

A grammar of motives for understanding individual tourist behaviour.

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PART C: THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ARTICLES

List of Articles:

I

Country as Destination – Norwegian Tourists’ Motivation and Perception (2005)
Prebensen, N.K. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 12(3): 63-85.

II

Determining Sun-Seekers and Others – Travel Motives, Holiday Type, and Holiday Behavior among Norwegian Charter Tourists (2006) Prebensen, N.K. and J. Kleiven. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 14(2): 75-97.

III

The Evaluation of Norwegians’ Trip Satisfaction toward Southern European Destinations (2004) Prebensen, N.K. *Advances in Hospitality and Leisure*, 1: 135-155.

IV

Segmenting Group Tourists Heading for Warmer Weather: A Norwegian Example (2006) Prebensen, N.K. *Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 19(4): 27-40.

V

Stability in Outbound Travel Motivation – A Norwegian Example (2005)
Prebensen, N.K. and J. Kleiven. *Tourism Analysis*, 10: 233-245.

VI

“I am not a Typical Tourist” – German Tourists’ Self-perception, Activities and Motivations. (2003) Prebensen, N.K., S. Larsen, and B. Abelsen. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41: 416-420.

OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

The present thesis is about tourist motivation and choice of destination and activities. The idea is to examine how, and to what degree, motivation relates to travel behaviour and subsequent tourist satisfaction, as such the thesis focuses on the process of tourist buying behaviour.

As the title of the thesis indicates, tourist motivation is the main issue. Burke (1969) introduces a grammar of five key terms “act, agent, agency, scene, and attitude” through which one can explain the motivation symbolic action, and further stresses the appropriate relationships among the elements.

The thesis is divided into three parts. In Part A, the introduction discusses tourist motivation and its consequences and antecedents. The perspective of the thesis is described, and finally, the research outlined. In part B, the main findings and contribution of the thesis are highlighted. In part C, a collection of six published papers is presented.

PART A

PART A: INTRODUCTION

1. Background and Purpose of the Research

The purpose of the present thesis is to examine motivations that influence tourist choice of destination and activities. Understanding why tourists choose certain destinations and activities is of crucial importance to travel companies, organisations serving tourists and countries that are trying to attract tourists to visit their destinations and benefit from tourists selecting what they have to offer.

Tourism is considered vital to the world economy. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) claims that in 2005, the global travel and tourism industry generated US\$ 6.2 billion, a value of economic production (GDP) of 10.6 %, which comprises 2.1 % of employment directly related to tourism worldwide (WTTC, 2006). In addition, the benefits of tourism have been understood to also include the consumers of tourism. Tourists are able to visit and benefit from various forms of touring experience at a variety of holiday destinations. Tourism researchers have attempted to define the concept of tourism and leisure. Argyle (1996: 4), for instance, defines leisure as: "...a general category of behaviour which has certain common themes – the enjoyment of freely chosen activities carried out for no material gain". Similarly, Beard and Ragheb (1983) define leisure activities as non-work pursuits where the individual is under no obligation to participate. The tourist, then, moves freely, but is only temporarily distanced from home. The definition of tourism proposed by the World Tourism Organisation and the United Nations Statistical Commission (1994) is presented in the table below:

- Tourism arises out of a movement of people to, and their stay in, various places, or destinations.
- There are two elements in tourism – the journey to the destination and the stay (including activities) at the destination.
- The journey and stay take place outside the usual environment or normal place of residence and work so that tourism gives rise to activities that are distinct from the resident and working populations of the places through which they travel and stay.
- The movement to destinations is temporary and short term in character – the intention is to return within a few days, weeks or months.
- Destinations are visited for purposes other than taking up permanent residence or employment in the places visited.

Table 1: Definition of tourism (WTO and UNSTAT, 1994)

As the definition of tourism indicates, in contrast to traditional exports of products, the customer, “the tourist”, is transported to the product, “...a place where he or she is staying for a limited number of days”. In addition to the transportation part of the concept, the accommodation, places to eat, attractions visited and all other types of activities joined while staying there – the place termed “destination” – are central parts of the total holiday that the consumer buys, product by product or as a package, which more or less influence his/her felt satisfaction.

What motivates all these people to travel? And in what do these motivations result in terms of consumption and subsequent evaluations? Tourists in general travel for either leisure or business purposes, or sometimes both. Tourists travelling for leisure purposes might do so for numerous of motives, such as to relax (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Beard and Ragheb, 1983; Gitelson and Kerstetter, 1990; Kleiven, 1998; 1998b; Lee, O’Leary, Lee and Morrison, 2002), to learn (e.g. Beard and Raghet, 1983; Cha, McGleary and Uysal, 1995; Kleiven, 1998; 1998b), to be social (e.g. Beard and Ragheb, 1983; Crandall, 1980; Gitelson and Kerstetter, 1990; Kleiven, 1998; 1998b), or for other reasons. Motivation is defined in terms of choosing an activity or task in which to engage, establishing the level of effort to put into it, and determining the degree of persistence over time (Campbell and Pritchard, 1976; Kanfer, 1990). This goal-oriented focus indicates a cognitive approach to travel motivation. Examples of cognitive processes are awareness, interpretation, thinking and remembering (Bettman,

Johnson and Payne, 1990). Behaviour is thus driven by needs or motives and governed by cognitive processes and dispositions. In addition to considering consumption goals as end-states, they are also described to include experiences, sequences of interrelated happenings and ongoing processes (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 1999). Bagozzi and Dholakia (1999: 19) exemplify by employing a holiday context: a person's holiday goal might not only include "...location and time period, but rather might reside in anticipated educational, recreational, and interpersonal experiences". They also emphasise that a holiday can be open-ended (not close-ended). Following this way of thinking, Holt (1995) presents a typology of consumption practices based on two basic elements: the structure of the action (objects and people) and the purpose of the action (consumers' actions are both ends in themselves and means to some further ends). Holt (1995) thus focuses not only on the end-goals (purpose), but also on the consumer actions directed towards the consumption object as well as the interpersonal dimension of consuming. People then go on holiday for many reasons and they participate in the "production" of the holiday in various ways.

In consumer behaviour literature (e.g. Oliver 1997), the individual buying process is described in terms of problem recognition (motivation), choice of product or services, satisfaction and consequences of satisfaction (e.g. intention to re-buy a product and/or to recommend the product to others). Once an individual has the right motivation to travel, the type of holiday and destination is often decided based on his/her perception or value of the various options in the marketplace. Sometimes the choice of destination is influenced by activities offered at the destination. After the choice of destination has been made, the tourist will demand various products and services. The tourist might feel uncertain when deciding and choosing amongst various alternatives, which is especially true if the consumer is involved in the process (Houston and Rothschild, 1978; Oliver 1997; Svenson, 2005). This is most likely the case regarding tourist products, since they involve a relatively large cost, are time-consuming and include the potential for positive experiences. Tourist activities are considered important amongst researchers in order to recognise the relationship between the tourist's motives and choice of destination (Moscardo et al., 1995) and motivation and satisfaction (e.g. Crandall, 1980; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981). By building on the thought that individual buying behaviour can be seen as a step-wise process, the present thesis addresses some of the assumptions upon which this delineation builds, e.g. relationships between the constructs in the process and the decision-maker's degree of involvement in the decision process based on his/her interest in the decision problem.

In order to meet the different demands from tourists, the tourism industry and other types of industries, including numerous sectors, e.g. accommodation, transport, distribution, attractions, tour operations and/or marketing organisations, offer numerous products to the tourist. The presence of all these sectors raises the question of whether or not tourism is actually too diverse to justify separate conceptualisation. Still, the consumer – the tourist – buys the various products separately or as a package that includes the above-mentioned sectors. In order to understand tourist behaviour, scholars have adopted a wide range of approaches (e.g. Jafari and Ritchie, 1981; Leiper, 1990; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1990). Leiper (1990), for instance, highlights important tourist issues by focusing on tourist choice, i.e. the consumer's selection of destinations and activities.

Due to an increasingly competitive travel market environment, industry professionals and market researchers are eager to study the variations and similarities of tourist motivation and behaviour (e.g. Chhetri, Arrowsmith and Jackson, 2003; Gitelson and Kerstetter, 1990; Pizam, Neuman and Reichel, 1979). The idea is often to acknowledge why tourists visit certain destinations and what types of activities they pursue while staying there, in order to meet the needs of the tourists in a satisfactory way. Tourist companies and destination organisations could apply the findings from these studies to adjust and develop products at the destinations in line with the tourist needs and perform more goal-directed promotion towards the customers. One central theory within consumer behaviour pictures the consumer choosing products that he or she expects will best fulfil his or her needs (e.g. Oliver 1997). In line with these assumptions, the holidayers then choose places to visit and pursue activities there as a response to their felt needs and motives. They also expect the choices to turn out satisfactorily. A satisfied tourist is expected to be more likely to choose to visit the same destination on later occasions and to become a promoter via positive word-of-mouth than an unsatisfied tourist (Barsky, 1992; Beeho and Prentice, 1997; Chen, 2003; Chen and Gursoy, 2001; Kozak and Rimmington, 2000; Pizam, 1994; Ross, 1993). Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) claim that customers' repeat purchase behaviour might be created through a belief (trip experience), affect (satisfaction) and cognitive (choice) process. The information derived from such studies has provided critical insight for improving strategies of service delivery, product development, market positioning and customer satisfaction.

To further understand the importance of motivation in tourists' buying behaviour, some antecedents of motivation are focused on. Factors such as cultural background, values, market communication, experience and consumer self-perception are described as important antecedents for individual motivation (e.g. Bandura, 1986; Belk, 1988; Fyans et al., 1981;

Solomon, 1999). Bandura's (1977; 1986) social cognitive theory is exceptional in its acknowledgement of the reciprocal relationships amongst behavioural, personal and environmental determinants; thus, the present thesis focuses on individual experience and consumer self-perception. The social cognitive theory explicitly posits that prior behaviours can serve as powerful sources of personal and environmental factors, and that these relationships are reciprocal in nature. Deci (1975) and Deci and Ryan (1985) have argued that motivation (intrinsic) is based on feelings of competence and self-determination. Those who attend and carry out challenging tasks, for example, can point to their accomplishments (i.e. prior behaviours) to strengthen perceptions about their own abilities. Similarly, those who complete challenging task are more likely than others to place themselves in supportive environments. Bandura (1977; 1986) has also argued that personal beliefs about self-efficacy (one's belief in his/her ability to exercise control over events) are critical determinants of action. Consequently, social cognitive theory is an interactive model in which behavioural, personal and environmental factors continuously modify, and are modified by, each other.

Despite the widespread application of social cognitive theory in a wide variety of domains, the interactive component of this model has yet to be tested more rigorously. One line of research questions could be how prior behaviours affect subsequent construal processes. For example, do those who choose a certain destination to visit a famous museum read more about museums in the future? Perhaps in visiting a museum, the person becomes more familiar about related knowledge, which may motivate him/her to pay attention and process cultural-related information, resulting in greater knowledge. If so, we might also ask whether this adjustment in knowledge further pushes a change in behaviour. Similarly, do those who visit museums during their holiday develop certain perceptions about their own motivation and behaviour, e.g. are they different (untypical tourist) compared with other tourists? Each of these questions conceptualises behaviour as an independent variable. Tourist behaviour should be understood as both an effect of prior behaviour as well as a cause of subsequent construal processes. The specific behaviour analysed in the present thesis is the choice of destinations to visit and the choice of tourist activities related to the trip.

Reasons to study personal self-perception and experiences further include the individual's desire to search for curiosity and entertainment, and most important, the need to achieve self-understanding (Ross and Conway, 1986). The approach adopted in the present work is based on the assumption that the tourists' self-perceptions in general will affect their motivations and subsequent behaviours. Leary and Tangney (2003) illustrate the importance of acknowledging individual self-perception in that an individual's self-concept or identity

has tremendous effects on the way they feel, think and behave, and for their future choices and ambitions as well. Self-understanding and self-perception can be seen as the way people learn about and define themselves compared with others. This brings us to a central work within marketing literature, i.e. the theory of learned needs presented by McClelland (1965). The McClelland theory of learned needs holds that an individual's specific needs are acquired or learned over time and are shaped by one's life experiences. Previous travel experience has also been shown in tourism studies to affect tourist perception and motivation (e.g. Beerli and Martin, 2004; Chon, 1992). Researchers suggest (Dann, 1995; Baloglu, 1997; Gartner, 1993) and reveal empirical results (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martin, 2004), indicating that motivations impact on the affective component of the image of a place. Since the affective image refers to the feelings aroused by a place, people with different motives may assess a tourist destination in similar ways if they perceive that the destination provides them with the benefits sought. Thus, previous experience will most likely affect consumers' motivations towards destinations and the activities performed there.

The framework in the present thesis is thus as follows: when people are motivated to travel, numerous choices must be made. Motivation will relate to the choices of destinations and activities, which in turn are expected to relate to trip satisfaction and subsequently travel-related intentions to purchase or recommend the trip. It is expected that people with similar motivations will, to a certain degree, choose the same destinations and pursue similar types of activities while staying there. Even though we expect to find certain motivation-choice-satisfaction paths (correlation amongst the constructs) amongst tourists, there are reasons to believe that this relationship is not that simple. The numerous destinations and activities offered in the marketplace, which are more or less similar in the customers' minds, could affect the choices. Further, a lack of certain activities at the destination and because unexpected incidences happen during the trip might also have an impact on the motivation-choice-satisfaction relationship. Additionally, trip experience and tourist self-perception are seen as important antecedents of tourist motivation. Past experiences and self-perception will affect tourist motivation and thus the choices of destinations/activities.

The research problem can therefore be expressed as the following three objectives:

- 1. To examine the relationships amongst travel motivation and choices of destinations and choices of activities.*

2. *To assess relationships amongst various travel motivations and different choices of destinations and tourist activities, travel motivation and satisfaction, choice of activities and satisfaction, and subsequent future intentions to re-purchase or recommend the trip.*

3. *To explore two important antecedents of travel motivation, i.e. tourists' travel experiences and self-perceptions.*

2. Theoretical Discussions

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the theoretical and empirical backgrounds for the present thesis. After the concept of motivation is described and further discussed within a tourism context, relevant theories regarding consequences and antecedents of tourist motivation and behaviour are discussed. In the present work, consequences of motivation are seen as tourists' choices of destinations, choices of activities, felt satisfaction, intention to re-purchase and recommend the trip to friends and family. Despite the fact that many antecedents effect on tourist motivation, two antecedents of motivation are chosen as the focus in the present work: previous trip experience and self-perception. Since the first two objectives in the present thesis deal with consequences of tourist motivation, the theoretical discussion will start with consequences of trip motivation after outlining the motivation part. Next, antecedents of tourist motivation will be discussed. Focal constructs are defined and discussed in relation to the research problem.

The following outlines the perspective that underlies the present research.

2.1 Motivation in a Tourism Context

The present thesis concerns tourist motivation, which might be seen as a sub-concept under the rather broad concept of consumer motivation. Geen, Beatty and Arkin (1984) define motivation as: "...the operation of inferred intrapersonal processes that direct, activate, and maintain behaviour", and motivation thus includes that the individual "is moved to something" (Ryan and Deci, 2000: 54). Motivation is further described as "...some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something" (Harmer, 2001: 51). And as such, motivation is thought to be responsible for "why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity and how hard they are going to pursue it" (Dörnyei, 2001: 8). Motivation theory as an idea underpinning action was operationalised as a set of needs by Murray (1938), and presented as a hierarchy of needs by Maslow (1943), including basic human needs of food and security for self-actualisation.

Adopting these thoughts into a tourist context, Pizam, Neuman and Reichel (1979) depict tourist motivation as: "...a set of needs, which predispose a person to participate in a tourist activity". Motivation can thus reflect numerous sets of needs, which will subsequently affect individual choices in various ways.

In line with these thoughts, which posit that individuals are motivated by a bundle of certain basic needs and that some individuals are motivated more strongly by some of these needs than others, is the theory of learned needs presented by McClelland (1965). The McClelland theory of learned needs includes the need for achievement, affiliation and power, and that the individual's specific needs are acquired or learned over time and are shaped by one's life experiences. Applied to tourist experiences, individuals with a high need for achievement seek to excel and thus tend to avoid both low-risk and high-risk situations, e.g. by choosing to travel alone or with other high achievers, to new places (not perceived as a destination with too high a crime rate). They desire frequent and specific response concerning performance in order to enjoy the experience of making progress towards objectives. Individuals with a high need for affiliation need harmonious relationships with other people and need to feel accepted by other people. In tourism, this is often presented in terms of need for social experience, to meet new people and to have a good time together with friends and family. Individuals with a high need for power, e.g. social power, want to organise the efforts of others to reach goals. Tourists with a high need for power might prefer activities where they can influence others, overcome competitors, win discussions and make opinions, or attain authority.

Lawrence and Nohria (2002) employ four distinct drives to describe individual motivation to make choices and to act: the drive to acquire, the drive to bond, the drive to learn and the drive to defend. The drive to acquire includes striving to survive by performing better than others. This drive emphasises that people identify with objects and positive experiences. Further, Lawrence and Nohria distinguish between ordinary goods (e.g. food and clothing) and goods that produce social status (e.g. knowledge and travel experiences). The drive to bond involves the drive that people hold to make social contacts and relationships with others and includes love, friendship, trust, empathy and belonging. The drive to learn entails the need people have to understand, to satisfy their curiosity, to believe and to value environment and oneself through a reflective process. This drive relates to McClelland's (1961) need to learn and Maslow's (1954) need for self-esteem. The drive to defend indicates that people act as a result of feeling in danger (physical or otherwise), often related to the

three other drives. Thus, the drives to acquire, to bond and to learn encourage searching behaviour, while the drive to defend encourages avoidance.

In this line of reasoning, Oliver (1997) depicts that there are two fundamental answers to the question of why individuals purchase a product (e.g. a holiday). One explanation is related to the desire of individuals to remove a deficit, e.g. eating to reduce the feeling of hunger. In this case, tourists might visit restaurants to eat to “restore” the feeling of being full or satisfied. The other explanation is related to the individual’s desire to add something to his or her life. In this situation, the “deficit” is seen as a possible future outcome of bringing a product or an experience into one’s life, e.g. exploring the jungles of the Amazon in order to have something new and different to tell friends and family. In a similar way, Mowen (1995) employs the dichotomy “utilitarian needs” and “expressive needs”. “Utilitarian needs” involve desires of consumers to correct basic instrumental problems, while “expressive needs” involve desires of consumers to fulfil social and/or aesthetic requirements (Mowen, 1995: 192). Need fulfilment is thus interpreted according to two different conceptual frames: restoration and enhancement. This dichotomy regarding motivation corresponds with the discussion of tourist motivation by other scholars (e.g. Dann, 1981). In accordance with Dann (1981), a tourist trip can accomplish both restoration and enhancement. For most people, a tourist trip will certainly add something new and enriching to their life. The decision to travel during the holiday, therefore, might reflect the need to get away from everyday life. Even so, the search for pleasure, referred to as positive reinforcement (Iso-Ahola, 1983), is more often present, resulting in feelings such as pleasure and joy.

Despite these thoughts about broad groups’ motivations for travelling, the numerous products (destinations, activities and more or less pre-packaged products) offered in the marketplace, together with the fact that motivation is a sum of many motives, makes the picture challenging. Intuitively, one should expect that tourists with similar needs and motives would choose similar destinations and related activities. The relationship between motivation and choice, however, is often not that simple. A person might choose one type of activity based on a variety of reasons. Sunbathing might be chosen for the reason of relaxing, to get a tan or to become fit. Different activities can meet the same type of need as well (e.g. walking, dancing and sunbathing can all contribute to the individual’s need for relaxation). The choice of destination can also be explained by the fact that several destinations can meet a variety of needs (e.g. relaxation, getting in shape, accomplishment, warm temperatures and nice atmosphere). Consequently, tourists with different motives might choose the same destination and choose similar or different activities while staying there. In contrast, tourists with similar

motives might also choose different destinations and different types of activities. Arguably, the fact that customers prefer the same types of activities could be the consequence of a deficiency in the range of activities offered at the destination. In the process of consuming or producing (Holt, 1995) a journey, tourists also experience novel situations, which might result in different choice patterns.

When motives are transformed into motivations, the process of choosing specific destinations and activities begins. This initiation process in a tourist context includes factors or questions such as with whom to travel, when to travel, earlier experiences and recommendations from friends and relatives that will affect individual travel motivation and behaviour. Travelling with children, for instance, will most likely influence the degree of planning and pre-booking, and ensuring that there are activities for the children available at the destination.

Table 2 below presents some early tourism studies (Dann, 1977; 1981; Iso-Ahola, 1980; 1989; Mayo and Jarvis, 1981; Pearce, 1988) that base the work on different theoretical approaches. Starting from the left, the table outlines some important theoretical approaches within marketing literature applied to tourist motivation. The right side of the table shows how the applied theories are used in analysing tourist motivation in terms of the dimensions of motives employed (uni- versus multimotive). Earlier tourist research (e.g. Cohen, 1972; Gray, 1970) defines broad groups of tourist motives (e.g. sunlust versus wanderlust). These broad – but still important – motive groups are not necessarily mutually exclusive. People travelling to explore new destinations and learn about exotic cultures might want to experience a warmer climate as well, and vice versa. According to Pearce (1993: 120), “...people will frequently have more than one motive operating in any social setting”. Researchers have consequently adopted this multi-motive perspective in their search for tourist motivation and tourist types within a variety of empirical settings. This multi-need phenomenon is also described in terms of development during the process of travelling (Krippendorf, 1987; Leiper, 1990).

Maslow’s (1943; 1954) hierarchy of needs has been adopted by numerous scholars. Pearce (1988), for instance, employed Maslow as a starting point in describing how tourists’ motivations change over time and how motivation in particular is affected by past travel experiences. Pearce (1988) further presented the concept of a “career travel ladder” that built on the notion that stages in the life cycle held value in determining the motivation for leisure travel, which was similar to the notions of the family life cycle developed by Rapoport and Rapoport (1975).

Researcher(s):	Theoretical approach applied on tourist motivation:	Focus:	Dimensionality
Maslow (1943; 1954) Pearce (1988) based on Maslow (1943; 1954) and Rapoport and Rapoport (1975)	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory Travel Career Ladder	Five levels of motivation identified as basic hierarchical needs: 1) psychological, 2) safety, 3) love, 4) esteem and 5) self-actualisation. Motivations for travel change over time and are influenced by past holiday experiences. A distinction amongst internally (self) and externally (other) directed motives. People have a range of touristic motives.	Multimotive Approach
Dann (1977; 1981)	Pull and Push Theory of Tourist Motivation	Factors that predispose a person to travel, and those that attract the tourist to a given resort.	Multimotive Approach
Iso-Ahola (1980, 1989)	Optimal Arousal Theory	People avoid overstimulation (mental or physical exhaustion) or boredom (too little stimulation). Seeking intrinsic awards and escaping everyday problems, troubles and routines. Personal and interpersonal dimensions.	Multimotive Approach
Mayo and Jarvis (1981)	Need for Consistency versus Complexity	Consistency: An individual is expected to seek things that are predictable and consistent in order to reduce psychological tension. Complexity: Novelty, change, and unpredictability are pursued because they are inherently satisfying.	Unidimensional

Table 2: Approaches to study Tourist Motivation.

Dann (1977) first presented the dichotomy of “push” and “pull” on tourist motivation. The push factors are described in terms of socio-psychological forces (motivators) that predispose an individual to go on holiday. Pull factors represent the product attributes that attract a person towards a particular holiday destination. Later works (e.g. Lee, Leary and Morrison, 2002) reveal empirical findings regarding push and pull motivational effects on trip behaviour.

Iso-Ahola (1989) employed the “Optimal Arousal Theory” in his work analysing tourist motivation and behaviour. The work of Iso-Ahola shows that tourists vary according to their need for escape from their daily life and in their search for new experiences. Some tourists want to escape the boredom of routine; others, attempting to avoid stress, are often categorised as tourists with a “need for escape”. Still others, looking for new experiences and opportunities to learn about other cultures, are labelled as having a “need for quest”.

Mayo and Jarvis (1981) adopted both consistency theory and complexity theory to analyse tourist behaviour and, in particular, recognised the diversity in terms of searching for new experiences. According to consistency theory, people usually seek balance, harmony and predictability. Consequently, any inconsistency is seen as psychologically uncomfortable. Mayo and Jarvis (1981) state that a tourist seeking consistency visits only reasonably well-known travel destinations. Their position is analogous to theories concerning consumer loyalty, which maintain that a satisfied customer is likely to re-purchase a product and engage in positive word-of-mouth. Complexity theory is founded on the idea that novelty, change and unpredictability are pursued because they are inherently satisfying. Mayo and Jarvis extend their argument to show how an individual can mix predictability with novelty, change and unpredictability in order to achieve an optimal balance of consistency and complexity.

To identify tourist motivation and ways of categorising tourists by their motives, benefit segmentation, multi-attribute attitude models and multidimensional preference scaling have been adopted. Within this framework, tourists are categorised into different types that are based on their motives for travel. As can be seen from Table 3 below, various constructs are applied in tourism studies on tourist motivation. Table 3 provides an overview of numerous studies employing a wide range of dimensions in tourist motivation.

Authors	Motives in Tourism
Gray (1970)	Sunlust: familiarity, sameness Wanderlust: different, new, novel
Cohen (1972)	Institutionalised: individual and organised mass tourist (familiarity, security) Non-institutionalised: explorer, drifter (novelty, adventurous)
Plog (1974)	Psychocentric: familiar, safe, secure Allocentric: different, adventurous
Dann (1977)	Anomie, ego-enhancement
Crompton (1979)	Escape, self exploration/evaluation, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, social interaction, novelty, education
Crandall (1980)	Enjoyment of nature/escape from civilisation, escape from routine and responsibility, physical exercise, creativity, relaxation, social contact, meeting other people, heterosexual contact, family contact, recognition/status, social power, altruism, stimulus seeking, self-actualisation, achievement/challenge/competition, killing time/avoiding boredom, intellectual aestheticism
Mayo and Jarvis (1981)	Consistency, complexity
Beard and Ragheb (1983)	Intellectual, social, mastery/competence, stimulus avoidance
Yuan and McDonald (1990)	Escape, novelty, prestige, enhancement of kinship relationships, relaxation/hobbies, budget, culture and history, wilderness, ease of travel, cosmopolitan environment, facilities, hunting
Gitelson and Kerstetter (1990)	Relaxation, excitement, social, exploration
Uysal and Juowski (1993)	Re-experiencing family togetherness, sports, cultural experience, escape, entertainment/resort, outdoor/natural, heritage/cultural, rural/inexpensive
Fodness (1994)	Five functions: knowledge, punishment minimisation, self-esteem, ego-enhancement, reward maximisation
Jamrozny and Uysal (1994)	Escape, novelty, family and friends, togetherness, sports activities, adventure and excitements, familiar environment, luxury, prestige, active sports environment, unique natural environment, clean safe environment, sunshine environment, inexpensive environment, cultural activities, entertainment, sightseeing, local culture, different culture and cuisine, small towns, villages, mountains
Turnball and Uysal (1995)	Cultural experiences, escape, re-experiencing family, sport, prestige, heritage/culture, city enclave, comfort/relaxation, beach resort, outdoor resources, rural and inexpensive
Oh, Uysal and Weaver (1995)	Knowledge/intellectual, kinship/social interaction, novelty/adventure, entertainment/prestige, sports, escape/rest, historical/cultural, sports/activity, safe/upscale, nature/outdoor
Cha, McCleary and Uysal (1995)	Relax, knowledge, adventure, travel bragging, family sports
McGehee, Loker-Murphy and Uysal (1996)	Sports and adventure, cultural experience, family and kinship, prestige, escape, heritage and culture, recreational activities, comfort and relaxation, outdoor resources, resort enclave, budgetary environs
Ryan and Glendon (1998)	Relaxation, social, intellectual, mastery
Kleiven (1998a; 1998b)	Sun/Warmth, friends, accomplishment, culture, nature, family, peace/quiet, fitness, (indulgence)
Jang, Morrison and O'Leary (2002)	Novelty/nature seekers, escape/relaxation seekers, family/outdoor seekers
Lee, O'Leary, Lee and Morrison (2002)	Escape and getaway, novelty seeking, relaxing, bragging about trip, hedonism, family togetherness
Bieger and Lasser (2002)	Nightlife, comfort, partner, family, nature, culture/sightseeing, liberty, body, sports, sun

Table 3: Examples of Motivation Construction Applied in Tourist Research

As the above table shows, tourist motive lists overlap substantially. Certain motives emerge in several lists, but under somewhat different labels. The Crompton (1979) “escape motive”, for instance, probably relates to Crandall’s (1980) “escape from routine and responsibility”, Beard and Ragheb’s (1983) “stimulus avoidance”, Yuan and McDonald’s (1990), Uysal and Juowski’s (1993), Jamrozy and Uysal’s (1994), Turnball and Uysal’s (1995) “Escape”, Oh, Uysal and Weaver’s (1995) “escape/rest”, Cha, McCleary and Uysal’s (1995) “Relax”, McGehee, Loker-Murphy and Uysal’s (1996) “comfort and relax”, Ryan and Glendon’s (1998) “Relaxation”, Jang, Morrison and O’Leary’s (2002) “escape/relaxation seekers” and Lee, O’Leary, Lee and Morrison’s (2002) “escape and getaway”. Further, Crompton’s (1979) “education motive” might relate to Beard & Ragheb’s (1983) “intellectual motive”, Dunn-Ross and Iso-Ahola’s (1991) “general knowledge motive”, Cha, McCleary et al.’s. (1995) “knowledge factor”, Oh, Uysal and Weaver’s (1995) “knowledge/intellectual motive”, Cha, McCleary and Uysal’s (1995) “knowledge motive” and Ryan and Glendon’s (1998) “intellectual motive”. Ryan (1997) claims: “The adjectives may differ... but recurrent themes emerge”. This should not be interpreted as a consensus, however. Differences amongst motive lists are more common than similarities, even if related motivational concepts have been used in several surveys. Crandall’s (1980) “creativity motive”, as well as Yuan and McDonald’s (1990) and Lee, O’Leary, Lee and Morrison’s (2002) “novelty seeking motives” are examples of motives that are seldom seen on these lists. Even so, certain researchers have been more replicated than others. Beard and Ragheb’s (1983) article proposed four subscales for measuring leisure motivation dimensions. The dimensions were labelled Intellectual, Social, Mastery/Competence and Stimulus Avoidance. The four scales have been replicated by a number of other researchers (e.g. Loundsbury and Franz, 1990; Ryan, 1993; Kleiven, 1998; 1999), revealing alpha values of the scales above 0.80. Kleiven (1998a; 1998b) employed the Beard and Ragheb (1983) scale along with a Norwegian holiday survey (Haukeland, 1993) as a foundation for testing Norwegian tourist motivation for travelling in Norway. The present thesis employs some of the dimensions presented in the table above (e.g. Beard and Ragheb, 1983; Kleiven, 1998a; 1998b) as a foundation for the measurement of tourist motivation for travelling on outbound charter tours. Detailed information about the motivation scales is presented in Appendix 3 (Question 3) and Appendices 4 and 5 (Question 4). Hypotheses related to tourist motivation are presented in Paper 1 (H1), Paper 2 (H2, H3, H4) and Paper 4 (H5). The following hypotheses are presented:

- H1:** Motivational differences exist amongst Norwegian charter tourists visiting different countries.
- H2:** The majority of Norwegian charter tourists will view themselves as “a Sun/Beach tourist”.
- H3:** A minority amongst Norwegian charter tourists (the “Other” group) will view themselves as associated with other types of trips.
- H4:** The two groups of Norwegian charter tourists will have different motives for their travel, so that motive measures will predict whether a tourist belongs in the “Sun/Beach” or “Other” group.
- H5:** The majority of Norwegian outbound charter tourists are motivated by sun and warm weather, while a minority are more motivated by for instance learning and culture.

2.1.1. Stability in Tourist Motivation

Crawford, Godbey and Crouter (1986) pointed out that the use of surveys to map the recreation desires and motives of the public raises the question of the *stability* of such preferences before and after a trip. Lounsbury and Hoopes (1988) emphasised the rather general point that: “*One of the minimum essential characteristics of variables under study in any field is that they demonstrate some degree of stability over five years of time*”. This is highly relevant to tourism market research involving motives or preferences. Here, travel and leisure motives with *some degree of stability* are likely to contribute more to predictions of travel choice or behaviour than motives that fluctuate from day to day. Hypotheses related to reliability of scales are presented in Paper 5 (H6, H7, H8, H9):

- H6:** The motive scales are reliable.
- H7:** Travel motives will not vary much before and after the trip.
- Identify measurements for motive factors that are relevant to Norwegian outbound leisure tourism.
 - Assess the stability of the factors, both in terms of:
 - Factor structure (using confirmatory factor analysis);
 - Rank-order stability (using correlations); and
 - Mean stability (using t-test or ANOVA).
 - Correct test-retest coefficients for attenuation if motive scales have low internal consistency (*alpha* reliability).
- H8:** If travel motives have been satisfied, they will be *stronger* after the trip than before.

H9: If travel motives have been satisfied, they will be *weaker* shortly after the trip than before.

2.2 Relationships amongst Important Constructs in the Tourist Buying Behaviour Process:

By exploring and testing potential paths amongst motivation, choice of destination and choice of activities amongst tourists, as well as tourist evaluation (satisfaction) and subsequent intention to re-buy or recommend the trip, the intention is to gain new knowledge regarding some of these buying behaviour paths. Tourist behaviour studies mainly build on models from general consumer decision-making theories (e.g. Nicosia, 1966; Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1968; Howard, 1994; Howard and Shet, 1969; Runyon, 1980). Even though these models explain decisions mainly related to tangible, manufactured products, tourism researchers adopt them to explain service purchase decisions as well. Today, tourism literature includes both conceptual and empirical works to describe tourists' motivations, destination choices and choices of activities. Decision-making can be divided into a series of stages. The process is described by several marketing authors (e.g. Carroll and Johnson, 1990; Engel, Blackwell and Miniard, 1986). The process starts with recognition of problem or need, followed by formulation of goals and objectives. Next, generation of an alternative set of objects from which to choose is performed. Further, a search for information about the alternatives is made before a judgment or choice amongst the alternatives is made. The consumer now acts upon the decision and provides feedback for the next decision. This decision-making process is clearly influenced by internal variables (within the consumer), such as motivation, beliefs, attitudes and intentions in addition to external variables such as financial situation, time to travel and promotion (e.g. Oh, et al., 1995).

The first part of the decision-making process deals with pre-purchase decisions. As with many paradigms of tourists' buying behaviour, Mathieson and Wall (1982) present a model that begins with a desire for travel. At this initial stage, expectation and further goals for travel are experienced, and reasons for and against that desire are weighed against each other. Besides deciding when to travel, *core decision* elements such as the duration of the holiday, travel companions, destination choice, accommodation and expenses must be settled in this pre-purchase phase. These choices influence later choices and experiences as well. The choice of travelling alone, as opposed to travelling with one's family and friends, leads to different experiences and choices (e.g. selection of restaurants, accommodation and activities). Even though the tourists find new activities during the holiday (e.g. sunbathing versus cultural experiences, or mountain biking versus rock climbing) identified *as secondary*

decisions, activities (e.g. sports) are sometimes included in the pre-purchase phase. Many activities such as shopping, deciding which items to purchase, budgeting for gifts and souvenirs, sightseeing, stops, etc. are identified as *en route decisions*, i.e. decisions made on-trip. The definitions used here are adopted from Fesenmaier and Jeng's (2000) categories, which are related to the structure of a pleasure trip-planning process. Tourists make many choices relating to product elements in the course of their travels, sometimes even deciding on their ultimate destinations after initiating their journeys.

Even though buying behaviour models involve a step-wise process starting with motivation and ending with evaluation (the degree of satisfaction), little empirical research seems to support the idea of individual choices of products or experiences as a means to satisfy initial needs. Some exceptions, however, do address this deficiency (e.g. Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Oliver, 1997; Svenson, 2005). Svenson (2005: 4) claims that: "Even though decisions are made in response to a decision-maker's needs reflected in her or his motivation, discussions of motivation are rare in the mainstream decision-research literature; needs and motivation seem to be taken for granted without any presentation of them". Svenson (2005: 5) further presents some underlying assumptions hidden in mainstream behavioural decision-making research. First, Svenson addresses that "human needs are behind goals and the goals motivate a decision-maker to make a choice, which he or she believes leads to the best fulfilment of her or his goals". The second assumption addressed deals with the decision-maker's degree of involvement in the decision-making process based on his/her interest in the decision problem. Involvements can stem from a need to please others, or other types of needs (e.g. the need for money). Involvement is further discussed in terms of self-relevance. Svenson refers to Johnson and Eagly's (1989: 293) definition of involvement as: "...the motivational state induced by an association between an activated attitude and some aspect of the self-concept". A third assumption deals with the level of decision (Svenson, 1992) from basic repeatable decisions to decisions with alternatives that are actively created by the decision-makers themselves. The present thesis addresses these important assumptions.

2.2.1 Relationships amongst Motivation, Choice of Destination and Activities

The main purpose of buying behavioural models has been to identify the decision-making stages in the buying process which decision-makers pass through and to demonstrate this process by identifying the internal and external factors influencing the process. Consumer decision-making researchers have further investigated these buying behaviour processes

where the customer makes choices between two or more alternatives, how the choices are made and how they diverge from predictions of normative models of rational behaviour (Svenson, 2005). In a similar fashion, many tourism studies have analysed relationships between motivations and choices. A number of studies of tourists' choices have been conducted (e.g. Fodness, 1994; Kleiven, 1998a; 1998b; 2006; Crompton, 1979; Crandall, 1980; Beard and Ragheb, 1983; Tinsley, 1984). Travel experience can only be gained through participation. Thus, any discussion of travel-related choice has to be linked to actual (past) choices. Travel experience can also refer to a wide range of different issues, such as the destination visited, the type of holiday and the activities undertaken during the trip. Pizam, Neuman and Reichel (1979) reveal relationships amongst certain motivations and choices related to the trip or destination. Motivation and the choice of holiday type or activities have been shown to be significantly related (Gitelson and Kerstetter, 1990; Moscardo, Pearce, Lang and O'Leary, 1995). An increasing number of empirical studies relate travel motives to choice of activities during the journey (e.g. Chhetri, Arrowsmith and Jackson, 2003; Gitelson and Kerstetter, 1990; Moscardo, Pearce, Lang and O'Leary, 1995; Wong and Lau, 2001). In addition, Chhetri et al. (2003) recognised the underlying dimensions of motive affecting visitor behaviour amongst hikers in Australia. The hypotheses related to relationships amongst Norwegian charter tourist motives, choice of destination and choice of activities are presented in Paper 2 (H10, H11), Paper 3 (H12) and Paper 4 (H13, H14, H15).

- H10:** The “Sun/Beach” motivation group will perform more Sun/Beach-related activities, while the “Other” tourists will favour other types of activities.
- H11:** The different travel motives will influence the participation in diverse activities *directly*, not only *indirectly*, through their influence on holiday type.
- H12:** Certain tourist motives increase the likelihood of participating in certain tourist activities, while others reduce the likelihood of participating in these activities.
- H13:** The majority of Norwegian outbound charter tourists can be categorised as “inactive” tourists as opposed to a minority of “active” tourists.
- H14:** The relative importance given the sun/warmth motive versus other types of motivations along with the (intended) activity level (active versus passive tourists) amongst Norwegian outbound charter tourists, will divide the tourists into effective market segments for the industry.

H15: Certain tourist motives in the various segments increase the likelihood of the tourist participating in certain tourist activities, while others reduce the likelihood of participating in these activities.

Tourist choice of destination is a critical issue for many tourism researchers from a variety of disciplines. However, despite the acceptance of the importance of the “where” of tourism (the location of a holiday) in the literature, few researchers examine the process whereby destinations are categorised. The theoretical debate concerning the classification of destinations is notable for its absence: “There is a lack of agreement on the meaning of basic terms to describe tourism such as ‘destination’ or ‘resort’, and this has to be considered a weakness in tourism analysis” (Laws, 1995: 23). Thus, a research question regarding how a destination should be measured, followed by hypotheses regarding the tourists’ own ways of expressing or naming the destinations they have visited, and further relationships amongst motivations are presented in Paper 1 (RQ1, H16, H17):

RQ1: “How should a “destination” be measured?”

H16: When asked where they have been, tourists express various types of categories in terms of a “country”, a “region”, a “city”, or by combinations of terms.

H17: The expressed category of a destination is influenced by individual motives for travelling.

2.2.2 Involvement in the Decision-Making Process

The above discussions are essentially guided by what is known as “expectancy theory”, which states that people act in ways that maximise their expectations of attaining valued outcomes (e.g. Rosenthal, 1994; Wigfield and Eccles, 2000). Another approach deals with *how* people set their goals. Research shows that goals that are both specific and difficult result in consistently higher effort and performance when contrasted to “do your best” goals. Goal commitment has also been shown as important in terms of performance (Bagozzi, 1989; Locke and Latham, 1984). These studies, however, are based on individuals (mainly managers) in organisations, and do not relate to holiday situations where emotional motives can supersede rational ones. Even so, tourists who are involved in buying a holiday are expected to be more “goal-oriented” than those just participating in the trip, also as concerns choice of the type of holiday and the activities pursued.

A few studies of involvement and decision-making within tourism exist (e.g. Dellaert, Prodigalidad and Louviere, 1991; Lawson, 1991; Thornton, Shaw and Williams, 1997; Wang, Hsieh, Yeh and Tsai, 2003; Zalatan, 1998). These studies indicate that roles and influence vary with the degree of “joint” decision-making. The diversity suggested by these studies calls for further studies of decision-making in tourism. A hypothesis related to the relationships amongst individual involvement and motivation, type of trip and at-destination activities is presented in Paper 2 (H18):

H18: The more involved the tourist is in the decision-making process, the stronger the relationships amongst motivation, type of trip and at-destination activities.

2.2.3 Relationships between Motivation and Satisfaction

Consumer satisfaction is defined as: “...a judgement that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provides a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfilment” (Oliver, 1997: 13), or as an overall evaluation of a purchase (Fornell, 1992). MacKay and Crompton (1990: 48) define satisfaction in a similar way by focusing on the “psychological outcome which emerges from experiencing the service” (MacKay and Crompton, 1990: 48). The overall satisfaction is seen as the result or the sum of the relative importance and the level of satisfaction experienced of all the single attributes (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). These two approaches to satisfaction, “transaction-specific” versus “cumulative satisfaction”, are examined by Johnson, Anderson and Fornell (1995). In the “transaction-specific” approach, the attention is on the actual meeting between the customer and the service provider. The “cumulative satisfaction” approach discusses satisfaction as the customer’s overall experience of the whole process of consuming a product, which indicates that the tourist’s perception of satisfaction should be more of an “overall attitude-like” evaluation (Johnson et al., 2001). A tourist’s satisfaction with a trip or a destination can thus be the result of many aspects, such as the evaluations of the single elements/products tied to the journey, as well as the customer’s expectations before and during the trip.

Pittman (1998: 549) links motivation to satisfaction by the following definition: “...motivation is the activation of internal desires, needs, and concerns, energises behaviour and sends the organism in a particular direction aimed at satisfaction of motivational issues that gave raise to the increased energy”. When individuals are motivated to choose a certain destination and pursue activities there, they do so to satisfy their needs. The present study

aims to study these relationships more closely. Consumers choose activities and products largely based on their expectations. Sometimes, however, other people (e.g. spouse or children) or other external variables (e.g. only available product, price, etc.) impact the choice as well. After buying and consuming the product, the actual performance of the activities (more or less dependent on the customer) is compared with the expectations. If the actual performance is better than their expectations, this leads to positive disconfirmation, and vice versa (e.g. Oliver, 1997).

Based on equity theory, Oliver and Swan (1989) argue that consumer satisfaction can be seen as a relationship between the costs of what the consumer spends and the anticipated rewards (benefits). As such, the Oliver and Swan study points to that if tourists receive benefits or value based on their time, effort and money for travel to the destination and activities performed there, they are worthwhile. In a field study, Dunn-Ross and Iso-Ahola (1991) explore motivation and satisfaction dimensions of sightseeing tourists. Even though they do not test relationships amongst the constructs explicitly, they imply a relationship based on the findings of the high overall satisfaction (over 90 %) of the respondents, which they concluded could be explained by the significant consistency amongst the motivation dimensions and the satisfaction dimensions. Thus, the following hypotheses in Paper 3 (H19) and Paper 4 (H20) are presented:

H19: Certain tourist motives increase the likelihood of being satisfied with certain trip-related attributes as well as with the destination visited.

H20: Certain tourist motives in the various segments increase the likelihood of future satisfaction with certain trip-related attributes.

2.2.4 *Relationships between Choice of Destination and Satisfaction and Choice of Activities and Satisfaction*

A tourist trip involves various experiences in several situations, where product elements and other people are important components. Some of these elements are possible to plan for, and some are incidental. Unexpected events and meeting new people can influence the individual experiences of the trip as well as the pre-planned outcomes. Chhetri, Arrowsmith and Jackson (2003) identify the underlying dimensions (motive-related) influencing visitor behaviour (experiences) amongst hikers in a national park in Australia. In a study of inbound tourists in Norway, Kleiven (1998; 1999) reveals that tourist motives could

be used as attributes to predict the tourists' choices of activities. Tourist choice of activities can then be viewed as the link between motives for travelling and perception of satisfaction. Experiences and their subsequent evaluations depend on the importance given to the different elements. The tourist's evaluation of situations and product elements will affect his or her satisfaction with single elements experienced during the journey and the overall satisfaction with the destination and the journey. Hypotheses related to relationships between tourist choice of activities and tourist satisfaction are presented in Paper 3 (H21, H22) and Paper 4 (H23):

H21: Certain tourist activities participated in during the holiday increase the likelihood of being satisfied with certain trip-related attributes as well as the destination visited.

H22: Tourist satisfaction with various aspects of a trip will effect on overall satisfaction with the destination dependent on the tourist motive-activity structure.

H23: Tourist satisfaction with various aspects of a trip within the different segments will effect on overall tourist satisfaction dependent on the tourist motive-activity structure.

2.2.5 *Relationships between Satisfaction and Future Intentions to Purchase or Recommend the Trip*

As destinations strive to increase their share of visitors, they are not only focusing on attracting new customers and giving them a memorable experience during the stay, but they are also more aware of the importance of repeat visits. Earlier studies have suggested a positive relationship between repeat visits and profitability (Gould, 1995; Reichheld, 1996). Jacoby and Kyner (1973) portrayed the relevance of acknowledging repeat purchase behaviour resulting from the psychological decision-making and evaluative process.

Future intentions to purchase or recommend a product in a consumer context might be seen as a claimed likelihood people express to perform a certain activity or choice in the future. However, we know from everyday experience that we do not always carry out our intentions. It takes effort to maintain an intention (Sheeran, 2002). Even so, intentions to repeat the purchase and/or recommend the trip to friends and relatives are often used as a measure or the consequence of satisfaction (e.g. Oliver, 1997). Further, research reveals relationships between intentions (e.g. repeat purchases and recommendations to other friends and relatives) and actual behaviour (Barsky, 1992; Beeho and Prentice, 1997; Chen, 2003; Chen and Gursoy, 2001; Hallowell, 1996; Kozak and Rimmington, 2000; Pizam, 1994; Ross,

1993) that can be viewed in terms of effective market communication. Consumers' intentions to buy a product or recommend the product are discussed in literature as the intervening variable between attitudes and behaviour (Assael, 1984). Both marketers and economists have employed consumers' intentions to predict future behaviour. As early as 1960, Kantona confirmed a relationship between consumers' intentions and actual behaviour towards buying automobiles. In line with the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), past behaviour (individual experience) was found to have direct effects on behavioural intention formation and the actual behaviour (Quellette and Wood, 1998). The TPB model has also been replicated in a tourist setting (Lam and Hsu, 2006). The results from the Lam and Hsu study reveal that positive experience with a destination impacts on tourist intention to choose the same destination in the future and to perform positive word-of-mouth. However, the relationship between intentions and behaviour has shown in some studies to be a less reliable predictor of behaviour (Assael, 1984). Buying a tourist trip, for instance, is not an everyday occurrence; sometimes there are months and even years in between the journeys, indicating that many factors, such as economic circumstances, changes in needs or available alternatives might intervene to change intentions. The crucial aspect of the theory of planned behaviour, however, is that the immediate antecedent of any behaviour is the intention or motivation to perform the behaviour in question (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Hypotheses related to relationships amongst tourist satisfaction and intentions to re-purchase and recommend the trip are presented in Paper 3 (H24, H25) and Paper 4 (H26):

- H24:** Tourist satisfaction with different aspects of a trip and overall satisfaction with a destination drives tourists' intentions to re-purchase a package tour, dependent on the motive-activity structure.
- H25:** Tourist satisfaction with different aspects of a trip and overall satisfaction with a destination drives tourists' intentions to communicate via positive word-of-mouth, dependent on the tourist motive-activity structure.
- H26:** Tourist satisfaction with different aspects of a trip and overall satisfaction with a destination within the segments drives the segment's intentions to behave (re-purchase and word-of-mouth) regarding a package tour, dependent on the motive-activity structure.

2.3 Antecedents of Motives

2.3.1 Travel Experience

Travel experience is gained through travelling. According to Howard and Sheth (1969) and Engel et. al. (1995), every buying activity generates a learning process in the individual. By buying, using and experiencing, people acquire knowledge and expertise that influence their future purchase behaviour. Consumer knowledge is defined by Flynn and Goldsmith (1999: 59) as: "...a consumer's perception of the amount of information they have stored in memory". Experience and changes in buyer behaviour, however, take place through various modes of learning, i.e. through insight (information processing), trial and error (instrumental conditioning) and association (classical conditioning) (Lin, Su and Chien, 2005; Ottesen, 2001). As such, tourists have different levels of product knowledge that they can use to interpret new information and make purchase choices (e.g. Lachman, Lachman and Butterfield, 1979). Learning is thus "formed when people combine separate meaning concepts into larger, more abstract categories of knowledge" (Roch, Mervis, Grey, Johnson and Boyes-Braem, 1976).

Tourists' past experiences, in terms of previous visits to a destination or participation in a certain tourist activity, and stored information from communications play an important role in expectation formation and subsequently in choosing the next tourist trip (e.g. Pearce, 1988). In most consumer behaviour situations, customers will hold *valence expectations* (Oliver, 1997: 108): the positivity or negativity towards, for instance, an upcoming tourist trip. Previous trip experience as an information source is depicted in earlier research to give stronger valence towards a certain destination or activity than other types of information sources give, e.g. storytelling from friends and relatives or brochures from the tourist industry (Gunn, 1972).

Moreover, trip experiences are also examined in terms of altering the tourists' naming of destinations. Several researchers have indicated relationships amongst different sources of information and tourist perceptions and evaluations of places (e.g. Gartner, 1993; Gunn, 1989). Gunn (1989) suggests that prior visiting experiences will create lasting perceptions that will affect most trip-related decisions, e.g. attending a group tour versus travelling individually. It has also been suggested that past trip experiences will most likely affect tourists' future choices of destinations and activities (e.g. Crompton and Ankomah, 1993; Mansfeld, 1992). Shoemaker (1994) argues that travel motivation can be inferred from consumers' past travel experiences. As such, it is important to identify the relationship

between trip experience and motivation in understanding the fundamental processes in tourist decision-making. A hypothesis related to relationship between tourists' expressions of destinations and travel experiences is presented in Paper 1 (H27):

H27: The expressed category of a destination and/or country visited is influenced by how experienced tourists are with the destination visited or their travel experience with this type of holiday in general.

2.3.2 *Self-Perception*

The theory of self-perception holds that the individual becomes aware of him- or herself just by watching what he or she does (Bem, 1967; 1972). One vital way of “knowing” one’s attitudes, emotions and other internal states might be by inferring them from observations of one’s own behaviour and the situations in which this behaviour takes place (Bem, 1972). This means that people don’t have a great deal of inside information about who they are or why they do things. Instead, they observe themselves and their own activities “from outside” and infer a reason for that behaviour. Bem’s theory, which relies greatly on the behaviourist principles of B.F. Skinner, presumes that we are generally aware of reinforcement contingencies that affect our behaviour. Not all aspects of the self depend on this after-the-fact observation process. Bem (1972) claims that the after-the fact process operates whenever internal cues are weak. Self-perception is based on what the person has done, and not on the contradictory.

Self-perception is often described in terms of two sides, the perception of oneself as part of a group, and the perception as an individual outside the group. The self-concept is further presented in terms of two distinct aspects: personal identity and social identity (collective identity) (Tajfel and Turner, 1986). When discussing the individual and the group, a distinction must be made between values as the desired and the desirable: what people actually desire versus what they think ought to be desired (Hofstede, 1980). Leary and Tangney (2003) argue that self-perception has tremendous effects for future choices.

In the Western world, spare time and holidays are inevitably associated with the concept of self-realisation. Krippendorf (1987) highlighted the relationship between motives and buying behaviour on the one hand, and individual self-perception and buying behaviour on the other. Self-perception can consist in part of the individual’s experience of buying behaviour, or awareness of his or her motives, also in relation to others. People are frequently motivated to manage the impressions others form of them. Often, people might want others to

view them as likable, smart, competent, etc. (Jones and Pittman, 1982), and they have at their disposal certain strategies for creating such images. For example, if a tourist wants to be viewed as a person “not following the crowd – not being a typical tourist”, he or she might choose places to visit that have the image of being special or different and that he or she thinks will attract more interesting and individualistically oriented people.

Motivation and self-perception research show that individuals’ self-perceptions can be biased and distorted. Psychologists (e.g. Koenig, 1997) recognise this as part of the tendency of people to feel better than and different from the group to which they actually belong, defined as the phenomenon of self-serving bias (Koenig, 1997). In most of these situations, individuals fabricate “positive illusions” about themselves. This phenomenon is expected to be even more common concerning products and services involving emotionally dominant attitudes and values, such as tourist products (Gnoth, 1997). Current research indicates that being “a tourist” constitutes a negative aspect of individual self-perception (Culler, 1981; Jacobsen, 2000). Jacobsen characterised the “anti-tourist” as a person who does not want to be viewed as a typical tourist and that, in fact, most tourists do not agree that they actually belong to such a group. This result indicates that the relationships amongst tourists’ self-perceptions and motivations and subsequent behaviours during the holiday should be further studied. Hypotheses regarding tourists’ self-perceptions and relationships amongst self-perceptions and tourist activities at the destinations and subsequent tourist motivations are presented in Paper 6 (H28, H29, H30):

H28: Do German tourists view themselves as typical or non-typical of the group to which they belong (namely, “German tourists”)?

H29: Do the tourists’ self-perceptions (as typical or non-typical) reflect actual differences in activities?

H30: Do the tourists’ self-perceptions (as typical or non-typical) reflect motivations for travelling?

3. Summary of Assessments in Prior Research

The present thesis attempts to test and expand – in a systematic fashion – current theoretical underpinnings and relationships amongst important constructs in tourist behaviour, including motivation, choice of destination and tourist activities, satisfaction and intentions to purchase or recommend the product in the future.

Most analyses on consumer motivation and behaviour are carried out in the USA and Canada. Cultural differences amongst people in various countries can cause significant variations in consumer behaviour. Previous cross-cultural studies have consistently demonstrated differences in various cultural dimensions (Hofstede and Bond, 1984), calling for empirical tests in different cultural settings.

One of the most cited researchers within the area of tourist motivation is Cohen (1972) and his early classification of tourists. He discusses four different types of tourists based on motivation and behaviour tied to a tourist trip: “the explorer”, “the drifter”, “the individual mass tourist” and the “organised mass tourist”. The mass tourist is expected to be motivated by and choose a journey from a relatively high degree of familiarity, planning prior to the trip, safety, dependence and minimal choice (Cohen, 1972). Although Cohen identifies the more collective types, the organised mass tourists and the individual mass tourists, and quite a few researchers follow his lead, the present study attempts to focus on a specific type of mass tourists: those travelling on pre-packaged tours from Norway, called charter tourists, and individual mass tourists from Germany to Norway. The idea is to replicate Cohen’s theories in new contexts.

Several studies (e.g. Kelly, 1990) show that most tourists, when asked about their holidays, respond in terms of particular kinds of activities. The type of activity can reflect different factors, such as people’s ages, travelling companions and places visited. Several studies also focus on the relationship between the type of activity and the interests. Using factor analysis, categories of highly correlated tourist activities have been proposed with the purpose of understanding how these are related to each other. Such studies often fail to take into account the fact that tourists’ preferences can change from one holiday to another. Furthermore, the categories of tourist types that have been proposed tend to ignore the question of frequency, treating regular weekend pursuits the same as “once-in-a-lifetime” activities. Empirical studies of tourist activities should also distinguish amongst different levels of activities, as indicated by the amount of time spent on any given pursuit.

Much of the literature on consumer behaviour emphasises that customer satisfaction is the result of or the final step in a psychological process going from need recognition to the evaluation of experienced products (e.g. Johnson, 1998; Peter and Olson, 1996). Despite this recognition of the sequential relationship, consumer researchers tend to merely to focus on the perception of products when evaluating satisfaction issues. Recent research, however, has begun to recognise the importance of measuring satisfaction as a cumulative and attitude-like

construct (Johnson and Fornell, 1991; Johnson et al., 2001). The present study applies both perspectives.

In reviewing existing literature on buying behaviour, few empirical works seem to support the idea of individual activities/choices as a means to satisfy initial needs. However, some researchers do address this deficiency (e.g. Oliver, 1997). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) state that motive is an internal factor that can be likened to an awareness of potential satisfaction. Their connective relationship, however, lacks strong empirical support.

Recent empirical work accentuates the importance of understanding the possible differences between choice drivers and satisfaction drivers (Gardial et al., 1994; Henke, 1995 in Oliver, 1997). The variations between these two sets of criteria amongst tourists are attributed to the facts that: (1) during the trip, some unexpected incidents might occur and affect trip satisfaction; (2) tourists can change their choice preferences in the course of the trip in order to avoid being dissatisfied; and (3) as a learning experience, a journey gives new levels of competence to tourists, altering their original drives for satisfaction.

Few tourism studies have focused on organised tourists travelling by air, and even fewer have concentrated on people travelling from Northern countries (Scandinavia) to countries with warmer climates. Most of these studies are explorative and descriptive in nature, calling for further tests. In addition, only half of them are done on tourists outside the USA. Travel motives should be observed in a cross-cultural perspective to test cultural variances (Kim, 1999); for instance, Europeans and Asians might differ from Americans in terms of tourist motivation and behaviour.

Despite the premise in buying behaviour literature, i.e. that decisions are made in response to the decision-maker's needs, discussions of motivation being significant in these processes seem to be rare in the mainstream decision-research literature. In a review of motivation, decision theory and human decision-making, Svenson (2005) demonstrates this point by pointing to two volumes summarising the most important research of judgement and decision-making (Arkes and Hammond, 1986; Gilovich, Griffin and Kahneman, 2002). Svenson claims that these volumes do not have a single reference to motivation or even goal in their subject indices. As shown in the tables above, some tourist motivation studies exist. In a well-known textbook on tourism, Pearce (1995) even believes that: "As tourism grows into an increasingly sophisticated consumer industry... the motivation of tourists will become a core part of all tourism studies". Although motives are commonly seen as important for understanding the great variation in human tourist choices of destinations and activities; however, rather different conceptual approaches to this question have been offered.

Below, the organisation of the thesis, including empirical undertakings, is outlined. Finally, an overview and summary of the empirical studies is provided.

4. Organisation of the Thesis

The table below gives an overview of the hypotheses based on the three research objectives. The hypotheses are included in six published articles which are based on three different surveys.

Objectives	Hypotheses
1	H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6
2	H7, H8, H9, H10, H11, H12, H13, H14, H15, H16, H17, H18, H19, H20, H21, H22, H23, H24, H25, H26
3	H27, H28, H29, H30

Table 4: A formalised organisation of the hypotheses based on the three research objectives.

The first objective aims to provide new insight into variations in motivation that can be anticipated to influence the selection of destinations and subsequent activities. Tourist businesses often seek to meet tourists' needs and motives in an effective way by offering streamlined products and services to meet customer expectations which they hope will secure repeat business or positive word-of-mouth amongst customers. This objective is primarily examined in three of the studies (Studies 1, 2 and 4). However, all six studies are of relevance for the first objective. Study 1 (H1) hypothesises the existence of motivational differences amongst Norwegian charter tourists visiting different countries. Study 2 expands this hypothesis by proposing the existence of two various groups of charter tourists from Norway: those who view themselves as "a Sun/Beach tourist" (H2) and the "Other" group (H3), and further hypothesises that these two types of tourists are different in terms of motives for travelling (H4). Study 4 (H5) hypothesises that the majority of Norwegian outbound charter tourists are motivated by sun and warm weather, while a minority is more motivated by learning and culture, for instance. To test these hypothesised relationships between tourist motivation and choice (destination and activities), tourist motivation as a construct is hypothesised to have some degree of stability. Hypotheses related to stability and reliability of scales are presented in Paper 5 (H6, H7, H8, H9).

The second objective attempts to expand current theoretical relationships concerning motivation, choice, satisfaction and future travel-related intentions to purchase or recommend the trip in a systematic and nomological theoretical network. In particular, the outcome of the study will add new knowledge about the relationships amongst travel motivation and tourist satisfaction and subsequent travel-related intentions in the future (i.e. to recommend and/or re-buy a trip), an area that has not been thoroughly explored in past consumer research. To test relationships between motivation and choice of activities, as the second objective indicates, hypotheses in three of the studies (Studies 2, 3 and 4) are presented. Study 2 (H10, H11) and 3 (H12) hypothesise and test relationships, and Study 4 (H13, H14, H15) is an empirical exemplification of the relationship between tourist motivation and choice of activities. The relationship between tourist motivation and choice of destination is hypothesised in Study 1 (H17). A research question regarding “how a destination should be measured” is outlined (RQ1). Because the decision-making models build on the assumption of the consumers as being involved in the buying process, hypotheses related to the relationships amongst individual involvement and motivation, type of trip and on-destination activities are presented in Paper 2 (H18). Paper 3 (H20) and Paper 4 (H21) present hypotheses regarding relationships between tourist motivation and satisfaction. Further, the relationships between tourist choice of activities and tourist satisfaction are presented in Paper 3 (H23, H24) and Paper 4 (H24). Hypotheses related to relationships amongst tourist satisfaction and intentions to re-purchase and recommend the trip are presented in Paper 3 (H24, H25) and Paper 4 (H26):

The third objective attempts to explore important antecedents of motivation and subsequent behaviour in a tourist context. This objective is examined in two of the studies (Studies 1 and 6), by focusing on tourists’ previous experiences and self-perceptions. Since tourists’ experiences are claimed to relate to motivation and choice of destinations, a hypothesis related to the relationship between tourists’ choices of destinations and travel experiences is presented in Paper 1 (H27). Study 6 focuses on tourists’ self-perceptions as tourists. The paper presents three hypotheses. Hypotheses regarding tourists’ self-perceptions as German tourists (H28), relationships amongst self-perception and tourist activities at the destination (H29) and subsequent tourist motivation (H30) are presented in Paper 6.

Three of the studies (Studies 2, 3 and 5) add valuable insight into theoretical discussions within consumer behaviour. Furthermore, the results from all six studies will help practitioners launch communication and product development strategies in order to augment the level of customer satisfaction.

4.1 Empirical Undertakings

To achieve the objectives of this study, this section presents a short summary of six empirical research articles, in three different surveys. Four of the six articles test the relationships amongst the various concepts of buying behaviour presented in the theoretical discussion, one addresses methodological issues on motivation measurement (testing the stability/reliability of trip motivation), and one discusses the application of motivation measurement to market segmentation.

Tourists' buying behaviour is described in terms of a process going from individual motivation to choice of destination, choice of activities, evaluation of trip (satisfaction) and subsequent intentions to purchase or recommend the trip in the future. For the use of travel motives for predicting travel choices, behaviour and evaluation (satisfaction), travel motives as a construct should be trusted to be a relatively lasting and stable phenomenon. Thus, the tourists' pre-purchase motives were tested in two different purchase situations (pre- and post-trip) and with two different time gaps (one week "before-after" and two months "before-after"). From the model, a marketing application is provided by performing marketing segmentation examinations.

In summary, the thesis is composed of six articles involving three sets of data. The first four are based on a survey of Norwegian outbound charter tourists to Southern European destinations. The fifth article is based on two sets of data on Norwegian tourists taking various types of trips, measured before and after the trips. The data analysed in the sixth article is collected from a survey of German visitors to Norway.

4.2 Overview of the Empirical Studies

The following empirical articles written by the author address the research objectives proposed by the study:

- A) Article 1 discusses the concept "destination" and focuses on how tourists express the places visited in terms of country, region or place/city. Further, the article presents results revealing that charter tourists from Norway travel to different destinations (countries and regions within a country) with different motivations and travel experiences.
- B) Article 2 discusses the connections amongst tourist motivation, type of trip and activities as they relate to engagement in the decision-making process.

- C) Article 3 attempts to predict tourist satisfaction and subsequent intentions to purchase or recommend the trip in the future from certain motives and activities.
- D) Article 4 aims to segment Norwegian group tourists and describe them by demographic characteristics, their choices of destinations and activities, as well as their degrees of satisfaction and intentions to purchase or recommend the trip in the future.
- E) Article 5 presents and discusses tourists' motives and attempts to discover whether tourists' motives and the extent to which motives before a journey might also extend to post-purchase situations.
- F) Article 6 investigates tourist motivation and activities in view of the phenomenon of "self-serving bias", which holds that people tend to perceive themselves as better or different from the group to which they belong.

The driving question in the present thesis is to examine how, and to what degree, motivation relates to travel behaviour and subsequent tourist satisfaction.

Each of the six studies has a particular role to play in accomplishing the research objectives. In the summary of the studies below, the hypotheses (in the brackets) are explicitly delineated in Appendix 1.

4.2.1 *Summary of "Country as Destination – Norwegian Tourists' Motivations and Perception"*

The first article addresses tourists' expressions of destinations visited "as country", "as region", or "as city". Tourist choice of destination is a critical issue for many tourism researchers from a variety of disciplines. However, despite the acceptance of the importance of the "where" of tourism (the location of a holiday) in the literature, few researchers examine the process whereby destinations are categorised. The theoretical debate concerning the classification of destinations is notable for its absence: "There is a lack of agreement on the meaning of basic terms to describe tourism such as 'destination' or 'resort', and this has to be considered a weakness in tourism analysis" (Laws, 1995: 23). The primary purpose of this study is to obtain a deeper knowledge of how and in what terms tourists perceive and categorise destinations they have recently visited by asking them to express where they have been on their holidays. A secondary aim is to try and understand differences in people's categorisations of destinations in terms of their motivations for taking a holiday, their earlier experiences of that particular destination and travelling in general.

As such, this article deals with two main issues: first, by asking the respondents to state the destination they had visited, the tourists' own ideas of (naming of) the destination were captured. Next, different categories of tourist destination (as the type of category used, as country visited, and as region visited) are tested in relation to tourist motivation and earlier experiences. The article discusses the concept of "destination" (RQ1, H16), and later the relationships between tourist motivation and choice of destination (H1,H17) and tourist experience and motivation (H27).

The results reveal that when asked about what destinations they had visited, almost 26 % of the respondents (n = 1222) answer by using the name of a country, whereas the remainder utilise names of a city, a region or a combination of these categories. The data shows significant differences between the country visited and the motivation for travelling, and between destinations (regions within countries) and tourist motivation. Regarding these regional differences concerning travel motivation, these countries do not necessarily have one single image, a distinct challenge for marketing and branding expenses. Tourist experience follows the same tendency concerning the relationship with country visited and region visited. Tourists travel to different countries and destinations within a country based on their earlier experiences and searches for novelty. The results revealed from the present study show significant differences amongst countries visited as well as the destinations within a country visited and previous travel experiences, and the degree to which tourists search for novel experiences.

These results imply that the destination category as "country" should be treated with care when analysing destinations, despite the fact there are significant differences regarding why people choose certain countries. Similarly, they demonstrate that questions related to marketing and branding a country are complex. Motives for travel combined with different images of a country as a destination, as well as variety within a country, should be taken into consideration. The fact that one country can attract tourists with different motives and that several countries can attract tourists with similar motives should be further studied. The outcome would be most interesting in an image and branding context.

4.2.2 *Summary of “Determining Sun-Seekers and Others – Travel Motives, Holiday Types and Holiday Behaviour among Norwegian Charter Tourists”*

The second article focuses on the relationships amongst tourist motivation, type of trip and tourist activities performed at the destination. Based on different sets of motives, people choose a certain type of holiday and pursue various activities, expecting the choices to yield satisfying experiences. As such, this variation in motives further implies a study of basic motive scales in order to distinguish amongst demand structures in addition to testing relationships amongst the constructs.

Since the 1950s, people from Norway have travelled to countries in Southern Europe on holiday, primarily by charter flight. Southern European destinations are still very popular amongst Norwegians (Denstadli, 2002). Because one of their most important motives has been the desire to enjoy the beach and the sun, the tourists travelling on these tours have been referred to as “the Sun Tourists” (Kleiven, Holmengen and Jacobsen, 1991).

Differences amongst sun-seekers and other types of tourists concerning their participation in the decision-making process (decision-makers and non-decision-makers) were analysed. People’s reasons for travelling during their holiday may be described as “multidimensional” in the sense that people possess several simultaneous motives for their journeys. Based on different sets of motives, people choose a certain type of holiday and pursue activities, expecting the choices to yield satisfying experiences. Based on traditional marketing approaches regarding motivated behaviour, it was expected that if people diverge in their degree of participation in the decision-making process, those who are more engaged will show a stronger motive-activity relationship. The conceptual model is reflected in H2, H3, H4, H10, H11 and H18.

The eight motive scales performed fairly well in terms of internal consistency. A clear majority of the respondents (80 %) are oriented towards sun and beaches, family and relaxation, and primarily identify themselves as going on a “sun/beach” trip. Others (20 %) travel mainly to experience culture, to enjoy a different environment and to learn about an interesting destination. They identify themselves as going on a “round trip”, a “big city visit”, an “Alpine tour” or a “cruise”, all of which were subsumed under the label “Other tourists”. The relationships amongst the tourists’ motives for travel, their definitions of holiday types and their behaviours are examined by comparing the two different types of tourists and their engagement (involvement) in the decision-making process. Differences are found between those largely responsible for the actual choice of holiday trip and those more influenced by random factors or choices made by their travel companions. For the “decision-makers”, most

path coefficients are slightly larger, and more variance is explained (higher r^2 values). Results indicate that relatively simple motive scales are useful for understanding central distinctions in the demand structure of the Norwegian holiday charter market.

4.2.3 *Summary of “The Evaluation of Norwegians’ Trip Satisfaction toward Southern European Destinations”*

The third paper addresses tourist satisfaction, and explores and tests some antecedents of tourist satisfaction as well as results of the satisfaction (i.e. intention to re-buy and recommend the trip). Recognising tourist satisfaction is of utmost importance for the tourism industry (Petrick, 2003). Satisfied tourists tend to communicate their positive experiences to others and use the products/services repeatedly (Barsky, 1992; Beeho and Prentice, 1997; Chen, 2003; Chen and Gursoy, 2001; Kozak and Rimmington, 2000; Pizam, 1994; Ross, 1993). Tourists’ satisfaction with a trip or a destination could be a result of many aspects, such as the perceptions of products as well as their expectations both before- and during the trip. Consumer behavioural studies reveal that customer satisfaction is the result or the final step of a psychological process from need recognition to the evaluation of experienced products (Peter and Olson, 1996). Despite this recognition of the sequential relationship, consumer researchers tend to merely focus on the perception of products when evaluating satisfaction issues. Based on a review of the past literature, a set of interrelated hypotheses are derived and tested amongst a sample of tourists visiting different Southern European destinations.

The paper examines the relationship between tourist motivation and activities (H12), tourist motivation and satisfaction (H13), tourist activities and satisfaction (H19), satisfaction with single items and overall satisfaction with the destination (H24), satisfaction and intention to re-purchase (H25) and satisfaction and intention to recommend the trip (H26). The findings show that tourists behave quite rationally in the sense that they choose activities in line with their motives. This study divulges that Norwegian charter tourists have been satisfied with travel destinations in southern European countries. Consequently, they intend to purchase the products again and make positive recommendations to others. Even so, the relationship between tourist motivation and satisfaction on the one hand, and behaviour and satisfaction on the other, is not as strong as expected. The results reveal that the respondents could be grouped into two main segments; “beach-lifers” and “learners” based on motive-activity structures. It is interesting to find that Charter/Sun activities had a negative effect on satisfaction with specific activities and culture experiences. The result implies that the tourists

engaged in Charter/Sun activities did not heavily take part in other types of activity. Regarding the predictive models derived from the study, it is speculated that the low explained variance tied to activities and tourist satisfaction is attributed to the fact that the provision of leisure activities familiar to Norwegians is wholly insufficient amongst those European destinations. An improvement on tourists' satisfaction with the activities of interest would help augment tourists' overall satisfaction and their intention to communicate via positive word-of-mouth.

4.2.4 *Summary of “Segmenting Group Tourists Heading for Warmer Weather: a Norwegian Example”*

The aim of the fourth paper is to analyse responses of tourists travelling on a pre-arranged tour and to segment the tourists accordingly. The study employs a factor-cluster market segmentation approach and outlines a variety of motivations of Norwegian outbound “charter trip tourists”. Market segmentation is a common strategy for the tourism industry to deal with diversity within a market, and segmentation studies proliferate in research as well as in industry. The idea behind market segmentation is to define groups that have internal similarities and external diversity. Knowledge regarding these customer groups can then help businesses to tailor their products and communication towards each segment more efficiently.

Based on eight previously defined motivation factors, a cluster analysis is performed in order to identify similar respondents based on their motivations to take a trip for holiday purposes. These motivation-based segments are tested towards activities performed (H5, H14, H15), the relative importance given to motivation (H16), satisfaction (H20, H23) and intended behaviour (H26).

The findings show that there are four distinct segments amongst the Norwegian group tourists – the “active sun and family enthusiasts”, the “culture patrons”, the “experience searchers” and the “sun and comfort seekers”. The results of the cluster analysis and subsequent tests show that the traditional charter tourists from Norway differentiate in many ways. The groups are classified according to demographic and other individual background variables. The first and probably most conspicuous variable that comes to mind is the kids/family dimension combined with the sun dimension, which seems to divide the tourists into two main parts: two segments travelling together with kids/family and searching for sun/warmth, and two segments that are less oriented towards these elements. However, the two clusters that are oriented towards the kids/family and Sun/Beach motives are not homogenous on other variables. The results reveal that one of the sun/family segments is

more strongly motivated on most factors as well as more active than the other segments. Between the two remaining segments, one is motivated by culture (named “the Culture Patron”), while the other appears to have many motives, none of which seem to be very strong. The latter group performs more trip activities, indicating that they are oriented towards experiencing new things and therefore named “Experiencing”. As we learned, three of the segments, which account for almost 75 % of the respondent group, seem more active than the Family Sun and Comfort segment. The results further indicate that the motive segments predicted different activity patterns as well as satisfaction structures. The results indicate that within the group of people travelling on pre-arranged tours, individualistic-oriented people (e.g. drifters and explorers) might be present. The transportation side of a journey, as well as pre-ordering tours, might be viewed in light of increasing the possibilities of increasing the quality of the tourist experiences or lowering the costs of a trip rather than fulfilling the need for security as earlier research implied.

4.2.5 *Summary of “Stability in Outbound Travel Motivation – a Norwegian Example”*

The fifth article deals with the question of stability of travel motivation. Only travel and leisure motives with *some degree of stability* are likely to contribute to predictions of travel choice or behaviour. Lounsbury and Hoopes (1988) emphasised the rather general point that: “*One of the minimum essential characteristics of variables under study in any field is that they demonstrate some degree of stability over five years of time*”. This is highly relevant to tourism market research involving motives or preferences. Here, travel and leisure motives with *some degree of stability* are likely to contribute more to predictions of travel choice or behaviour than motives that fluctuate from day to day.

In general, theories of motivation imply a dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs, wants and goals). More precisely, the term *motivation* is defined in terms of choosing an activity or task in which to engage, establishing the level of effort to put into it, and determining the degree of persistence over time (Campbell and Pritchard, 1976; Kanfer, 1990). Motives thus have direction as well as strength (Solomon, 1992), and lead to goal-oriented behaviour. According to Heckhausen (1989: 8), a motive is a lasting disposition within the individual, indicating some sort of stability over time.

The article tests the reliability of tourist different motivation scales (H6). It further examines the consistency in tourist motivation for travelling in two different purchase situations (pre- and post-purchase situations) (H7, H8 (alt.H1), H9 (alt. H2)).

Eight motive scales, based on previous research and consultations with a travel company, were used in a survey of outbound tourists from Norway (n = 243). Their stability was tested in a quasi-experimental pre-post design. Respondents' trips abroad were used as the 'experimental treatment', and post-intervention measurements were taken at two different points in time: *either* after one week *or* after two months. *Internal consistency* proved satisfactory for seven out of eight motive scales tested. Confirmatory factor analysis also lends some support to the *single-scale factor models*. All seven scales show satisfactory test/retest reliability. A small, but statistically significant *difference between pre- and post-travel motives* emerged in the powerful repeated-measurements analysis. A difference of this magnitude is not likely to have any practical significance, however. The interval difference between post- and pre-measurements (one week versus two months) had no significant effect. Thus, the travel motives measured in the study may be trusted to be relatively lasting and stable phenomena. For the use of travel motives for predicting travel choices and behaviour, this is a necessary, although insufficient precondition.

4.2.6 *Summary of "I am Not a Typical Tourist" – German Tourists' Self-Perception, Activities and Motivations"*

The sixth study focused on self-perception as expressed by German tourists in Norway. The basic research question asked was: Do German tourists view themselves as typical or non-typical of the group to which they belong (namely "German tourists")? Earlier research indicates that there is sometimes a significant discrepancy between what people are and what they believe themselves to be (Neisser, 1997), particularly with respect to negative attributes (self-serving bias). Consequently, it was expected that the respondents would view themselves as being different from other tourists, and that most German tourists would perceive themselves as being non-typical. At the same time, it was also expected that the respondents would report similar activities during their stays in Norway and that they would report more-or-less the same motives for their current trips, regardless of their self-allocation to one of the two groups. Thus, the aim of the present study was to determine whether the tourists' self-perception (as typical or non-typical) reflected actual differences in activities or motivations for travelling.

The purpose of the sixth article was thus to describe and test tourist motives (H30) and activities (H29) in relationship to how tourists perceive themselves – as typical or non-typical tourists (H28). Results indicate that while some 90 % of the respondents view themselves as non-typical tourists, the views of the two groups of what constituted a typical German tourist

do not differ significantly. Interestingly, the data shows no significant differences between the two groups with respect to their activities or their motives for travelling to Norway. The article further explores the question of how it is possible to understand tourist behaviour when people's self-perception as a tourist does not satisfactorily explain any difference in motives or activity.

Based on the findings in the present study, it may be tentatively concluded that tourists have a need to be regarded as individuals. The challenge for the industry is to be aware of this need, and respond adequately. One response, in our view, would be to train personnel to appreciate the individual tourist. Another response would be for enterprises in the tourist industry to re-think their own potential contributions to tourists' opportunities to express their individuality with respect to activities offered.

