younger Gen Y (18–25 years old) having slightly higher agreement levels than older Gen Y (26–35 years old) on travel agents having transaction costs. This could be explained by arguing that younger Gen Y travellers express lower levels of trust in travel agents and perceive online buying as cheaper than offline buying. Finally, education and average monthly income have no significant influence on perceptions, thus confirming the previous study on Gen Y (Prayag and Del Chiappa, 2014).

The findings suggest that Gen Y is far from being a homogeneous segment (Nusair et al., 2011); further, the student segment may also be different from other Gen Y travellers. Our findings confirm previous studies (Bai et al., 2004), showing that the student market relies on the Internet as the primary source for searching for and booking travel products. It should also be noted that often Gen Y travellers not only buy online for themselves but also influence the online family decision making (Nusair et al., 2011). Hence, overall, our findings seem to suggest that travel agents and hotel managers should clearly differentiate the services offered to early and late Gen Y travellers, as well as those offered to student and non-student travellers in this generation. Further, travel agencies should use marketing tactics to incentivize Gen Y to share UGC and to become advocates of their online services. As argued by Prayag and Del Chiappa (2014), positive perceptions by Gen Y travellers may encourage them to recommend to their family members specific hotels that may be booked online.

The findings also revealed that the respondents were mostly likely to book accommodation online for domestic or European travel rather than for travelling outside Europe. Further, the respondents reported using the Internet slightly more often for booking medium-term journeys than for booking short-term journeys.

The findings have significant implications for researchers, accommodation providers and travel agencies. On the one hand, they provide further insights into the scientific debate on the online behaviour of Gen Y, also considering the relative power that UGC has in influencing tourists’ choices; as far as this latter point is concerned, students from Gen Y are reported as slightly trusting of UGC. Hence, the findings seem to suggest that it is relevant for hotel marketers to increase their brand reputation as projected in UGC with the aim of facilitating online hotel booking by Gen Y travellers.

Our results can also support online marketers in their attempt to enhance their website design and promotional activities (Beldona et al., 2005). For example, hotel marketers should design their website to make Gen Y feel a sense of belonging to the hotel, so that they can develop an emotional attachment toward the website and the hotel (Nusair et al., 2011, 2013). Further, hoteliers can design their website in such a way as to enhance their ability to personalize their service for their customers and to offer them the possibility to be entertained, thus rendering the booking experience of Gen Y more enjoyable.

Finally, the results suggest that travel agents should create and maintain a presence in the electronic marketplace, behave more as professional counsellors (Anckar, 2003) and develop marketing strategies that allow them to bind Gen Y in long-term relationships (Nusair et al., 2011).

All research studies are subject to limitations, and this research was no exception. First, the sample cannot be considered representative of all young Czech online buyers and Gen Y, given that it is drawn mainly from a relatively
small convenience sample of students. However, our findings show that differences exist in the views that early and late Gen Y express toward hotel disintermediation and UGC, thus suggesting that future research is needed to investigate in greater depth the different online behaviours of different segments of Gen Y.

Second, this chapter focused on one country only. It could be interesting to replicate the study internationally, thus allowing for cross-cultural comparison, to verify whether online buyers in different countries have different views for and against the arguments of disintermediation and UGC.

References


Richards, G. and Wilson, J. (2003) New Horizons in Independent Youth and Student Travel, a Report to the International Student Travel Confederation (ISTC) and the Association of Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS). International Student Travel Confederation, Amsterdam, the Netherlands.


9 Mapping Destination Choice: Set Theory as a Methodological Tool

Marion Karl* and Christine Reintinger
Ludwig-Maximilians-University Munich, Germany

9.1 Introduction
Tourism has become one of the most important industries in terms of GDP and employment for many regions worldwide (UNWTO, 2013). Aside from the fact that tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors in the global economy with a steady expansion of tourism demand (UNWTO, 2013), competition among travel destinations is also increasing (Freyer, 2011). In the wake of an intensifying competition, the relevance of marketing communication rises and destinations undertake considerable efforts to present their amenities. According to Crompton (1992), the rising number of travel destinations and the expanding marketing efforts lead to a growth of alternatives in tourists' destination choices. Potential tourists are confronted with a vast amount of information that exceeds their information conceiving and processing capability.

Nevertheless, tourists make travel decisions and choose destinations in some way (Crompton, 1992). This destination choice process is very complex, since various influencing factors have to be considered and since it lies hidden in a tourist’s mind. However, it is essential for tourism researchers and practitioners to have a profound knowledge of these processes. For example, a better understanding of the destination choice will help destination managers and marketers to develop more successful marketing strategies.

9.2 Literature Review
There are many models and theories in tourism research that deal with travel decision making and destination choice in particular (e.g. microeconomic models, behaviouristic models, structure and process models). For example, the theory of buyer behaviour, developed by Howard and Sheth in 1969, can be seen as the foundation for several structure models of destination choice, including set theory. Set theory offers an explanatory approach for the structure and process of destination choice (Narayana and Markin, 1975; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Um and Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992). Models following the set theory describe destination choice as a multistage, sequential and funnel-like process with multiple choice alternatives (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Um and Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992). The complexity of the destination choice is

*Corresponding author, e-mail: marion.karl@lmu.de
simplified by distributing all possible destinations among the different and hierarchically structured sets. The final destination choice has to be made between only a few destinations (Crompton, 1992).

The main benefit of models following set theory is that they take destinations into account that have not been chosen as a final holiday destination. This allows integrating restrictions (temporary or permanent) in the destination choice process. However, most studies on set theory concentrate on theoretical descriptions of tourists’ destination choices rather than using set theory as an empirical instrument to analyse the structure of tourists’ destination choices. This chapter investigates the destination choice structure and its hierarchical sets more closely and identifies if destination choice sets are similar in regard to several aspects.

9.3 Methodology

This chapter applies a quantitative approach, instead of qualitative interviews, to gain a broader picture of the destinations considered in the destination choice process. Data were collected in Germany in 2013 using a standardized questionnaire. This resulted in a sample of 622 randomly selected persons who were planning to travel within the next 12 months. The questionnaire contains items on general travel behaviour, details on the next planned trip and the destination choice applying set theory as the methodological tool. This study concentrates on the following sets that have already been investigated successfully in past studies on destination choice (Spiggle and Sewall, 1987; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Um and Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992; Ankomah et al., 1996; Decrop, 2010): initial consideration set; unavailable consideration set; relevant set; and action set. The initial consideration set contains destinations participants initially consider for their future holidays. It includes the unavailable consideration set, with destinations that are considered but temporarily cannot be visited due to various constraints (e.g. family or financial situation). All destinations that are taken into account as alternatives for the next planned trip form the relevant set. If the respondent is actively searching for information on a destination, this destination will shift into the action set. Consequently, the action set is part of the relevant set.

All destinations named in the survey are characterized using a destination index, which helps to determine the level of similarity between the destinations. The decisive feature of this destination index is the familiarity towards a destination from a German tourist’s point of view. The following five indicators are chosen: safety and security (i.e. aggregated indicators derived from the Peace Index); tourism intensity (i.e. tourist arrivals per 1000 inhabitants); German tourism market share (i.e. classified numbers of arrivals of German tourists); human development (i.e. Human Development Index rank); and accessibility/distance (i.e. average flight time from German airport). The destination index constructed from objective data on destinations is then applied to the survey data to analyse individual destination choice set structures of German tourists. Based on these results, a tourist destination choice typology with specific destination choice set structures can be identified (Karl et al., 2015).

The cluster analysis based on these indicators results in five clusters: cluster 1, easy travel; cluster 2, out-of-the-ordinary; cluster 3, safe adventure; cluster 4, tricky discovery; cluster 5, no go. Destinations in the easy travel category are generally very safe and very highly developed (e.g. Italy). These destinations are located close to Germany, and many German tourists travel there (i.e. strong tourist flow). Similar to easy travel destinations, out-of-the-ordinary destinations do also have a high development and rather safe environment, but are less important to the German source market in regard to tourist arrivals (e.g. Russia). The distance between Germany and these destinations is short to medium. Destinations in cluster 3, the safe adventure, are very safe and very highly developed countries a long to very long distance from Germany (e.g. USA). While tricky discovery destinations (cluster 4) are also a long distance away, they are less safe and less developed (e.g. Myanmar). The general and German tourist flow is rather low in these destinations. Cluster 5, the no-go cluster, is defined as a very unsafe cluster with hardly any tourism at the moment (e.g. Yemen).
9.4 Results

The analysis of the destination choice processes shows that destination choice sets vary in size (i.e. number of destinations in set), cluster composition (i.e. destinations’ cluster allocation in set) and homogeneity of cluster allocation (i.e. uniformity of destinations’ cluster allocation in set). The following sections present the most important results.

9.4.1 Set size

The size of the destination choice sets was scrutinized from two perspectives: (i) on the level of the respondent and (ii) on an aggregated level during the destination choice sequence from initial consideration, to relevant, to action set, to final destination choice.

The first analysis using Pearson’s chi-squared test reveals that the number of alternative travel destinations for a trip varies significantly according to the characteristics of the planned trip. One example is the type of holiday \( (p = 0.011) \): respondents who are planning a sun-and-sea holiday consider more alternatives than respondents who are going to visit friends or family during their holidays. Sun-and-sea destinations are generally destinations with a high level of interchangeability (Steinecke, 2014). This means that the destination itself is often not the main decision criterion for a sun-and-sea tourist. Stereotypically, these tourists are looking for nice beaches and a guarantee for good weather, but it does not really matter if they find this in Spain or Turkey, for example. For tourists who are visiting friends or family, the destination itself is also not the main decision criterion, but in this case the destination of the holiday is not changeable. Another factor that influences the relevant set size is whether or not the tourist has already visited the destination in the past \( (p = 0.041) \). Tourists who are planning to visit a destination for the first time compare this destination to a larger number of alternatives than tourists who have been to the destination in the past. One reason may be that repeat visitors are more familiar with the destination and do not feel the need to compare the destination with other alternatives in order to reduce uncertainty or approve their own decision.

Whereas the action set acts similarly to the relevant set, the initial and unavailable consideration sets reveal a different picture. These sets are similar to each other. Here, important influencing factors on set size are more related to the characteristics of the tourist, such as general travel motives or socio-demographic variables. Significant socio-demographic variables that help in understanding the differences in the initial consideration set size are educational level \( (p = 0.012) \) and age \( (p = 0.000) \). The higher the educational level of a tourist is, the higher the number of initially considered destinations. An exception is the highest educational group in this sample, with a set size smaller than the second highest group. Nevertheless, the second highest educational group is younger, and set size is also dependent on age. Younger tourists have more destinations that they consider initially, and this number decreases gradually as they get older.

The second analysis on set size variation during the destination choice sequence was realized on a 95% threshold of all cases. It reveals that the set size of the majority of respondents becomes successively smaller during the destination choice process from a maximal five destinations in the initial consideration to three in the relevant set, to two in the action set, to one final destination. This corroborates the findings of previous work on the size of destination choice sets (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Um and Crompton, 1990; Crompton and Ankomah, 1993; Decrop, 2010). Moreover, it confirms the statement of Crompton and Ankomah (1993) that destination choice can be described as a funnel-like process with a gradually decreasing number of alternative destinations.

9.4.2 Set composition

A further analysis of the cluster composition in the different sets detects significant changes during the destination choice sequence. Two particular remarkable shifts have been identified: from initial to unavailable consideration set and from initial consideration to relevant set (see Fig. 9.1).
While the share of clusters 3 and 4 is relatively high in the more unrealistic destination choice sets (initial and unavailable consideration set), the share of cluster 1 is smaller in these sets (see Table 9.1). On the contrary, easy travel destinations from cluster 1 play a more important role and destinations from clusters 3 and 4 a less important role in the realistic destination choice sets (relevant and action set). The minor shift between the initial and unavailable consideration set is shaped by an increase of destinations from clusters 3 and 4. The reasons for the changes in the destination choice set structure are often current financial and familial restrictions that deter a tourist from visiting a destination of cluster 3 or 4 at that moment. Moreover, destinations from cluster 1 with a higher level of familiarity are perceived to be easier to realize and therefore are not often included in the unavailable consideration set but are part of the relevant set. The cluster compositions of the relevant and action sets have a high resemblance to the final destination choice and past destination choices (see Fig. 9.1).

The share of destinations from the out-of-the-ordinary cluster (cluster 2) remains stable during the destination choice process. An explanation for this may be the special role of these destinations being located in many cases in the countries of origin of German tourists with a migrant background. Consequently, the travel motives for destinations from cluster 2 differ from the four other cluster categories, since visiting family/friends is the most important motive here. Destinations from the no-go cluster (cluster 5) are not mentioned by the respondents in the realistic destination choice sets. This is due to high potential dangers or political instability, which are the most important reasons why a destination from this cluster

![Fig. 9.1. Set compositions in the destination choice process.](image-url)
Several internal and external factors play a role in travel decision making (Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005). These factors do not only influence travel decision making in one way but affect each other as well (Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005). This reciprocal interaction also reflects on destination choice processes. The destinations’ cluster categories are related to trip-specific features of the planned holiday (e.g. type of holiday, travel organization, travel companion) and to tourist-specific characteristics such as travel experience, travel motives or socio-demographic variables.

Variances among respondents’ set compositions are related significantly to trip-specific or tourist-specific characteristics. Similar to the results from the set size analysis, respondents’ relevant sets differ when a region (including the considered destinations) has been visited in the past. Pearson’s chi-squared test reveals that the cluster categories of relevant set destinations are related significantly to the first or repeat visit of the destination ($p = 0.046$). Hence, the stimulus for tourists to visit destinations from cluster 1 is often evolved from a past visit to this destination. The past visit probably leads to a rise in the level of familiarity of already highly familiar destinations, which facilitates another visit to the destination.

Another interesting aspect in this context is the choice of travel organization and the choice of travel companion, which have proven to be related significantly to relevant set compositions. The degree of organization before the trip and the degree of involvement of travel professionals depend on the type of destinations that are considered for one trip. For example, tourists who prefer package tours (organized by travel professionals) are more often travelling to destinations from clusters 2 (55.2%) or 4 (36.2%) and less often to destinations from clusters 3 (19.8%) or 1 (26.0%). Cluster 2 has a high share of package holidays, because this cluster includes, besides the typical family-visit destinations (e.g. Romania), classic sun-and-sea destinations (e.g. Turkey). Sun-and-sea holidays have a high share of package tours (35.5%) in this study in comparison to, for example, camping/nature trips, with only 16.7% of package holidays. Holidays in destinations from cluster 4 are also often booked as package tours.

The reasons for this may be the relative importance of culture and educational holidays (with a higher share of package tours) in this cluster category, or the compensation of a low level of familiarity (e.g. poor tourist infrastructure) by a professional organization of all holiday components. The low percentage of package tours in cluster 1 can be explained by the high level of familiarity in these destinations. A holiday in Italy, for example, can be realized relatively spontaneously and with an individual journey from the source market, Germany, due to the high familiarity and the relatively short journey time. Whereas destination-specific features help to explain the travel organization of trips to clusters 2, 4 and 1, tourist-specific characteristics have a stronger explanatory power for cluster 3. The relatively low importance of package tours in cluster 3 can be explained by the socio-demographic variable age, since respondents between 20 and 29 years old have a disproportionately large share of destinations from cluster 3 in their relevant sets. Age and travel organization are

### Table 9.1. Set compositions in the destination choice process (%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cluster 1</th>
<th>Cluster 2</th>
<th>Cluster 3</th>
<th>Cluster 4</th>
<th>Cluster 5</th>
<th>∑</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial consideration set</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unavailable consideration set</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevant set</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action set</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past destination choices</td>
<td>73.5</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
significantly related \((p = 0.000)\). Older tourists are more likely to book a package tour than younger tourists, while the age group 20–29 is the group with the lowest share of package holidays. For example, a 25-year-old student would presumably travel individually to the USA (cluster 3), while a 70-year-old pensioner would more likely choose an organized package group tour.

The analysis of travel companions in regard to the composition of relevant sets shows that tourists who are planning to go on a trip on their own differ significantly \((p = 0.002)\) from tourists who will travel with family, friends, partners or travel groups. A person who is travelling alone has a relevant set with fewer destinations from cluster 1 but more from clusters 3 and 4. In most cases, travel decisions are not made by one individual person but are joint decisions with the travel companions (Jang et al., 2007; Bronner and de Hoog, 2008; Kozak, 2010). The choice of a holiday destination is also dependent on whether a tourist is deciding by himself or herself only or deciding with someone else. A significant relation \((p = 0.005)\) between the destinations’ cluster categories in the relevant set and the decision situation (e.g. individual decision, family decision, decision among friends, decision between partners) underlines this statement. Someone who has the sole responsibility for the travel decision (and will most likely be travelling on his or her own) is more often travelling to destinations outside of cluster 1, especially to destinations from clusters 3 or 4. If the decision is a mutual decision, destinations from cluster 1 are more relevant. No significant difference is detected between mutual decisions with partners, friends or the family. Hence, the assumption that families are more often travelling to safe and close destinations from cluster 1 due to financial or safety and security reasons cannot be supported.

Similar to the set size, the cluster category of the chosen destination, as well as the alternative destinations, for a specific trip (i.e. relevant set), is closely connected with the type of holiday. The importance of the destination itself in the travel decision-making process depends on what type of holiday a tourist is planning. In this study, this is manifested in the composition of the respondents’ relevant sets.

Destinations for clubbing and winter sports holidays are chosen in particular from cluster category 1. One reason for this is that the event (e.g. party) or the activity (e.g. skiing) are at the forefront of the travel decision and not the destination. Therefore, familiar destinations within easy reach are prioritized over long-distance destinations with higher transportation expenses. Other types of holidays with a domination of destinations from cluster 1 are sportive biking or hiking holidays, as well as nature-oriented and camping holidays, which can all be realized in proximity. Germany offers plenty of opportunities for these kinds of holidays in areas such as the alpine region, for example. Respondents who are planning a sun-and-sea holiday or a city trip are less concentrated on destinations from cluster 1. Sun-and-sea holidays are strongly climate dependent and cannot be realized at any time in the proximity of destinations from cluster 1. Tourists who wish to go on a sun-and-sea holiday during the winter months have to travel to more southern destinations further away. Travel decisions concerning city trips do also focus on the destination, similar to culture and educational holidays, and in contrast to sun-and-sea holidays. However, city trips are generally rather short trips, which may explain the domination of destinations from cluster 1 in this type of holiday. Culture and educational holidays, however, have the highest share of destinations from clusters 3 and 4 in comparison to all other types of holidays. The destination, with its distinct cultural offer, is often at the centre of the travel decision for these holidays. Therefore, the destination cannot be exchanged with other destinations as easily as sun-and-sea destinations, for example. Visiting friends or family as a type of holiday is not included in this analysis because it represents a special decision situation, since there is no real choice of destination.

In contrast to the relevant set, set composition variation of initial consideration sets can be explained by the socio-demographic factors of the tourist. An example of a socio-demographic variable that is correlated significantly with the cluster composition in a tourist’s initial consideration set is the age factor \((p = 0.000)\). Figure 9.2 outlines the set cluster composition of respondents’ initial consideration sets in the different age groups.
M. Karl and C. Reintinger

The importance of destinations from cluster 1 increases simultaneously with the age factor, from 19.4% in the 14–19 year age group to 70.7% in the ‘older than 70 years’ age group. A reason for the changes in the composition of the initial consideration set may be the continuity of travel behaviour of older tourists, who do not alter their travel preferences even if new destinations occur. Another aspect may be that older tourists have a more realistic imagination of their travel behaviour, and therefore only initially consider destinations that are realizable in the near future. To the contrary, destinations from clusters 3 and 4 are more dominant in the initial consideration sets of younger tourists (main age group 14–29 years) and decrease with an increasing age.

In addition to the age factor, a significant relation (\(p = 0.004\)) between gender and cluster category of destinations in the initial consideration set is detected. Male respondents name more destinations from cluster 1 and less destinations from cluster 4 in the initial consideration set than female respondents. Female respondents, on the other hand, have more destinations from cluster 1 and less from cluster 4 in the relevant set. This could suggest that while female respondents initially consider certain types of destinations (e.g. destinations from cluster 4), they are not able to consider these actively for the actual trip planned due to various reasons, such as the family situation. No differences are found between genders for clusters 2 and 3.

### 9.4.3 Set homogeneity

Besides the analysis of cluster compositions, destination choice sets are also analysed in regard to the homogeneity of the cluster compositions of all respondents. This helps to differentiate better between structures of destination choice. The analysis reveals a structural conformity in respondents’ cluster compositions in the destination choice sets, as highlighted in Fig. 9.3. The size of the pie charts in this figure represents the ratio of segmentation between multiple (i.e. destinations from at least two clusters) and single (i.e. destinations from only one cluster) cluster compositions in the different sets or the past destination choice.

![Fig. 9.2. Initial consideration sets’ cluster compositions according to age groups.](image-url)
with various combinations of destinations from all five clusters, the relevant set and past destination choices are more homogeneous with a smaller variety of different cluster combinations. The initial consideration sets of half of the respondents are multiple cluster compositions. As opposed to that, the relevant set as the most homogeneous set and past destination choices consist of only 22% or 33%, respectively, of multiple cluster compositions. Further investigation of past destination choices, and hence actual travel behaviour, shows that past destination choice sets are not as diverse in cluster composition as initial consideration sets, but also not as limited as the relevant set (see Fig. 9.3).

A more detailed analysis of the single and multiple cluster compositions and the distribution among choice sets as illustrated in Fig. 9.3 shows that relevant sets as well as past destination choices are dominated by single_1 and multiple_1 cluster compositions. In the past 3 years, 88.7% of all respondents travelled at least once to a destination from cluster 1. The initial consideration set reveals a more heterogeneous picture with a stronger segmentation in different cluster compositions. Only 40.4% of all initial consideration sets include a destination of cluster 1. Moreover, the share of single_3 and multiple_3 cluster compositions is slightly higher in the initial consideration set in comparison to relevant set and past destination choices. Most destinations in cluster 3, the safe adventure, are well-known, safe, highly developed but also expensive countries such as the USA, Australia or New Zealand. It can be expected that as a result of high media coverage of these countries, uncertainty due to lack of knowledge is relatively low in these cases. Therefore, destinations from cluster 3 can realistically be visited in the future, but are part of the unavailable consideration set, probably due to financial reasons. In addition to that, unavailable consideration sets are composed of more single_4 and multiple_4 cluster compositions. Further statistical tests reveal that besides reasons that are subject to the personal situation of the tourist (e.g., financial constraints), characteristics regarding the political and security situation of a destination act as restricting variables.

Fig. 9.3. Homogeneity of destination choice sets' cluster compositions.
9.5 Conclusion

An interesting aspect of this chapter is the variation in the structure and the type of alternative destinations at the key stages of the destination choice process. All in all, this chapter emphasizes that tourism research should not only concentrate on the result of the destination choice process but also on the processes, changes and structures of destination choices. The choice of a certain type of destination (measured with an index of familiarity) at different stages of the destination choice process is related to trip-specific features (e.g., type of holiday) or tourist-specific characteristics (e.g., age). This study demonstrates that trip-specific features dominate at the end while tourist-specific characteristics play a more important role at the beginning of the destination choice process. This could suggest that the preference for certain destinations depends on the tourist’s personality, but the actual choice includes more trip-specific information and situational restrictions or constraints. In particular, the role of constraints (i.e., why a destination is not able to come through the whole destination choice process) is an interesting aspect for future research.

This chapter shows that alternative destinations that are considered for one holiday are mostly part of the same cluster category. Although initially considered destinations are more diverse, with destinations from clusters 1 to 5, most tourists choose in the end to travel to easy and familiar travel destinations from cluster 1. Moreover, most respondents have travelled mainly to destinations that can be classified in the same cluster. Hence, competing destinations for a holiday resemble each other, at least in regard to the level of familiarity that is measured with the destination index used in this study. This result is in line with the tourist typology of novelty and familiarity seekers (Plog, 1974), which already concentrates on the importance of familiarity in tourists’ destination choices. Based on the results of the set composition analysis in regard to the appearance of cluster categories and homogeneity, it is plausible to conclude that distinct patterns of set structures exist representing tourist destination choice types (Karl et al., 2015). Tourism marketers can profit from this knowledge as it helps to develop specific marketing strategies, reducing the feeling of unfamiliarity with a destination. Consequently, destinations can shift from unrealistic to realistic destination choice sets and can be chosen as final holiday destinations.

References


10 Effects of Personal and Trip Characteristics on Holiday Choice

Muhammet Kesgin*
Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, USA

10.1 Introduction

Tourism is becoming a common issue of contemporary life and the concept of tourist behaviour is central to the entire discipline of tourism (Cohen, 2004). Although much is known about the multiplicity of tourists’ motivations and the growing divergence of tourists’ behaviour/experiences at the destination, tourists are continually treated as a homogeneous group (Wang, 2000). The convergence–divergence debates can be effective in explaining why tourists are treated as a homogeneous group by some analysts and heterogeneous by others. Both convergent and divergent lenses have advantages and disadvantages. Based on market divergence, segmentation approaches recognize tourist disaggregation, rather than uniform treatments of tourists, contradicting segmentation. However, individual treatment of tourists is also impractical. A pluralist framework is needed for successful destination marketing through the identification of meaningful segments that capture common preferences and expectations among tourists, but is met with complications (Wickens, 2002).

Like tourists, destinations are also treated as uniform. For example, Alanya, Turkey, is often promoted as an identikit destination that calls for fun in the sun. However, in addition to its typical Mediterranean characteristics, Alanya is a naturally beautiful tourist destination with much to offer. Tourist areas such as Alanya can benefit from destination-based studies in designing and implementing their destination marketing. An understanding of the determinants of holiday choice, therefore, has important implications for destination managers. Within this overall framework, this chapter presents results from a broader investigation to compare tourist motivation and behaviour in choosing to holiday in Alanya (Kesgin, 2013). Utilizing a push–pull motivation framework, the chapter describes similarities and differences between tourists, obtains insight into the relevance and influence of personal and trip characteristics and formulates recommendations for theory and practice.

10.2 Literature Review

Overall, tourist-related factors are more influential than destination-related factors in selecting a destination (Teare, 1994). The influence of destination-related factors is greater once tourists are at the destination. However, tourists perform different roles over the course of a holiday, and they are able to manipulate their surroundings to achieve desirable outcomes.

*Corresponding author, e-mail: muhammet.kesgin@rit.edu
Effects of Personal and Trip Characteristics on Holiday Choice

(Blichfeldt, 2008). Through the manipulation of surroundings and the performance of different roles, some tourists experience even the same tourist area differently (Cohen, 2004; Wickens, 2004). One of the central arguments of this chapter is that tourist behaviour and experiences may differ significantly at destinations (Ryan, 2003). Furthermore, different groups of tourists, also depending on the type and overall purpose of travel, are motivated by different factors (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981). The chapter draws primarily on works that suggest ‘tourists are not alike’ (Pearce, 2005, p. 2) and employs a destination-based approach.

Past research identifies escape, relaxation, isolation, social status, nature, self-actualization, self-enhancement, self-development and novelty as core push factors to travel (Uysal and Hagan, 1993; Pearce, 2011). Push factors are often equated to the ‘escape’ dimension, in that a desire for change is considered as a key consideration for holidaying. While escape, relaxation and nature are key push factors, beaches, climate, sunshine, scenic beauties, accommodation, and destination facilities are key destination-related pull factors to this type of holiday. Price, time and social dimensions are also critical in choosing a sunshine holiday resort.

Additionally, personal and trip characteristics are relevant and influential (McGehee et al., 1996; Oh et al., 2002). The chapter focuses on subgroup variations of anticipated holiday activities and/or experiences reflected as a complex array of push–pull and constraining and facilitating factors (Uysal et al., 2008). Learning about the motivational and behavioural differences of tourist groups has theoretical and practical implications and is crucial for service providers and marketers of tourist experiences (Meng and Uysal, 2008).

Regarded as a simple and inclusive framework, the push–pull model has been the most accepted approach in investigating tourist motivation (Uysal and Hagan, 1993). Based on the push–pull model, much more information has become available on travel motives, destination selection, on-site holiday activities and experiences during the past two decades (Lee et al., 2002; Uysal et al., 2008; Prayag and Ryan, 2011). Of those studies, some did not examine or report variations within subgroups and others targeted specific groups of travellers (Sangpikul, 2008). Several studies indicated significant differences in the push and pull factor domains between the subgroups based on income (Kim et al., 2003), occupation (Kim et al., 2003), marital status (Zhang et al., 2004), education (Sangpikul, 2008), age (Kim et al., 2003) and gender (Kim et al., 2003; Sangpikul, 2008).

This chapter argues that personal and trip characteristics can be useful to explain the differences in tourist motivations and experiences. The chapter focuses on the personal characteristics of gender, age, education, marital status and country of origin (Pearce, 2005). Trip characteristics examined in the study are length of stay, type of accommodation and boarding type. Unlike most studies, this study identifies three types of tourists: first-timers to the main destination (Turkey); repeaters to the main destination, but first-timers to the resort area; and repeaters to the resort area. The study also identifies three types of respondents with respect to their past holiday experience levels: high experience, moderate experience and low experience. Furthermore, the location of stay was also considered an influential factor. Investigating the influence of revisiting patterns, experience levels and hotel location, the study contributes to the existing literature.

### 10.3 Methodology

The study used a self-administrated structured questionnaire to collect data. The questionnaire asked respondents to evaluate a total of 58 items (30 pull, 18 push and ten constraining/facilitating) using a five-point Likert-type scale. The design of the questionnaires was based on the previous literature and the qualitative phase of the broader study. The push motivation scale of this instrument is a derivative of the leisure motivation scales. This scale has appropriate properties for the current research, and the findings of the scale have been replicated in various studies (Ryan, 1994; Snepenger et al., 2006). The pull items were destination specific and derived in part from other similar studies (Jang and Cai, 2002). Also, the constraining/facilitating items were in part based on similar past research (Ryan, 1994).
Data were gathered from tourists staying at numerous hotels in Alanya during the summer of 2010. A convenience sampling strategy was employed to collect data within 2 days prior to tourists’ departure. Data preparation involved data screening and 44 questionnaires were eliminated from the initial sample size of 549 due to a high missing ratio or inconsistencies. The final data set included 505 cases. Data management and analysis was performed using SPSS 19. Descriptive statistics, t-tests, Pearson correlation coefficients and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used in the study. The study utilized 38 personal and trip-related categorical subgroups (e.g. gender, age, marital status, education, country, revisiting patterns, experience levels, length of stay, hotel types, boarding types and hotel locations).

10.4 Results

A typical British tourist consisted of both male and female respondents, with an overall average age of 36 years, ranging from 11 to 75. They were predominantly from England, most likely not married, and the majority had primary/secondary school education. A substantial number of respondents were first-time visitors to Alanya (87.5%). One-third of respondents (31%) had previously travelled to Turkey (2–28 times). Almost all respondents were travelling either with family or friends. More than half (61%) were on a 2-week holiday, with the vast majority of them (93.7%) on a package holiday. Travellers with an all-inclusive package accounted for 37.4%. The majority were staying in three-to five-star hotels (88%). One in every two respondents was staying at a hotel located along the Keykubat Beach. Four-fifths were ‘moderate’ and ‘high’ experienced holidaymakers in terms of overall holiday experience. Table 10.1 shows personal and trip-related characteristics by revisiting patterns. The results of chi-square contingency tests suggest significant differences among first-timers to Turkey, repeaters to Turkey and repeaters to Alanya in the cases of age, marital status, package holiday, experience levels, boarding type, length of stay and hotel location.

10.4.1 Motivations and constraining/facilitating factors by personal and trip characteristics

This part compares similarities and differences of six push, seven pull and three constraining/facilitating factors between respondents’ in terms of their personal and trip characteristics. A fuller discussion of these factors is beyond the scope and limits of this chapter (see Kesgin et al., 2012). Table 10.2 presents mean scores of these factors for comparison. Table 10.3 shows the significance values (p-values) of the results yielded from the analysis of Pearson correlation coefficients and ANOVA.

Females placed higher importance on each of the pull and constraining/facilitating factors than did males. While females also placed higher importance on four push factors, males placed higher importance on two push factors, relaxation and excitement-relationship. In terms of pull factors, the results indicated no significant differences between the mean scores of the males and females, with the exception of the ‘nature and weather’ factor ($t = -2.44$, $p < 0.01$). Although these results differ from some published studies (Ryan, 1994; McGehee et al., 1996; Kim et al., 2003), they match those observed in recent studies (Jönsson and Devonish, 2008).

For age groups, the results indicated significant differences in the scores of four push factors: ‘learning-exploring’ $F (5499) = 11.62$, $p < 0.000$; ‘excitement-relationship’ $F (5499) = 3.58$, $p < 0.003$; ‘relaxation’ $F (5200) = 3.89$, $p < 0.002$; and ‘escape’ $F (5499) = 6.16$, $p < 0.000$. The results also indicated significant differences on four pull factors: ‘culture and sightseeing’ $F (5499) = 11.35$, $p < 0.000$; ‘hospitality-accommodation’ $F (5499) = 8.27$, $p < 0.000$; ‘convenience-facilities’ $F (5499) = 5.77$, $p < 0.000$; and ‘nature-weather’ $F (5499) = 3.22$, $p < 0.007$. Respondents in the over 55 years of age group considered these four factors more important than younger respondents. Respondents in the 11–17 years of age group considered these four factors less important than those respondents in other age groups. In terms of constraining/facilitating factors, 11- to 17-year-old respondents considered ‘price-deal’ factors, $F (5499) = 3.64$, $p < 0.003$, significantly less influential than those in any other age group.
Table 10.1. Personal and trip characteristics by revisiting patterns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal/trip characteristics</th>
<th>First-timers to Turkey</th>
<th>Repeaters to Turkey</th>
<th>Repeaters to Alanya</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>43.4</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>56.6</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11–17</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18–24</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25–34</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35–44</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45–54</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55+</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not married</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>58.8</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/widowed</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary/secondary</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-secondary</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>69.9</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>70.5</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Package holiday</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>94.8</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>95.5</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience levels</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low experience</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate experience</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High experience</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>67.9</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Continued
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal/trip characteristics</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First-timers to Turkey</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation type</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 star</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 star</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 star</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 star</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boarding type</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-catering</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bed and breakfast</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Half-board</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>32.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All-inclusive</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>56.6</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length of stay</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 days</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 days</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 days</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>62.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Location</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keykubat Beach</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>55.9</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleopatra Beach</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighbourhood</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Notes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>: Bold indicates that the differences are significant based on chi-square contingency tests.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>: a significant at p ≤ 0.01; b significant at p ≤ 0.05.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 10.2. Mean scores of push–pull and constraining/facilitating factors by subgroups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean for full sample</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11–17 years</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18–24 years</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25–34 years</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35–44 years</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45–54 years</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55+ years</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>3.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary/secondary</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>3.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-secondary</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>3.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>3.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First-timers to Turkey</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>3.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeaters to Turkey</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeaters to Alanya</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low experience</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate experience</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>3.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High experience</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 days</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 days</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>4.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 days</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>3.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 star</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 star</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 star</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>3.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 star</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>3.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bed &amp; breakfast</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Half-board</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All inclusive</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>3.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-catering</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keykubat Beach</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>3.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleopatra Beach</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighbourhood</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>3.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10.3. The significance values (p-value) of statistical analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Push factors</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Revisiting patterns</th>
<th>Experience levels</th>
<th>Length of stay</th>
<th>Hotel types</th>
<th>Boarding types</th>
<th>Hotel location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning-exploring</td>
<td>0.322</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.348</td>
<td>0.909</td>
<td>0.188</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>0.397</td>
<td>0.018(^b)</td>
<td>0.007(^a)</td>
<td>0.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun-enjoyment</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>0.740</td>
<td>0.253</td>
<td>0.459</td>
<td>0.308</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>0.454</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>0.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement-relationship</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td>0.003(^a)</td>
<td>0.198</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.114</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.477</td>
<td>0.853</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>0.742</td>
<td>0.238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxation</td>
<td>0.373</td>
<td>0.002(^a)</td>
<td>0.016(^a)</td>
<td>0.923</td>
<td>0.034(^a)</td>
<td>0.088(^a)</td>
<td>0.001(^a)</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.308</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>0.361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.631</td>
<td>0.567</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>0.915</td>
<td>0.038(^a)</td>
<td>0.546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family/friend</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>0.178</td>
<td>0.427</td>
<td>0.749</td>
<td>0.740</td>
<td>0.397</td>
<td>0.417</td>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>0.280</td>
<td>0.158</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pull factors</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culture-sightseeing</td>
<td>0.710</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td>0.186</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.003(^b)</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td>0.263</td>
<td>0.332</td>
<td>0.884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality-accommodation</td>
<td>0.178</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.653</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.003(^b)</td>
<td>0.443</td>
<td>0.341</td>
<td>0.240</td>
<td>0.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenience-facilities</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.003(^a)</td>
<td>0.008(^a)</td>
<td>0.247</td>
<td>0.582</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>0.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>0.531</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.636</td>
<td>0.004(^a)</td>
<td>0.000(^b)</td>
<td>0.003(^b)</td>
<td>0.008(^a)</td>
<td>0.325</td>
<td>0.000(^b)</td>
<td>0.001(^a)</td>
<td>0.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature-weather</td>
<td>0.015(^a)</td>
<td>0.007(^a)</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>0.202</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.000(^b)</td>
<td>0.240</td>
<td>0.000(^b)</td>
<td>0.000(^a)</td>
<td>0.000(^b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novelty/familiarity-prestige</td>
<td>0.558</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>0.220</td>
<td>0.002(^a)</td>
<td>0.174</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.950</td>
<td>0.720</td>
<td>0.633</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>0.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Popularity</td>
<td>0.559</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>0.043(^a)</td>
<td>0.034(^b)</td>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>0.604</td>
<td>0.552</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>0.715</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constraining/facilitating factors</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Price-deal</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>0.003(^a)</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>0.002(^a)</td>
<td>0.357</td>
<td>0.043(^a)</td>
<td>0.004(^b)</td>
<td>0.331</td>
<td>0.012(^b)</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>0.014(^b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time-children constraints</td>
<td>0.351</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>0.007(^a)</td>
<td>0.499</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>0.002(^b)</td>
<td>0.508</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>0.335</td>
<td>0.028(^b)</td>
<td>0.305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information-recommendation</td>
<td>0.220</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>0.490</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td>0.001(^a)</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.286</td>
<td>0.114</td>
<td>0.004(^b)</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Bold indicates that the mean score differences are significant based on ANOVA and post hoc tests. \(^a\)Significant at \(p \leq 0.01\); \(^b\)significant at \(p \leq 0.05\).
groups. Older holidaymakers were more inclined to learn, explore and experience local life than their younger counterparts. In contrast to the findings of Kaynak et al. (1996) describing younger tourists to be more activity-oriented, older respondents considered activity-related pull factors more important than did younger respondents. Escape was more important for respondents 35–54 years of age than for those in any other age group. Relaxation was less important for the 11–17 years of age group than for those in any other age group. These results are consistent with those of other studies and confirm the significance of age (Ryan, 1994; Wickens, 2004; Jönsson and Devonish, 2008).

In terms of marital status, push factors have similar responses from married and divorced or widowed respondents. The results indicated significant differences in the scores of three factors: ‘learning-exploring’ $F(2499) = 10.67, p < 0.000$; ‘relaxation’ $F(2129) = 4.26, p < 0.016$; and ‘escape’ $F(2499) = 10.91, p < 0.000$. Single respondents rated these three factors less important than did married and divorced or widowed respondents. There were statistically significant differences among the groups in terms of three pull factors: ‘culture and sightseeing’ $F(2499) = 14.01, p < 0.000$; ‘hospitality-accommodation’ $F(2499) = 10.43, p < 0.000$; and ‘convenience-facilities’ $F(2499) = 11.99, p < 0.000$. Interestingly, respondents who were single considered these three factors less important than those who were married or divorced or widowed. Among the constraining/facilitating factors, ‘time-children’ $F(4500) = 5.05, p < 0.007$ was a significant concern for married respondents compared to single respondents. Respondents in the married group had shown higher price sensitivity than those in other marital status groups. These results are consistent with those of Jamrozy and Uysal (1994), Kaynak et al. (1996), Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002), and Zhang et al. (2004), but they differ from the findings of McGehee et al. (1996).

Overall, push factors showed virtually no differences in responses from the three education groups. Interestingly, respondents in the primary/secondary education group placed significantly higher importance on two pull factors, ‘activities-shopping’ $F(4500) = 6.68, p < 0.001$ and ‘novelty/familiarity-prestige’ $F(4500) = 6.12, p < 0.002$, than those respondents in the higher education group. In terms of constraining/facilitating factors, respondents in the primary/secondary education group considered the ‘price-deal’ factor, $F(4500) = 6.39, p < 0.002$, significantly less influential than those in other education groups. This finding is in agreement with the Dellaert and Lindberg (2003) study, which showed variations in price sensitivity between education groups. Unlike Kaynak et al. (1996), this study has been unable to demonstrate variations in push factors between education groups. The findings on pull factors are in agreement with earlier studies (McGehee et al., 1996; Sangpipul, 2008).

Push factors did not show any significant difference among respondents in the country of origin groups. Among the pull factors, ‘activities-shopping’ had a significant difference, $F(4500) = 3.90, p < 0.004$, in that respondents from Northern Ireland rated this factor significantly higher than did respondents from Wales. With respect to constraining/facilitating factors, respondents from England considered the ‘information-recommendation’ factor, $F(4500) = 4.66, p < 0.001$, significantly less influential than those respondents from Scotland or Northern Ireland. Overall, these findings are unable to support the previous research (You et al., 2000; Kozak, 2001).

Among the ratings of first-timers to Turkey, repeaters to Turkey and repeaters to Alanya, there were significant differences in the scores of two factors: ‘excitement-relationship’ $F(2502) = 5.78, p < 0.003$ and ‘escape’ $F(2502) = 8.34, p < 0.000$. First-timers to Turkey rated these two factors less important than repeaters to Turkey and repeaters to Alanya. Significant differences were also found in five pull factors: ‘culture-sightseeing’ $F(2502) = 9.49, p < 0.000$; ‘hospitality-accommodation’ $F(2502) = 16.77, p < 0.000$; ‘convenience-facilities’ $F(2502) = 5.93, p < 0.003$; ‘activities’ $F(2502) = 10.15, p < 0.000$; and ‘nature-weather’ $F(2502) = 13.26, p < 0.000$. Repeater to Alanya considered these five factors more important than first-timers to Turkey, as did repeaters to Turkey. As far as constraining/facilitating factors are concerned, ‘time-children’ constraints, $F(2502) = 6.40, p < 0.002$, were significantly more influential for repeaters to Turkey than for first-timers to Turkey and repeaters to Alanya. These findings are consistent with past research (Gitelson and Crompton, 1984; Pearce, 2005).
The results on the influence of experience level indicated two significant differences in the scores of two push factors: ‘relaxation’ $F(194.2) = 7.16, p < 0.001$; and ‘escape’ $F(2502) = 13.30, p < 0.000$. Respondents in the low experience group placed less importance on these two factors than those in the other two experience level groups. In this category, four pull factors showed significant differences: ‘culture and sightseeing’ $F(2502) = 5.85, p < 0.003$; ‘hospitality-accommodation’ $F(2502) = 5.90, p < 0.003$; ‘convenience-facilities’ $F(2502) = 4.89, p < 0.008$; and ‘activities’ $F(2502) = 5.83, p < 0.003$. Low experience respondents considered the ‘culture and sightseeing’, ‘hospitality-accommodation’ and ‘convenience-facilities’ factors significantly less important than moderate and high experience respondents; and considered the ‘activities’ factor significantly more important than did high experience respondents. In terms of constraining/facilitating factors, the ‘price-deal’ factor was significantly lower for low experience respondents than for moderate and high experience respondents. These findings are in accord with McKercher’s (2008) observations that suggest that experienced tourists travel for so-called mundane reasons and they are price-sensitive.

The findings indicated no significant differences in the scores of push, pull and constraining/facilitating factors with respect to length of stay. This study is unable to support the previous research (Lee et al., 2002).

Push factors had similar responses from the four accommodation groups of respondents. There was only one significant difference in the scores of ‘learning-exploring’ $F(3501) = 3.40, p < 0.018$. This factor was significantly more important for the respondents in three-star accommodation than for those respondents in five-star accommodation. Significant differences were found among these groups in terms of two pull factors: ‘activities’ $F(3226) = 6.29, p < 0.000$ and ‘nature-weather’ $F(3501) = 9.48, p < 0.000$. Respondents in five-star accommodation rated the ‘activities’ factor significantly lower than those respondents in two-star accommodation. They also placed significantly less importance on the ‘nature-weather’ factor than those in any other accommodation group. In terms of constraining/facilitating factors, the ‘information-recommendation’ factor, $F(3501) = 4.41, p < 0.004$, was significantly less influential for respondents in the three-star accommodation group than for those respondents in the two- and four-star accommodation groups. In contrast, the influence of the ‘price-deal’ factor, $F(3501) = 3.71, p < 0.012$, was significantly higher for respondents in the three-star accommodation group than for those in the four-star accommodation group. These results match those observed in earlier studies (Ryan, 1994; MINTEL, 2011).

In terms of boarding types, only two push factors indicated significant differences in their scores: ‘learning-exploring’ $F(3501) = 4.06, p < 0.007$ and ‘escape’ $F(3501) = 2.83, p < 0.038$. Respondents in the all-inclusive group placed less importance on the former than those in the half-board group. The escape factor was significantly more important for the all-inclusive group than for those respondents in the bed and breakfast group. Similarly, respondents in the all-inclusive boarding group considered two pull factors significantly less important than those in the other boarding type groups: ‘activities’ $F(3174) = 5.54, p < 0.001$ and ‘nature-weather’ $F(3501) = 9.41, p < 0.000$. Among the constraining/facilitating factors, the ANOVA test indicated a significant difference in the mean scores of ‘time-children’. However, this was not confirmed by the results of post hoc tests. There are similarities between these findings and those described by Ryan (1994) and MINTEL (2011).

Push factors showed no significant variations between respondents in the three location groups. In terms of pull factors, the ‘nature-weather’ $F(2194) = 17.81, p < 0.000$ factor was significantly more important for respondents in the neighbourhood group. They placed less importance on all pull factors than those respondents in the Keykubat and Cleopatra Beach groups. As far as the constraining/facilitating factors are concerned, the influence of the ‘price-deal’ factor, $F(2502) = 4.30, p < 0.014$, was significantly higher for respondents in the Keykubat Beach group than for those in the neighbourhood group. Overall, this study has been unable to support the previous research (Shoval et al., 2011).

10.5 Conclusion

To summarize, the study’s respondents can be described as institutionalized tourists from a wide range of personal backgrounds and trip
characteristics. The study identified three distinct
tourist types based on tourists’ revisiting patterns.
Personal subgroups of age and marital status,
as well as trip-related subgroups of revisiting
patterns, holiday experience levels, types of
accommodation and boarding were found to
be more influential than other subgroups. Length
of stay, hotel location, education level and origin
country had a certain degree of influence on
these factors. No significant differences were
found between gender groups. The study pro-
vided additional evidence and produced results
that both corroborated (Jang and Cai, 2002; Ryan,
2003; Uysal et al., 2008) and differed (McGe-
hee et al., 1996; Ryan, 2003) from the findings
of a great deal of previous work.

The comparison of 17 push–pull motivations
and constraining/facilitating factors by per-
sonal and trip related subgroups indicated both
similarities and differences. In terms of similar-
ities, the study found a high degree of unanim-
ity in the importance of the ‘fun-enjoyment’
and ‘family/friend-togetherness’ factors rather
than differences between tourists. Furthermore,
the majority of respondents (70%) were price
sensitive. Of the 17 factors, there were signifi-
cant variations in the scores of seven factors
between tourists with respect to age, revisiting
patterns, marital status and experience levels.
Subgroups of hotel types and boarding types
had significant differences in five factors. The
number of significant differences ranged from
two to four factors in the education, country
and hotel location subgroups. No significant
differences in scores for gender (with the excep-
tion of one factor) and travel length were iden-
tified. The most distinct differences in the mean
scores between tourists dealt with age, revisiting
patterns and experience levels. Revisiting pat-
terns, experience levels and boarding types had
shown variations on two push factors. Based
on these variations, the importance rankings of
these factors differed among subgroups. Pull
factors provided the largest set of significant
differences with respect to both personal and
trip-related subgroups.

The evidence from this study suggests that
tourist profile statistics and knowledge about
preferences and perceptions among tourist
groups are important for tourism businesses
(Masiero and Nicolau, 2012). Considering the
profile of different tourist groups, managers
can develop specific strategies not only to
attract these experienced tourists to their desti-
nations but also to meet their wants and needs
while they are holidaying at the destination
(Pearce, 2005; Uysal et al., 2008). Since Alan-
ya is promoted and sold mainly as a 2-week,
all-inclusive package holiday, the majority of
those surveyed were on 14-day package holi-
days with all-inclusive boarding. However, it
should be noted that in showing different mo-
tivational and behavioural patterns, those re-
spondents on 7- and 10-day packages without
all-inclusive boarding indicated higher levels
of overall satisfaction and destination loyalty
(Kesgin, 2013). Managers may need to monitor
the consequences of various trip arrangements
and develop strategies for more sustainable
and profitable markets. The evidence suggests
that both the convergence and divergence of
the market should be considered in marketing
strategies. Based on the slogan of ‘fun in the
sun’, it can be said that Alanya’s marketing is
convergent. Covering the core motivation, the
appeal for this slogan may please all travellers.
However, in recognizing the multiplicity and
divergence of motivations and expectations,
marketers should consider various market seg-
ments of personal and trip characteristics.

References

to capture the joint impact of differences in systematic utility and response consistency. Leisure
Sciences 25(1), 81–96.
Effects of Personal and Trip Characteristics on Holiday Choice


11 Drivers of Trip Cancellations among Australian Travellers

Homa Hajibaba¹* and Sara Dolnicar²
1University of Wollongong, Wollongong, Australia; 2The University of Queensland, St Lucia, Australia

11.1 Introduction

Unexpected events at tourist destinations can result in mass cancellations by tourists that, in turn, negatively affect local economies, especially those highly dependent on tourism. Political instability, pandemics, increased crime rates and financial crises are four kinds of unexpected events that adversely affect many tourist destinations.

Examples of devastating effects resulting from such events include the political instability in Arab countries (the so-called Arab Spring) (Avraham, 2015), the 2014 Ebola epidemic in West Africa (UNWTO, 2015), the 2001 outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease in the UK (Blake et al., 2003), the 2008/09 global financial crisis (Papathodorou et al., 2010) and the increased crime rate in Barbados (Lorde and Jackman, 2013). For example, the Arab tourism sector lost 10 million tourists and US$15 billion as a result of the Arab Spring (Avraham, 2015). The outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease in the UK led to an 80% drop in bookings in Cumbria, 60% in Dumfries and Galloway, 50% in Northern Ireland and about 10% across the UK (Blake et al., 2003).

Tourists react differently to such unexpected events hitting their planned destination: some go ahead with their plans and others cancel. This chapter investigates which factors affect tourists’ decision to cancel or not to cancel when facing a critical unexpected event at the destination of their choice.

A recent study by Hajibaba and Dolnicar (2015) finds that trip and traveller characteristics as well as the kind of disaster to be key drivers of cancellation behaviour following an earthquake or a terrorist attack at destinations. The current study investigates if these same factors drive cancellations in other kinds of crises, including political instability, pandemic, crime and financial crises. This leads to the identification of factors that consistently affect cancellations across all crisis situations.

11.2 Literature Review

Tourism is associated with various risks, including terrorism, natural disasters, health, political instability and crime (Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992; Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a; Dolnicar, 2005). The perceptions of risk and safety influence tourist behaviour and decision making (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a,b). Sönmez and Graefe (1998b) find that the level of perceived risk predicts travel decision making in

*Corresponding author, e-mail: hhb896@uowmail.edu.au
the presence of terrorism risk. Kozak et al. (2007) find that the majority of tourists change their travel plans when faced with a risky situation at the destination of their choice. The literature also shows increased cancellations and reduced bookings following unexpected critical events at destinations (Mazzocchi and Montinì, 2001; Blake et al., 2003; Chen and Noriega, 2004; Avraham, 2015).

Previous research identifies that different – trip-related and traveller-related – factors influence a tourist’s risk perceptions and subsequent behaviour. For example, Lepp and Gibson (2003) find that being a more experienced traveller is associated with lower perceptions of terrorism risk. Kozak et al. (2007) conclude that tourists with higher international travel experience are less likely to change travel plans when faced with a potential risk at their planned destination. This conclusion is supported by other studies investigating the influence of international travel experience on risk perceptions and travel decisions (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a,b).

Personality is another traveller-related factor that influences risk perceptions (Carr, 2001; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005). Risk taking also affects tourists’ perceptions and behaviour. For example, Hajibaba et al. (2015) find risk propensity to be an important psychological marker for crisis-resistant behaviour. Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) suggest that risk-averse tourists are more likely to choose destinations perceived as safe, while risk-taking tourists are less concerned with safety factors. According to Kozak et al. (2007), tourists from more risk-tolerant cultures are less likely to change travel plans in risky situations.

Kozak et al. (2007) also suggest that the overall perceptions of visitors may depend on some trip-related factors: travel motivations and party size and composition. Seabra et al. (2013) find travel motives affect risk perceptions and decision making. Mansfield (1992) and Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) show that travel motivations impact tourist behaviour and decision making. Travel party composition also influences travel behaviour and decision making (Jenkins, 1978; Snepenger et al., 1990; Gretzel et al., 2012; Moore et al., 2012). According to Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992), tourists with children are more concerned about functional risk, such as equipment failure or physical danger.

Overall, the above literature suggests that the traveller characteristics of personality, risk taking and international travel experience influence risk perceptions and tourist behaviour. In addition, trip characteristics of travel motivations and travel party composition affect risk perceptions, and consequently tourist behaviour. As cancellation behaviour can be seen as one of the behavioural consequences of risk perception, we postulate – following the conceptual model proposed by Hajibaba and Dolnicar (2015) – that the aforementioned trip and traveller characteristics affect cancellation behaviour. Further, previous statistics suggest that tourists react differently to various kinds of crises. Thus, the kind of crisis is also hypothesized to affect cancellation behaviour in crisis situations. Figure 11.1 illustrates the hypothesized drivers of cancellation behaviour in the presence of political instability, pandemic, increased crime rate or financial crisis.

Hajibaba and Dolnicar (2015) have confirmed this conceptual model in the context of tourists facing an unexpected terrorist attack or earthquake at the tourist destination. Specifically, in a terrorist attack or an earthquake situation, the personality dimensions of neuroticism and conscientiousness are associated with a higher likelihood of cancellation, while international travel experience is associated with a lower likelihood of cancellation. Tourists who take more recreational and social risks are less likely to cancel when faced with a terrorist attack. Those who take more recreational and safety risks are less likely to cancel when faced with an earthquake at their planned destination. Tourists travelling with family (parents, siblings, etc.) are more likely to cancel in the case of a terrorist attack or an earthquake. Some motivational elements – such as ‘to feel safe’ – are associated with higher and some – such as ‘catering to my children’s needs’ – are associated with lower likelihood of cancellation. The kind of crisis is also confirmed as a driver of cancellation: tourists are more likely to cancel in the case of a terrorist attack or an earthquake. Some motivational elements – such as ‘to feel safe’ – are associated with higher and some – such as ‘catering to my children’s needs’ – are associated with lower likelihood of cancellation. The kind of crisis is also confirmed as a driver of cancellation: tourists are more likely to cancel in the case of a terrorist attack or an earthquake.

The present chapter investigates whether these findings regarding the importance of cognitive and affective variables generalize to other unexpected events, specifically political instability, the occurrence of a pandemic, crime or a financial crisis.
11.3 Methodology

Data were collected from 1231 Australian adult residents by a professional online research panel company. Respondents were asked questions about their last holiday, their main travel destination, who they travelled with, which kind of accommodation they stayed in and the purpose of their trip. Only those respondents who undertook a trip for at least 4 nights for non-business reasons – such as for leisure and recreation, or visiting friends and family – during the past 12 months qualified to proceed. These respondents were then asked to imagine the following scenario:

‘Please imagine that you have booked a holiday with the same people you travelled with on your last holiday. You bought travel insurance and if – for whatever reason – you would need to cancel your trip, you would get 95% of all your expenses (e.g. airfare, accommodation cost, etc.) refunded.’

The 95% refund was offered to exclude the effect of a cancellation fee on their decision. They were then asked to imagine that – shortly before the start of their trip – they heard on the news about a crisis at their planned destination. Respondents had to indicate if they would or would not cancel in each of those situations. All respondents provided answers to all crisis scenarios. Table 11.1 shows the crisis scenarios presented to the respondents. Respondents also provided some basic socio-demographic information about themselves and completed a personality item battery.

Cancellation behaviour (the dependent variable in the model) was measured by asking respondents to imagine different crisis scenarios and indicate if they would or would not cancel under those circumstances. The independent variables in the model were measured as follows:

- **Personality** was measured using Rammstedt and John’s (2007) ten-item version of the Big Five Inventory. Each of the five personality dimensions of neuroticism, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and openness to experience were measured using two items. Each item was measured on a five-point scale from –2 (strongly disagree) to 2 (strongly agree).

- **Risk taking** was measured using the risk-taking scale of Nicholson et al. (2005). Six risk domains of recreational, health, career, financial, safety and social were measured on a five-point scale from 0 (never) to 4 (very often). Adding up the domain-specific risk-taking measures leads to an overall risk-taking index (Nicholson et al., 2005).

- **International travel experience** was measured by asking respondents to indicate the number of international trips they typically undertake per year (for at least 4 nights for non-business reasons).
Travel motivations were measured by asking respondents to indicate which of the 20 motivational items – taken from an Austrian National Guest Survey – were important to them on their last holiday. The answer format was binary and the motivational items included items such as ‘meeting new people’, ‘an intense experience of nature’ and ‘a romantic atmosphere’.

Travel party composition was measured by asking respondents to indicate whether on their last holiday they travelled alone, with partner or spouse, with partner or spouse and children, with friends, with an organized group or with family (including parents, siblings, etc.).

Binary logistic regression is an appropriate statistical analysis for predicting binary outcome variables. Data were analysed using logistic regression, as the dependent variable in the model could take only two possible values of ‘I would take the trip’ or ‘I would cancel the trip’. Logistic regression analysis was performed separately for each of the four crisis situations of political instability, pandemic, crime or financial. Logistic regressions were also performed for an earthquake and a terrorist attack situation in order to include risk taking as a single measure in the logistic model – unlike the study by Hajibaba and Dolnicar (2015), which included different dimensions of risk taking separately in the logistic model.

11.4 Results

Table 11.2 presents the results of the logistic regressions for different kinds of unexpected events that can hit a tourist destination. More specifically, Table 11.2 indicates which factors affect cancellation behaviour significantly in each situation, either positively or negatively. The signs in brackets indicate the direction of effect on cancellation. As can be seen, some traveller characteristics and trip characteristics have a statistically significant effect on cancellation behaviour in different crises. The results of each logistic regression analysis for each crisis situation (Table 11.2) are discussed below.

Table 11.1. Crisis scenarios presented to respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of crisis</th>
<th>Crisis scenario</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Political instability</td>
<td>Now please imagine that – shortly before the start of your trip – you hear on the news about ongoing political turmoil and instability at the destination you are planning to travel to. Several violent protests have broken out. More than 100 protesters have been arrested and at least five people died during protests. The government promised reforms that may lead to a reduction in protesting activity over the coming weeks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pandemic</td>
<td>Now please imagine that – shortly before the start of your trip – you hear on the news that the World Health Organization (WHO) has announced concern about a renewed outbreak of a bird flu pandemic. Already, ten confirmed cases of human infection with the bird flu have been reported internationally. Bird flu (influenza A virus subtype H5N1) is highly pathogenic and has been causing global concern as a potential pandemic threat. The mortality rate for humans with H5N1 is 60%.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime</td>
<td>Now please imagine that – shortly before the start of your trip – you hear on the news about the increased crime rate at the destination you are planning to travel to. Property crime (burglaries and thefts) and personal crime (robbery and alcohol-fuelled violence causing serious bodily harm) lead the table in terms of the highest increases, both up 25% from the first quarter of 2013.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>Now please imagine that – shortly before the start of your trip – you hear on the news about an upcoming financial crisis which is likely to result in the collapse of a number of key international financial institutions, downturns in stock markets, potentially putting substantial pressure on your personal financial situation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11.2. Drivers of cancellation behaviour in different crisis situations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Financial</th>
<th>Crime</th>
<th>Pandemic</th>
<th>Political instability</th>
<th>Terrorist attack</th>
<th>Earthquake</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International travel experience</td>
<td>(--)^a</td>
<td>(--)^a</td>
<td>(--)^b</td>
<td>(--)^b</td>
<td>(--)^b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk-taking</td>
<td>(--)^a</td>
<td>(--)^c</td>
<td>(--)^c</td>
<td>(--)^c</td>
<td>(--)^c</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>(+)^a</td>
<td>(+)^c</td>
<td>(+)^a</td>
<td>(+)^b</td>
<td>(+)^c</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientious</td>
<td>(+)^a</td>
<td>(+)^a</td>
<td>(+)^a</td>
<td>(+)^a</td>
<td>(+)^a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness to experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel party composition</td>
<td>(±)^a</td>
<td>(±)^c</td>
<td>(±)^b</td>
<td>(±)^a</td>
<td>(±)^c</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To rest and relax</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxury and being spoilt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To do sports</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement, a challenge, a special experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not to exceed my planned budget for this holiday</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A variety of fun and entertainment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting new people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The health and beauty of my body</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many entertainment facilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not paying attention to prices and money</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning about local people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An intense experience of nature</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coziness and a familiar atmosphere</td>
<td>(+)^b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For everything to be organized so I do not have to worry about anything</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspoilt nature and a natural landscape</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural offerings and sights</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change to my usual surroundings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A romantic atmosphere</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catering to my children’s needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To feel safe</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagelkerke pseudo R-squared</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.104</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>0.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model likelihood ratio Chi-square</td>
<td>52.50</td>
<td>77.84</td>
<td>91.31</td>
<td>121.00</td>
<td>120.46</td>
<td>187.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: ^a significance at 0.05 level; ^b significance at 0.01 level; ^c significance at 0.001 level.
In a political instability crisis, the traveller characteristics of international travel experience, risk taking and personality affect cancellation behaviour significantly. Tourists with more international travel experience are less likely to cancel when facing political instability. Risk taking affects cancellation negatively; this means people who take more risks are less likely to cancel their trip. The personality dimensions of neuroticism and agreeableness are associated positively with cancellation, meaning that people who score higher on neuroticism and agreeableness are more likely to cancel.

In addition, in a political instability crisis, the trip characteristics of travel party composition and some travel motivations have a significant effect on cancellation behaviour. People travelling with their family (parents, siblings, etc.) are more likely to cancel than people travelling alone. Travel motivations of ‘to do sports’, ‘excitement, a challenge, a special experience’ and ‘not paying attention to prices and money’ emerged as having a significantly negative effect, while the travel motivations of ‘many entertainment facilities’ and ‘to feel safe’ emerged as having a significantly positive effect on cancellation.

In a pandemic crisis, all of the traveller characteristics under study affect cancellation behaviour significantly. People with more international travel experience and those who take more risks are less likely to cancel. The personality dimension of neuroticism affects cancellation positively. Trip characteristics of travel party composition and some motivational elements also affect cancellation behaviour significantly. The results indicate that people travelling with their family (parents, siblings, etc.) are more likely to cancel than people travelling alone. The travel motivation of ‘feeling safe’ is associated with a higher likelihood of cancellation, while ‘meeting new people’ and ‘catering to my children’s needs’ are associated with a lower likelihood of cancellation.

In the case of increased crime at the destination, risk taking is associated with a lower and neuroticism is associated with a higher likelihood of cancellation. The travel motivations of ‘not to exceed my planned budget for this holiday’, ‘an intense experience of nature’ and ‘for everything to be organized so I do not have to worry about anything’ are associated with a higher likelihood of cancellation. The travel motivation of ‘cultural offerings and sights’ is associated with a lower likelihood of cancellation.

In a financial crisis, risk taking emerges as the only traveller characteristic affecting cancellation behaviour significantly. Again, risk taking has a negative effect on cancellation. In addition, people travelling with friends are less likely to cancel than people travelling alone. The travel motivations of ‘not exceeding the planned budget for this holiday’ and ‘coziness and a familiar atmosphere’ affect cancellation positively, while ‘change to my usual surroundings’ affects cancellation in a financial crisis negatively.

When facing a terrorist attack or an earthquake, results indicate that risk taking – as a single measure – has a significant negative effect on cancellations.

Table 11.2 also shows the Nagelkerke pseudo $R^2$-squared value – which is a measure of the goodness of fit – as well as the Chi-square statistic for each of the logistic models. Chi-square statistics for all the six logistic models are statistically significant at the 0.05 level, indicating that the model including predictors provides better prediction than a model without those predictors for all kinds of crises (Menard, 1995).

Kind of crisis: the results show that the majority of respondents cancel their trip when faced with a terrorist attack (74%), an earthquake (72%), a pandemic (70%) or political instability (52%). In the case of an increased crime rate at the destination, only 21% and in the case of a financial crisis, only 17% say they would cancel their trip. Several McNemar Chi-square tests were performed to test if the kind of crisis affected cancellations. The McNemar test is an appropriate test as the data are paired binary data.

The results indicate that cancellation behaviour varies across different crisis situations. Tourists are more likely to cancel their trip when faced with a terrorist attack compared to any other kind of crisis under study. This is because, for example, the number of respondents who cancel due to a terrorist attack but do not cancel despite a pandemic (200) is higher than the number of respondents who cancel due to a pandemic but do not cancel despite a terrorist attack (146) ($p$-value = 0.004, McNemar Chi square = 8.12). The results also indicate that tourists are significantly more likely to cancel.
in an earthquake scenario compared to political instability ($p$-value = 0.000, McNemar Chi square = 132.80), an increased crime rate ($p$-value = 0.000, McNemar Chi square = 548.93) or a financial crisis ($p$-value = 0.000, McNemar Chi square = 595.87). However, the difference between the cancellation behaviour in an earthquake and a pandemic scenario is non-significant ($p$-value = 0.370, McNemar Chi square = 0.80). Overall, the rank order of cancellation likelihood in different crisis situations is:

- terrorist attack > earthquake ≈ pandemic > political instability > crime > financial crisis

Taken together, the results (see Table 11.2) lead to the conclusion that risk taking is an important factor associated significantly with cancellation behaviour in all crisis situations. The results also indicate that travel party composition is a predictor of cancellation behaviour in five event circumstances of terrorist attack, earthquake, pandemic, political instability and financial crisis. The personality dimension of neuroticism is associated positively with cancellation in the circumstances of terrorist attack, earthquake, pandemic, political instability and crime.

International travel experience affects cancellations negatively in the four most extreme crises of terrorist attack, earthquake, pandemic and political instability. In addition, the travel motivations of ‘feeling safe’ and ‘not exceeding the planned budget for this holiday’ most frequently affect cancellations positively, whereas the travel motivation of ‘catering to my children’s needs’ most frequently affects cancellation behaviour negatively.

### 11.5 Conclusion

The purpose of the current study was to determine the drivers of trip cancellation across a range of unexpected events that could hit a tourist destination. Specifically, the study was designed to test the effect of the kind of crisis, traveller characteristics (personality, risk taking and international travel experience) and trip characteristics (travel group composition and travel motivations) on cancellation behaviour in different crisis events.

Results indicate that risk aversion is a common driver of cancellation across all kinds of crises. This result is in line with previous findings by Hajibaba et al. (2015) that crisis-resistant tourists have a higher propensity to take risks. The results further show that other traveller characteristics (international travel experience and personality) drive cancellation in most of the crisis situations. People with more international travel experience are less likely to cancel, a finding in line with the conclusion of Kozak et al. (2007) that tourists with higher international travel experience are less likely to change travel plans when facing a crisis at their planned destination. The personality dimension of neuroticism is a positive driver of cancellations in all crisis situations under study, except for the occurrence of a financial crisis.

The present study also finds travel party composition to be a significant driver of cancellation in most crisis situations. People travelling with their family (parents, siblings, etc.) are more likely to cancel than people travelling alone when faced with one of the four most extreme crises of terrorist attack, earthquake, pandemic or political instability. The travel motivation of ‘catering to my children’s needs’ affects cancellations negatively, while travel motivations of ‘to feel safe’ or ‘not to exceed my planned budget for this holiday’ are found to be associated positively with cancellations.

The present study contributes to knowledge by gaining additional insights into the mechanisms that are at play when people cancel their vacations. Practically, findings from this study have some important implications for tourist destinations. Crisis-stricken destinations can target those segments of tourists who are less likely to cancel; for example, risk-taking tourists, more experienced travellers and those who travel alone.

One limitation of the present study is that the crisis situations and cancellation questions are hypothetical. The hypothetical design is required to enable the comparison of cancellation behaviour and the drivers of cancellation behaviour across different crisis situations. In addition, the present study investigated cancellation behaviour for trips with non-business reasons. Future research can be performed to explore cancellation behaviour for business trips.
Acknowledgements

The authors thank the Australian Research Council for support under grants DP110101347 (salary support) and DP120103352 (project support). We thank Tim Coltman for his feedback on previous versions of the manuscript. This chapter is based on a paper presented at the CAUTHE 2015 conference and published in the CAUTHE 2015 conference proceedings.

References


12 Cognitive and Affective Bases for Tourists’ Consumption of Local Seafood

Guliz Coskun-Zambak*
Clemson University, Clemson, USA

12.1 Introduction
Tourism decision making is a complex process that consists of various elements. As tourism service is intangible and experience based, the travel decision-making process will not be similar to everyday consumption decisions (Mottiar and Quinn, 2004). Besides, the intangible and experiential nature of tourism products may lead to unexpected changes in plans that travellers have made already (Smallman and Moore, 2010). Many of these changes occur en route or at the destination. According to Thornton et al. (1997), decisions are not made at one point of time; rather, it is an ongoing process throughout the travel experience.

There are internal and external factors influencing the travel decision-making process; one of the most common internal factors is attitude (Van Raaij and Francken, 1984; Um and Crompton, 1990). Um and Crompton’s (1990) longitudinal study integrated attitude in decision making as the difference between perceived facilitators and perceived inhibitors. The results of the study found that attitudes played an important role in making the final selection of a destination (Um and Crompton, 1990). According to Sirakaya and Woodside (2005), Um and Crompton’s (1990) study contributes to the literature by measuring the impact of attitudes on decision making; however, it ignores the joint decision-making process, as it focuses on individual behaviour only. According to Thornton et al. (1997), tourists spend 90% of their time in the company of others, especially with their families.

The impact of families on travel decisions has been supported by some studies (Mottiar and Quinn, 2004; Kim et al., 2010a). Although these studies focused on the impact of family on decisions, they were limited to the individual level. Consideration of the interdependency of family members’ decisions will provide a more holistic understanding of the decision-making process. Therefore, this chapter proposes a conceptual model to understand the impact of attitude on the intention of couples visiting coastal areas to purchase local food.

12.2 Literature Review
Tourism scholars have studied tourists’ travel decision making since the 1980s. The aim of some of these studies was to develop models to picture the structure of the relationships between the factors influencing the travel decision, while...
other studies focused on groups travelling together, such as families.

### 12.2.1 Travel decision making

Decrop (2006) categorized decision-making models as cognitive and microeconomic. While microeconomic models are based on the influence of budget constraints on travel decision plans, cognitive models aim to understand the impact of socio-psychological variables on the decision-making process. Cognitive models are categorized as structural and process models (Decrop, 2006).

In their structural model, Um and Crompton (1990) linked external and internal inputs to destination selection as a cognitive process. On the other hand, Woodside and Lysonski (1989) considered affective associations and situational variables, as well as external and internal inputs. A limitation of structural models is that they focus on destination selection only. Process models focus on the psycho-behavioural variables that underline the decision-making process, such as trip features, destination features and travel desire, which influence travel decisions.

Van Raaij and Francken (1984) add household influence on the travel decision-making process, which incorporates the impact of the individual and household socio-demographic factors and interaction process on the vacation sequence, and which is composed of stages: generic decision, information acquisition, joint decision making, vacation activities and satisfaction. The limitation of process models is the assumption of the hierarchical nature of decision making, but the situation may change through last-minute decisions (Decrop, 2006).

The process models investigate the decisions made before the trip, and additionally they take post-trip behaviour into consideration. But they ignore the decisions made during the vacation, and the changing nature of those decisions. In addition to that, the influence of friends and family on travel decisions was taken into consideration in some of these models, but tourist behaviour was not addressed in a group context. The opinions of friends and family were found to be more effective than other sources, such as advertisements, in decision making regarding the travel destination (Hernández-Méndez et al., 2015). Gardiner et al. (2013) conducted a cohort study to understand the impact of hedonic and functional value associations and normative, formative and informational referents on the intention to go on vacation and showed that formative referents, such as friends and family, have an effect on travel intentions. This influence will be even stronger when they are travelling together, so the impact of the group is a crucial factor in understanding tourism decisions.

Despite the collectivistic nature of tourism activity, most of the tourism literature is composed of studies focusing on individual tourists (Obrador, 2012). Gitelson and Kerstetter (1995) show that over 75% of travel groups contain a spouse or partner and over 75% of them contain friends and relatives. People tend to travel in the company of their families, and the relationship between family members on the travel decision-making process cannot be ignored. According to Obrador (2012), theoretical models in tourism research are not sufficient to understand family travel, as they emphasize detachment and loneliness.

This problem in the tourism literature could be solved by using the appropriate methodology, which will help to investigate tourist behaviour in a group context. Detecting the influence of the interaction of family members on decision making during travel would be possible by using hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) as the data analysis technique. HLM allows researchers to detect variance at the group level as well as at the individual level. This is not possible with traditional techniques such as analyses of variance (ANOVA) or ordinary least squares (OLS) (Sibthorp et al., 2004). By using HLM, each variable on the model could be measured at two levels – individual level and group level – and this will allow researchers to understand the influence family members have on each other's decisions.

### 12.2.2 Family decision making

Research on family decision making shows that the roles of husband, wife and children have evolved over years. Jenkins (1978) interviewed
husbands and wives to understand who was the main decision maker for specific tasks. The results show that husbands are more influential on total vacation decisions, information collection, the length and the date of the vacation. The decisions regarding whether or not to take children, the mode of transportation, kinds of activities, selection of lodging and selection of destination points were joint, and women were not found to be influential in any of the travel decisions. Litvin et al. (2004) replicated Jenkins’s (1978) study among American and Singaporean couples. The results of the study support the argument that travel decision making is becoming less husband dominant and is based more on joint decisions (Litvin et al., 2004).

12.2.3 Cognitive and affective attitudes

Fishbein (1967, cited in Pike and Ryan, 2004) deconstructed attitudes by cognitive, affective and conative components. Tourism research has investigated affective, cognitive and conative components in two ways. First, some studies have focused on the impact of affective and cognitive elements on the tourism destination image and destination selection (Kim and Yoon, 2003; Pike and Ryan, 2004; del Bosque and Martín, 2008). Affective elements influencing destination image are exotic atmosphere, relaxation, scenic beauty, climate and recommendation, and cognitive elements are personal safety, availability of good restaurants, suitable accommodation, friendly people and architecture (Kim and Yoon, 2003).

Second, the role of affect and cognition and their interaction in the travel decision-making process have been investigated (Walls et al., 2011). According to the authors, even if the decision is based on emotions, there is still a need for information processing, so both cognitive and affective elements are important in the decision-making process, and cognitive reactions occur before affective reactions in decision making. Similarly, del Bosque and Martín (2008) state that emotions occur as a result of the cognitive experience. To the contrary, Martínez Caro and Martínez García (2007) show that emotions are independent of cognitive evaluations in a service environment by investigating the influence of cognitive and affective elements on satisfaction in a sports event. It should be taken into consideration that these studies were conducted for different consumption products and services and in different environments, so the results of each study will not be comparable.

Loewenstein and Lerner (2003) state that the role of affect in decision making does occur through expected emotions and immediate emotions. Expected emotions are anticipated feelings towards losses and gains; on the other hand, immediate emotions are the emotions that have an impact at the time of decision (Loewenstein and Lerner, 2003). Therefore, immediate emotions may cause poor judgements, which are not good for one’s self interest in the long term (Loewenstein and Lerner, 2003). The negative outcomes of immediate emotions and impulsive decisions have been pointed out by some authors (Loewenstein and Lerner, 2003; Miao, 2011).

According to Miao (2011), impulse buying creates a negative outcome in the long run, as people feel guilty for buying decisions based on affective reactions. But this situation depends on the positive or negative consequences of the buying decision, which is determined by the risk factor of consuming the product. Dubé et al. (2003) showed that the consumption of chocolate was more impulsive compared to the consumption of milk; however, it creates negative feelings such as guilt after the consumption. On the other hand, emotional elements have a stronger influence on satisfaction than do cognitive elements (del Bosque and Martín, 2008). Impulsiveness in relation to emotions is a significant factor influencing buyer behaviour. In the travel environment especially, tourists would be more open to impulse purchases. Impulse buying is described as ‘any purchase which a shopper makes but has not planned in advance’ (Stern, 1962).

The factors influencing impulse buying behaviour are positive and negative affect (Beatty and Elizabeth Ferrell, 1998), time and money (Stern, 1962) and physical effort and mental effort (Stern, 1962). Kollat and Willett (1967) interviewed shoppers at the store and at home to identify factors influencing an unplanned purchase, and categorized these factors as economic
and demographic variables, personality variables and general food shopping behaviour variables. Beatty and Elizabeth Ferrell (1998) investigated the impulse buying behaviour of shopping mall customers and showed that positive and negative affect influenced impulse buying through other factors such as time, money, physical proximity and shopping enjoyment.

According to Youn and Faber (2000), both positive and negative states trigger impulse buying, as impulse purchasing is seen as a way to escape from negative feelings such as stress and anxiety, and also it is triggered by positive feelings such as happiness and excitement. Although impulsive buying is associated with mood and emotions, there are studies supporting the influence of cognitive elements on impulse purchases. This influence has been observed mostly in the purchase of daily products such as milk, due to the cognitive reminders that make people buy these kinds of products when they see them (Rook and Hoch, 1985).

The influence of affective and cognitive reactions on the decision-making process will be different for women than for men, as females are more expressive of their feelings and they experience a wider variety of emotions than men (Brody and Hall, 1993). Furthermore, women tend to use emotional brain circuits in cognitive tasks, especially in negative emotional processing (Gohier et al., 2011). Similarly, Derbaix and Pham (1991) measured the affective reactions of males and females for different consumption situations and found that females tended to have more negative affective reactions than men, and in general they experienced a higher range of affective reactions compared to men. On the other hand, men showed higher scores in joy and pleasure feelings. Since impulsive buying is triggered by negative and positive affective reactions, it could be assumed that women may have a higher tendency towards impulse buying. The difference between the impulse buying behaviour of women and men has been observed in the consumer behaviour literature (Dittmar et al., 1995; Coley and Burgess, 2003). Women are found to be more irresistible buyers, they experience positive emotions and they report feelings of excitement and thrill during shopping (Coley and Burgess, 2003). These studies show that women have a higher tendency to impulse buying for some products, such as appearance and leisure-oriented products. On the other hand, men are more impulsive during the purchase of functional goods (Dittmar et al., 1995). Women’s impulse purchase behaviour will be caused by emotions that lead them to consume pleasure products. Money is another important factor influencing impulse buying behaviour, as the consequences of buying an expensive product can be risky. As a result, impulse buying behaviour diminishes with the increase of the product’s financial value (Dittmar et al., 1995).

Since food is a less expensive and less risky product, people may have a tendency to buy food products impulsively during a vacation. Based on their past experience, people develop an attitude towards food items, which will impact their food consumption during vacation.

Affective factors are found to be influential on the formation of attitudes towards food, and emotions play a more important role in food likes than in food dislikes (Letarte et al., 1997). The impact of emotions on food consumption occurs at the unconscious level as well. Winkielman et al. (2005) conducted an experiment to investigate this impact. In this experiment, people were shown angry versus happy faces before they consumed a beverage. Subjects who were exposed to happy faces tended to consume more and had a higher willingness to pay for the product (Winkielman et al., 2005). Since tourism is a labour-intensive industry, affective factors should influence tourists’ behaviour both consciously and unconsciously. While positive affective factors, such as positive interaction with locals in a tourism environment, would lead to an increase in consumption, negative affective factors, such as a hostile environment, may intimidate them.

Aikman et al. (2006) expanded the factors influencing food consumption beyond affective and cognitive factors and built a five-factor model. These five factors were founded on the informational bases of food attitudes, and they were tested on five different food products. The five factors influencing food consumption are: positive affects such as joy, relaxation, calm, excitement; negative affects such as guilt, shame, disgust; abstract cognitive qualities such as healthy, lean, nutritious; general sensory qualities such as taste, smell, texture; and specific sensorial qualities such as sour, salty, greasy.
Food becomes a way of exploring culture within the travel experience (Long, 2004). Tourists may prefer to consume local food or familiar food at the destination, depending on various factors.

There will be various different food offerings for tourists in a destination. Encouraging tourists to consume local food is a way of supporting the local economy, and the positive impact of local food consumption has been emphasized by a number of authors (Telfer and Wall, 1996; Torres, 2002). To increase local food consumption, tourism marketers have to take some actions to promote local food among tourists, so it is essential to understand why tourists consume local food during their vacation.

12.2.4 Local food consumption and tourism

Integrating local food with the tourism supply in a destination would be helpful to improve the local economy and to involve locals in the tourism industry. According to research, this could be managed by creating backward linkages between tourism and agriculture (Telfer and Wall, 1996; Torres, 2002).

Telfer and Wall (1996) reviewed the literature on local food use in tourism establishments and proposed to form backward linkages between the tourism and agricultural sectors. The application of this practice was pictured with the case of Indonesia, where local farmers and chain hotels built professional relationships. On the other hand, Telfer and Wall (2000) mentioned the difficulties experienced by large-scale chain hotels in buying local food, as small producers were not able to meet the demand. Unlike previous research (Telfer and Wall, 2000) that was based on hotel purchase behaviour, Torres (2002) investigated tourist food consumption behaviour and argued that trends among tourists could determine hotel purchase behaviour. According to Torres (2002), tourist preferences are not obstacles for backward linkages; on the contrary, tourists could trigger it, if interest in local food exists and it is marketed in a successful way to the tourists.

Understanding the reasons behind local food consumption is essential in creating better marketing plans. Mak et al. (2012) proposed a model with five sociocultural and psychological factors affecting food consumption: cultural/religious influences; socio-demographic factors; food-related personality traits; exposure effect/past experience; and motivational factors. Kim et al. (2013) categorized factors influencing local food consumption as motivational, demographic and food-related personality traits. Motivational factors are cultural experience, excitement, interpersonal relationships, sensory appeal and health concern. Age and gender in terms of demographic factors and food neophobia and food involvement in terms of food-related traits are found to be influential on the consumption of local food (Kim et al., 2013). Kim et al. (2010b) investigated push and pull factors to find tourists’ motivations for food consumption: push factors are found to be knowledge and learning, fun and new experience and relaxation with family; pull factors are area quality and value, quality of event and food variety. Quan and Wang (2004) state that memorability, which could be created by interaction with others through food, is important, as well as the motivation to taste a specific food in the tourist food consumption experience. Ryu and Jang (2006) applied the modified theory of reasoned action to tourists’ food behaviour. The results found that the subjective norm was not a significant predictor of behavioural intention to try local cuisine; on the other hand, attitude was. According to Quan and Wang (2004), another factor leading to the consumption of local food was ‘novelty-seeking’ behaviour, which referred to the decision to try a food that had not been eaten before. The novelty aspect that tourists are looking for consists of two parts; first, the ingredients of the food; and second, the way in which the food is delivered. If both of these conditions are met, food will become a peak experience for the tourist (Quan and Wang, 2004). Thus, both cognitive and affective elements are essential to create this experience.

During a vacation, people have limited time to process all the resources and are most likely to make some impulsive decisions. However, impulse buying is a dynamic, affective process and in the long run it creates cognitive and affective reactions (Miao, 2011). So, in the decision-making process, even in impulse consumption decisions, affective and cognitive
components are involved together. However, as was mentioned previously, the influence of cognitive elements was only observed in the purchase of daily food products (Rook and Hoch, 1985).

### 12.2.5 Gender influence on travel decisions

The last component of the conceptual model will be gender, addressing the issue that women and men differ in the process of purchase decisions and travel behaviour (Derbaix and Pham, 1991; Brody and Hall, 1993; Gohier et al., 2011). According to Mottiar and Quinn (2004), the main difference between women and men is that women have less leisure time in daily life, and they want full leisure when they are on vacation. This leads them to take the role of searching for information on travel. In terms of decision-making styles, females are more perfectionist, confused by overchoice, exhibit more impulse buying behaviour, are eager to buy the latest fashion and are more quality conscious than males (Mitchell and Walsh, 2004). There are differences between men and women regarding needs, motivation, personality and consumption behaviour, which will affect travel decision making and the travel experience; but also, the influence of each other on their decisions should not be ignored.

### 12.3 Conceptual Model

The conceptual model is composed of five variables: cognitive attitude, affective attitude, impulsiveness, gender and intention to purchase local food (see Fig. 12.1). In this model, it is hypothesized that cognitive and affective attitude and gender have a direct impact on the intention to purchase local food. Gender has a direct influence on cognitive and affective attitude, and also moderates the relationship between cognitive and affective attitude and the intention to purchase local food. Impulsiveness moderates the relationship between only affective attitude and the intention to purchase local food, as impulsive purchases are triggered by positive and negative affects (Beatty and Elizabeth Ferrell, 1998).

The basic model has been developed to understand tourists’ consumption of local food. The major aim of this research is to generate

---

**Fig. 12.1.** The conceptual model for tourists’ consumption of local food.
empirical results by collecting data in coastal settings and to support the conceptual model with these findings. The main local food in coastal areas will be seafood. However, the source of the seafood (wild caught versus aquacultured) is important, as is its localness. Some negative perceptions towards aquaculture have been pointed out by some authors (Mazur and Curtis, 2008). Therefore, the source of the seafood is added to the model as another variable moderating the relationship between cognitive and affective attitude and the intention to purchase local food. This study aims to understand tourist behaviour in a group context, so each variable will be measured at the individual level, the group level, or both.

12.3.1 Propositions

The first set of propositions is based on the relationship between cognitive and affective attitude and the intention to purchase local food. Both propositions will be measured at the individual level and the group level.

- P1a: Cognitive attitude will have a direct influence on the intention to purchase local food.
- P1b: Affective attitude will have a direct influence on the intention to purchase local food.

The second set of propositions is based on the moderating impact of impulsiveness, the source of the food and gender on the relationship between cognitive and affective attitude and the intention to purchase local food.

- P2a: The relationship between cognitive associations and the intention to purchase local food is moderated by the source of the food.
- P2b: The relationship between affective associations and the intention to purchase local food is moderated by the source of the food.
- P2c: The relationship between cognitive associations and the intention to purchase local food is moderated by gender.
- P2d: The relationship between affective associations and the intention to purchase local food is moderated by gender.
- P2e: The relationship between affective associations and the intention to purchase local food is moderated by impulsiveness.

The third set of propositions is based on the gender differences in affective and cognitive attitude and impulsiveness. It is expected that women show higher scores on affective attitude and impulsiveness. Since gender varies only at the individual level, these propositions should be tested on individuals only.

- P3a: Women and men differ in affective attitude regarding local food.
- P3b: Women and men differ in cognitive attitude regarding local food.
- P3c: Women and men differ in impulsiveness during a vacation.
- P3d: Women and men differ in the intention to purchase local food.

12.4 Conclusion

This chapter proposes a conceptual model to understand the factors influencing tourists’ consumption of local food. Testing this model will provide helpful information for tourism planners on tourists’ preferences for local food. Tourism is a group activity and each party in a group will have an influence on the travel decisions. The lack of a holistic understanding of family travel has been emphasized by some authors in the tourism literature (Obrador, 2012). This chapter proposes taking a multi-level approach to provide a better understanding of family travel. By measuring variables at the individual level and at the group level, the influence of family members on each other when making tourism decisions can be detected. The outcome associated with this model is that the detection of the interdependency of couples in local food purchase decisions will offer a more comprehensive understanding of tourist behaviour. Also, information on the influence of the source of seafood on purchase decisions will help to assess tourist opinion on aquacultured seafood. Since the aquaculture industry makes an important economic contribution to coastal regions, promoting aquacultured seafood among tourists will help this industry to grow.
References


13 Experiential Travel and Guided Tours: Following the Latest Consumption Trends

Anita Zátori*
Corvinus University of Budapest, Budapest, Hungary

13.1 Introduction

Recent years have witnessed the blossoming of what the travel industry calls experiential travel. Some might argue that this is a movement that implicitly shuns sightseeing (New York Times, 2012); however, this chapter argues that it does not refuse it, the trend of experiential consumption changes only the methods and concepts of guided sightseeing tours. As people of today's society travel more frequently, they desire more intense and better tourist experiences, or even an endless flow of experiences (ETC, 2006). To obtain a better and more intense tourist experience is not possible if one relies only on their own perception and experiential consumption, especially in the case of sightseeing.

Guided sightseeing tours have received little attention in the academic literature, even though they have an important role in exploring the destination (Li, 2008; Wong and McKercher, 2012). Guided tours show visitors the most attractions of the destination, and interpret these in an informative and entertaining way to help them understand the social and spatial context of the place visited (FEG, 2015). Holloway (1981) highlights that sightseeing tours make it possible to discover the destination in a convenient and cost-effective way.

Certainly, own personal resources – such as previous knowledge, time and money, being involved in the destination, or to be present at the moment and pay greater attention to certain details – contribute to a more intense tourist experience, but using a guidebook, a mobile app, or the service of a guide help to fulfil the sightseeing with content, and give meaning to otherwise insignificant details. First, the chapter justifies the previous statement theoretically, then it comes to a discussion based on empirical data about how it evolves in practice.

The study pays special attention to sightseeing tours, to understand better the implications of the new trend of experiential travel and experiential tourist behaviour in this context, as it is identified as a gap in the literature and empirical data. Primary data collection is conducted raising the question of whether there are sightseeing tours designed according to the needs of experiential tourists. Or, in other words, whether sightseeing tours targeting individual leisure travellers meet the needs of the ‘newest’, experiential tourists. The results of the primary research are discussed in frames of the identified needs and consumer behaviour of the ‘old’ tourist, the ‘new’ tourist and the ‘newest’, experiential tourists based on the upcoming literature review.

*Corresponding author, e-mail: anita.zatori@uni-corvinus.hu
13.2 Literature Review

The term ‘experiential tourism’ first appeared in a tourism industry report in Australia in 2001, where it was described as a rapidly emerging trend. The report distinguishes the ‘new’ tourism of the 1990s from the mass tourism of the 1980s. It was based on the observation of the evolution and the emergence of a more experience-based domestic traveller, who is a self-driven visitor on a lesser extent organized tour.

Poon (1993) introduced the term ‘new tourist’ based on the changes brought about by new consumer trends. The new tourist is an experienced traveller who has special interests due to his or her individualistic aims to have control over travelling, often makes spontaneous, unpredictable decisions concerning travelling, and for whom vacation no longer means escaping everyday life, but rather enriching everyday life. Moreover, the new tourist looks for an outstanding price–value ratio, appreciates what is different and pays attention to not have a negative impact on the visited destination’s environment or culture. Despite the fact that the author has summarized her observations of more than 20 years ago, her statements are just as valid today to a certain consumer segment. She highlighted six characteristics of the new tourist which differed most from those of the old tourist: the new tourist is an experienced traveller, who considers different values important, has a different lifestyle, is characterized by different demographic features, is flexible, and a free spirit.

In contrast, the ‘old tourists’ (Poon, 1993) form a homogeneous group, their consumer behaviour is predictable, security is of high importance to them, they regard travelling as a way of escaping daily routine and they do not tend to consume services not included in the package. For such consumers, organized group sightseeing tours are the ones to satisfy their needs while visiting a destination. A fact that must not be overlooked is that ‘old tourists’ are still present in the market. The significance of the new tourists lies in their growing numbers among the consumers of tourism.

A decade later, Canada’s Minister’s Roundtable on Parks Canada (2005) defined the term of experiential tourism as ‘an outgrowth of a global movement toward experiential learning, whereby people create meaning through direct experience’. Many destinations, for example Canada, India, Australia and Northern Ireland, have used the concept of customer experience in their marketing and product development. India’s tourism campaign, Incredible India, is one of the best showcases of how the experience concept is applied in traditional forms of marketing communication. The campaign video attracts the viewer by showing the destination through all the five senses of a certain traveller – it shows the traveller’s individual experiences from their journey in an immersive way, which enables the viewer to gain an insight into both the experiential atmosphere of the place and the traveller’s individual experience. Thus, the video’s engaging power is high. The experiential traveller is someone who is longing for such an immersive experience in the destination. The experiential traveller of today is more than just a ‘new tourist’.

Based on the latest consumer trends, the characteristics of the ‘new tourist’ are not the most recent. Following the earlier terminology of Poon’s (1993), this chapter refers to the group of tourists driven by the latest tourism trends as the ‘newest tourists’, the experiential travellers of our time. The study of the ETC (2006) shows that by visiting more places, tourists become more experienced, they become more aware of the environment and culture of the destination visited, while they reflect more often on their own previous experiences and lifestyle. The study further explains that internal tourist experiences become more significant (desire for self-improvement, demand for creative self-expression, etc.), as opposed to external tourism features (such as demography, climate). This supports the emerging needs of experiential travellers for deeper, more meaningful experiences. Many of the ‘newest tourists’ become carrier-travellers, demanding a constant flow of new experiences (ETC, 2006). The same study points out that more and more travellers either aim to reject the tourist label and experience destinations on their own, or they expect the tour organizer to provide a higher quality service, an exceptional product or additional values.

The ‘newest tourists’ are at the most sophisticated level of experience seeking so far. Recently, they have been at the top of the consumer evolution of experiential tourism. They are experiential travellers, who want to immerse themselves
in the places they visit, to absorb the atmosphere of the place, to experience the local life and culture, the spirit of the place and not simply to see the main attractions.

When the tourist destination of Northern Ireland introduced their new marketing campaign in 2012, they realized that the emerging consumer trends in tourism – i.e. the ‘newest tourist’ – required a change of focus in tourism marketing and management:

‘To truly engage with our visitors we must shift our thinking and connect with them on a deeper, more personal level. Visitors want to feel something from the places they visit, they want to be touched by the stories of the people and actively participate in culture and community. We are no longer selling visitors a “product” – we are selling them authentic experiences.’

(NI, 2012, p. 2)

However, it should not be neglected to remember that the experiential consumer trend is not only influencing the ‘newest tourists’, but also ‘new tourists’ are affected by a constantly growing and deepening experience-seeking behaviour; such as the consumer behaviour of ‘old tourists’, who are becoming more experience focused in their choices and during the consumption.

13.2.1 Sightseeing tours as destination experience mediators

Sightseeing tour providers, as destination experience mediators, play a crucial role in creating tourist experiences during destination visiting. Ooi (2005) defines these tourism mediators as service providers, individuals or goods, which give advice to tourists on what to notice, how to consume various tourism products. Tour operators, tour and programme providers, tourism promotional authorities, tour guides, travel reviews, guidebooks and friendly locals all belong to this category.

A tour guide ‘who guides visitors in the language of their choice and interprets the cultural and natural heritage of an area’ (FEG, 2015) influences the experience creation of the tour participants. Both tour guiding and tour managing (creating the itinerary and managing the realization of the programme) are seen as activities of the tour provider (either providing it internally as a service provider, or outsourcing it to a subcontractor). The Economic Planning Group of Canada (EPGC, 1995) refers to sightseeing tours as key demand generators in destinations, and as typically being built around a destination’s primary attractions. At the same time, it also argues for the experiential character of such tours as having a highly experience-based character and an attractive theme, which are seen as success factors on the market.

It is suggested that the ‘newest tourist’ also prioritizes an intermediary – a digital or live guide enriching their experience about the destination – either to be an online friend, a professional guide or a mobile sightseeing tour application. What differs is the type of attraction they are interested in. While the main attractions play an important role in the itinerary of many sightseeing tours of a destination, less typically visited sights, or sights with a lower level of attractiveness for tourists, provide an opportunity for tourists to gain deeper insights into the destination (Leiper, 1990; McKercher et al., 2004). Based on this, it is argued that the ‘newest tourist’ will prefer alternative tour types and alternative attractions to the main tourist attractions.

13.2.2 Creating the tour experience

Tourists have different experiences, and they pay attention to different things, even if they all participate in the same activity at the same time and place (Ooi, 2005). The tour providers help to direct their attention. Tourists often visit a place for a short period, they lack local knowledge, so to consume more and better from the visited destination, they are seeking a shortcut to experience the place, and this shortcut is offered by tour providers. It has been found that the seeking experience behaviour is more important to the one-day sightseeing tourist than to the escaping tourist (Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991). Tourists participating in a sightseeing tour are looking for local knowledge, seeking to get a taste of the local atmosphere. Although tourists construct their experiences based on their own (social, cultural, etc.) background
and interest, according to Ooi (2005), tourist mediators, such as tour providers, contribute to this process.

The tour provider applying a staged experience concept (see, for example, Pine and Gilmore, 1999) aims to stage and perform a high-quality experience in order to engage the customer in the experience; however, this does not necessarily provide a high degree of freedom for the customer, because it does not allow customization. In the case of a staged experience, if the tourist is given the chance to customize the tour – what to focus on, how much time should be spent on a given activity – they will be able to engage in and form the experience; thus, there is a higher chance to create a memorable, personal experience.

Tour providers using an experience co-creation approach (see, for example, Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004; Prebensen and Foss, 2011) aim to engage the customer by offering a large number of interaction points, and form possibilities for experience co-creation and customization. Enabling customization creates an optimal degree of freedom for the tourist’s experience involvement (Zatori, 2015). Meanwhile, the consumer can decide to what extent and how he or she wishes to be involved in the experience creation. This requires a higher level of activity and participation from the tourist.

If a tour provider does not apply the experience-centric approach, the tourist might face limitations during experience involvement (e.g., not enough time available for a sight), so the consumption of the experience is not fulfilling and the experience might not become meaningful and memorable; or the other extreme prevails and the experience will become memorable in a negative way. This type of service might suffice to fulfil the needs of ‘old tourists’ (characterized by an ‘attraction checklist attitude’), but others might very well feel themselves limited or find the tour boring.

Both experience-centric concepts agree that creating memorable and authentic experiences is the success factor, which tour providers (or other service suppliers in tourism) should target (Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Payne et al., 2008; Morgan et al., 2009). Authenticity, meaning genuineness, is a central concept in contemporary consumption (Arnould and Price, 2000). Authenticity can be defined in several ways: objective authenticity (related to the authentic origins of the offer); constructive authenticity (defined in a symbolic manner, reflecting a personal evaluation); and existential authenticity (derives from the perception of reaching an authentic state of being) (Wang, 1999).

13.3 Methodology

A qualitative in-depth interview was chosen. During the interview, sightseeing tour providers – management and tour guides as the frontline employees – were asked to collect primary data. Furthermore, the observation technique was used to examine the manifestation of aspects and methods used during the service provision and the process of experience creation, and additionally to examine the interaction between the provider and the consumer and to observe the experience environment. The sampling frame was created by listing and typology of all tour organizers of Budapest. Random sampling was used: stratified sampling followed by systematic sampling. One managerial and two tour guide interviews were conducted with each tour provider included in the sample. Additionally, at least two tours were observed per tour provider. In total, 11 interviews were realized with tour providers, 22 with tour guides and 28 observations. The data were collected in Budapest, during the high season (summer) of 2013.

Only guided sightseeing tour providers focusing on the city break segment of leisure tourism, who travel mostly individually, are included in the sample. The sampling procedure did not prioritize the market share of certain tour types (certain tour types are more popular). The examined tour types are represented relatively equally in the sample. The tour types were identified and named based on the main characteristics of the tours. The sampling frame was evolved on the basis of the following tour types: standard tour providers of small-group tours (four tour providers); standard tour providers of big-group tours (three tour providers); and alternative tours (four tour providers).
13.4 Results

13.4.1 Providers of small-group tours

Small-group standard tour providers specialize in smaller-group tours. They usually organize walking tours, cycling tours and segway tours. Most of their tours focus on the main attractions of the destination; thus, they can be seen as organizers of standard sightseeing tours. Some of the tours are guaranteed (it is realized even with only two participants), but others are held only if a minimal number of participants is reached. Participants of the tours are individuals forming random groups, but prearranged small-group tours are also common. Small-group tour providers of the sample are Budabike (BB), Discover Budapest (DIS), Free Budapest Tours (FRE) and Cityrama (CI).

Based on observations during the service provision, the standard small-group tour providers are measurably consumer- and experience-focused, including the quality of interaction, as well as the involvement and activity of the tour participants. The size of the group is found to be a determinative factor. They pay attention to include all kinds of sensorial stimulus – e.g. music, lyrics, food (FRE, DIS) – during the tours, and they put emphasis on humour and interesting stories. The tours of DIS provide a complex promise of experience, since several experience factors are usually mixed – gastronomy, walking, shopping, break at a host location, etc. Regarding standardization, these types of tours are found to be semi-standardized. Tour routes are set and documentation is provided for the content of the guiding, which can be used in a flexible way by the tour guides. The tour schedule can be flexible and customized before, and sometimes even during, the tour, depending on the participants’ wishes. During individual and small-group tours, the tourists determine what they want to hear, so the guide’s reflection on the audience’s requirements is needed. Based on observations, during segway tours and small-group bicycle and walking tours, active participation and involvement of the tourists is much more present than in the case of bus tours. During the course of the tours, guests are given the opportunity to decide freely on each point of the tour schedule. Tours are not strictly time-bound; they sometimes last 30 min longer, as the time spent at some stops is determined according to the guests’ needs.

The personalized atmosphere of the tour could be assured by the small size of the group – the small-size group tour providers limit the group size. However, guides and tour providers also find it important to create personal connection, emotional involvement and uplifted mood. The development of a pleasant group atmosphere (‘…walls must be demolished, contacts and good atmosphere must be created’ (DIS-Guide2), ‘…establishing a positive vibe is crucial’ (DIS-Guide2)) is also important for them. According to them, tourism should be about customized and authentic experiences. ‘Tourists would rather expect to feel emotions than acquire knowledge’ (DIS). This feeling can be attributed to the result of value co-creation. That is why the transmission of knowledge during the tour should happen in an experience-focused and entertaining way, DIS believes.

13.4.2 Providers of big-group tours

Big-group standard tours are mostly bus tours. These tours, serving the needs of leisure and individual tourists, are mostly guaranteed tours, while the group is formed randomly in most cases. The sample of big-group tours includes: RiverRide (RR), a tour provider offering special, ‘floating bus’ bus-boat tours; while Program Centrum (PC) and Eurama (EU) provide hop-on hop-off type (HoHo) sightseeing tours. Consumers can decide about the tour schedule of the HoHo sightseeing product; in this case, conditions are given for value co-creation. Although the tour type made customization possible, it was found that the HoHo tour provider did not support the engagement of the customer to co-create value. Although the bus-type tour providers offer opportunities for interaction, they do not support it, so their tours cannot be referred to as interactive.

Due to its characteristics, HoHo sightseeing tours have the highest standardization rate because of the recorded tour guiding. HoHo tour providers’ opinions are diverse. While EU believes that recorded tour guiding is preferred by its guests, live tour guiding, according to PC, has a higher experience factor, so that is why
one of their tour lines still uses live guiding. RR, who applies live guiding, uses scenarios in order to determine what the tour guide should say or do. The content (text) has been prepared by professional authors and tour guides, but all tour guides can present it in their own style. The recorded tour guiding of EU and PC makes the facts more colourful with narrative parts (EU-Obs) (PC-Obs); and RR tour guiding also adopts these elements (RR-Obs). At RR, tour guides are expected to tell stories, interesting facts in a humorous way. As experience promises, HoHo tours provide plenty of freedom for the participants, as per the main value proposition: ‘The cheapest and the most effective way of getting acquainted with the city’ (PC) – signifying a certain kind of rational approach.

13.4.3 Alternative tour providers

Alternative tour providers typically organize special themed tours for which a particular type of demand has formed. Some of their customers are locals, some of them are tourists. Local sightseeing tours provide novelty even for local tour participants, for two reasons: they are guided in less well-known parts of the city, and they uncover rare information and hidden stories. These tours are themed around a certain topic of history, literature, architecture or ethnic minority, just to name the most typical ones. However, not all themed tours in Budapest are alternative tours. For example, alternative Jewish themed tours differ from the standard Jewish themed tours in their focus and tools (Smith and Zatori, 2015). Imagine Budapest (IG), Unique Hungary (UQ), BUPAP (BU) and Hosszulepes (HL) participated in the research as alternative tour providers.

These tour providers pay more attention to non-typical tourist attractions and focus on the hidden aspects of the story. They are ‘alternative’ because they apply different methods and tools from the traditional tour providers. Referring to urban legends, stories and gossip typify the tours; performance is usually realized in a narrative style. They draw a parallel between experience and myths: ‘It is important for us to be able to transmit experience, stories, legends, which are really beloved by people’ (UQ). Alternative tours have a distinct interactive character. Interactivity is not only realized through dialogues but also with the help of questions and tasks. They pay outstanding attention to involvement in the experience beyond interactivity. The tour participants have the opportunity to add their own experience and knowledge to the tour, which presupposes a sort of co-created experience. Furthermore, the first-hand information and memories (from the participants) also enhance the authenticity of the tour experience.

These tours are the only type to involve locals in the tour in a planned or spontaneous way. Their aim and the mission is to blend into the local community’s life as much as they can. This meets the needs of the experiential, ‘newest’ tourist. The factor that contributes greatly to the authenticity is that the sights included in alternative tours are thought to be less visited (or it is impossible to get there individually); thus, they provide insight into the less known facts of the local lifestyle. In each alternative tour, several tools are used, not only for theming but also to increase authenticity and to enhance involvement; for instance, portfolios with original documents and pictures, and tablets.

Learning is the main experience during such a tour, but emotional and community experience also play important roles. Tour providers are striving to create an experience through creating a dialogue. The tour participants are usually encouraged to enhance the value of the tour by giving feedback and adding extra information during the tour. This type of knowledge sharing results in co-creation between the audience and the tour guide. Alternative tours not only aim to be unforgettable but also focus on enhancing personal development (BU). What makes a tour unique is the tour guide’s personality, and reflecting to the audience and its needs (HL). Others highlight that intensive (HL) and unforgettable (UQ) experiences can lead to individual learning.

13.5 Discussion

The types of tour providers included in the sample are aware of the new trends of experiential tourism, although by offering three different types of product, they aim to satisfy different consumer needs.
For the ‘newest’ tourist, who is at the top of experiential consumption, alternative sightseeing tours offer a suitable supply, because their goal is to abandon the tourist label, and not to have a ‘tourist gaze’ (Urry, 1990) while visiting a destination. They would rather be a visitor and experience the destination in its entirety. Alternative tours offer the possibility to meet with locals or local communities and to hear their stories firsthand. This can enhance existential authenticity greatly, which is exactly what the ‘newest’ tourist is looking for. Existential authenticity is closely connected with personal development (Zatori, 2015), another value demanded by the experiential tourist (see Table 13.1).

Small-group standard tours are able to meet the needs of the experiential traveller, who is looking for an interactive sightseeing tour rich in sensorial stimuli (tasting local food, listening to music, etc.). These tours aim to provide a memorable and unique experience, which might have a personal relevance to the tour participant; however, the intermediation of the destination experience is based on the preconception that these travellers (even experiential travellers) are keen to see the main attractions. The interpretation of the sights by the tour guide is based on the expected tourist gaze. Although small-group standard tours in Budapest offer mostly highly experiential, entertaining and co-creative tours, the interpretation is to target travellers with the ‘tourist label’. Thus, this type of guided tour meets mainly the needs and wants of the ‘new tourist’.

The big-group bus tours mostly meet the needs of ‘old tourists’, because these are the tours with the lowest experiential character. HoHo type tours provide the biggest level of customization regarding schedule, but not content. The content is pre-recorded, only the preferred language can be chosen, and since there is no tour guide on board, it is not possible to ask questions. However, it creates a great opportunity for those looking for point-to-point transport between the main attractions – as it is ‘the cheapest and most effective way of getting acquainted with the city’ (PC) – but who are keen to obtain their experiential experiences alone (to discover the hidden sights and/or experience the local atmosphere and lifestyle), without a provider’s help or with the help of other destination intermediaries – such as blogs or guidebooks.

While analysing the tours’ features, the consumer needs they attempt to satisfy and the types of tourists with such needs, the postmodernist view (Feifer, 1985; Rojek, 1993) should be

| Table 13.1. The main features and value propositions of the studied tour types. |
|---------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| Consumer segment(s)             | Big-group standard tours | Small-group standard tours | Alternative tours |
| Main programme elements         | Toursists              | Tourists               | Tourists and locals |
| Main attractions                | Main attractions       | Main attractions       | Alternative/untypical attractions |
| Content of the tour Schedule    | Standardized, not interactive content | Interactive content | Interactive and co-created content |
| Schedule                        | Free choice of tour schedule (in the case of hop-on, hop-off tours) | Semi-flexible tour schedule | Fixed and semi-flexible tour schedule |
| Main value proposition(s)       | ‘The cheapest and the most effective way of getting acquainted with the city’ | – Rich in sensorial stimuli | – Hidden aspects of the story/insight into specific facts of local life |
|                                 |                        | – Personalized and entertaining | – Involvement of locals in the programme |
|                                 |                        | – Experience of discovery | – Enhancing personal development |
| Focusing on                     | Service quality, memorability and satisfaction | Memorability, unique and authentic experiences | |


pointed out too. The touristic needs of the same consumer can be very diverse, e.g. depending on his or her mood, destination choice, or the number of repeated visitations. Thus, different tours might satisfy the same consumer based on their actual preferences.

13.6 Conclusion

Tour providers and other tour companies are continuously innovating and developing alternative new forms of products to meet the evolving needs of both the market and their consumers. Modern digital and web-based technologies allow companies to abandon the usage of tour guides, which, on the other hand, facilitates customization and co-creation. Customer trends – such as the demand for existential authenticity and deeper experiences – have also influenced product development and the strategies of tour companies. New tour types have emerged, and their variety has become more colourful. So-called ‘alternative tour providers’ satisfy the needs of experiential tourists by offering a more specified tour focusing on a certain theme. On these tours, tourists are even able to get acquainted with locals, who also participate in the tour.

Providers of organized group tours and incentive tours were not included in the sample due to it being more difficult to collect data from them (especially in the case of observations). This remains a field to study and compare with the recent findings. Data collection on the demand side, for example interview tour participants about their consumer behaviour and experience formation, is an option to continue the research and extend the discussion of the findings. One of the main limitations of the study is that the data collection was realized only in Budapest, Hungary. If the research is extended to other destinations, the results could be compared and conclusions made.

Notes

1The brackets show the abbreviation of tour providers’ names.
2Obs refers to data from observations.

References


14 What Makes Visitors Spend More? Effects of Motivations on Daily Expenditure

Tingting Liu,*1 Mimi Li1 and Han Shen2
1The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, SAR China; 2Fudan University, Shanghai, China

14.1 Introduction
Visitor spending directly influences the profitability of the tourism sector; thus, this factor is one of the most important variables in analysing a specific tourist destination (Kastenholz, 2005). Sheldon and Cooper (1990) suggest that three determinants influence tourism expenditure at the macro level: price levels in the destination country; price levels in the tourists’ source origin; and income levels in the tourists’ source origin. By contrast, at the micro level, several factors are associated empirically with travel expenditure. First, socio-demographic variables such as educational level and professional status (Aguiló and Juaneda, 2000), age (Aguiló and Juaneda, 2000; Jang et al., 2004; Kastenholz, 2005) and income (Agarwal and Yochum, 1999; Cai, 1999; Coenen and Van Eekeren, 2003; Downward and Lumsdon, 2003; Jang et al., 2004; Fredman, 2008) are related to visitor spending. Second, prior research has demonstrated that certain trip-related variables are also linked to the spending levels and patterns of tourists. These variables include the following: (i) travel purpose, with business travellers showing the highest spending level (Sakai, 1988; Jang et al., 2005); (ii) length of stay (Agarwal and Yochum, 1999; Downward and Lumsdon, 2000; Anaman and Ismail, 2002; Fredman, 2008); (iii) group size (Spotts and Mahoney, 1991; Downward and Lumsdon, 2000, 2003; Lee, 2001); (iv) transportation mode (Downward and Lumsdon, 2000; Fredman, 2008; Kim et al., 2008); and (v) numbers of visit (Long and Perdue, 1990).

However, only a few studies have investigated the underlying reasons that urge people to embark on travelling in this context. The relationship between the motivation of visitors to travel and their spending has also not been explored extensively. Hence, this chapter intends to fill this gap by examining the relationship between the travel motivations of tourists and their spending at destinations. In particular, this chapter identifies the motivational factors that are influential in determining visitor spending.

14.2 Literature Review
Analysing tourism expenditure patterns helps describe the size of each travel market in economic terms and identify the determinants that affect the travel expenditure characteristics in different market segments (Regan and Damonte, 1999). Thus, the relationship between visitor spending and the foregoing variables can be explained separately in different tourism segments.

*Corresponding author, e-mail: lindatingting.liu@connect.polyu.hk
What Makes Visitors Spend More?

Taylor et al. (1993) indicated a negative relationship between travel party size and visitor expenditure in the context of historical sites. However, a study conducted by Spotts and Mahoney (1991) in scenic lakeshore and state parks revealed that visitors who were members of large travel parties were big spenders. In the same vein, different studies on the relationship between the number of visits and visitor expenditure also demonstrated inconsistencies to a certain extent. Godbey and Graefe (1991) examined the expenditures of repeat and first-time visitors to football games and determined that the latter spent three times more than the former. Lehto et al. (2004) further explored the findings of Godbey and Graefe (1991) and posited that the prior experience of repeat visitors in a given destination resulted in their reduced expenditure. By contrast, Gyte and Phelps (1989) suggested that the number of visits affected the expenditure level of tourists positively. Travel purpose has also been identified as a significant variable in determining consumer expenditure. Suh and McAvoy (2005) analysed North American, Japanese and European travellers visiting South Korea. Consequently, the researchers realized that business travellers spent more than leisure travellers, regardless of origin. McHone and Rungeling (1999) found that casual leisure visitors who attended a cultural exhibition in Orlando spent less than the other attendees of the exhibition.

Many of the above studies examined tourist expenditure patterns in association with socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics. Thrane (2002) and Kastenholz (2005) were two of the few researchers who investigated the relationship between travel motivations and visitor spending. Thrane (2002) analysed visitors attending a music festival and discovered that attendees who were motivated by their musical interest spent more than the other attendees. Moreover, Thrane (2002) revealed that the length of stay, place of residence, income, household size and gender affected the amount of personal spending during the festival. Kastenholz (2005) discussed the relationship between the motivation of tourists to visit rural destinations in North Portugal and their tourism spending from the destination’s point of view. The most significant motivation factors that determined the expenditure level of tourists in rural North Portugal were accommodation and gastronomy in the destination, information and access offered in the destination, destination history and culture, as well as the season of the stay (high or low). However, these motivation factors identified by Kastenholz (2005) are primarily from the perspective of the destination. People who travel to rural North Portugal are mainly ‘pulled’ by the characteristics of the destination attributes. Kastenholz (2005) specified that the people visited the destination because they were ‘pushed’ by internal, psychological forces, which he did not explain in his article. To fill this gap, the current study investigates the effects of push and pull motivations on visitor spending.

Mook (1987) stated that motivation was the cause of human behaviour. In the tourism literature, the terms ‘motivation’ and ‘motive’ usually imply the same concept. However, in the psychological discipline, motivation signifies a wider sense than motive. Motivation is a collective term that involves the process of interactions between situation and person (Heckhausen, 1989), including the intended outcome directed to a behaviour, the commencement and finish of a united behavioural module, the restart of a unit of behaviour after a disturbance, the switching to a new form of behaviour, and the paradox between perceived behavioural outcomes and their solutions (Heckhausen, 1989, as cited by Li and Cai, 2012). On the contrary, ‘a motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs, and integrates a person’s behavior’ (Murray, 1964, p. 7). Hence, motivation signifies a broad meaning that contains situation–person interactions.

Travel motivation is considered the most important factor in influencing tourist behaviour and has been given several definitions. Crompton and McKay (1997) defined tourism motivation as ‘a dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants) that generated a state of tension or disequilibrium within individuals’ (p. 427). Dann (1981) described tourism motivation as ‘a meaningful state of mind, which adequately disposes an actor or a group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision’ (p. 205). Several theories of travel motivation, such as the push and pull model (Dann, 1977), the psychographic...
concept (Plog, 1974) and the travel career pattern model (Pearce and Lee, 2005), have been developed to support the empirical study of tourist motivation. Among all these theories, the push–pull model is the most widely accepted and applied in studies on travel motivation. Dann (1981) asserted that people travelled because they were pushed and pulled by the motivation variables to make travel decisions. The push motivations are associated with the internal desires and emotions of people, whereas the pull motivations are related to the external attributes of the destination choices.

Despite the foregoing progress in understanding travel motivation, a widely accepted conceptual framework (Gee and Fayos-Sola, 1997) is non-existent on such a concept because of the wide range of human needs, methodological difficulties (French et al., 1995) and cultural differences (Kim and Prideaux, 2005). This lack of understanding calls for additional investigations on the travel motivation of tourists.

14.3 Methodology

This study used data from a self-administered survey among mainland Chinese tourists who visited Taiwan in 2010 by package group tour. The questionnaires were distributed by tour guides to the tourists before they started the trip and collected when tourists came back. Each household/travel party group was given one survey questionnaire. A total of 780 qualified questionnaires were used and analyzed in this study.

Based on the literature review, the survey was designed. The English instrument was first elicited and then was translated into Chinese according to Guthery and Lowe’s principle (1992). The variables in this study involved the motivation of tourists for taking a trip to Taiwan, expenditure level, length of stay, and other variables regarding their profiles.

Based on the psychological needs of tourists and the attributes of Taiwan, 29 items in total were identified from the literature on tourism motivation scales (Crompton 1979; Dann 1981; Hsu and Lam 2003). These items were adjusted to statements to align with the context of the current study. These items include both the tourists’ internal and external motivation variables. The internal motivation variables covered roughly four aspects that have been used by previous motivation study, including escape and relax, novel and knowledge, prestige experience, and self-development (Crompton 1979, as cited by Li and Cai, 2012). The external motivation variables referred to the attributes of Taiwan, such as its culture and history, food and nature. The broad spectrum of these motivation items allowed us to capture the Chinese tourist motivation as diverse as possible. The respondents were asked to evaluate these statements with a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 7.

The statistical analyses were performed in a progressive approach. First, this study conducted a frequency analysis to review the respondents’ profiles. Additionally, a descriptive analysis was performed to provide summary of the motivations of mainland Chinese visitors to tour Taiwan. After a preliminary analysis that offered the descriptive data, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to test the proposed motivational scales and to examine if further modifications were needed.

The underlying assumptions for linear regression, including normality and linearity, were checked before the analysis. The motivation factors verified by the CFA were then introduced into the regression model. Daily expenditure was used as the dependent variable, and the mean scores of the motivation factors (see Table 14.3) were used as the independent variables. A stepwise regression procedure was employed to reveal the variables that contributed the most to the model. In this approach, the variables were included in the equation sequentially according to their contribution to the explanation of the model and their correlation coefficient (in the case of the first variable) and partial correlation coefficients (Pestana and Gageiro, 1998, pp. 396–402).

14.4 Results

Table 14.1 demonstrates the profile of the respondents. The research sample included slightly
What Makes Visitors Spend More?

Table 14.1. Profile of respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>&lt;18</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53.2</td>
<td>18–19</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td></td>
<td>25–34</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager/executive</td>
<td>14.69</td>
<td>35–44</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government officials</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>45–49</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worker</td>
<td>11.87</td>
<td>50–54</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military/police</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>55–64</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>&gt;65</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farming/fishing</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>Monthly income (US$)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>&lt;163</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owner/self-employed</td>
<td>13.65</td>
<td>163–325</td>
<td>15.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6.08</td>
<td>326–488</td>
<td>22.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td>815–1303</td>
<td>16.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral degree</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>1304–1629</td>
<td>4.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's degree</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>&gt;1629</td>
<td>7.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's degree</td>
<td>20.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate's degree</td>
<td>28.42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>26.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior high school</td>
<td>16.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

more females (53.2%) than males. Visitors aged 35–44 years old constituted 24% of the entire sample. Travellers aged 25–34 years old and 55–64 years old constituted 18.5% and 17.0% of the sample, respectively. Among the 780 tourists surveyed, 53.58% have an associate’s degree or above and 30.86% are managers, government officials or workers. These data specify that the majority of the respondents are well-educated and white-collar workers. Respondents whose monthly income was less than 2000 RMB (approximately US$326) accounted for 19.74% of the entire sample, and those who earned between 2000 (about US$326) and 5000 RMB (US$814) accounted for the majority of the respondents (approximately 51.48% of the sample).

Consequently, three items were removed. As a result of the CFA, six motivation factors (i.e. novelty and knowledge, prestige and social status, self-development, exciting experience, escape and relationships, and Taiwan attributes) were verified as shown in Table 14.2.

All loadings for the latent constructs in the CFA were significant, thus suggesting convergent validity (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988). Given that the average variance extracted (AVE) of all latent variables exceeded the minimum criterion of 0.5, which was suggested by Hair et al. (2006), the convergent validity was ensured. The goodness-of-fit indices for the measurement of each construct indicated an acceptable level, as suggested by Jöreskog and Sörbom (1984), with a comparative fit index of 0.871 and a root mean square error of approximation of 0.083. On the basis of the confidence level established by CFA, the six motivation factors were used for further regression analysis. The factor scores were used as the independent variables.

Prior to linear regression, descriptive analysis was performed to check the normality of all the variables. The results showed that the sample skewness ranged from –0.704 to 0.016,
Table 14.2. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct and indicator</th>
<th>Standard coefficient</th>
<th>Average variance extracted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Novelty and knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience something different</td>
<td>0.608</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel the special atmosphere of the vacation destination</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn new things or increase my knowledge</td>
<td>0.604</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit the places that are related to my personal interests</td>
<td>0.610</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige and social status</td>
<td>0.971</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go to places my friends have not yet visited</td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk about a trip after returning home</td>
<td>0.653</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have others know that I have been there</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think about the good times I have had in the past</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel inner harmony/peace</td>
<td>0.650</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop my skills and abilities</td>
<td>0.686</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gain a sense of accomplishment</td>
<td>0.772</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have unprecedented experiences</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel excitement</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet the locals</td>
<td>0.529</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet new people and socialize</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have fun or be entertained</td>
<td>0.564</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be with others who enjoy the same things as I do</td>
<td>0.697</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape and relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be away from my daily routine</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Release my work pressure</td>
<td>0.515</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be free to act the way I feel</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a romantic relationship</td>
<td>0.800</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan attributes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience the local conditions and social customs of Taiwan</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know more about the political, social and cultural environment of Taiwan</td>
<td>0.673</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know more about the history of Taiwan</td>
<td>0.671</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit the cultural and heritage sites in Taiwan</td>
<td>0.650</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience the traditional Chinese culture and conventions that are well kept in Taiwan</td>
<td>0.613</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and the kurtosis risk varied between −0.377 and 1.073. Hence, the assumption of normality was ensured. The scatterplot between the dependent variable and each independent variable also suggested that the assumption of linearity was not violated.

Factors that may potentially affect the daily spending of tourists were analysed by a stepwise regression procedure to highlight the variables that contributed the most to the model. The final model was obtained after three steps (Table 14.3). Correspondingly, 2.7% of the total variance in the individual spending levels was explained. This value was not impressive but was statistically significant, as indicated in the $F$-test for the final model (Table 14.4).

The $F$-test for the final model confirmed that the variables in the model explained the
What Makes Visitors Spend More?

129

Table 14.3. Regression model summary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R-squared</th>
<th>Adjusted R-squared</th>
<th>Std error of estimate</th>
<th>Change statistics</th>
<th>F change</th>
<th>DF1</th>
<th>DF2</th>
<th>Significant F change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>2.01487</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>7.672</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>656</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>2.00341</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>8.529</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>655</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.177</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>1.99767</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>4.765</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>654</td>
<td>0.029</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: 1. Predictors: (constant) prestige and social status. 2. Predictors: (constant) prestige and social status, self-development. 3. Predictors: (constant) prestige and social status, self-development, escape and relationships. 4. Dependent variable: (constant) daily expenditure.

Table 14.4. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the final model explaining the daily expenditure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>84.395</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.049</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>2609.921</td>
<td>654</td>
<td>3.991</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2694.316</td>
<td>657</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Variance observed in the individual expenditure levels. The variables that contributed significantly to the dependent variable are shown in Table 14.5, in which the analysis of the standardized beta coefficient of each variable allows us to draw a conclusion about the relative contribution of each factor.

The model indicates that the motivation factors that may influence the daily expenditure of visitors at the destinations are their pursuits of self-development, prestige and social status, and escape and relationships. The results reveal that tourists with stronger desires for self-development have higher expenditure levels. Contrarily, the pursuits of prestige and social status and of escape and relationships are related negatively to the daily expenditure of tourists.

### 14.5 Conclusion

The literature generally suggests that the expenditure of tourists is related to their trip characteristics and socio-demographic factors. However, only a few studies have examined the relationship between tourist spending and travel motivation, which is the starting point of any study on tourist behaviour. The current study filled this void and extended the body of knowledge on tourism consumer spending behaviour by investigating the effects of travel motivations on individual expenditure in the context of mainland Chinese tourists travelling to Taiwan. Six groups of travel motivation factors were validated in this study. The empirical tests of the proposed regression model identified three factors that influenced the spending of mainland Chinese tourists in Taiwan. These factors are the interests of tourists for prestige and social status, self-development and escape and relationships.

The CFA results showed that even if each construct maintained its original traits from the literature review, in the process of selection of reliable items to measure corresponding motivation constructs, some were still deleted. Thus, future studies are suggested to develop additional accurate measurement scales to assess such motivational constructs. Given that tourists can be motivated diversely and react in a different manner, standardized measurement scales and constructs should be developed and revised (Yoon and Uysal, 2005).

This study is among the first attempts to seek the possible effects of internal travel motivation on tourist spending. Among the proposed six motivations, the motivations of the mainland Chinese tourists for prestige and social status, self-development and escape and relationships
Table 14.5. Regression coefficients of the final model and collinearity statistics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized coefficients</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Collinearity statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>Significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.167</td>
<td>0.221</td>
<td>14.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prestige and social status</td>
<td>-0.131</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>-0.108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.093</td>
<td>0.219</td>
<td>14.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prestige and social status</td>
<td>-0.276</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>-0.227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-development</td>
<td>0.207</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.167</td>
<td>0.221</td>
<td>14.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prestige and social status</td>
<td>-0.228</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>-0.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-development</td>
<td>0.304</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Escape and relationships</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>0.138</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
were determined to influence their daily spending directly. By contrast, the external motivation of Taiwan attributes had an insignificant effect on the daily spending of the visitors. These findings imply that the motivation of the tourists to attain self-development influences their daily spending positively. When this motivation is significantly important for a tourist, he or she will spend a great amount of money on his or her trip. This result indicated that destination marketers should give attention to the sense of accomplishment of tourists, as well as their skill-building experience and inner harmony, to entice further their internal motives to travel. The results also reveal that travellers who seek prestige, social status, escape and relationships tend to be light spenders. With the implementation of the opening-up policy between Taiwan and mainland China, the number of mainland travellers to Taiwan has increased dramatically. In this case, travelling to Taiwan may no longer satisfy the needs of tourists for prestige and social status. This condition explains the negative relationship between the motivation of the respondents for prestige and social status with their daily expenditure. By contrast, the motivation for escape and relationships has been a common and dominant motivation of the Chinese outbound travel. The destination marketers may design proper travel products to fit into the needs of the tourists who intend to be away from their daily routine and increase their travel purchase. Thus, these marketers should consider the practical implications of the motivation variables, which can be the fundamental factors in improving the purchase of destination products.

This chapter has certain limitations that must be considered. First, the model proposed does not include all possible variables and the explanatory power is modest. Therefore, future research is encouraged to consider other relevant variables with high explanatory power. Second, factors that affect tourist spending may be contingent on the destination visited and the type of tourists analysed. Thus, the replication of this study in other settings with different destination attributes would be interesting. An application of the proposed model to other settings will help validate further the constructs and produce reliable indicators.

References


15.1 Introduction

Volunteer tourism has been gaining in popularity around the world. Defined as ‘utilizing discretionary time and income to travel out of the place of daily activity to assist others in need’ (McGehee and Santos, 2005, p. 760), volunteer tourism professionals and academics promote volunteer tourism as a method that can bring global peace (Wearing, 2001). It is suggested that the increasing interaction between volunteer tourists and host residents can facilitate cross-cultural friendships which develop between them, and which can reduce tension and foster global peace (McIntosh and Zahra, 2007; SALT, 2014).

Nevertheless, little research has been conducted to understand the reality of relationships between volunteer tourists and residents. There is a need to explore this relationship. Previous studies have focused mostly on cross-cultural understanding, based on the degree of interaction between volunteer tourists and residents. However, the studies have rarely examined how the volunteer tourists feel about the residents, and how they experience a sense of unity with the residents. For this reason this research asks, what are the social relations that are formed between residents and tourists in practice? This chapter contributes to the growing body of literature on volunteer tourism by exploring the volunteer tourism experience from the perspectives of international volunteers at seven different volunteer organizations in Puerto Viejo, Costa Rica.

15.2 Literature Review

Volunteer tourism (VT) emerged from the idea that tourism could make a positive impact on tourism destinations and, by volunteering, tourists could directly support the destinations in the development of their communities (Sin, 2010). VT is also considered to be mutually beneficial for both tourists and residents alike, since it brings reconciliation, a cross-cultural understanding and global citizenry between the two groups (McIntosh and Zahra, 2007; Sin, 2010). Given these facts, many scholars regard VT as the central model of alternative tourism (Wearing, 2001; McIntosh and Zahra, 2007).

Early studies generally had a positive perspective toward VT, stating that VT could generate a more meaningful and lasting relationship caused by intense, genuine and social interaction between residents and tourists compared with traditional tourism (Wearing, 2001; Brown and...
Morrison, 2003). A quote from an Australian volunteer in McIntosh and Zahra's study (2007) illustrates this theory: ‘We learned a lot from the experience but the biggest things we got out of it were the personally meaningful relationships… I felt more like a New Zealander than an Australian because I feel so welcomed’ (McIntosh and Zahra, 2007, p. 551).

However, a growing amount of literature, especially critical perspective studies, challenges these optimistic assumptions, saying that the positive impact of VT is possibly overstated due to the fairly uncritical approach (Guttentag, 2009). These studies claim that VT can lead to cross-cultural misunderstanding, rather than to meaningful relationships. As Sin (2009) and Kevin and Joanne (2012) explain, VT involves volunteer tourists from developed countries working on projects in developing countries, which gives rise to an unequal relationship whereby the giver might appear superior to the receiver. This shows the possible limits of the existing research. Also, it results in questions about the presumption that the tourist's interaction with local residents will generate cross-community understanding and significantly improve emotional closeness between groups of people. This research will explore these questions by applying the emotional solidarity theory.

This theory suggests that the ‘degree of shared beliefs, shared behavior, and interaction between tourists and residents will significantly predict their emotional solidarity experienced with tourists visiting their community’ (Woosnam et al., 2009, p. 247). Woosnam suggests that ‘welcoming nature, emotional closeness and sympathetic understanding are three dimensions or factors of emotional solidarity’ (Woosnam, 2010, pp. 617–618).

In this theory, emotional solidarity can be interpreted as the emotional closeness and sense of solidarity that binds individuals together as part of a group (Durkheim, 1915/2001; Collins, 1975; Woosnam and Norman, 2009). However, it does not require cooperation between individuals to achieve a common goal (Woosnam and Norman, 2009). Also, emotional solidarity is different from the acculturation or demonstration effect, because emotional solidarity implies a ‘sense of we together not as “tourists” versus “residents”’ (Woosnam, 2011, p. 617), while the acculturation and demonstration effect are about the value, attitudinal and behavioural changes of the individual due to the influence of a different culture or a more advanced culture (Violet and Linda, 2008).

Based on this theory, a qualitative research was conducted to investigate these issues in the context of Costa Rica. Two research questions have been addressed in this study:

1. What are the social relations that are formed between residents and volunteer tourists in practice in Puerto Viejo, Costa Rica?
2. How do volunteer tourists identify themselves within their relationship with residents?

15.3 Methodology

This chapter draws on fieldwork in the southern part of the Caribbean coast of Costa Rica including Patina, Puerto Viejo de Talamanca, Punta Uva and Manzanillo (Fig. 15.1). In this research, this region is called Puerto Viejo. The fieldwork was conducted from 29 November 2012 to 4 January 2013. In total, 16 volunteer tourists, who ranged in age from 18 to 32, participated in this study. Nine study participants were European, six people were from North America and one was from Central America. The methods included interview, participant observation and diaries. A total of 16 face-to-face interviews were conducted, and 5 study participants handed in their journals for this study.

Considering the purpose, scope, budget, time limit and accessibility, we selected Puerto Viejo de Talamanca, Costa Rica, as the study site. Through the travel media in North America and Western Europe, the Caribbean side of Costa Rica is described as an attractive, ‘relaxing, and natural Caribbean getaway’ and a ‘Disney-like’ place (Eric, 2008; Lonely Planet, 2013). The majestic and protected jungle, combined with the Caribbean style, attract a great number of tourists, mostly from North America and Europe, who want to immerse themselves in nature while enjoying yoga and surfing.

Although most of the volunteer organizations are owned by North Americans or Europeans, tourists can learn more about the culture and nature of this area through volunteering. For example, the Wildlife Conservation Center, which is chosen by Trip Advisor as the most
Fig. 15.1. Approximate locations of volunteer organizations. (From Google Maps.)
We are not Tourists. We Fit in this Community

popular tourist place in Puerto Viejo (Trip Advisor, 2012), provides volunteer tourist programmes with opportunities to take care of injured wildlife such as monkeys and sloths. People who are interested in sustainable lifestyles can learn more while volunteering at organic farms: the Sustainable Education and Living Center (SELC) or Eco Farm. Eco Tour or a hostel operating Spanish classes, ‘Spanish Hostel’, located in the town, provide information on volunteer opportunities.

During the field research, we visited volunteer organizations in Puerto Viejo in order to introduce ourselves, explain the purpose of the research and request permission to carry out the research. Once the staff of the volunteer organization provided permission to undertake the study, we approached other volunteers in order to invite them to be a part of this study. As soon as the volunteer tourists agreed to participate, a formal consent letter was presented to them to inform them about the study and their rights.

In total, 16 volunteer tourists participated in face-to-face, one-on-one interviews. Each semi-structured interview took between 30 and 90 min. We volunteered with 13 study participants at five volunteer organizations and spent time relaxing with them visiting beaches, bars, hiking trails and restaurants during the field research. We stayed with six study participants at the same hostel for between 1 week and 3 weeks. During participation in the VT programme, volunteer tourists were asked to keep research journals documenting their feelings about the community, the volunteer experience and their interaction with the residents. Five out of the 16 study participants returned their research journals.

When we reached data saturation, we stopped collecting further data. Interviews, field notes and research journals were used to analyse the data. The information drawn from the different sources was compared for consistency and cross-checked to triangulate the findings in order to enhance the quality and credibility of the qualitative data analysis. We used systematic coding via content analysis. Categorical aggregation (Yin, 2009) was used in the report to describe directly the volunteer tourists’ emotional solidarity and interaction with the residents. In order to increase the reliability of this study and decrease bias, we conducted cross-check analysis with a peer group.

15.4 Discussion

The study participants recognized themselves as volunteers, mainly in regard to their relationship with the residents of Puerto Viejo (Fig. 15.2). Part of the reason was that the study participants’ images of tourists were as those who did not get along with and/or learn from local residents but who were just taking a holiday. The efforts of the study participants to distinguish themselves from tourists played an important role in their identity construction.

![Fig. 15.2. Volunteer tourists’ identity.](image-url)
Each volunteer tourist was asked, ‘Do you consider yourself as a volunteer tourist and why did you decide to volunteer during your vacation?’ Being considered as a tourist was not a pleasant experience for many study participants. They posed, frowned, or immediately said ‘no’ when they heard the word ‘tourist’. The volunteer tourists felt uncomfortable and were sometimes confused by being called tourists rather than volunteers. Despite the fact that we explained the definition of volunteer tourists as ‘those tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organized way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment’ (Wearing, 2001), they hardly changed their negative attitudes toward the words ‘volunteer tourist’.

These findings were first suggested to us while we were conducting our second interview in Puerto Viejo. Calvin, an American male volunteer in his 30s, did not at first disagree with being called a tourist. However, he began to compare his experience in Puerto Viejo with that of a ‘regular tourist’, who, according to him, ‘doesn’t experience company with the residents nor gets to know the culture of the town, but enjoys sightseeing and feeding the pockets of people who make a lot of money from alcohol’.

The study participants argued that they had a genuine relationship with the local residents, emphasizing that their relationship with the residents went beyond money exchange. The study participants focused on feelings of closeness and a sense of belonging to the community in comparison with tourists, who they described as ‘laying on the beach all the time by themselves’. Volunteer tourists claimed their superiority to tourists by saying that ‘unlike tourists, volunteers experience company with residents’, ‘different from tourists, volunteers become a part of the community’, and ‘volunteers experience culture through their relationship with residents’.

The feelings of relational closeness with local residents were reported as an important differentiator between volunteers and tourists. Volunteer tourists commented that their most memorable experiences were interactions with residents, and they received many benefits from their genuine relationships. The study participants said that, unlike tourists who came in and out of the town, they lived in the town, thereby contributing to a sense of belonging in Puerto Viejo. The study participants commented that they felt they were part of the town because the residents recognized them. In many cases, the respondents stated that volunteering played an important role in making connections between volunteer tourists and residents. Volunteering created topics that residents and volunteer tourists could converse on, and although volunteer tourists rarely continued their relationships with those they encountered, the one-time conversation generated positive feelings. David explained that he was known to some residents in the town as ‘the Dutch guy volunteering at the Wildlife Conservation Center’.

At first glance, volunteer tourists seemed to have emotional solidarity with residents. Emotional solidarity can be interpreted as emotional closeness and a sense of solidarity that binds individuals together as part of a group. Woosnam (2008) suggested that three dimensions or factors of emotional solidarity were: (i) a welcoming experience from residents; (ii) sympathetic understanding; and (iii) emotional closeness. Volunteer tourists claimed that they had close relationships with residents, unlike tourists. They identified themselves as volunteers in contrast to other tourists. Strong emphasis was placed on friendships with local residents, a sense of belonging to the community, connections with the residents and access to the real lives of people.

However, it is important to note that these claims are based on the comparisons between themselves and tourists. Volunteer tourists’ relationships with residents were limited to the staff at their volunteer organizations, who were mostly from the ‘First World’, such as European countries and the USA. Their emotional closeness to Puerto Viejo was mostly the result of their relationships with other people from the same cultural and language areas, rather than their relationships with people from Puerto Viejo or Costa Rica. Although volunteers referred to their sense of belonging, it did not always mean they felt they were connected to the whole community. Drew, a European volunteer tourist in her 20s, said ‘I am not just a tourist. I work with animals, and residents. I live in this center,
and get to know people working here, especially in this project. I feel I am part of here, specifically here, this center’. Like Drew, the sense of belonging of which many participants spoke was often limited to their volunteer organizations.

Although the study participants claimed residents recognized them, the question might be whether volunteer tourists were known to the residents simply because of their volunteering. The small number of people in the town and/or the volunteer tourists’ relatively long length of stay could be other reasons that made them known. One day, we came across a lady from the town at a hostel. She told us that she had heard about an Asian researcher trying to interview all the international volunteers in the town, and that the researcher must be one of us. We did observe, conversely, that tourists who stayed in Puerto Viejo for a relatively long period and who did not volunteer in the region often befriended residents from Puerto Viejo.

Hence, it is questionable if their reference to the sense of closeness means that volunteer tourists have formed an emotional solidarity with residents or if it merely suggests that there are no conflicts between volunteer tourists and residents. Later, during the interviews, the study participants explained that they were indifferent to building relationships with residents, and were satisfied with their relationships with other tourists. Moreover, the study participants did not show a sympathetic understanding (Fig. 15.3). These tensions and ideas will be discussed below.

According to the emotional solidarity theory, as suggested in tourism studies by Woosnam (2008, 2011), commonalities between volunteer tourists and residents could potentially contribute to the development of close relationships. We researched which commonalities volunteer tourists expressed they had with residents in order to find the volunteer tourists’ in-group identity with the residents. The results showed that the study participants generally could not mention any similarities they thought they had with the residents. The study participants had constructed an ‘us volunteers’ versus a ‘them residents’ mindset, rather than building an in-group identity with the residents.

![Diagram](image_url)

**Fig. 15.3.** Volunteer tourists’ perceptions toward Puerto Viejo.
The dominant representations of destination countries offered by most of the gap year industry are based on the simple dualisms and essential concepts of ‘other’. Leaving home, packing one’s bags and ideas and setting out to explore ‘the other’ is a practice embedded, at least in part, in the inspiration behind the ‘gap year’ (Simpson, 2004). Volunteer tourists’ expectations of their travel establish their fascination with the culture and people of their volunteer region, often resulting in the practice of ‘othering’. Galani-Moutafi (2000) argues that tourists desire a high degree of ‘otherness’ so that their experiences are much more satisfying and memorable.

The study participants were in keeping with this argument. Their expectations and motivations to participate in VT continue to be similar to the experience of exotic nature and new people as something different from their ‘ordinary’ lives in their home countries. Volunteer tourists named clear expectations of the countries, such as ‘the tropical jungle’, ‘beach’ and ‘exotic wildlife animals’, which were ‘something different’. The tropical, heavenly national image of Costa Rica attracted the study participants to come to Costa Rica in the hope of discovering something new.

When we asked the study participants whether or not their volunteering had changed their perceptions toward Puerto Viejo, the answer was ‘no’. The study participants had similar ideas about Puerto Viejo, such as ‘beach, jungle and exotic animals’, even after their volunteering. ‘Difference’ was one of the most frequently used words of the study participants when they described the residents or the culture of Puerto Viejo. Although three study participants mentioned similarities between themselves and the people in the Caribbean side of Costa Rica, these similarities were mostly about the existence of poor people and basic human needs. The study participants differentiated their own cultures and the culture they experienced in the Caribbean region of Costa Rica. They constructed the binary as ‘self versus others’, saying, ‘simple lifestyle in Costa Rica versus materialistic lifestyle in their own country(ies)’ and ‘happy and easy-going life in Costa Rica versus stressful life in [their] own country’.

It seemed that the study participants had difficulties in finding commonalities, since cultural differences took precedence. They paid attention to the apparent differences such as the language and the exterior of the town, which they referred to as ‘culture’. Another factor that hindered them in finding similarity was the stereotypes of developed countries and underdeveloped countries. Although the study participants rarely spoke directly of the world as ‘developed’, the image of Puerto Viejo and their own country was aligned with the images of the Third World and the First World. They compared their perceptions of Costa Rica with those of their own country, saying their country had ‘developed technology’, while Puerto Viejo was ‘not a civilized town’ but a ‘poor village’.

We suggest in this chapter that the study participants’ perceptions of race may shape the volunteer tourists’ mindsets of ‘self versus others’ and their perceptions of the locals as ‘poor, happy, and indifferent people’. The cultural enclave on the Caribbean side of Costa Rica is racially organized in the country. Ticos continue to marginalize the area in ‘racist discourses that construct this area as an unsafe, unclean, and undesirable destination’ (Frohlick, 2007, p. 9), while Western travel agencies present this area to potential tourists who are looking for a spirit of freedom and a laid-back paradise (Frohlick, 2007; Lonely Planet, 2013). Indeed, Puerto Viejo is often portrayed as a popular destination where tourists travel in search of exotic Afro-Caribbean culture and a Caribbean aesthetic, where they can enjoy marijuana and sex with dark-skinned locals (Frohlick, 2007; Lonely Planet, 2013). Intimate relationships between white foreign women and dark-skinned local men are prevalent in Puerto Viejo and involve monetary exchanges.

In this context of race in Puerto Viejo, volunteer tourists and VT organizations have produced, learned and constructed an image of locals who are poor but happy and indifferent toward their own community; therefore, ‘who are different from themselves’ (volunteers and staff from the First World) and ‘who have no or little similarities with them’ (personal interviews). Through discourse, volunteer tourists and VT organizations have marginalized the locals in Puerto Viejo.

Viewing the emotional solidarity theory as it relates to tourism studies by Woosnam (2008), the commonalities between volunteer tourists
and residents, such as shared belief and shared behaviour, could contribute to the development of emotional solidarity. However, this study found little to support Woosnam’s arguments. The volunteer tourists constantly made distinctions between themselves and the residents, despite the fact that they participated in similar activities with the residents and interacted with them during their visit to Puerto Viejo (Fig. 15.4). Although the study participants recognized that they had shared goals with the residents working in the same organizations, this did not influence the volunteer tourists to have a sense of unity with the rest of the residents. The volunteer tourists perceived the positive contributions of the local residents were, in general, small.

The first part of this discussion explained the perceived difference between volunteers and tourists because of their interactions with the local residents. The study participants claimed that they had genuine relationships with the local residents, a desire to integrate into the community and a sense of belonging in Puerto Viejo. Similar to the study participants’ arguments, previous work in this field has demonstrated that volunteer tourists make genuine friendships in the process of interaction, which can foster global peace and tolerance (Brown and Lehto, 2005; Coghlan and Gooch, 2011; Conran, 2011).

However, as opposed to what the study participants claimed was their relationship with residents in comparison to tourists, many study participants stated that they did not have personal and intimate relationships with the local residents when we asked them ‘how do you want to build relationships with local residents?’ The response was, however, contradictory considering the emphasis the study participants placed on their good relationships with the local people, especially in comparison with that of tourists. For example, one study participant explained, ‘when you come here for [a few] days as tourists you just stay in your hostel and know the people [tourists] you stay with. My volunteering helps to know the culture and people of course.’ Conversely, she later described

![Fig. 15.4. Relationship between volunteer tourists and people in Puerto Viejo.](image)
her relationship with local residents as, ‘I don’t have real relationships with residents. I am staying here [hostel] with other people. They are all tourists from different countries.’

Most of the volunteer tourists in this study had little or no significant contact with members of different racial and ethnic groups in Puerto Viejo. Many of the study participants stated that their relationships with local residents were not personal, nor close. They responded, ‘it is not personal. We don’t live with residents. It is not a close relationship’ and ‘there is not intimacy and personal relationship. I have been interacting with residents from 30 seconds to several hours, but it is very superficial.’

Despite the fact that academics and the industry itself argue that VT can bring about mutual friendship between volunteer tourists and local residents, only four study participants claimed that they had a personal and/or close relationship with residents who were not involved in their volunteer organization. All of these study subjects had four commonalities: a moderate to fluent level of Spanish; stayed in the town more than 2 months; and had a personal desire to interact with the local residents.

However, most of the study participants rarely experienced friendship with local residents. When asked about the depth of their relationships with the residents, 12 of the study subjects identified it as superficial and not intimate. Most of the interactions between volunteer tourists and local residents happened for a short time in places traditionally considered as tourist spots, such as shops, restaurants, bars and beaches. Volunteer tourists considered interactions with residents as providing memories rather than lasting friendships. The partial reason mentioned by study participants was their length of stay and their ‘coming and going’ status. As opposed to when the study participants compared themselves to tourists, the study participants referred to themselves as those who ‘come and leave’ the town, noting that ‘I am only going to be here one more week so building relationships is not really going to work’.

The majority of meaningful interactions were with other tourists or volunteer tourists who stayed in the same hostels or volunteered in the same organizations. The study participants explained that they did not feel like meeting the local people as long as they had contact with tourists. While volunteer tourists were developing relationships with people of the same nationality, efforts to meet residents were often forgotten. During participant observation at the Wildlife Conservation Center, we noted that the German volunteers frequently interacted with other German volunteer tourists. We found that a German volunteer coordinator often assigned work to German volunteer tourists in German. After the German volunteer tourists got a job to do from the coordinator, they worked together to feed the animals. In the afternoon, two German volunteer tourists were working in the kitchen washing dishes, and despite the fact that there was a Costa Rican worker in the kitchen, the two volunteer tourists had little conversation with her. Furthermore, they did not acknowledge the kitchen worker when she left.

Despite what the volunteer tourists had argued about their relationships with the residents, most of the volunteer tourists’ relationships were between groups and were limited and superficial. Most of the study subjects were indifferent to building relationships with the residents, despite the fact that they were volunteers to build genuine relationships with the residents. Many of the study participants said that the residents were ‘part of [the] landscape’. This made the volunteer tourists’ claims doubtful. Most of the volunteer tourists mainly interacted with other tourists or other volunteer tourists who were sharing the same accommodation with them or working with them. Therefore, the emotional quality of the relationships between volunteer tourists and residents was, in general, no greater than that of mass tourists.

15.5 Conclusion

The VT industry and academics have suggested that the increasing interactions between volunteer tourists and host residents can facilitate the development of cross-cultural friendships that can reduce tensions and foster global peace (McIntosh and Zahra, 2007).

However, it is questionable whether VT is superior to so-called ‘mass tourism’ in terms of building harmonious relationships between volunteer tourists and residents that can be a foundation of global peace.
First, in this study, volunteer tourists and residents rarely had meaningful relationships. Their feelings of closeness were merely feelings that boosted the identity of the volunteer tourists from ‘tourists’ to ‘volunteers’. Most of the study participants had difficulties in building relationships with local residents, due to cultural and language differences. Although most of the study participants worked with local residents in the same organization, they rarely communicated with each other, due to the language barrier. Second, volunteer tourists rarely developed cultural understandings. Most of the study participants understood Puerto Viejo as a place with beach, sun and ‘poor but happy people’, but could not expand their knowledge further. Third, the study participants rarely found commonalities with local residents; rather, they were aware of differences between themselves and the residents. They rarely got to know more about the similarities shared with the local residents, but they developed differences from the local residents, mostly because of their stereotypes toward the ‘First World’ and the ‘Third World’. Hence, the relationships between volunteer tourists and residents were, in general, no greater than those of ‘mass tourists’, which volunteer tourists themselves criticized.

However, this finding does not mean that intimate relationships are not formed among tourists and local residents. In fact, there are prevalent patterns of intimacy between foreign women and local men that do take place in Puerto Viejo. Frohlick notes in her research that foreign women from North America or European countries experience intimate relationships with local men, and their intimacies shape the women’s decisions to remain in the country (Frohlick, 2007, 2009). Frohlick argues that these intimate relationships often come about when the women are travelling through study-abroad programmes with development-and-aid groups (Frohlick, 2007). Therefore, it is better to understand this study’s findings, as individuals’ backgrounds, motivations and language ability can be important. The notion that VT itself can bring cross-cultural friendships may be a myth.

This study applied the theory of emotional solidarity to VT where residents and tourists were from different cultural and language backgrounds. This is the first case of the study. In previous studies, tourists showed shared beliefs, shared behaviours and had interactions with residents, which would contribute positively to emotional solidarity. However, this research did not follow this pattern. While previous studies have not paid attention to the importance of verbal communication (Woosnam, 2011), the importance of the ability to speak Spanish is obvious. Volunteer tourists who had little Spanish-speaking ability said they could not develop friendships with residents due to their lack of ability to communicate in Spanish. Other volunteer tourists who could build friendships appeared to have conversations in Spanish with residents when they were involved in similar activities with them. This study suggests that verbal communication can be an important factor that establishes emotional solidarity with residents.

Future research needs to be conducted to explore the anti-tourism attitudes among volunteer tourists. This study presents that volunteer tourists strongly identify themselves as volunteers rather than as tourists in regard to their integration with residents. Volunteer tourists portrayed tourists as those who spent money for their own vacation and who did not interact with residents. Ironically, the relationship between volunteer tourists and residents was no greater than the ‘tourists’ relationship’, as the study participants portrayed. Volunteer tourists stated that they did not develop close relationships with residents, and they got along with other tourists rather than residents. Future research should be undertaken on whether volunteer tourists’ feelings toward their relationships with residents result from their desire to disassociate themselves from tourists, and where this negative attitude toward tourists comes from.

References


Woosnam, K. (2008) Identifying with tourists: examining the emotional solidarity residents of Beaufort County, South Carolina, have with tourists in their community. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Clemson University, South Carolina.


16  Do Negative Experiences of Hospitality Services Always Lead to Dissatisfaction?

Giacomo Del Chiappa* and Stefano Dall’Aglio
1University of Sassari, Sassari, Italy; 2Econstat, Bologna, Italy

16.1 Introduction

According to the services literature, hospitality services are characterized by intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability, perishability, simultaneous production and consumption and customers’ participation in the service production process. All these unique characteristics of hospitality services, coupled with the intrinsic nature of the hospitality industry (e.g. seasonality and high labour turnover), make it difficult to deliver high-quality experiences consistently (Jiang et al., 2010) and raise the marketing stress level for hospitality managers and staff (Rao and Singhapakdi, 1997).

Prior research has mainly supported the idea that negative experiences cause consumer dissatisfaction (Reichel et al., 2000). Jacoby and Jaccard (1981, p. 6) defined complaining behaviour as ‘an action taken by an individual that involves communicating something negative regarding a product or service’. However, little research exists that aims to analyse the case of consumers reporting satisfaction despite encountering negative experiences (Jiang et al., 2010).

The current literature suggests that accommodation comments and reviews can surely be considered a key component of tourism and hospitality management (Leung et al., 2013). User-generated content (UGC) has introduced a new venue for both positive and negative word of mouth, thus resulting in the so-called electronic word of mouth (eWOM).

It could be argued that the attitudes and expectations formed based on eWOM are particularly strong as consumers perceive it as particularly trustworthy and credible (Gretzel and Yoo, 2008), especially when it is uploaded on to the websites of online travel agencies (OTAs), such as Booking.com (Del Chiappa, 2011; Yocouel and Fleischer, 2011; Inversini and Masiero, 2014), which usually exert a great influence on consumers’ choices at the very early stage of their information searching (Anderson, 2011; Del Chiappa, 2012).

In the Travel 2.0 era, researchers concur that tourists’ online comments and reviews represent a rich vein of data that can be used successfully for analysing and managing the hospitality industry (Kim and Hardin, 2010), with online consumer feedback being...
essential for recovering and improving services (Sparks and Browning, 2010; Del Chiappa and Dall’Aglio, 2012). Recently, the relevant and useful role that Internet UGC can play in underpinning guests’ satisfaction in the hospitality industry has been highlighted (Zhou et al., 2014).

Based on this strand of research, this chapter investigates in greater depth whether and how specific positive and negative experiences of the features of hospitality services influence the overall satisfaction of guests, with the final aim of verifying whether negative (positive) experiences of hospitality services always lead to dissatisfaction (satisfaction) or not. To achieve this aim, the chapter examines the positive and negative content of 731 online reviews and the respective overall satisfaction uploaded by guests who spent their holiday in a sample of 18 hospitality businesses in Taormina, a famous tourism destination in Sicily, Italy.

16.2 Literature Review

Several conceptual models have been developed to explain consumer satisfaction with services. Reviewing the literature on this topic, Tsiotsou and Wirtz (2012) referred to the expectancy–disconfirmation paradigm and the perceived performance model, as well as attribution models, affective models and equity models. Among these, the prevailing approaches are the expectancy–disconfirmation paradigm and the attribution model of satisfaction. According to the former, consumers evaluate the service performance they have experienced and compare it with their prior expectations.

The consumer is said to be satisfied when his or her perceived performance approaches or exceeds his or her prior expectations (Parasuraman et al., 1985). The attribute-based perspectives can be considered a complement of the expectancy–disconfirmation paradigm (Busacca and Padula, 2005). According to Singh (1988), this approach suggests that consumer satisfaction can be considered a collection of multiple satisfactions with various attributes of the service experience.

Specifically, based on the idea that the evaluation of different service attributes significantly influences the overall satisfaction (Akhter, 2010), the attribute-based approach argues that the consumer satisfaction formation process should be studied considering both cognitive (expectations) and affective (desires and motives associated with personal objectives) elements (Bassi and Guido, 2006). However, the relationship between attribute-level performance and overall satisfaction is more complex than initially thought. Evidence has shown that there is a non-linear and asymmetric relationship between the service attribute’s importance and the performance assessment of the attribute level (Busacca and Padula, 2005).

According to prior research on consumer delight, it could be argued that this is probably due to the role that affect plays in consumer satisfaction judgements as opposed to the weighting/importance that consumers assign to a particular attribute only (Bowden, 2009).

Other research has shown that negative attribute performance generally exerts a greater influence on overall satisfaction than does positive attribute performance (Mittal et al., 1998). Furthermore, research has shown that attribute weights do not remain stable but change over time due to modified consumer goals (Mittal et al., 1998). Finally, according to attribution theory (Folkes, 1988), whether or not a guest will be satisfied after exposure to a negative experience could also depend on whether or not the consumer attributes the cause of the negative experience to the service provider.

Overall, and summarizing, it could be argued that three major approaches exist in the current literature aimed at measuring and assessing customer satisfaction; namely, meeting expectations, benchmarking and direct assessment (Zhou et al., 2014). The main problem in relying on these ‘traditional’ approaches is that they require the collection of considerable amounts of data.

The current digital tourist era has changed the travel and tourism market dramatically (Wu and Pearce, 2013), and tourists’ online comments and reviews offer rich research opportunities to understand and assess guest satisfaction in the hospitality industry (Gerdes and Stringam,
Do Negative Experiences of Hospitality Services Lead to Dissatisfaction? 147

According to Zhou et al. (2014), using online reviews to underpin customer satisfaction allows researchers to rely in an easy and inexpensive way on a large amount of information that is already available online and, even more importantly, to overcome the problem of incomplete or inaccurate information that usually occurs when collecting data through more conventional data collection approaches. Further, they allow hospitality managers to assess customer satisfaction without forcing consumers to provide assessments of specific attributes and questions; consumers are, in fact, free to report whatever they want and whatever they judge to be relevant to evaluate and describe their hospitality experience (O’Connor, 2010).

16.3 Methodology

For the purpose of this chapter, 731 online reviews were sourced from Booking.com. A selection was made of 18 hospitality businesses of different sizes and categories located in Taormina, a famous 3s (sea, sun and sand) Italian tourism destination on the island of Sicily.

To reduce any location-related bias, all the hospitality businesses chosen were located at a similar distance from the seaside (less than 1.5 km). Booking.com only accepts hotel reviews from travellers who have made a reservation for that business and paid for it on their website. Therefore, compared with other research (Jeong and Jeon, 2008; Zheng et al., 2009; Sparks and Browning, 2010; Maurer and Schaich, 2011), we were able to reduce/overcome, at least to some extent, the risk of building our analysis on online reviews that were fake and/or posted by competitors.

On Booking.com, users can assess their overall satisfaction with the hospitality services using a 10-point Likert scale applied to a list of six attributes (cleanliness, comfort, location, services, staff and value for money). However, for each review, Booking.com only allows viewers to see the overall assessment, calculated as the average of the ratings that consumers have given for each hospitality attribute. Additionally, people are allowed to post on the site both positive and negative elements of their experience. Each review was read and basic open coding was carried out (Charmaz, 2006), retaining up to five elements for each positive or negative comment.

The cited elements – both positive and negative – were triggered by, or targeted at, specific features internal or external to the business. In particular, for the purpose of this chapter, we aggregated them into 12 post hoc macro-features. The feedback was then coded manually to attribute each cited element (every posted review could emphasize more than one) to a specific feature and then eliminate repetition within the same review.

The features considered were the following:

1. Rating and promises: coherence with the classification rating; coherence with the message delivered.
2. Location and surroundings: position of the hospitality business, view, external milieu.
3. Access and parking: accessibility, signalization, parking.
5. Staff: empathy, competence, responsiveness, attitude and other aspects related to the personnel.
6. Organization: general organization, room assignment, information given to the guests, service opening hours, booking, etc.
7. Room experience: comfort, cleanliness, spaciousness, decor, fitting, equipment, insulation, conditioning, etc. (bathroom excluded).
8. Bathroom: all the features and aspects related to this room.
9. F&B experience: all the features and aspects related to the food and beverages, restaurant, bar (breakfast excluded).
10. Breakfast: all the features and aspects related to this meal.
11. Facilities and services: Wi-Fi, common areas, garden, pool, beach, shuttle bus, etc.

Two of them are worth mentioning because they are subsets of a larger feature (i.e. bathroom of
room experience, breakfast of F&B experience), which have been kept apart because they are often cited as peculiar negative/positive elements, while elements of the corresponding macro-feature are cited conversely, thus outlining them as separate factors.

16.4 Results

Table 16.1 shows the main statistics for the sampled hospitality businesses. A series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) tests was run to determine whether significant differences are to be found in the overall assessment that tourists give based on the size and the category of the business where they stayed.

Quite surprisingly, the business size (number of rooms: $F = 1.753; p > 0.05$) and the business category (number of stars: $F = 0.771; p > 0.05$) – that is, the nominal features of the business – were reported not to exert a significant influence on the overall score, despite the fact that one could reasonably assume that they should be a proxy for the service quality delivered to guests.

Quite reasonably, this seems to suggest that actual guest satisfaction depends more on the real experience of service consumption during the stay rather than on the ‘official’ star rating, with the latter factor being an ineffective proxy for service quality. On the whole, the aforementioned statistics results seem to disconfirm the prior research reporting significant differences in the overall assessment provided to hospitality businesses of different categories (Jeong and Jeon, 2008; Prud’homme and Raymond, 2013).

The Pearson index highlights a tending inverse relation ($r = -0.648$) between the size and the number of reviews per room, which could indicate a more effective customer relationship carried out by small structures; it is, nevertheless, evidence that cannot be generalized and a topic that suggests further investigation. For the purpose of this chapter, the overall scores were then classified into three different classes; namely, ‘low’ (1–5), ‘intermediate’ (5–8) and ‘high’ (8–10). Table 16.2 shows the frequencies of positive and negative features cited in guests’ reviews by score class.

The results seem to highlight that a direct relationship exists between the number of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Number of reviews</th>
<th>Reviews per room</th>
<th>Overall score (scale: 1–10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Median</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>9.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>9.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>9.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>9.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>9.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>9.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>9.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1520</td>
<td>731</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>7.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Do Negative Experiences of Hospitality Services Lead to Dissatisfaction?

Reviews that contain positive sentiment and the overall score; specifically, as the share of reviews with positive sentiment toward attributes increases, the overall score increases as well. Similarly, an indirect relationship exists between the share of reviews with negative sentiment and the overall score; in this case, as the share of reviews with negative sentiment increases, the overall score tends to decrease.

One could also assume that when the reviews are mostly positive, then the overall assessment score should also be positive (i.e. ‘high’) as well (and vice versa). The statistics seem to disconfirm this. About 68% of the guests who assigned a bad score (less than 5) to their experience also commented positively on the hospitality features and attributes. Correspondingly, 41% of the guests who gave an upper overall score (higher than 8) did not point out any negative sentiment toward the hospitality services and facilities.

Further, the eta index value $\eta = 0.409$ (score class as the dependent variable) shows only a medium-to-weak association between the sentiment expressed in the citations and the overall score given to the business. In other words, our findings seem to suggest that the simple presence of positive and/or negative sentiment toward hospitality features cannot be considered a good predictor of the overall score class given to the business.

According to the importance–performance paradigm (Martilla and James, 1977) and prior research on e-complaining behaviour (Del Chiappa and Dall’Aglio, 2012), this could be explained by arguing that the negative sentiment (e.g. e-complaints) is related to hospitality features that the guest does not consider particularly important for his or her final satisfaction.

Table 16.2. Positive and negative feedback: frequency of citations by overall score class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feedback</th>
<th>Overall score class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1–5 ($N = 84$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No features</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only negative features</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both positive and negative</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only positive features</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16.3 shows the frequency of citation – both positive and negative – by hospitality features and score class. A chi-square analysis was carried out to investigate whether the influence that the positive and negative sentiment exerted on the overall score resulted in significant differences based on the specific features to which they referred.

Specifically, when considering positive citations, just three hospitality features were able to discriminate the overall score class; namely, staff ($X^2 = 38.212, p < 0.01$), room experience ($X^2 = 24.513, p < 0.01$) and design, look and feel ($X^2 = 8.009, p < 0.05$).

For all the other hospitality features (e.g. location and surroundings, facilities and services, etc.), the frequency of citation does not differ significantly among the scores; these features are frequently complimented by the guests, even when their overall score is low (i.e. a high level of dissatisfaction with the business experience).

When negative citations are considered, the statistics results highlight that all the features but two (facilities and services, food and beverage experience) are able to discriminate the overall score class. To analyse the extent to which each feature (independent variable) is able to influence the overall score (dependent variable) in greater depth, a series of logistic regressions was then conducted.

For this purpose, the two extreme score classes (i.e. satisfaction/dissatisfaction) were taken into account and the corresponding models were estimated, transforming the overall assessment into a dichotomous variable: high (1 = 8–10; 0 = otherwise); low (1 = 1–5; 0 = otherwise).
Table 16.3. Positive and negative citations by hospitality features and score class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive citations</th>
<th>Overall score class (%)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1–5)</td>
<td>Intermediate (5–8)</td>
<td>High (8–10)</td>
<td>$X^2$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location and surroundings</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>2.222</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>38.212$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Room experience</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>24.513$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities and services</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>0.571</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design, look and feel</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>8.009$^b$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breakfast</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>4.343</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F&amp;B experience</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>4.597</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price–Q/P</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>4.419</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access and parking</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>3.517</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>2.385</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rating and promises</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.886</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathroom</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.689</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative citations</th>
<th>Low (1–5)</th>
<th>Intermediate (5–8)</th>
<th>High (8–10)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Room experience</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>41.806$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>51.432$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breakfast</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>8.494$^b$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access and parking</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>18.384$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities and services</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>1.360</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location and surroundings</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>7.961$^b$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>42.287$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathroom</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>14.096$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design, look and feel</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>22.869$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rating and promises</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>44.640$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price–Q/P</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>14.275$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F&amp;B experience</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>1.259</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: $^a$significant at the 0.01 level; $^b$significant at the 0.05 level. F&B = food and beverages; Q/P = quality-price ratio.

Table 16.4 shows the relationship found between the citation of features (as positive in the high model and as negative in the low model) and guest satisfaction/dissatisfaction. In the high model, the positive outcome (i.e. satisfaction) is basically determined by the absence of negative elements cited (complaints) and by three main features, namely staff, design, look and feel and room experience, with the staff appearing to be much more relevant than the others.

In the low model, dissatisfaction is determined by the concurrence of more than one negative feature mentioned (at least three), unmatched expectations (i.e. rating and promises) appearing a little more frequently than the others.

16.5 Conclusion

This chapter was framed within the wider concerns of assessing guest satisfaction in the hospitality industry. Specifically, it aimed to verify whether or not negative (positive) experiences of hospitality services always lead to dissatisfaction (satisfaction). To achieve this goal, and based on the recent strand of research underlining the usefulness and appropriateness of online reviews as a new vein of data to underpin customer satisfaction (Mauri and Minazzi, 2013; Zhou et al., 2014), this study used 731 online reviews related to a sample of 18 hospitality businesses in Taormina (Sicily) sourced from Booking.com.
First, and interestingly, our findings reveal that no significant differences exist in the way in which guests assess their overall satisfaction with their stay based on the size and category, thus making the role that these characteristics can effectively play as a proxy for the service quality delivered to the market somehow questionable.

This chapter suggests that hospitality managers, in an attempt to manage the satisfaction of their guests effectively and proactively, should focus their analysis more on the sentiment of the textual feedback rather than on the overall score. In fact, this would allow them to underpin the influence that each feature can exert on shaping the guests’ overall assessment (i.e. satisfaction). This study deepened the analysis of the positive and negative sentiment as reported in the comments uploaded online.

According to prior research (Jiang et al., 2010), the results provide evidence that negative (positive) experiences of hospitality services do not always lead to dissatisfaction (satisfaction) and underline the need to consider the extent to which each feature can influence customers’ overall satisfaction. As regards this aspect, our findings reveal that the satisfaction of guests is highly dependent on the absence of complaints related to staff, design, look and feel and room experience, with the staff appearing to be much more relevant than all the others.

Overall, these findings confirm the prior research (Zhou et al., 2014). On the other hand, dissatisfaction predominantly occurs when guests voice complaints regarding ‘rating and promises’; that is, the ability of the business to cope with the expectation that consumers have toward the business because of its star rating and its promotion operations.

These conclusions are relevant both for researchers and for hospitality managers. From a theoretical perspective, the findings challenge the understanding that researchers and practitioners have about what should drive the satisfaction ratings of consumers and provide clear evidence that negative experiences of hospitality services do not necessarily lead to dissatisfaction. Further, they provide support to the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 16.4. The influence of hospitality features on satisfaction.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outcome Features</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rating and promises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location and surroundings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access and parking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design, look and feel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Room experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breakfast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F&amp;B experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Included facilities and services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price–Q/P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No opposite factors cited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of correct classification</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:** *No negative factors cited in the high model; no positive factors cited in the low model. F&B = food and beverages; Q/P = quality–price ratio.*
relatively new and emerging research suggesting that focused reclassification of the data available in online reviews can represent an effective approach to be used to underpin guest satisfaction (Zhou et al., 2014).

On the other hand, our results are pivotal for hospitality managers, who are relying increasingly on e-rating and e-complaints as a performance measure and as a tool to monitor their brand reputation over the Internet. First, these findings will help hospitality managers to direct their limited resources to the features of the business and the services they provide that are able to influence consumer satisfaction significantly, something that occurs especially when staff, design, look and feel, room experience and rating and promises are considered.

Second, as far as ‘rating and promises’ are concerned, our study strongly recommends that hospitality managers should package their services and facilities consistently with their star rating and avoid running promotion operations that can push consumers to have expectations that cannot be fulfilled by the actual quality standard of their services. Finally, according to the importance–performance modelling, our findings suggest that a relatively high number of complaints for a relatively non-significant hospitality feature would not be a priority for hospitality managers (Zainol et al., 2010).

Although this study helps to fill a gap in the existing knowledge in the literature and offers some implications for practitioners, it cannot be considered free of limitations; these limitations need to be acknowledged as they offer interesting suggestions to develop and drive future research. First, our study was based on a single online booking engine and was limited to 18 hospitality businesses in one tourism destination. Therefore, our findings cannot be generalized to other hospitality businesses operating in other destinations.

In the future, it would be interesting to repeat the study in other destinations and with different online travel agencies to see whether or not the findings can be generalized. A further limitation of the study is that it does not investigate whether the socio-demographic characteristics of the travellers (gender, nationality), situational factors (length and period of stay, travel party) and hospitality operational/business indicators (class and size) are able to influence significantly the relations between the different features and the overall score; this issue would also surely merit future research and investigation.

References


17 Structural Equation Modelling – Restaurant Guest Behavioural Intentions

Christopher Beagley,* Stephen G. Atkins and Tonny Tonny
Otago Polytechnic of New Zealand, Dunedin, New Zealand

17.1 Introduction

The overall aim of our research programme is to identify concepts and trends hoteliers might apply profitably in their in-house restaurants (e.g. those mainly servicing tourists and business travellers). Of special interest here have been primely located hotel restaurants, due to otherwise being advantageously proximal to unattached upscale or centre-city restaurants.

This chapter focuses on an early portion of this research programme: identifying potential predictors of favourable customer intentions. The new empirical data herein derives from a research semester hosted by a moderately sized 4-star hotel in southernmost New Zealand (roughly 50 rooms, with a substantial amount of floor space devoted to its restaurant). The notable proximity to the busy cosmopolitan centre of our city offers advantages, but also afflicts this hotel’s restaurant with almost overwhelming competition; for example, the allure of multiple and diverse nearby restaurants typically drawing the hotel’s in-house residents away from their hotel’s own restaurant. This challenge provides an obvious context for our research programme, whereby we test for this hotel’s customers’ behavioral intentions, given such rich alternatives in proximity to their hotel.

17.2 Literature Review

17.2.1 Increased emphasis on food and beverage operations

With an increasing importance being placed on a hotel’s food and beverage operations, there is growing pressure for in-house restaurants not only to provide a place for hotel guests to dine but also to contribute significantly to the establishment’s overall revenue. As per Strate and Rappole (1997, p. 50), ‘over the years hotel restaurants have often been managed as secondary functions of hotels’. However, hotel companies increasingly seek contributions from their restaurants to a hotel’s overall revenue. Generally, the goal of a hotel’s food and beverage operation is to meet the hotel guests’ desires, ‘with attention paid to price, value, quality, service, and atmosphere’ (Rutherford and O’Fallon, 2007, p. 247).

*Corresponding author, e-mail: christopherbeagley@gmail.com
In parallel to the above, food television networks and reality cooking shows have elevated chefs to newfound celebrity status. The rising expectations of guests have then dictated the level of service anticipated, meaning more qualified employees are needed to achieve this degree of service. ‘Food and beverage outlets which stand on their own and have a greater visibility in the local market place are attracting the attention of higher quality restaurant management and culinary staff’ (Boone, 2008, par. 11).

17.2.2 Atmosphere

A restaurant is defined as ‘a place where people can satisfy their hunger and receive appropriate services’ (Ha and Jang, 2012, p. 204). Taking this into account, dining environments create moods and affect customers’ emotions, so atmosphere can be a substantial part of dining experiences (Jang and Namkung, 2009). This affects repeat business and word-of-mouth. Thus, hospitality managers should place critical importance on the way atmosphere might be perceived by guests.

The combination of ‘food, physical environment, and employee services should function as vital components of restaurant experience, informing the perceptions of service quality in the restaurant industry’ (Chow et al., 2007, cited in Ryu et al., 2012, p. 202). Of the three features in that combination, Booms and Bitner (1982) observe that the physical environment does much to shape an establishment’s brand image. Furthermore, they state ‘that the service-scape of a hospitality firm has a significant impact on customer revisit intention and a restaurant’s brand image’ (Booms and Bitner, 1982, p. 39). For that reason, hospitality managers must place critical importance on the way atmosphere is perceived by the guest or consumer.

17.2.3 Customer satisfaction

Recognition of customer satisfaction is another important driver to the success of hotel food and beverage establishments. Satisfaction may be defined as ‘an overall evaluation of performance based on all prior experiences with the firm’ (Skogland and Siguaw, 2004, p. 222). Customers with met expectations (Sim et al., 2006) are less likely to complain. Complaints often convey useful information. Well-handled complaints can turn aggrieved customers into goodwill ambassadors (Heung and Lam, 2003, p. 283). Successfully handling complaints becomes likelier where dimensions of dissatisfaction are anticipated by employees, and thus complaint-defusing employee responses practised and evoked. Towards such ‘dimensional’ understandings, our study examined customer-satisfaction questionnaire items reflecting likely dimensions (e.g. satisfaction with food quality, service quality, etc.).

Sim et al. (2006) then progressed this idea by stating that ‘hospitality’ and the ‘ambience’ of the hotel and its restaurant could be viewed as antecedents of customer satisfaction. Along with this, Link (1989) suggested that revisits by guests to a hotel could be enhanced by improving ambience to meet the needs of the target market segments. Therefore, recognizing the effect tangible and intangible components of the service-scape play in customer satisfaction will determine how successful an establishment will be. Measuring levels of customer satisfaction and what customers expect can be difficult. ‘Customer feedback is available in many forms, and complaints are the most useful and meaningful source of information to improve customer satisfaction’ (Sanes, 1993, p. 78). A lack of opportunity to vent dissatisfaction, and also arguably satisfaction, is unhealthy for a business. It is therefore important that patrons are given the opportunity to voice opinions to a restaurant. This relates to our investigations below of restaurant customer feedback.

17.3 Methodology

The focus of this present chapter is on the factor analysis of a recently published questionnaire targeting restaurant customer satisfaction (Ryu et al., 2012), followed by the application of these factors in predicting the sampled hotel guests’ behavioural intentions. Of interest here is the factor structure seen in our New Zealand sample compared to the structure previously
published by Ryu et al. (2012). Our research programme also includes its comparison to the qualitative data we have collected via interviews of key personnel, and via a focus group of relevant experts (though the latter two being beyond the scope of the present chapter).

This study applied 28 items from the restaurant customer satisfaction questionnaire previously published by Ryu et al. (2012). These questions used a Likert response scale running from ‘strongly disagree’ (= 1) to ‘strongly agree’ (= 7), coupled with open-ended comment fields. Each of the dimensions mentioned above were included in Ryu’s instrument. Its hypothetical factor structure was examined in a New Zealand sample via methods we now describe. Sampled were adult diners (N = 132) at a large hotel in the central business district of New Zealand’s southernmost city.

Diners in our targeted hotel restaurant were sought as informed volunteers for completing the above-described questionnaire. Each diner (in the period from 21 September 2013 to 27 September 2013) was offered a complimentary hot beverage for completing this questionnaire. Full anonymity was maintained. Responses were factor analysed, with distributions compared with interview and focus group outcomes.

17.4 Results

Per above, 132 participants’ responses were factor analysed via SPSS Oblimin components ‘pattern’ matrix. Analysis of eigenvalues suggested a five-component solution. This solution achieves visual ‘simple structure’ with SPSS printer suppression set liberally at 0.44 for component loads (see Table 17.1). The first component was essentially a straight replication of Ryu et al.’s (2012) ‘behavioural intentions’ (BI; see BI items in Table 17.1). Internal to this subset of items, Cronbach’s alpha measure of internal reliability achieves 0.98 (never worse than 0.97 when losing an item). This BI dimension conveys as a future-focused or subsequent outcome and is appropriately analysed below, as an outcome or dependent variable. The second component was a reasonable mix of perceived service quality and perceived physical environs quality (i.e. in our New Zealand sample, the employee neatness/tidiness/cleanliness items moved over, in this component space, to cluster with Ryu et al.’s (2012) four service quality items. This subset of items achieves a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.96 (never worse than 0.94 when losing an item).

The third component in our sample (see the two items loading on Factor 3 in Table 17.1) was made up of the other two physical environs items (atmosphere of decor and background music), these both being completely unconnected to the appearance of the staff or the staff’s efficacies in cleaning or tidying tables (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.822). The fourth component was an essentially perfect replication of Ryu et al.’s (2012) ‘customer’s perceived value’ (... in our sample: Cronbach’s alpha = 0.947, never worse than 0.895 when losing an item). Our fifth component was a near perfect replication of Ryu’s food quality factor, except that Ryu’s item, ‘the restaurant offered fresh food’, did not load significantly on any of our five factors. For this subset of items, Cronbach’s alpha is at 0.936, dropping to 0.920 if losing its most crucial item.

Because this New Zealand sample failed to replicate the Ryu et al. (2012) factor structure perfectly, it was appropriate to advance the analytical methodology from the simple SPSS defaults for exploratory factor analysis and instead compete this new Beagley and Atkins (2014) factor structure directly with the originally hypothesized Ryu et al. (2012) factor structure. This, of course, suggests a need for the additional rigour of AMOS-based confirmatory factor analysis. Subsequently, this also facilitates the rigorous shift to AMOS-based structure equation modelling, whereby the competing measurement model evincing the best fit indices becomes the basis for testing the Ryu components’ varying predictive powers. In this case, of course, is meant the power of these components to predict future traveller behaviour as regards this restaurant.

Factor analysis has long been commonly used by researchers, and both exploratory factor analyses (EFA) and confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) remain popular with scholars and continue to be expanded and updated. These techniques offer a tool to assess latent variables via the empirically evident association of questions into two or more factors or groupings.
Table 17.1. Results of factor analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 6: Behavioural intentions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would consider revisiting this restaurant in the future</td>
<td>0.939</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to come back to this restaurant in the future</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would recommend this restaurant to my friends or others</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would say positive things about this restaurant to others</td>
<td>0.768</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would encourage others to visit this restaurant</td>
<td>0.725</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 5: Customer satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have really enjoyed myself at this restaurant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am very satisfied with my overall experience at this restaurant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, this restaurant puts me in a good mood</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 3: Service quality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees made me feel comfortable in dealing with them</td>
<td>0.991</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees are always willing to help me</td>
<td>0.982</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees provided prompt and quick service</td>
<td>0.946</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees served me food exactly as I ordered</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1: Quality of physical environment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The dining areas are thoroughly clean</td>
<td>0.707</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees are neat and well dressed</td>
<td>0.623</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The background music is pleasing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The restaurant had attractive interior design and decor</td>
<td>0.937</td>
<td>0.607</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 4: Customer perceived value</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The restaurant experience was worth the money</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This restaurant offered good value for the price</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This restaurant provides me great value as compared to others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2: Food quality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The food presentation was visually attractive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The smell of the food was enticing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The restaurant offered a variety of menu items</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The food was nutritious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The food was delicious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.518</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The restaurant offered fresh food</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Extraction method = principal component analysis. Rotation method = oblimin with Kaiser normalization.

This typically yields easier interpretations of constructs associated with thus clustered questions. The EFA often operates as a data-driven aid for ‘theory building’, while CFA is used primarily as a ‘theory tester’. A common procedure in previous studies proceeds with an EFA first and then follows up its findings with a pair or series of competing attempts at CFA. In short, EFA is utilized when the researcher is required to identify unobserved variables and reconstruct their meanings by simplifying the complexity of the observed variables. This can
potentially help generate a new theory. On the other hand, CFA examines whether at least one among competing hypothesized models fits the data sufficiently (DiStefano et al., 2009; Matsunaga, 2010; Schmitt, 2011).

Part of the problem with resting one’s theoretical assertions entirely on EFA is that EFA is afflicted with at least three subjectivities, two of which compound each other. The just mentioned notion of ‘… simplifying the complexity of observed variables’ requires the researcher to seek interpretable simple structure. The latter term refers to the subjective interpretation of factors or subsets of questions that seem to cluster together (i.e. seem to be measuring a set of highly similar perceptions, attitudes, attributes, etc.). This subjectivity is compounded by the researcher’s subjective choice of factor-loading thresholds or so-called printer suppressions. In other words, EFA researchers typically make a subjective judgement about the required magnitude of each question’s weighting or loading on each factor (... these weights or loads are typically akin to correlations, ranging from –1 to +1; i.e. each of these being the correlation between a participant’s responses to the questions and what the EFA software is estimating to be each participant’s score or level on each factor). This latter subjective judgement is often operationalized by the researcher subjectively choosing a printer suppression value for the output’s table of EFA factor loads. That subjective choice yields the many blank cells or lines seen above in Table 17.1. But, it is only via those blank cells or lines that interpretation of the factors becomes possible.

Additional subjectivity is associated with determining how many factors the EFA should seek to make explicit. This is guided by the subjective interpretations of more factors attempting to account for more observed variance in participant responses to the questions. Each additional factor in EFA accounts for a diminishing proportion of this variance (... if interested, the related jargon is about subjectively envisioning eigenvalues as scree at the bottom of a cliff, but this jargon is largely irrelevant to this chapter’s present purposes). What is relevant here in these partially compounded subjectivities is the way these drive our need to engage in the more rigorous algorithms applied in CFA. The latter allows one to pre-specify exactly which questionnaire items reflect which participant perceptions. That, in turn, allows us explicitly to compare the efficacy of the original Ryu et al. (2012) model with that of the Beagley and Atkins (2014) model.

More importantly, in the case of the Beagley and Atkins (2014) findings, stepping the analysis of this hotel restaurant sample up to a more rigorous CFA level facilitates the examination of questionnaire item-to-construct stability. In this instance, we mean when moving all but the outcome (i.e. DV) measures into their more appropriate predictor roles. This is specifically facilitated by examination of the predictor factor-to-item path weights in the AMOS path (structural equation) model. It also allows us to test the relative importance (in our sample) of our competing predictors, at least in terms of Ryu et al. (2012) item clusters.

Structural equation models achieve this by taking a different approach to the assessment of questionnaire item intercorrelations (or item covariance matrices). Theoretically anticipated relationships between questionnaire items and target concepts (or constructs) are pre-specified, yielding greater efficacy in competing alternatives models. Towards this end, to evaluate the theoretical model built from the EFA, the authors constructed two CFA models by using the SPSS AMOS Graphic software’s visual processor. One model replicates the structure from Ryu et al.’s original findings (see Table 17.1, first column above), while another model replicates the Beagley and Atkins structure from the prior EFA (see Table 17.1). A third model then performs as a hotel guest behavioural intentions ‘theory tester’ in this research, via an AMOS structural equation model.

17.4.1 AMOS analyses

Moving beyond (... though still guided by) the above EFA, we present below the analytical outcomes deriving from the application of AMOS algorithms to this New Zealand data set. The presentation of AMOS analyses predominantly proceeds via visual models (i.e. AMOS-annotated flow charts). The symbols used in these models or flow charts are based on international norms or conventions inside the social
and managerial sciences. Rectangles represent measurable items, while circles (or ovals) depict latent constructs, components, or factors inaccessible to direct/explicit measurement. In addition, straight arrows between these symbolize a presumption of unidirectional (or via ‘leap-of-faith’ and good theory, even causal) forces or effects. Finally, double-headed arcs indicate correlations (Byrne, 2013). These visual models (see Figs 17.1–17.3) are typically followed by a results table that presents various fit indices (i.e. commonly used indicators of model fit).

Fig. 17.1. Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) forcing original Ryu et al. (2012) theoretical structure.
In progressing to where we could test predictive (and arguably causal) processes connecting hotel restaurant diners’ perceptions of salient factors (in a restaurant staff’s success) to future/anticipated hotel-guest behaviour, we unavoidably needed to convey interpretations of the initial EFA. So, below, only interpretations of the subsequent analyses are provided, starting with what became an estimation of a simple trivariate regression (or prediction) plane.
17.4.2 Simple linear regression

There are two striking findings among the simple linear trivariate ‘regression plane’ (or prediction plane) results in this New Zealand sample. As one would reasonably anticipate, there are notable intercorrelations among the five factors manifesting here. These factor intercorrelations ranged from 0.33 to 0.706, such that shared variance between these factors ranged from 11% to 49% (mean = 28.7% overlap). Thus, the factor-based subtest scores were insufficiently independent in this sample to justify operating as separate predictors of customers’

Fig. 17.3. Structural model’s flow chart output where DV is guest’s behavioural intentions.
subsequent behavioural intentions. So, instead, their factor scores, which explicitly carry forward these component intercorrelations, were used in a multiple regression to predict subsequent behavioural intentions. As suggested above, the results of this multiple regression are relatively striking.

In the first instance, seeking the conventional type one error risk to be less than 5% (i.e. \( p < 0.05 \)) as fundamental evidence of statistical significance, two of the Ryu factors fall very decisively short of such significance (in the simple regression analysis). As logical predictors of restaurant customer future behavioural intentions (component 1), our sample’s components 4 and 2 (perceived value and perceived service quality) yield \( p \)-value error risks very notably above 5% (here at \( p = 0.39 \) and \( p = 0.41 \), respectively).

In stark contrast are the outcomes for components 3 and 5. These two components yield multiple regression beta weights of 0.40 and 0.52, respectively, with type one error risks less than one in a thousand (\( p < 0.001 \)). The 95% confidence interval for atmosphere is similarly robust (0.24 < B < 0.55) and likewise for food quality (0.38 < B < 0.68), these being standardized prediction coefficients (i.e. maximum value of 1.0).

We convey cautions about ‘reimbursed’ customers below, but still must note here that some stability also evinces in these current findings (e.g. when the multiple regression is repeated after dropping the two non-significant predictors, the significant beta weights roughly maintain at 0.40 and 0.53 ... with adjusted R-square, or ‘variance accounted for’, maintaining above 70% and regression coefficient t-tests significant at \( p < 0.001 \), for both atmosphere and food quality as predictors). We must include a caution that SPSS flipped the valence, which sometimes happens in oblique rotations after dimension reduction. Thus, we recommend a much larger sample size be recruited for research of this nature in future, in the hope of seeing a stable multiple regression outcome with logically interpretable regression weights.

### 17.4.3 Interpretations of the AMOS analyses

In a model where predictors are interrelated, but not sequentially so (at least without doubt), the interpretation of an AMOS flow chart amounts to considering the relative importance of these non-sequential predictors in leading to future behavioural intentions (in our case). There are, of course, numerous considerations associated with the veracity of the questionnaire, the CFA measurement model via AMOS and the multicollinearity potentially afflicting, to greater or lesser degrees, the prediction model. But hopefully these have been dealt with adequately above.

Via Fig. 17.3, one can see that questions associated with hotel guest perceptions of service quality enjoyed sufficient systematic covariance so as to maintain healthy item-to-targeted construct ‘factor loadings’. However, the aggregate variance in this service-quality construct apparently did not covary at all with hotel guest future behavioural intentions. This is consistent with the simple SPSS multiple regression outcome for error risk for this service-quality construct sitting at \( p = 0.41 \) (i.e. well above the conventional requirement for statistical reliability of \( p < 0.05 \)).
Also, while hotel guest perceptions of restaurant atmosphere and restaurant food quality are reasonably consistent across the simple linear regressions and the AMOS structural equation outcomes, the notable strength of perceived value for cost in predicting future behavioural intentions in the AMOS flow chart output is disquieting, and worthy of further research. But a caution to the reader is appropriate here. The AMOS-reported fit indices for this path model are adequate (CFI = 0.901; NFI = 0.860); however, the most popular error measure is poor (RMSEA = 0.124).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model fit indices</th>
<th>CFA from EFA findings (model B)</th>
<th>Recommended threshold</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>&lt;0.7 as good fit 0.8–0.10 as adequate fit &gt;0.10 as poor fit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td>0–1, the closer to 1, the fitter the model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.860</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: CFA = confirmatory factor analyses; EFA = exploratory factor analyses.

17.5 Conclusion

Collectively, the factor analysis results from our sample suggest that the Ryu et al. (2012) instrument is sufficiently robust to justify several attempted replications of our structural equation model (e.g. where future-focused behavioural intentions are predicted by customer perceptions of a current experience). These replications might, in the first instance, focus on several sociocultural host regions; for example, locales largely populated with distinctive extremes in cross-cultural dimensions such as the Triandis (1995) notions of collectivism and egalitarianism or the five primary cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede in 1984 and likely used by thousands of researchers ever since (despite prominently published critiques by McSweeney, 2002, and Ailon, 2008). Also, where restaurants are concerned, it will probably be advisable to add Hofstede’s more recently identified sixth dimension: indulgence versus restraint (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Where tourist behaviour is of interest, it would likely be interesting to examine how these Hofstede dimensions vary across travelling diners, and if they predict which hotel guests might choose to dine in their hotels for meals other than breakfast. This was the original impetus for our research programme, and should be of interest to all hotel restaurants proximal to tourist-attractive retail areas (e.g. proximal to likely clusters of intriguing dinner options competing with such a hotel). In addition to Hofstede-like predictors, there will be other individual difference (e.g. personality) variables offering some predictive power regarding tourist decisions.

Of course, much evidence has surfaced that tourist venues and tourist destinations can, themselves, be thought of as having a ‘personality’ and that factor-structured metrics can be used reliably to assess such (Chen and Phou, 2013; Tanasescu et al., 2013). There has been increasing interest in the effects of perceived self-congruity on tourist decisions (i.e. the effect of a tourist’s personality matching his or her perception of a destination or venue’s personality). Substantial challenges certainly remain here – for example, to most researchers, the five-factor model (FFM or Big 5) dimensions of human personality have achieved the status of universal phenomena. In other words, they have been found to vary meaningfully across cultures, all the while evincing a highly stable five-factor structure (e.g. openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism; see Terracciano et al., 2005; Löckenhoff et al., 2014).

The five-point profiles produced by Big 5 personality questionnaires vary, sometimes quite substantially, across nation state cultures, but in all these cultures, these still provide reasonably comprehensive coverage of human personality with just five aggregate mean scores inside each nation state studied (e.g. several dozen separate, and large, nation state samples prominently published so far). This sits as a challenge to those studying restaurant personalities (… and diner congruity with them). This is because the 4-factor and 5-factor models of venue personality have not yet achieved the universal phenomenon status of human personality. Such models overlap very notably.
with the human Big 5, but some of these personality features are oddly scattered in otherwise similar ‘destination personality’ models. Thus, further research efforts to improve this situation are warranted.

Much of the above is reasonably consistent with prior evidence that personality scores and Hofstede scores can be predictive of a traveler’s tourism choices or customers’ venue choices (Litvin et al., 2004; Ariffin et al., 2008). It is reasonable, then, to expand beyond the Ryu et al. (2012) factors and examine the predictive power of cross-cultural scores and personality congruities, where hotel guest dining choices are of interest.

Beyond the effects of enduring traits varying across hotel guests, future research should also investigate the most dining decision-relevant circumstances varying among hotel guests. It is likely, for instance, that many dining decisions reflect the biases induced by ‘expense accounts’ or reimbursable meals, where value for money might thus be disregarded (… or at least less influential as regards ‘return visits anticipated’). However, even in such a ‘reimbursables’ context, the lack of predictive power for service quality, in our sample, remains somewhat mysterious. Logically, customers might induce that, given excellent food and excellent atmosphere, future visits to the same restaurant might be blessed with waitstaff of better mood, demeanor or deportment. This conceivably might explain the miniscule influence of Ryu’s service quality factor in our New Zealand sample. This miniscule influence was evinced in both our simple linear regression analyses and our AMOS structural equation modelling.

In any case, future research of this nature should collect data revealing the degree to which each table served was, in reality, afforded ‘corporate reimbursable’ status (e.g. one such traveler at the table, all travelers at the table, or none). Presumed here is that the only incentive for completing a relatively long questionnaire was a free cappuccino or latte, such that guests travelling under corporate reimbursement conditions would be far less inclined to volunteer. Thus, the present sample is likelier to be dominated by self-funded customers (… though very likely some of these were tourists but accompanying a spouse, the latter on reimbursed business travel). These distinctions should also be addressed in future research in this arena.

Finally, as was noted above ‘… Ryu’s item ‘the restaurant offered fresh food’ did not load significantly on any of our five factors’ – this is interesting, especially as a tourist behavior construct. Part of what tourists obviously expect are menu options for fresh local foods exotic to them, but cooked or presented via local culinary traditions, and all this occurring in the exotic place they are visiting at some personal cost. For New Zealand, there are two issues here, and these probably both apply in most nations. First, is the matter of fresh produce only consumable within a day or less of harvesting in particular exotic locales. Second is the matter of tourists logically desiring to sample exotic/indigenous culinary or cooking traditions, likewise typically only found in particular exotic locales.

On the first matter (i.e. freshness of exotic ingredients), there is reasonable populist agreement that ‘time from harvest’ correlates positively with nutrient loss and food spoilage, as well as with flavor depletion. Coupled with this, it is common for tourists (or their advisors) to encounter new varieties or species of consumable produce in their travels, and to anticipate that such will be available freshly harvested when they travel to relevant distant locales. So, we feel it is very reasonable that Ryu et al. (2012) included this ‘fresh food’ question. However, more reasonable, especially given our EFA results, might have been a cluster of items around this notion (i.e. for a separate factor).

It is the second matter that makes this more problematic for tourism research. Prior unpublished student research focused on tourist disappointments with their New Zealand travels. This study found that the second largest modal portion of 30 interviewed tourists registered that their main disappointment here was the lack of indigenous Maori food, or even Pasifika-Polynesian food, in our cities or even in our tourist-focused places. Globally, some locales more than others will suffer from obstacles to the provision of indigenous food choices on menus. It is an issue in New Zealand, and largely for sensitive cultural and indigenous spiritual reasons (e.g. some Western cultures only attach religious or spiritual significance to particular feasts; other cultures
might attach these to many or even to all meals, especially where ancient indigenous traditions have been engaged in the menu).

As discussed above, the otherwise impressive Ryu et al. (2012) questionnaire might be improved by an optional cluster of questions connected to this last matter. But, for most researchers, this questionnaire seems to exhibit adequate psychometric properties. By this is meant adequate to justify its frequent ongoing use in analysing post-consumption attitudes potentially predicting tourist behavioural choices. While some of its items did not manifest in our sample as expected, we do not see adequate justification in this moderate New Zealand sample for recommending the omission of these few items. We do, however, recommend that researchers consider the alternative factor structure we found as regards atmosphere, and the likely value in adding some additional items around locally unique (or culturally unique) cuisine and locally unusual produce served fresh. We believe tourists will be especially appreciative of both.

References


A. A. M. Ariffin, A. H. Ahmad and N. K. Ishak
18 Effects of People in Photographs on Potential Visitors’ Evaluations

Masahiro Ogawa,¹ Taketo Naoi* and Shoji Iijima²
¹Tokyo Metropolitan University, Hachioji City, Japan; ²University of the Ryukyus, Nishihara, Japan

18.1 Introduction

Tourists cannot experience their destinations before their departure. Therefore, they typically choose where they will go based on images derived from information (Reich, 1999). Although such information is diverse, past classifications have pointed to four basic types of secondary information for tourists: commercial, public/non-commercial, personal and experiential (Crompton, 1979; Gartner, 1996). Photographs featured in commercial tourism information are the focus of this study, which aims to generate knowledge that is contributory to tourism promotion.

While destination images depicted in tourism information are vital to potential visitors’ destination choice, it is a challenge to communicate the complex characteristics of the destinations, which are usually quite large and include a variety of tangible and intangible elements. Certain elements are usually excluded due to the limited coverage. As tourism is a phenomenon arising from the interaction between people and environments (Walmsley and Jenkins, 1993), and things and places can arguably be regarded as visitor attractions because visitors regard them as such (Pearce, 1991; Nyberg, 1994), the presence of people is necessary for places to be deemed tourism destinations. Nevertheless, people may also be subject to exclusion from images in tourism information. Also, the effects of the presence of people on visitors’ evaluations of tourism destinations have often been debated.

This chapter investigates the effects of the presence of people in photographs on visitors’ evaluations of tourist sites. As explained in the Methodology section, the investigations were carried out in laboratory environments with the use of photographs of tourist sites in Nagasaki City, which is a renowned tourism destination in Japan. This research is expected to generate significant knowledge for tourism promotion and the academic literature on the meanings of tourism destinations as places to attract visitors.

18.2 Literature Review

In the field of environmental psychology, on the one hand, crowding – which is the psychological stress resulting from high population density (Stokols, 1972) – is regarded as a constraint upon desirable tourist experiences (Schreyer and Roggenbuck, 1978; Womble and Studebaker, 1981; West, 1982). On the other hand, crowding is seen as contributory to recreational experiences.

*Corresponding author, e-mail: naoi-taketo@tmu.ac.jp; tnaoi@hotmail.co.jp
Indeed, according to Argyle et al. (1981), crowding contributes to a sense of exhilaration, depending on the situation. For instance, Hull (1990) proposes the term ‘recreational crowding’, which implies that crowding can create a high level of arousal.

Other studies of crowding have pointed to individuals’ desires as variables that may affect the influences of other people on evaluations of places. Ditton et al.’s (1983) survey of recreationists at the Buffalo National River, Arkansas, USA, showed that the respondents enjoyed contact with others when they were motivated to be a part of a group, to have thrills and excitement and to share what they had learned with others. Graham and Burge (1984) also report that people react more negatively to a high concentration of people when they have a desire for solitude than when they have more density tolerance, such as the desire to experience social affiliation.

While many of the above-mentioned studies of crowding have focused on the differences between people in terms of their desires, Urry (1990) paid attention to the nature of places. In his tourism studies, he proposed two types of tourist gazes: romantic and collective. Tourists might direct the former at objects because they appreciate solitude, privacy and a personal, semi-spiritual relationship with the objects. The latter might be directed at objects that require the presence of other people to validate their existence. Hall (1974) also argues that undercrowding at particular places, such as at empty auditoriums, may be annoying and detract from people’s enjoyment.

Some empirical studies have used photographs to investigate visitors’ evaluation of places with relation to the presence of people. Aiko et al.’s (2002) study of visitors’ perceptions of photographs of natural settings revealed that the presence of more people in photographs increased the perception of crowding. As for historical destinations, in Naoi and Iijima’s (2004) slide experiment, the presence of people in the pictures resulted in the subjects perceiving an active atmosphere in most cases and a boorish atmosphere in some cases. Naoi et al.’s (2006 and 2007) studies of historical districts, in which subjects were shown photographs during personal interviews, also showed that the presence of people related to both positive and negative senses of activity and newness – in a sense, it deters unique experiences, and famous, touristic and novel atmospheres.

Overall, the effects of others’ presence on visitors’ evaluations of places are likely to vary according to the situation. However, the studies reviewed so far did not examine the effects of people’s presence in different types of places. This study, using slide experiments, investigates the relationship between visitors’ evaluations of tourist sites and the presence of other people pictured in photographs, based on the type of site. Despite some drawbacks that are explained in the Conclusion section, slide experiments are regarded as advantageous in thorough investigations of evaluations of concrete features of destinations, in that photographs depict environments more accurately than verbal descriptions (Brown et al., 1989; Munson, 1993).

18.3 Methodology

Nagasaki City, Japan, was selected due to its array of tourism resources, including exotic and historical sites, city views and sites related to the atomic bombing (Nagasaki City, 2013). The following eight sites were selected from photographs frequently featured in free tourist brochures issued by the city and Nagasaki Prefecture, and from the list of major sites in which the largest number of respondents identified as places that they either had visited or planned to visit in Nagasaki City, according to the latest visitor survey conducted by Nagasaki City (2013):

1. Memorial to the Martyrdom of the 26 Saints of Japan.
2. Nagasaki Peace Park (commemorating the atomic bombing).
3. Nagasaki Chinatown.
4. Meganebashi (a symbolic arched bridge in the city centre).
5. Inasayama Observatory (offering a view of the city).
6. Oura Tenshudo (a church dedicated to the 26 Christian martyrs).
7. Dejima (the reproduction of a town that existed on the artificial island, open to foreign countries during the national isolation).
8. Glover Garden (preserving historical Western-style houses).
Researchers took 870 photographs at these sites in accordance with the way they appeared in tourist brochures. Accordingly, photographs of the Inasayama Observatory were taken during daytime and night-time, while the other sites were photographed during daytime only. The weather was clear in all the photographs.

Thereafter, the photographs were narrowed down through selection by the researchers and a pilot study in order to identify those that were suitable for the investigation of the effect of the presence of people, minimizing the influences of their number and characteristics. First, the researchers filtered out photographs that included people, such as pupils in school uniforms, whose appearances were regarded as likely to affect subjects' evaluation of the settings. In the subsequent pilot study, four Japanese students (two male, two female) from Tokyo Metropolitan University were asked to rate the remaining 86 photographs, which were projected as slides, on two 5-point semantic differential scales (SDSs) that were designed to measure the perceived number and prominence of the characteristics of the people in each photograph. Photographs whose ratings on both scales were over two but less than four were retained for the subsequent screening.

Last, the researchers selected one photograph with people and another without people for each of the nine settings (the eight sites during daytime and Inasayama Observatory during night-time). The selection was made so that the difference in the photographing times of the two photographs was within 30 min in order to diminish the effects of the weather and sunlight. This criterion was not, however, applied for one setting, Nagasaki Chinatown, where it was not possible to take photographs with people and without people within 30 min, probably due to the nature of the setting as a public commercial space. For this setting, two photographs were chosen in which the differences in weather and sunlight seemed minimal. In all, 18 photographs were selected for the main slide experiments.

For the main slide experiments, 13 opposite word pairs related to active, touristic and harmonious atmospheres were garnered with reference to the aforementioned studies (Aiko et al., 2002; Naoi and Iijima, 2004; Naoi et al., 2009):

- not crowded–crowded;
- not warm–warm;
- inactive–active;
- restless–calm;
- not harmonious–harmonious;
- gloomy–cheerful;
- like daily life–unlike daily life;
- not touristic–touristic;
- for locals–for tourists;
- noisy–quiet;
- ordinary–unique;
- artificial–natural; and
- minor attraction–major attraction.

Two more word pairs, 'I would not–would like to visit the site' (intention to visit the site) and ‘unfavourable–favourable’ (overall impression of the site), were added to measure subjects’ overall evaluations of the photographed sites. Fourteen SDSs were designed such that the scale points rose from the left word to the right.

Forty-six Japanese students (30 male, 16 female) from Tokyo Metropolitan University rated each of the settings in the 18-slide presentation on the 15 SDSs. In past studies that used slide experiments to investigate the evaluations of destinations, the number of subjects, slide photographs and question items per photograph varied considerably. For example, MacKay and Fesenmaier used five 7-point scales for 119 photographs and 65 subjects (1997) and seven 7-point scales for 36 pairs of photographs and 10 subjects (2000). This study is supposed to have imposed a somewhat lighter burden on subjects than the studies by Naoi and Iijima (2004) and Naoi et al. (2009), which used 26 7-point scales for 26 photographs and 51 subjects and 30 5-point scales for 30 photographs and 51 subjects, respectively. All the above-mentioned past studies employed university students as subjects.

The subjects were called for one of the four sessions, which were between 10:30 am and 11:30 am, between 1:00 pm and 2:00 pm on 4 December 2013, and between 1:00 pm and 2:00 pm, or 2:40 pm and 3:40 pm on 5 December 2013, at their convenience. None of the subjects had resided in Nagasaki City before the experiment. Eleven students had visited the city once, while one had visited twice.
Therefore, the subjects were assumed to be not at all or only very distantly familiar with Nagasaki City.

The laboratory was approximately 8.4 m wide and 7 m long. The blinds were pulled down and the lights were turned off during the projection of the slide photographs. The closest distance between the projected slide photograph and a subject was around 2.7 m, while the furthest was about 7 m. The size of each projected slide photograph, except for those of Inasayama Observatory during night-time and Dejima, was about 157 cm wide and 125 cm tall. As it was not possible to take photographs of Inasayama Observatory with no people at all during night-time, a photograph that included a few people at both ends was selected. Then, both ends were trimmed to create the two photographs of Inasayama Observatory (one with people and another without people) during night-time, resulting in two photographs that were about 130 cm wide and 125 cm tall. Trimming was also done for Dejima as, due to the limited range of selectable standing positions for photographing, a toilet sign, which was not included in photographs in tourist brochures, was inevitably included. Thus, the two slide photographs for this setting were 153 cm wide and 125 cm tall. The subjects were seated so that all the slide photographs were shown to them with no interception of their visual field.

First, all the slides were shown for 1 s each in order for the subjects to become familiarized with them. Then, each slide was shown again for 20 s so the participants could assign a rating on the 15 SDSs. MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997) showed photographs for 25 s each, while Naoi and Iijima (2004) and Naoi et al. (2009) showed them for 20 s. Because assigning ratings to each slide photograph in this study was expected to be less burdensome than in the studies of Naoi and his colleagues in light of the number of question items, 20 s per photograph was considered appropriate. The name of the site was shown beside each slide photograph throughout the session. The subjects were required to rate each slide photograph on two 5-point SDSs that asked about the perceived number of people (ranging from 1 = few to 5 = many).

18.4 Results

Before the analyses of the effects of people in the photographs on the subjects’ evaluations, the subjects’ ratings of the number of people in the photographs were analysed in order to check whether there were considerable differences between the photographed settings in terms of the perceived number of people. The mean values of the perceived number of people ranged between 2.33 and 3.30, with standard deviations between 0.76 and 1.11. Thus, despite certain differences, no photographs were perceived to include extremely few visitors (a mean value of under 2) or a large number of visitors (a mean value of over 4).

18.4.1 Overall analysis

The first set of analyses investigated overall relationships between the presence of people, the evaluative dimensions and overall evaluations. Each subject’s evaluation of each setting was treated as a separate case, which meant there were 828 data sets (46 subjects × 18 settings).

Factor analysis (principal factor method, promax rotation) was performed on the SDS ratings, which did not include the two scales for overall evaluations. The analysis generated three factors (see Table 18.1), with each component having an eigenvalue greater than 1.0. The highest factor loadings of all the items were over 0.40, which indicates sufficient loading on a factor (Nunnally, 1978; Hair et al., 1992). When a factor loading shows a positive number, the factor relates positively to the rating closer to the right word in each word pair in Table 18.1. The distinctive items that loaded on the first factor related to senses of activity. They include, for instance, ‘inactive–active’ and ‘noisy–quiet’. This component was, hence, labelled ‘activity’. The items that loaded distinctly on the second factor were associated with touristic senses such as ‘for locals–for tourists’ and ‘not touristic–touristic’; hence, this
Table 18.1. Results of factor analysis of ratings on the 13 SDS (KMO = 0.796).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item (word pair)</th>
<th>Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inactive–active</td>
<td>0.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noisy–quiet</td>
<td>−0.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not crowded–crowded</td>
<td>0.734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gloomy–cheerful</td>
<td>0.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not warm–warm</td>
<td>0.486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For locals–for tourists</td>
<td>0.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not touristic–touristic</td>
<td>0.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor attraction–major attraction</td>
<td>0.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Like daily life–unlike daily life</td>
<td>0.280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary–unique</td>
<td>0.274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artificial–natural</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not harmonious–harmonious</td>
<td>−0.104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restless–calm</td>
<td>−0.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance explained (%)</td>
<td>28.533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accumulative variance explained (%)</td>
<td>28.533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalue</td>
<td>4.088</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

factor was named ‘touristic’. Items that loaded clearly on the third factor were relevant to senses of harmony, such as ‘artificial–natural’ and ‘not harmonious–harmonious’. Hence, this factor was termed ‘harmony’.

Then, independent t-tests were performed to identify any significant differences in the three factors’ scores – between photographs with people and those without. The mean value of the factor score of ‘activity’ for the photographs with people was 0.48, whereas the same mean value for the photographs without people was −0.48, and a significant difference was observed between the mean values ($t(777.731) = 16.122$, $p < 0.01$; Levene’s test: $F = 28.239$, $p < 0.01$). Likewise, there was the significant difference between the mean values of the factor score of ‘touristic’ for the photographs with and without people ($t(785.070) = 5.227$, $p < 0.01$; Levene’s test: $F = 18.398$, $p < 0.01$) with the mean value of 0.20 for the photographs with people and −0.20 for the photographs without people. In summary, the factor scores of ‘activity’ and ‘touristic’ were found to be significantly higher for photographs with people.

Next, stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to investigate the impact of the three factors’ scores on the ratings of intention to visit the sites (‘I would not–would like to visit the site’) and the overall impression of the sites (‘unfavourable–favourable’). This was conducted for each overall evaluation. The results for the overall impression of the sites and intention to visit the sites are shown in Tables 18.2 and 18.3, respectively. The factor scores of ‘activity’ and ‘touristic’ were proportional to the ratings of both the overall evaluations. Multicollinearity (variance inflation factor (VIF) of 2.0 or more) was not observed.

18.4.2 Analysis by setting

The second set of analyses was performed to compare the effects of people in slide photographs on the subjects’ evaluations between settings. Paired t-tests were conducted to determine significant differences in the SDS ratings, except the two scales for overall evaluations, between photographs with and without people, in the same setting. Each subject’s response was treated as a single case, which meant there were 46 data sets.

Due to the limitations of space, the results for all the settings are summarized in Table 18.4. The higher the rating, the closer it is to the right word of the item (word pair). In the table, o means that the mean value of the rating on an item (word pair) for photographs with people was significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) than the same value for photographs without people...
Table 18.2. The results of stepwise multiple regression analysis (dependant variable: overall impression).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Tolerance</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1: Activity</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>2.48a</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2: Touristic</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>9.53b</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3: Harmony</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>13.24b</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: $F(3, 824) = 114.69, p < 0.01; R = 0.54, R^2 = 0.30$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.29$; $B =$ partial regression coefficient; $SE B =$ standard error of partial regression coefficient; $\beta =$ standardized partial regression coefficient; $VIF =$ variance inflation factor; $^a p < 0.05; ^b p < 0.01$.

Table 18.3. The results of stepwise multiple regression analysis (dependant variable: intention to visit the site).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Tolerance</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1: Activity</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>2.48a</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2: Touristic</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>11.95b</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3: Harmony</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>9.12b</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: $F(3, 824) = 127.91, p < 0.01; R = 0.56, R^2 = 0.32$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.32$; $B =$ partial regression coefficient; $SE B =$ standard error of partial regression coefficient; $\beta =$ standardized partial regression coefficient; $VIF =$ variance inflation factor; $^a p < 0.05; ^b p < 0.01$.

Table 18.4. The results of paired t-tests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Memorial to the Martyrdom of the 26 Saints of Japan</th>
<th>Nagasaki Peace Park</th>
<th>Nagasaki Chinatown</th>
<th>Meganebashi</th>
<th>Oura Tenshudo Observatory (daytime)</th>
<th>Inasayama Observatory</th>
<th>Dejima Glover Garden</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not crowded–crowded</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not warm–warm</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inactive–active</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restless–calm</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not harmonious–</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>harmonious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gloomy–cheerful</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Like daily life–unlike</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daily life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not touristic–touristic</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For locals–for tourists</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noisy–quiet</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary–unique</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artificial–natural</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor attraction–</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>major attraction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would not–would</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like to visit the site</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavourable–favourable</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ○ = positive effect; ● = negative effect.
(positive effect), while • indicates the opposite significant tendency (negative effect).

The results showed that the presence of people contributed to higher ratings of both positive and negative senses of activity. The ratings on ‘not crowded–crowded’ and ‘inactive–active’ were significantly higher for photographs with people, in all the settings. Significantly higher ratings were also observed on ‘not warm–warm’ and ‘noisy–quiet’ for photographs with people, in all the settings except the site of the Memorial to the Martyrdom of the 26 Saints of Japan. The subjects rated photographs of Nagasaki Chinatown, Meganebashi, Inasayama Observatory (daytime), Oura Tenshudo, Dejima and Glover Garden with people significantly higher on the ‘not warm–warm’ parameter.

Regarding tourism-based senses, the ratings on ‘not touristic–touristic’ and ‘for locals–for tourists’ were significantly higher for photographs with people at all sites except the Inasayama Observatory (both daytime and night-time) and Oura Tenshudo. The subjects rated photographs with people significantly higher on ‘minor attraction–major attraction’ in the cases of Nagasaki Peace Park, Meganebashi, Inasayama Observatory (daytime), Dejima and Glover Garden.

Regarding overall evaluations, significantly higher ratings on ‘I would not–would like to visit the site’ were observed for photographs with people in Meganebashi and Nagasaki Chinatown. The ratings on ‘unfavourable–favourable’ were significantly higher for photographs with people in Meganebashi, Nagasaki Chinatown and Inasayama Observatory (daytime), whereas the rating on the same scale was significantly lower for the photograph with people at the Inasayama Observatory (night-time).

### 18.5 Conclusion

The results of the overall analysis suggest that senses of ‘activity’, ‘touristic’ and ‘harmony’ may contribute to a more favourable impression of destinations and foster visitors’ intentions to visit there, and that the presence of people may lead to stronger senses of ‘activity’ and ‘touristic’. Therefore, the inclusion of people in photographs may be useful to stimulate favourable impressions of a destination and motivate potential visitors to visit the site – which may point to a positive psychological effect of crowding. However, as the sense of ‘harmony’ was not affected significantly by the presence of people, other factors such as architectural consistency should be investigated in the future.

The analysis by setting implies that the effect of people on viewers’ evaluations may vary depending on the type of setting. While perceived senses of activity may be higher with photographs with people in various settings, this may not be applicable to religious places such as the site of the Memorial to the Martyrdom of the 26 Saints of Japan or memorials such as the Nagasaki Peace Park. Touristic senses may be enhanced by the presence of people, but, again, it depends on the setting.

The overall results point to public spaces such as Nagasaki Chinatown and Meganebashi as places where touristic implications can be strengthened by the presence of people. In such spaces, the presence of people may also contribute to the viewers’ motive for visiting the sites. However, it may have a negative impact on viewers’ impressions of places like the Inasayama Observatory (night-time). These observations suggest spaces that may take on characteristics as those that attract a ‘collective gaze’ and those that attract a ‘romantic gaze’.

Although there are advantages to the thorough investigation of the evaluation of settings, this study inevitably has certain limitations, which are related to the nature of the methods. The first to note is the relatively small number of subjects compared to the number that might be achieved through other approaches, such as questionnaire surveys. The absence of subjects’ experiences of actually visiting the sites is another major drawback. A range of elements, such as the noise caused by other visitors, which may concern perceived touristic and active atmospheres, were excluded from the scope of analyses. These drawbacks spring largely from the nature of the methods, whose implementation requires considerable time for each experiment.

Despite the above limitations, the results here may offer avenues for the investigation of visitors’ decisions to visit places, which could also help tourism managers select elements to be included in visual tourist information. To advance the findings of this study, future studies may focus on the characteristics of people.
Effects of People in Photographs on Potential Visitors' Evaluations

While destinations are quite complex, as discussed earlier, people are also very diverse. Thus, the effects of interaction between places and people on visitors' evaluation would be very interesting but problematic in that the number of combinations of variables is enormous. It is thus important for each study of this kind to focus on the limited aspects of places and people at each time and accumulate the outcomes. While the significance of studies that attempt to draw generalizable conclusions using field settings and a large sample of people who have actually visited the sites are acknowledged, studies of this kind are also believed to contribute to our understanding of the relationship between visitors and places, and thus broaden the prospects of tourism.

Acknowledgement

We greatly appreciate the cooperation extended by the Municipal Office, Nagasaki.

References


Crompton, J.L. (1979) An assessment of the image of Mexico as a vacation destination and the influence of geographical location upon that image. *Journal of Travel Research* 18(Fall), 18–23.


Index

accessibility 75
accommodation 85–94, 108, 125
acculturation 135
activities 85, 92, 108
Addio Pizzo 34
Advances in Tourism Marketing Conference (ATMC) 2
adventure 47
advertising 20–22
affective models 146
age 10–13, 11, 17, 76, 80, 85
and online booking study 66, 69–70
and package tours 78–79
push–pull factors 85–94
agents 12
advantages 67–68
commission costs 67–69
and online booking impact study 64–71
agreeableness 99–103
alternative tours 120–122
altruism 60–61
AMOS-based analyses 157–164
analyses of variance (ANOVA) 86, 107, 129, 148
anthropology 1
Arab Spring 97
art 9
atmosphere 5
restaurant 155–156
attitudes 40
cognitive and affective (positive/negative) 108–112
social 40–41
attractions 9, 13
factors 47, 52

and push–pull model 46–54
types and guided tours 117–118
attribution models 146
Australia 116
Austrian National Guest Survey 100
authenticity 59–60, 118, 122
average variance extracted (AVE) 127

Bartlett’s sphericity test 67
big-group tours 119–121
binary logistic regression 100
Booking.com 145
hospitality services study 145–152
Budabike (BB) 119
Budapest 118
guided tours study 118–122
BUPAP (BU) 120
bus tours 119–120

Camorra (Campania) 26
camping 79
Canada 52–53
Economic Planning Group 117
Minister’s Roundtable on Parks 116
cancellations 4

Crisis scenarios 99, 100–101
drivers’ study 97–103, 99
international travel experience 98–103
literature review 97–99
online research 99–100
and personality 98–103
refund offer 99
results 100–103
risk-taking 98–103
Catalonia
  trip diaries study 46–55
children 108
  see also family
China 11
  expenditure survey 126–131
city trips 79
Cityrama (CI) 119
cleanliness 9
clubbing 79
coding via content analysis 137
collectivism 107
comfort levels 14
comma-separated values (CSV) 51
companions 10, 13, 20–22, 78–79
  travel-party composition 98–103
competitiveness 2, 74
complaints 145, 150–152
  and online reviews study 145–152
computer-aided text analysis (CATA) 51
conference initiatives 2
confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) 126–129, 157–164
conscientiousness 98–103
constraints 37–39
  holiday choices 85–92, 89–90
  leisure participation 37–39
  travel 16–23
consumption
  experience 4–5
  seafood study 106–114
convergence–divergence debates 84
Cosa Nostra (Sicily) 26, 33
Costa Rica
  volunteer tourism study (Puerto Viejo) 134–144
costs 8, 13, 20–22, 102
  daily expenditure study 124–131
  fuel 20
  price deals 85–94
  see also economics
crime 3
  associations 26–27, 30–34
  effects 33–34
  fear of 27–28, 97–103
  focus group examples 30, 31–32
  group discussion guide 28–30, 29
  information sources 33
  literature review 27–28
  national culture comparison 28, 28
  organized, perceived image study 26–36
  southern Italy perceptions 27, 30, 31
  and stock of knowledge 27, 33–34
  worldwide destinations affected 34
crisis scenarios 98–103, 100–101
Cronbach’s alpha 67
cross-cultural behaviour 9–10
  friendships 134–143
crowding 22
  factor analysis (SDS) 171–172, 172
  literature review 168–169
  Nagasaki sites selection 169–171
  people in photographs effects study 168–175
  setting analysis (multiple regression) 172–174, 173
  tourist gaze types 169
  word pairs 170–172
CSI (TV series) 33
CTK (2011) 64
Cultural Cluster Distance Index 9
cultural distance (CD) study 8–15
  age/gender 10–11, 11
  definition of culture 9
  destination choice impact 9
  first-time visitors 12, 12
  literature review 8–10
  markets 10, 10
  measure 9–10
  methodology and data 10
  perceived rating 9
  results 10–13
  spending patterns 12–13, 13
  tourism activities impact 9
  trip characteristics 11–13, 12
  visitor profile 8
Cultural Distance Index (Kogut and Singh) 9
Cultural Diversity Index (Jackson) 9
culture 9, 18, 40–41, 86–94, 110, 126
  activities 52–53
  consonance 21
  definition 9
  food 30, 34, 110
  importance 78–79
  influence 17
  national 9
  and online booking behaviours 69
  shock 9
curriculum 2
Czech Republic
  hotel disintermediation study 64–71
decision-making 3–4, 107–108
  cognitive and affective attitudes 108–110
  family 107–108
  influences 4, 78
  processes 4
  responsibility 79
  travel 107
demonstration effect 135
destination
  images 47, 51
  negative/positive 47
  and trip diaries study 46–54
marketing 2–3, 69–71, 74, 168–175
  size/composition/homogeneity 4
Index

weddings motivations 58–62
destination choice mapping and set theory study 74–82 index and indicators 75
detachment 107
disaggregation 84
disasters 97–103
Discover Budapest (DIS) 119
discrimination 37–40, 44
disintermediation 4
and Generation Y 64–71
literature review 65–66
questionnaire 66
results and factor analysis 66–69, 68
sample socio-demographic profile 65–66, 67, 70
tavel type and online booking 69
and UGC study (Czech Republic) 64–71
dissatisfaction
negative experiences study 145–154
distance decay theory 8, 12
factors 8, 75
dress 9
drugs 27
cartels 34
earthquake 97–103
Ebola epidemic (2014) 97
Eco Farm 137
Eco Tour 137
economics 1–4
and destination weddings 56–62
and financial crises 97–103
education 1, 4, 18–21, 51, 76, 85, 124
enhancement 79, 85–94, 120, 126–131
and online booking behaviours 66, 69–70
electronic word of mouth (eWOM) 145
emotional solidarity 138–140, 143
employment 1
entertainment 12, 47
environment 4
equity models 146
escape 47, 85–94, 126–131
escorted (guided) tours 9, 12–13, 115–122
ethics 14
of care 21, 40
ethnicity 17
etiquette 9
Eurama (EU) 119–120
European Golf Association (EGA) 38
European Travel Commission (ETC) 116
event management 56
see also wedding tourism
excitement 86–94
expatriates 14
expectancy–disconfirmation paradigm 146
expenditure study 124–133
confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) 126–129, 128
final model ANOVA 129
literature review 124–126
motivation factors 127
regression model summary 128–129, 129–130
respondent profiles 127
results 126–131
survey design 126
variables 124–125
experiences 5, 47, 78, 85
exciting 126–131
guided tours 115–122
international travel 98–103
levels 86–93
loyalty 5
negative/positive 5, 145–152
recommendation 5
repeat visit 5, 85
see also satisfaction levels
experiential tourist 4
exploratory factor analysis (EFA) 67–68, 68, 157–161
exploring 85–94
extended case study (ECM) method 38–43
genetic explanations 39–40
extraversion 99–103
Facebook 64
facilitators 37–43, 42
ethics of care 40
friendship group 40–42
holiday choices 85–92
motivation 40–42
personality 40
self-esteem/competitiveness 40
facilities 85–94
Fairchild Bridal Group 56
familiarity 77–78, 82, 92
family 48, 85–94
decision-making 107–108
household size 125
impact 106
responsibility 17–22
visits 79
film-induced tourism 60
five-factor model (Big Five) 164–165
floating bus tours 119–120
food 9, 14, 30, 34, 125–126
cognitive and affective attitudes 108–112
conceptual model variables and propositions 111–112, 111
and culture 30, 34, 110
five-factor model 109–110
impulse buying 108–109
literature review 106–111
local and tourist consumption study 106–114
food (continued)
purchases 4, 12
quality 4
foot-and-mouth disease 97
Free Budapest Tours (FRE) 9
gender 3–4, 10, 13, 17, 80, 85–94
influence on travel decisions 111, 125
norms 21
and online booking behaviours 66, 69
and propriety 19
Generation Y 4, 64–71
definition 65–66
Gentlemen Golfers of Leith 37
Godfather, The 33
golf
accommodating 3, 39–44, 41
cases 41–43
coaching 42–43
constraints/facilitators paradigm
(3D factors) 37, 39, 42
discrimination 37–40, 44
handicap system 37, 42
inhibitors 40–44
literature review 38–39
methodology 39–40
negotiating strategies 3, 37–46
Portuguese women study 3, 37–46
Rules (1744) 37
unapologetic 3, 39–44, 42
unaware 3, 39–44, 43
group size 124–125
guided (escorted) tours 9, 12–13, 115–123
alternative 120
big-group providers 119–120
consumption trends study 115–122
as destination experience mediators 117
discussion 120–122
experience creation 117–118
interview and observation technique 118
literature review 116–118
main features and value propositions 121, 121
motivations 116
small-group providers 119

health 48, 51
hierarchical constraints model (HCM) 16
hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) 107
hierarchies 40, 43
hijab 18–21
history 126
holiday choice study 84–96
constraining/facilitating factors 86–92, 89–90
literature review 84–85
motivations 86–92
personal and trip characteristics effects 84–94, 87–88
push–pull factors 85–94
significance values analysis 91
structured questionnaire 85–86
honeymoons 56–62
see also wedding tourism
Hong Kong 3
cultural distance study 8–14
Tourism Board 8–10
hop-on hop-off tours (HoHo) 119–121
hospitality 2, 30–31, 86–94, 156
category and size 148, 148
considered features 147–152
dissatisfaction study 145–152
literature review 146–147
negative/positive experiences 5, 145–152, 149–150
online reviews and impacts 147–152
results 148–150
and UGC 145–152
Hosszulepes (HL) 120
hotels 12
bookings and internet 65–71
choice 4
costs 13, 20
HTML pages 47–51
HTTrack Website Copier 48
hyperlinks 48
ideology 17
Imagine Budapest (IG) 120
importance–performance modelling 152
impulse buying 108–109
income 66, 124–125
and online booking behaviours 69–70
India 116
campaign video 116
Indonesia 110
and local food consumption study 106–112
influential factors 2–3
constraints 3, 16–23
crime 3, 26–36
cultural 3, 86–94
distance 3, 8–14
economic 1–4
generation transitions 3, 64–71
media 3, 64
snobbishness/social privilege 3, 17
social 3, 85, 126–131
see also culture
information and communication technologies (ICT) 64
inhibitors 40–44
interchangeability 76
Interdisciplinary Tourism Research Conference 2
International Journalism Observatory 56
Internet
usage and impact study 64–71
Internet World Stats (2014) 64
intimacy 9, 59–60

Iran
    women's travel constraints 3, 16–23

Iranian National Portal of Statistics (INPS) 18

Ireland 52

Islam 18

Israel 53

Italy
    cities 30, 33
    food and culture 30, 34
    hospitality 30–31
    issues 30
    mafia 30–33
    and organized crime perceptions 3, 26–35
    perceptions of south 27, 30, 31
    scenery and climate 30, 34
    see also Sicily
itinerary 10

Japan
    crowding/photographs study (Nagasaki) 168–176
    JFC (wedding tourism) 56
    Journal of Consumer Research 1
    Journal of Economic Psychology 1

Kaiser-Myer-Olkin (KMO) index 67

landscapes 47

language 9, 14
    classes 137
    detection (trip diaries) 50
    distance index 9
Language Detection Library (LDL) 50

leisure constraints (3D factors) 16, 37–44, 42
    interpersonal 16, 22, 39–42
    intrapersonal 16, 22, 39–42
    structural 16, 22, 39–42
    theme codebook 40–41
    and women's golf 39–42
    see also travel constraints

leisure gap 17

living standard 9

loneliness 107

long-haul 8–14

mafia 30–33

marital status 4, 85

marketing strategies 3, 110–111
    branding 3
    and communication 74
    product development 3
    segmentation 3

Mexico 34

Microsoft Expression Web 50

migration 1

modesty 18

motivations 3–5, 8, 48–52, 69, 76–78, 98
    effects on daily expenditure
        study 124–131
    escape 4, 47–48
    factors 127
    guided tours 116
    and holiday choices 86–92
    need concept 3
    prestige/social status 4, 17
    purchase expectations 3
    and reasons 19
    relationships 4
    self-development 4
    wedding tourism 56–63
    see also satisfaction levels

multi-destination 8, 11–13

music 9

Nagasaki
    sites selection 169–171
    Naive Bayes classifier 50
    nationalities 52
        and travel blogging 52–53
    nature 52, 79, 85–94, 126
    Ndrangheta (Calabria) 26
    negative/positive experiences 5, 145–152
    Netherlands 52–53
    neuroticism 98–103
    new tourism 4, 116–121
    New Zealand 155
        restaurant guest study 155–166
    Northern Ireland 116
    novelty 85, 92, 126–131

occupation 4

old tourism 4, 116–121

online travel agencies (OTAs) 145

online travel reviews (OTRs) 3, 46–54
    dissatisfaction study 145–152
    features 147
    most common mistakes
        (MCMs) 50
        see also trips, diaries
    openness 99–103

ordinary least squares (OLS) 107

pace of life 9, 14

package tours 9, 12, 78–79

pandemics 97–103

party composition 4, 98–103

partying 20

personality 4, 98–103

Big Five Inventory 99–103

photographs 5
    crowding study effects 168–176
planning 65

political instability 97–103
Index

Portugal
  North 125
  women’s golf study 37–44
Portuguese Golf Federation (FPG) 38, 42
positive/negative experiences 5, 145–152
prestige 4, 17, 92, 126–131
product/brand category 1
Program Centrum (PC) 119–121
prostitution 27
psychology 1–2
push–pull model 46–54, 125–126
factors 47, 85–94
  and holiday choices study 85–94
Qur’an 22
recycling 5
relationships 9, 86–94, 127–131
  male–female 9, 14
religion 9, 14
  influence 18–23
  pilgrimages 51
restaurants 155–167
  atmosphere 155–156
  customer satisfaction 156
  factors 155–157, 163–166
  food and drink operations emphasis 155–156
  guest intentions study 155–166
questionnaire and incentive 156–157,
  165–166
results (CFA/EFA/AMOS) 157–164, 158,
  160–162, 163–164
simple linear regression 162–163
risk-taking 4, 8, 65
  and reduction 12
  scale and domains 99–103
  and trip cancellation drivers 97–103
rituals 9
RiverRise (RR) 119–120
Sacra Cornoa Unita (Apulia) 26
safety 23, 75, 79, 97–103
sanitary practices 9, 14
satisfaction levels 3–5, 10, 13, 22, 47, 52–54
  considered features 147
  major approaches 146
  online reviews study 145–152
  restaurant guest study 155–166
wedding tourism 60
scenery 85
seafood consumption study 106–114
security 116
segmentation 84
self-actualization 85
self-enhancement 85, 126–131
self-fulfilment 17
service quality 20–23
set theory
  action 75–76, 80
  cluster analysis 75–82
  indicators 75
  initial consideration 75–77, 80–81
  literature review and models 74–75
  mapping destination choices study 74–83
  questionnaire 75
  relevant 75–81
  set composition 76–80, 77, 78, 80
  set homogeneity 80–81, 81
  set size 76
  unavailable consideration 75–77, 80–81
shopping 9, 12–14, 48, 51, 92
short-haul 8–13
Sicily 147
  and Cosa Nostra 26, 33
Taormina hospitality reviews 147–152
sightseeing 86–94
  as destination experience mediators 117
  guided 115–122
  tours 4, 9, 12
Simpsons, The 33
site evaluations 5
small-group tours 119–121
snobbishness 3
social economic status (SES) 21
social media 64
social status 85, 126–131
  privilege 3, 17
  and wedding tourism 56–62
socio-demographics 76–79
  sample profiles 65–66, 67, 70
socio-psychological variables 107
sociology 1
solidarity 135
  emotional 135, 138–140, 143
Spain
  Catalonia 46–55
spending 4, 10–13
sport 52–53, 79
  biking 79
  hiking 79
SPSS Oblimin components 157, 163
  AMOS Graphic software 159
status 58–62, 124
stimulus 78
stock of knowledge 3
strategies 37–46
  accommodating 39–44, 41
  ritual-based negotiation 37–44
  unapologetic 39–44, 42
  unaware 39–44, 43
stress avoidance 59–60
structural coding 30
  gendered 39
structural equation modelling
  restaurant guest study 155–166
sun, sea and sand (3S) 47, 52–53, 76–79, 85
sustainability 2, 137
lifestyles 137
Sustainable Education and Living Center (SELC) 137
Taiwan 127–131
Taormina (Sicily) 147
online reviews study 147–152
terrorism 97–103
themed tours 120–122
time availability 8, 19–22, 85–94
and investment 11
tourism
intensity 75
intermediaries 64
choices 78
Tourism Intelligence International 57
tourist behaviour 2–4
decision-making 3–4
influential factors 2–3
motivation 3–5
patterns 3
type 85–94
tours
alternative 120–122
big-group 119–121
bus 119–120
floating 119–120
Eco 137
guided (escorted) 9, 12–13, 115–123
guides 119–121
hop-on hop-off (HoHo) 119–121
package 9, 12, 78–79
sightseeing 4, 9, 12
small-group 119–121
themed 120–122
traditions 9, 40, 43
traffic congestion 20–22
transport mode 108, 124
travel
blog 3, 46–54
see also trips, diaries
planners 17
purpose 124–125
tourism
results 19–21
service quality 20–23
time 19–22
TravelPod.com (TP) 48–49
TripAdvisor.com (TA) 48–49, 135
trips
characteristics 4, 8–13, 69, 76, 125
arrangements 10
cancellation drivers 97–103
companions 10, 13, 20–22
frequency of visit/first-time 10, 12, 13–14, 85
holiday choice effects study 84–96
length of stay/location 4, 10–12, 85–94, 124–126
tourist types 85–94
diaries 46–55
case study 47–48
content analysis 50–51
data arrangement 49
data cleaning and debugging 48–49
data collection and download 48–49
data mining 47–49
data source selection and rankings 48
destination attributes 53, 53
language detection 50
literature review 47
pull factor characteristics study 47–54
results 51–53
unique words 52, 52
value and validity 54
and websites 48–50
Turkey
holiday choices study 84–94
Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)
(Hofstede) 8–10, 14
computation basis 9, 14
Dimension 10
five constructs 9–10
Unique Hungary (UQ) 120
United Kingdom (UK) 52–53
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)
World Heritage List 52–53
United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNTWO) 50–51, 64
United States (US) 52–53
urban environment 52–53
user-generated content (UGC) 46–47
dissatisfaction and negative experiences study 145–152
and hotel disintermediation study 64–71
value creation 119
values 9, 14, 17
social 44
Index

victimization 42
VirtualTourist.com (VT) 48
Visitor Profile Report (Hong Kong, 2010) 8–10
  Vacation Overnight Visitors 8–10
volunteer tourism 5, 134–144
  definition 138
  discussion 137–142
  fieldwork 135–137
  identity 137–138, 137
  limitations 138–139
  literature review 134–135
  locations 135, 136
  perceptions of Puerto Viejo 139–143, 139
  relationships with locals 138–143, 141
  and sense of belonging 138

wedding tourism
  experience requirements 58–61

flow 57
  key factors 57–58
  literature review 57–58
  motivations 3, 56–63
  study methodology and results 58–60
  value dimensions 58
Wildlife Conservation Center (Costa Rica) 135, 142
women
  golfing strategies 3, 37–44
  and hotel bookings 65, 70
  Iranian
    travel constraints 3, 16–23
    and leisure 17–18
work 17
World Conference for Graduate Research in
  Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure 2
Zhiwaar (tour company) 22
TOURIST BEHAVIOUR
AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Edited by Metin Kozak and Nazmi Kozak

Consumer research is often central to academic studies in many different fields, and more recently, tourism studies have empirically examined consumer research from various aspects. However, there is a need to provide information for tourism scholars on how to better understand aspects of tourist behaviour.

Tourist Behaviour: An International Perspective provides a collection of topics from both theoretical and practical approaches to building and examining the theory of how consumers think and act within the context of tourism consumption. Divided into six sections, the book presents research within the themes of influence, motivation, choice, and consumption and experience.

With contributions from authors in over 15 countries, the book presents an interdisciplinary approach of the latest research in tourist behaviour.

Key Features:
• The most recent global research on this topic.
• An interdisciplinary approach.
• Contributors from 15 different countries.

CABI improves people’s lives worldwide by providing information and applying scientific expertise to solve problems in agriculture and the environment.

For more information visit us at www.cabi.org

Space for bar code with ISBN included