
FROM MOTIVATION TO ACTUAL TRAVEL



Yoel Mansfeld
University of Haifa, Israel

Abstract: A critical review is presented of all theoretical aspects of the destination-choice process. Decision theory and the destination-choice model are outlined, followed by a discussion of the role of motivation in travel behavior and its complex nature. Subsequently, the role of travel information and the information-gathering stage are examined. The stage of assessment and elimination of destination alternatives is then discussed. Finally, the article reviews the external constraints impinging on destination-choice at the group level. The article concludes with an indication of the problematic issues and consequent future research directions needed in the pursuit of a more holistic theoretical framework for tourists' destination-choice behavior. **Keywords:** destination-choice behavior, decision theory, motivation, information, constraints.

Résumé: De la motivation à la réalisation du voyage. On présente un tour d'horizon critique de tous les aspects théoriques du processus du choix de la destination. La théorie de décision et le modèle du choix de la destination sont discutés, ainsi que le rôle de la motivation dans le comportement du voyageur et la nature complexe de celle-ci. Ensuite, on examine le rôle des renseignements touristiques et le rassemblement de ces informations. On discute ensuite de l'étape d'évaluation et d'élimination des autres destinations. Finalement, l'article passe en revue les contraintes contradictoires au sujet du choix de la destination au niveau du groupe. L'article conclut en indiquant les sujets problématiques et les futures directions de recherches vers une théorie plus holistique du comportement du choix de la destination touristique. **Mots-clés:** comportement du choix de la destination, théorie de décision, motivation, informations, contraintes.

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this article is to establish a theoretical framework for an issue that forms a key element in the study of tourism today: the tourist destination-choice process. Recently, revived interest in this subject has been accompanied by a more normative approach, one based on the assumption that the search for the determinants of tourist flows must concentrate on the process preceding the actual trip: the destina-

Yoel Mansfeld is a Lecturer at the University of Haifa (Department of Geography, Haifa 31999, Israel). He received his Ph.D. from the Geography Department at the London School of Economics, University of London. His research interests include spatial and social aspects of leisure, recreation and tourism, tourism planning, and tourism development in developing countries.

tion-choice. This approach assumes that the various patterns of tourist flows yield results from a differential choice-process that is derived from a variety of tourist needs, expectations, and backgrounds.

Historically it has been argued that mathematics and economics have contributed to a theoretical understanding of decision making by introducing such central concepts of classic normative decision theory as probability, utility, and heuristics. Decision theory, however, has absorbed additional concepts from the social sciences, particularly psychology and social psychology (Scholz 1983:3). For more than four decades, these two closely related disciplines have dominated research into decision problems at the levels of the individual and the society. (A good review of the historical aspects of decision theory can be found in Edwards, Lindman and Phillips 1965; Lee 1971; and Savage 1954.)

Two different approaches may be used in trying to form a theoretical framework for decisionmaking processes. The first is the traditional deterministic approach, which proposes that the individual (or the group), being economically rational, will choose that alternative which is perceived to have the greatest utility or attractiveness (Burnett 1973; Girt 1976; Halperin, Richardson and Constanzo 1984:129; Mathieson and Wall 1982:26; Rushton 1969; Timmermans 1984a:189). This approach, however, has been criticized for being nonrealistic. Other researchers, therefore, have developed and applied a probabilistic approach, based on random-utility theory. Basically, this assumes that choice among alternative destinations is a probabilistic matter and that utilities are actually probabilities (Halperin, Richardson and Constanzo 1984:12-89). Geographers, like Pipkin (1981); Timmermans (1984a); Halperin, Richardson and Constanzo (1984); and Fisher and Nijkamp (1985) and psychologists and social-psychologists, like Berkeley and Humphreys (1982) and Aschenbrenner, Zaus, Mai and Ksiensik (1982), are very much in favor of this second approach.

Today, random-utility theory and the probabilistic approach dominate research into aspects of decision making in most of the social sciences. Its advantage over the rational-deterministic theoretical paradigm lies in assuming that the utility or utilities of a certain assessed alternative are composed of *both rational and irrational elements*. By examining them both, one can impart a more realistic understanding of their nature and the relative importance of their influence on the decision process and its consequences. It is well documented in studies on the travel motivation of tourists that random and irrational motivation can change the entire way of evaluating attributes. This happens when no importance is placed on parameters that would rationally be considered the main determinants of the destination choice process (Cohen and Taylor 1976:114; de Charms and Muir 1978:107; Goodall 1988; Mathieson and Wall 1982:26; Pearce 1982:53).

DECISION-MAKING PROCESS OF TOURISTS

Two possible theoretical approaches to the study of decision making by tourists may be inferred from the foregoing discussion of the evolution of decision theory. The old concept of "economic-rational man" means that tourists' spatial arrangements (in terms of destination

choice) reflect their need to optimize benefits within the constraints of disposable time and money (Mathieson and Wall 1982:26). In practical terms, however, the destination-choice of tourists, as with many other kinds of choices, involves a degree of uncertainty (Berkeley and Humphreys 1982:240; Gold 1980:31; Mathieson and Wall 1982:86; Pred 1967:25). Basic tourist conditions, like the weather, the real quality of service, the real quality of accommodations, and the attitude of the hosts, are sometimes unknown at the time decisions are being made. Existing sources of tourist information can only present a picture of the *probability* of acquiring a given utility at a particular potential destination on the basis of the image created. In view of the disadvantages of the "normative-rational" approach, therefore, the behavioral-probabilistic approach (based on random utility) should be adopted for the study of tourist choice.

According to the latter approach, the individual goes through several decision stages of what van Raaij and Francken (1984) called a "vacation sequence." This process is very much controlled by both the push and pull factors that design travel behavior. The tourist is first motivated by given "push factors" (e.g., the boredom of daily life, health problems, the need for relaxation, business) to take a vacation. Having been so motivated, the individual (or the family) has to make a decision whether to go on an excursion or to stay at home. This decision is based on an assessment of individual or family constraints as well as the prevailing economic situation. It is documented in the literature that in times of economic hardship, people tend either to give up their vacation plans or to opt for cheaper solutions. The chosen course of action in such periods is class differentiated (van Raaij and Eilander 1983; van Raaij and Francken, 1984). If the decision is to undertake a vacation trip, the rest of the decision process is channelled through the stages of information gathering, elimination of alternatives, and actual choice (Figure 1).

Role of Motivation in Travel Behavior

What motivates people to travel as tourists? Is it a certain need that must be fulfilled? If so, is it a basic or a nonbasic kind of need? Moreover, if one assumes that a vacationer is stimulated to travel, how does the kind of stimulus controlling the travel motivation affect destination-choice behavior? Are there any direct causal relations between the stimuli received and the final decision on where to go? If causal relations do exist, are they reflected in the actual spatial behavior? Such questions encompass, in fact, the most fundamental problems that engage social scientists who study the behavioral aspects of tourism. An analysis of the motivational stage (which generates the whole process) can reveal the way in which people set goals for their destination-choice and how these goals are then reflected in both their choice and travel behavior. Moreover, it can provide tour operators, tourism planners, and other tourist-related institutions with a better understanding of the real expectations, needs and goals of tourists (Goodall 1988; Jefferson and Lickorish 1988; Murphy 1985:10; Pearce

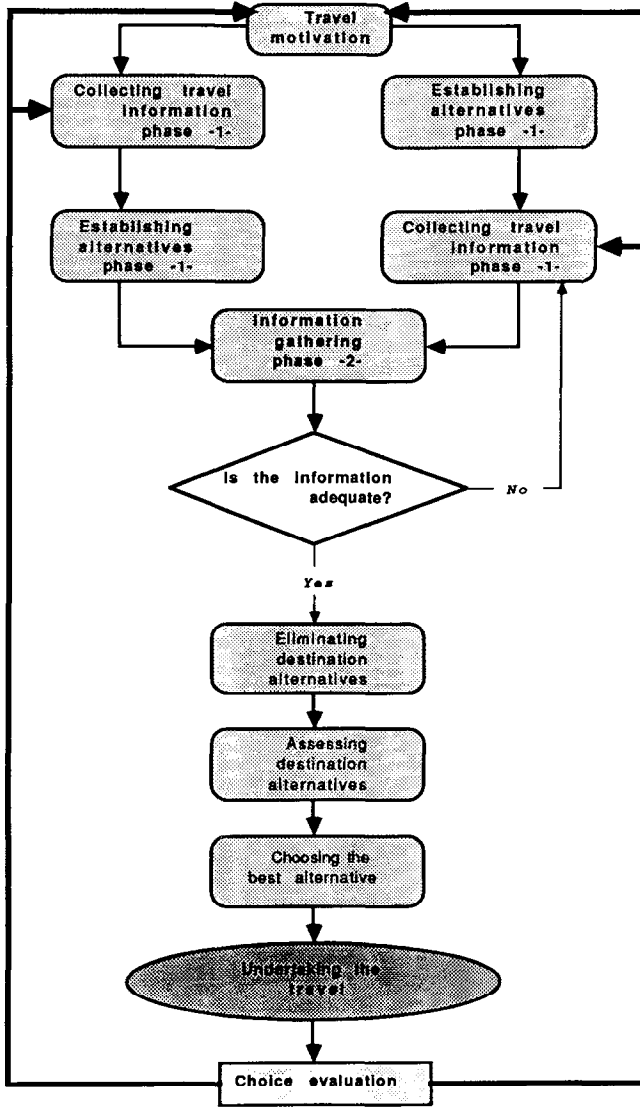


Figure 1. Conceptual Model of Tourist Destination Choice

Note: Based partially on Mathieson and Wall (1982).

1981:30; Wahab 1975:44). Such an understanding is essential for creating “tailor-made” travel products designed to meet these needs and expectations.

Although there is increasing awareness of the necessity to undertake such research, few case studies have empirically tried to come to grips with the problem of travel motivation (Dann, Nash and Pearce 1988). The lack of such studies is actually a reflection of a wider situation. Theory on motivational mechanisms in consumer choice in general

has been backed by only a few empirical studies since the early 1950s (Bettman 1979). Pearce, in reviewing the subject of travel motivation, made this conclusion in the early 1980s:

One of the notable gaps in the existing literature on travel motivation is the failure to build on previous studies. A full consideration of travel motivation research in the context of the more recent psychological theories of motivation is necessary to provide a theoretical perspective and context in this rather fragmented field of inquiry (1982:21).

A decade later, Pearce's claim is still relevant. Case studies that have dealt with the questions have done so only to a limited extent. The various lists of travel motives that they yielded did not reflect a consistent picture of the main determinants of travel behavior. The complexity and the level of subjectivity involved in such studies account, in part, for this incomplete treatment (Mill and Morrison 1985:1).

What is the academic contribution to the understanding of travel motivation? In the 1970s, several psychologists introduced theoretical frameworks that sought to determine the different types of travel motivation and their relative importance in shaping overall travel motivation. These theories were inspired by different approaches to motivation used in the discipline of psychology (i.e., biological, instinctual, cognitive, and self-actualization perspectives). Pearce (1982:53-54) viewed the achievements of psychology in analyzing travel motivation as being very limited, for the following reasons:

First, the study of travel motivation centered mainly on those motivations which were detectable through traditional, common research methods only.

Second, some of the motivations were detected by observing tourists' behavior rather than by asking the tourists about it in a direct manner.

Third, there were attempts to categorise motivations on the basis of either the type of motivation (i.e., physical, cultural, personal, prestige and status as detected by Thomas 1964; Gray 1979; McIntosh 1977) or according to its control period (i.e., short-term or long-term motivational control as indicated by Clawson 1963; Pearce 1982; and de Charms and Muir 1978).

Both classifications mentioned by Pearce have failed to predict tourist behavior; moreover, they are substantially overlapping. Two further problems prevent the attainment of a reasonable theory that would enable the prediction of tourist behavior based on travel motivation. One is the fact that travel might be initiated by a "one-motive only" situation, a "leading-motive(s) situation," or a "multimotive" situation.

Figure 2 demonstrates that the larger the number of motivators influencing travel behavior, the more difficult it becomes to distinguish each separate motivation, to evaluate its relative importance as a trip generator, and, hence, to predict any future travel behavior on its basis.

The second problem relates to the complex nature of travel motivation. Some researchers (e.g., de Charms and Muir 1978; Goodall

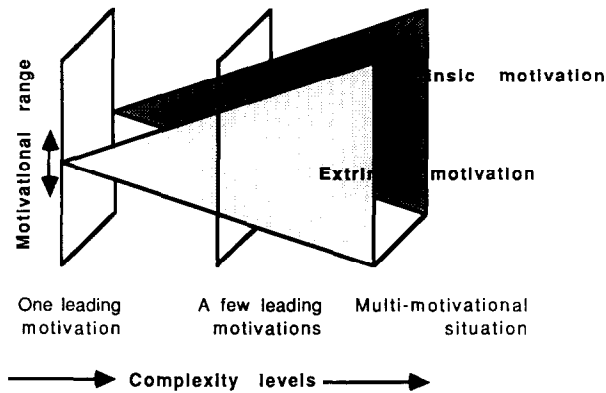


Figure 2. Complexity Levels in Travel Motivation

Source: Mansfeld (1987).

1988; Mill and Morrison 1985; Pearce 1982) suggest that travel behavior is at times controlled by intrinsic motivations. Because this kind of motivation is hardly measurable by positive deterministic methods, research into travel motivation cannot provide a comprehensive explanation of its role as a determinant. In order to overcome this situation, Pearce (1982:53) suggested a general motivational theory of tourist behavior be formulated by introducing a phenomenological, nondeterministic approach combined with the more traditional method.

The absence of solid theoretical ground for the psychological process involved in establishing travel motivation raises a fundamental question. Should social scientists make use of this partial, limited body of theoretical knowledge in their research on the spatial aspects of tourist behavior? In other words, is this limited knowledge sufficiently developed to enable its use in efforts to explain *why*, rather than only tell *how*, certain patterns of tourist movement occur? This latter question will be discussed later. As to the first question, it might be noted that the lack of a well-developed theoretical framework for travel motivation has not deterred some social scientists from using that theory or even from basing their research upon it. These researchers have shown several correlations between certain observed motivations and tourists' spatial behaviors, then speculated on and predicted tourist behavior on the basis of these theoretical developments.

For example, Meinke (1968:23), Dann (1977:26), Matley (1976:1), Wahlers and Etzel (1985:283), and Snepenger (1987:8) have all argued that a strong link exists between tourism and urbanization. Dann (1977) and Matley (1976) each concluded that big-city dwellers are motivated to travel as tourists by their need to escape an artificial, monotonous, anomic, and difficult day-to-day life. This concept of tourism as a compensating mechanism for a boring life in the city was widely adopted by other social scientists such as sociologists (e.g., Cohen 1979; Cohen and Taylor 1976), although it has never been seriously examined as a major generator of tourism.

Robinson (1979:29-30), as another example, adopted McIntosh's (1977) list of categories of travel motivations. This is one of several cases in which a geographer, on the one hand, agrees that travel is the outcome of *various simultaneous motivations* and, on the other hand—because of the lack of theory to prove that contention—uses a list of leading motivations, which of course assumes that a situation of only *one* leading motivation exists. Burkart and Medlik recognized the complexity and difficulty in detecting the multimotivational determinants that shape tourist flows:

. . . it seems that whilst the long-term determinants of tourism can be identified with some certainty and whilst they show a high degree of stability over a long period of time, motivations to tourism are less precise and tend to change more frequently. We can describe the "who, when, where, and how" of tourism, the economic and social characteristics of tourists and their behavior; we are far less confident in assessing and predicting their gratification (1981:57-58).

Nevertheless, they went ahead and used an oversimplification of Gray's (1979) travel-motivation theory, which poses only two main motivations for travel. One is the "wanderlust"—the simple desire to go from a known to an unknown place, to discover new vistas. The other motivation is what Gray called "sunlust." This generates a trip to a place that can provide the traveler with specific facilities that do not exist in his or her own place of residence (e.g., coral reefs, which attract scuba divers, or high-altitude slopes covered with snow, which attract skiers). This approach represents a confusion between person-specific motivations and resort-specific attributes. Such confusion still appears in some recent publications. In a recent book, Coltman (1989) still classifies travel motivations as either "motivations related to destination" and/or "motivations not related to destination." Other recent studies, though, have made a clear distinction between the push motivations and the pull attributes and images of a given destination (e.g., Kent 1990).

The behavioral geographer, John Jakle (1985:5-17), in reviewing the emergence of the U.S. "tourist movement," also adopted the current travel-motivation theories. He used these theories to support the observed behavior of U.S. tourists in the early 1920s, which was described by only a few U.S. writers. This paucity of reports raises doubts as to the validity of Jakle's arguments, and hence of his analysis of tourist behavior in the early twentieth-century North America. Despite the awareness of the oversimplification of travel-motivation theories and their insufficient contribution to the understanding of travel behavior, it is surprising that researchers still use such theories to account for the generation of tourist flows.

Gathering Tourist Information

Travel information as such has not been accorded thorough attention in the academic tourism literature (Manfredo 1989:29). Only a few researchers (mainly social psychologists, sociologists, marketing analysts, and, to a lesser extent, geographers and economists) have

studied the interrelationships of information, image creation, and the spatial behavior that emerges on a general level (Bettman 1979; Mansfeld 1987a:31; Stabler 1988:34). Therefore, it is important to discuss the role played by travel information in the destination-choice process, and to assess theoretical developments, as well as the considerations concerning the impact of travel information on tourists' actual destination choice.

Once motivated to tour, potential tourists need to gather sufficient information on various aspects of their planned trip. In most decision-making processes, the information-collecting stage takes place before probable decision alternatives have been established. When tourists consider a locality for a vacation, their decision-sequence is not necessarily the same (Figure 1). The process of gathering information in order to choose a tourist destination proceeds in two phases. In the first phase, the individual gathers enough information to ascertain that attractive destinations offered or chosen are within constraint limits (mainly in terms of disposable time and money and family situation). In the second phase, after alternative destinations (which do not contradict the constraints set out previously) have been mentally established, another type of information is collected. This information is meant to enable the potential tourist to evaluate each alternative on a "place-utility" rather than on a constraint basis.

Two possible choice directions can be taken by an individual in the case of travel decision making (Figure 1), the directions depending on the level and the type of travel motivation existing when the decision-process started. A stimulus to travel can lead either to a motivation to travel to a very specific place or to a general motivation that places no specific preference on any particular destination. More accurately, stated motivation can lead to a range of geographical decision situations from "no specific destination" through "a certain region or country" to "a very specific place." It is precisely the level of ambiguity of the destination preference that defines the possible choice direction taken by the tourist decision maker.

Understanding the sequence in which tourist information is used within the decision process raises further questions. First, what kind of tourist information is usually at a tourist's disposal? Second, to what extent is this information important for the decision maker? Third, what exactly is the perceived role of tourist information (from both the tourist's and the tourism industry's perspective)? Finally, how do the various kinds of available information influence the final destination-choice?

The available tourist information emanates mainly from two types of sources: formal (the commercial environment) and the informal (the social environment) (Goodall 1989:2; Mill and Morrison 1985:18-19). The *formal* sources consist of travel agents, brochures, travelogs, travel-guide books, and maps. In some countries, especially the big tourist-flow generators, other types of formal information exist: radio and television programs essentially dedicated to tourism, information through a teletext service, videos shown in travel agencies, and printed information in magazines and newspapers (Burkart and Medlik 1981: 210-211). Comprising the *informal* sources of information are the

recommendations and impressions of other people (friends or relatives and social groups), based on their own past travel experiences and long-term personal knowledge acquired during previous travels (Goodall 1988:3; Jakle 1985:17; Mathieson and Wall 1982:31; Murphy 1985:16).

What is the relative importance of the informal sources of information vis-à-vis the formal ones? Nolan (1976:7) found that information from friends and relatives, although ranking lowest in credibility, was the most comprehensive. Information given by official sources (e.g., guide books, tourist offices, automobile clubs) ranked high in terms of both credibility and quality. Nolan's study, however, ignored the importance of the various printed promotional materials—the brochures that today comprise a basic, widespread source of travel information. In a study of the relative importance of travel brochures among British tourists, Mansfeld (1987:152) concluded that at least in the context of the British outgoing tourist market, brochures had become a major information source, replacing to some extent the travel agent as both a source of information and a "booking clerk." The study revealed that just over 50% of the tourists interviewed based their choice of destination solely on the information provided in travel brochures. These people belonged to all socioeconomic classes, which suggests that tourists today rely heavily on commercial sources of information and less on formal sources such as the travel agent. Francken and van Raaij (1979), in their study of tourists' information acquisition, concluded that whereas guidebooks and consumer organizations played a minor role, informal social information was increasingly being consulted throughout the decision sequence. They also found that tourists tended to shift from the intensive use of sales persons, travel catalogs, and advertisements in early stages of the vacation sequence, to advisory sources such as travel agents and automobile associations toward the actual undertaking of the vacation trip. Differential importance placed on formal and informal travel information has been shown to exist among tourists of different education levels. The more educated the tourist, the more information sources he or she will use (Francken and van Raaij 1979).

Although the role of the travel agent as a major source of official tourist information has been diminishing, Mill and Morrison (1985:401), basing this study on surveys made by the United States Travel Services, concluded that the agents' role is still very important when tourists consider trips to remote destinations. This tendency was found among both Canadian and Mexican tourists. Moreover, the travel agent plays an important role in situations in which tourists have only a vague idea of where they want to go (Mill and Morrison 1985:418).

The role and relative importance of formal sources of information, promotional material and particularly brochures, in creating favorable images, consumer choice, and travel behavior was scarcely covered by the literature before the late 1980s. Recently, however, several studies have dealt with these issues (e.g., Bass, Manfredo and Allen 1989; Cohen 1989; Goodall 1988; Mansfeld 1987b; Stabler 1989; Urbin 1989). In these works, the impact and use of promotional material supplied at the travel agency were examined separately from material

supplied on site. Stabler (1989:134), for example, looked at the extent to which tourists used locally supplied informational material (mainly locally produced brochures) in the Languedoc-Roussillon resorts in the south of France. Over 80% of the visitors interviewed were found not to make use of any local brochure or guide. His findings suggest that the role of locally supplied travel information (mainly promotional material) as an image creator and as a demand generator is relatively minor in the context of this particular region. Seemingly contradictory results were obtained by Etzel and Wahlers (1984:2), who examined the extent to which destination-specific travel literature (DSTL) is sought during the travel decision-making process. Their analysis of data collected from a consumer panel operated by Wright State University showed that nearly 50% of the potential tourists did seek DSTL before choosing a preferred destination. The two studies reviewed here demonstrate that tourists apparently rely more on informational material while preparing their trip at home than after arriving at their destination.

Why is more importance placed on information gathering before the actual trip is taken? The attempt to answer this question brings one back to decision-making theory. It is generally accepted by psychologists as well as other social scientists and mathematicians involved in the study of decision theory that, as in other decisions, a certain risk is involved in deciding where to go (Etzel and Wahlers 1984; Sheldon and Mak 1987). What does a person risk when choosing a preferred travel destination? First, one risks the limited disposable time usually allocated to people by social and/or institutional norm systems (a limited amount of paid holidays allocated on a yearly basis to employees, e.g.). Second, one risks the money often saved especially for the purpose of taking a trip as a tourist (the economic risk). Third, expectations and desires that had led to the initial need and motivation to travel are put at risk (Mathieson and Wall 1982; Stabler 1989). Fourth, the potential tourist risks facing a frustrating situation that might even lead to social stress for those motivated to travel primarily by their social reference group. Finally, in some extreme cases, when the prime travel motivation is medical, there is the risk of a wrong destination choice, which can put one's health at risk. Hence, it is obvious that when people's valuable disposable time and money and their need to travel are all involved, they will naturally try to minimize the risk of making a wrong decision.

How is it possible to minimize the risk of not fulfilling one's travel expectations? An answer to this question is vital, because there is always a time lag between purchasing the tourist product and its actual consumption (Gilbert 1989; Murphy 1985). This time lag is sometimes exploited by tour operators, who may misrepresent information on certain destinations without the tourist's being able to respond immediately after having purchased the "product." In other words, the tourist can only hope that the perceived image that was acquired through the various information sources is as close as possible to the "real-world" situation. If it is otherwise, the tourist will find out too late.

Among researchers, a general recognition exists that tourist information in its various formats is meant, and produced, to create favor-

able images for shaping tourist flows around the world (Bass, Manfredi and Allen 1989:35; Goodall 1988:3; Mill and Morrison 1985:402; Pearce 1982:8; van Raaij and Francken 1984:103). Unfortunately, this generalization is misleading in that it treats all types of existing tourist information as if bound to misrepresent the reality of tourist destinations. One can, of course, obtain information from travel brochures that creates a very positive, attractive image of a place, but that is quite misleading. On the other hand, there are guidebooks that tend to present an unbiased (if sometimes partial) picture of the destination. Thus, awareness of the existence of intentionally biased tourist information will help the potential tourist place even more importance on the information-gathering process when the purchase of a tourist product is being considered. The key to the optimal decision in this case, as with the consumption of any other product, is the extent to which a broad, comprehensive selection of information lies at the consumer's disposal (Gold 1980:32; Raffée, Grabicke, Schätzle and Schöler 1982:489).

All these theoretical considerations as to the importance of information gathering do not, as yet, correspond with the actual usage pattern detected by various studies. As stated earlier, the small number of works that have dealt with this question cannot lead to any systematic results. Instead, there is general agreement—not based on empirical evidence—that travel information as risk minimizer, image creator, and justification mechanism after the choice is taken plays an important role in the destination-choice process. Further research is needed to examine the validity of this general assumption on a broad empirical level.

Choosing Destination Alternatives

Having gathered the travel information, the individual reaches a stage of feeling confident enough to establish several destination alternatives. This confidence is achieved when the two-phased information-gathering process has been completed; the person is then usually left with the feeling that the quality and quantity of information gathered allow the elimination of alternatives that either do not fit the basic existing constraints or constitute a high risk (Montgomery 1983:343). In practical terms, how does one assess these alternatives? How are values assigned to each alternative? What components comprise a certain alternative? In order to answer these questions, there is a need to look more deeply into the utility concept, the destination-attribute evaluation, and the possible ways of using the information on that evaluation by means of "conjoint analysis."

At the root of every destination choice is the assignment of utility values to various "parts" of the destination alternative. These parts are referred to as "destination attributes" (Claxton 1989:460). The set of attributes is constructed in the tourist's mind as a result of perceived needs and expectations derived from a given destination, constraints to be faced, and the information collected while pursuing a destination-choice process. Each attribute within this set is assigned either a positive or a negative utility value. Once the perceived attributes and

utilities have been structured by the individual, a measurement scale needs to be constructed that enables the weighting of the utility values of each attribute (Claxton 1989:460). This preference scale, together with a decision criterion, forms the basis of the alternative selection process. Some researchers suggest that the more attributes representing high utility values that exist in a particular alternative, the more likely it is that this alternative will be chosen as the preferred one. Others (mainly psychologists), however, prefer the probabilistic approach, which suggests that the probability of choosing a certain alternative is systematically related to the positioning of the choice alternatives on a subjective "preference scale" (Timmermans 1984b).

The tourist seeking a final decision usually acts in two stages. First, those destinations that are totally unacceptable are eliminated. Second, the subset of alternatives is evaluated in order to reach a final choice (Bettman 1979). In order to make a decision, the potential tourist has to establish a certain *decision rule*, which determines a threshold level of satisfaction. This decision rule works as a guideline for accepting or rejecting various assessed destination alternatives. The psychological literature dealing with this matter defines two main types of decision rules: *compensatory* and *noncompensatory*. (A good review and discussion of decision rules and their various mechanisms can be found in Fischhoff, Gointein and Zhpira 1984; Montgomery 1983; Montgomery and Svenson 1976; Slovic 1975; Svenson 1979; Timmermans 1984b.)

Noncompensatory rules relate to decision situations in which trade-offs between attributes do not occur. The following are examples of noncompensatory decision rules. One, *dominance rule*, by which alternative 1 is chosen over alternative 2 if 1 is better than 2 on at least one attribute and not worse than 2 on *all* other attributes. Two, *conjunctive rule*, by which only alternatives that exceed or are equal to all of a given set of criterion values of the attributes are chosen. Three, *disjunctive rule*, by which only alternatives that exceed or are equal to at least one of a set of criterion values of the attributes are chosen. Four, *lexographic rule*, by which alternative 1 is chosen over 2 if it is better (or significantly better) than 2 on the most important attribute. If this requirement is not fulfilled, the choice is based on the most attractive aspects of the attributes next in order of importance (Montgomery 1983:345).

In the case of noncompensatory decision rules, the potential traveler evaluates each alternative separately, then compares the utility values of each alternative, and eventually chooses one alternative. Not allowed is an unattractive aspect of one attribute to be compensated by an attractive aspect of another attribute.

Compensatory rules refer to decision situations in which changes in one attribute can be compensated at least partially by opposite changes in other attributes (Timmermans 1984b). The contention here is that the final choice of a preferred tourist destination is the outcome of a decision rule based subjectively on an evaluation score. Thus, low scores or negative scores on one or more attributes can be compensated (at least partially) by high scores on one or more of the other attributes, which is basically a trade-off situation (Claxton, 1989:461). In the case of assessed destination attributes, one might have to give up expected weather conditions, for example, in order to be able to enjoy certain

expected tourist activities. Compensatory decision rules can be of two basic forms. First there is *maximizing number of attributes* with a greater attractiveness rule, by which alternative 1 is chosen over alternative 2 if 1 differs favorably from 2 on a greater number of attributes than the number of attributes on which 2 differs favourably from 1. Second, there is *addition of utilities rule*, by which the alternative with the greatest sum of (weighted) attractiveness values (utilities) across all attributes is chosen (Montgomery 1983:435).

In fact, most decision situations regarding destination choice are of the compensatory (trade-off) type. Such tradeoff situations differ from one decision maker to another, however, as a result of different travel needs and expectations; different kinds of personal, family, and social constraints; and the process being an individual or family decision (Claxton 1989:460; Mansfeld 1987a:35; van Raaij and Francken 1984:109).

"Conjoint analysis" has been used in a few studies to detect the relative importance (utility levels) assigned to destination attributes by various tourists (Claxton 1989:462; Smith 1989:85). Mansfeld (1987a: 37), for example, used conjoint analysis together with Della Fave's "value stretch model" in a study of the destination-choice behavior of minority groups in northwest London. June and Smith (1987:7) used conjoint analysis to examine the choice behavior of restaurant clientele and the effect of the social context on tourists' evaluation of the characteristics of restaurants. In both cases, the results could serve as planning and management implications. Hence, this technique proved that it can both strengthen one's theoretical understanding of tourists' choice behavior and serve as a practical tool to be used in applied research. In order to achieve good results with conjoint analysis, however, the researcher needs carefully to choose the attribute framework, the relevant rating scale, the appropriate data-collection method, and the right statistical method for the analysis (Claxton 1989:456; Smith 1989:92).

Insofar as this clarification of the theory supporting the assessment of alternatives and the way in which they are eliminated within the decision process, it should be noted that the main contribution toward this theoretical development has come not only from psychologists and marketing analysts, but also from geographical studies over the past two decades (de Leeuw, Keller and Wansbeck 1983; Fisher and Nijkamp 1985; Mazursky 1989; Montgomery and Svenson 1976; Svenson 1979; Wegener 1982). During this period, geographical research into decision-making processes regarding spatial behavior adopted "discrete-choice" models and research methods developed by psychology that use mathematical and statistical techniques. These models and methods were introduced as substitutes for the general aggregative models that have been common in both geographical and psychological research since the so-called quantitative revolution of the 1960s. They provided an explanatory rather than a descriptive method, the aim of which was to reveal the determinants of people's behavior in a given choice context (Fisher and Nijkamp 1985:516). Geographers, in the few research areas in which they used spatial discrete-choice models, have to prove the superiority of these models over the alternative,

classic general aggregates. The adoption of the discrete-choice approach, as well as its methodological implementation, was successful mainly because of its better explanatory power. Though improving the results of spatial analysis, geographers nevertheless generally failed to link their empirical findings with behavioral theory developed by psychologists. Consequently the explanatory phase of the geographical studies was either neglected or mis-interpreted (Fisher and Nijkamp 1985:516-517).

Behavior at the Group Level

The fact that the process of evaluating travel alternatives is at once both rational and irrational may lead to the impression that it involves only a personal decision. Studies in this area have shown that a consideration of alternative courses of action is never undertaken in an "environmental vacuum" (Burkart and Medlik 1981; Chapin 1968, 1974; Cheek and Burch 1976; Cohen and Taylor 1976; Etzel and Wahlers 1984; Gold 1980; Hechet 1974; Heywood 1988; Kipnis and Mansfeld 1986; Longley 1984; Matley 1976; Robinson 1979; Nichols and Snepenger 1988; Pearce 1982; Timmermans 1984a). It is the social environment that is most often taken into account by the individual decision maker (Cheek and Burch 1976:189). The smallest group affecting an individual's decision is the family. In fact, some researchers (Davis and Rigaux 1974; van Raaij and Francken 1984) suggest that destination choice is an entire family rather than an individual decision. Other studies (e.g., Jenkins 1978), though, showed that the husband still has the major role in forming the destination-choice process. The contribution of the wife and the children (if taken) is smaller; in any case, they seldom play the major role in this "game."

The contribution of wider social groups to the choice processes is not as clear as that of the family. The decision maker, however, knows that the decision process has to be set in a social context by conforming to prevailing social values and norms (Mazursky 1989:334). Humphreys and Berkeley neatly elaborate this point:

The social world not only determines the terrain for definitions and the range of understanding how an individual member can use and perform in his/her decision-making activities, but also provides the person with the arena in which his/her choices and actions will be tried out, justified, interpreted by others and rewarded or sanctioned (1983:122).

In terms of a tourist's spatial choice, this phenomenon means that the individual also chooses a destination according to the norms and value systems existing among one's social reference group (Ferrario 1979a: 18, 1979b; Goodall 1988:8; Mazursky 1989:334; Murphy 1985:10; Nagao, Vollarath and Davis 1978; Robinson 1979:3). If indeed destination-choice behavior is substantially influenced by a person's social reference group, one would expect to find typical choice patterns among each group. Hence, socially segmented tourist spatial behavior is also to be expected.

The tendency of various constraints, in particular social constraints, to impinge upon and, in some cases, to design spatial-choice behavior, has been widely recognized by leisure, recreation, and tourism researchers (Jackson 1988). Initially, in the mid-1960s, tourist groups were found to be segmented on the basis of a propensity to engage in tourist activity. Thus, Robinson (1979:26-27), analyzing data from the 1965 Pilot National Recreation Survey, found that in Britain, this propensity was greatest among upper-class persons. Today, segmentation on this class basis barely exists. As the cost of holiday making began to decline, there was a consequent broadening of the socioeconomic range of the people engaged in tourism. Nevertheless, segmentation based on socioeconomic factors, on demography, and sometimes on the reflection of lifestyle still tends to occur in "tourist movements."

Pearce (1982:9) argued that what attracts tourists belonging to the same social class to the same kind of destination is the social image attached to the destination. Basing his work on such studies as the British Tourist Authority's (1974) study on holiday motivation and Nash's (1979) research into the rise and fall of Nice as an aristocratic resort, he suggested that a certain social life cycle of tourist destinations occurs. Thus, certain destinations such as Nice, Acapulco, and Majorca initially catered to the aristocracy. As conditions changed, particularly the accessibility of destinations to the lower classes, because of substantial reductions in travel fares, a successive class intrusion occurred. Destinations like Torremolinos, Brighton, and others of the kind, where middle-class tourists used to go, are being invaded today by hosts of working-class tourists traveling on package-deal holidays. This social lifecycle approach goes quite far in suggesting that the choice of a preferred tourist destination is made by the individual solely on social grounds.

The assumption that socioeconomic backgrounds are systematically related to preference judgments has been enhanced since the mid-1970s (Burkart and Medlik 1981:53; Cohen and Taylor 1976:115-116; Etzel and Wahlers 1984:3; Mathieson and Wall 1982:17; Matley 1976:1; Wahab 1975:10). On this basis, the influence of socioeconomic constraints on a decision of where to go is quite obvious. Therefore, it is necessary to do two things: one, isolate various socioeconomic variables; two, check the hypothesis supporting the idea that differentiation in tourist spatial behavior is socioeconomically generated or influenced. This approach was disputed by Timmermans (1984a:212). In his review of developments in spatial-choice modeling, Timmermans contended that recent studies showed the opposite to be the case: that whenever socioeconomic groups had been defined *a priori*, no systematic differentiation in choice behavior was found.

The reality is probably somewhere in between, in the sense that both subjective-individual and social considerations design the destination-choice process. Either way, one cannot ignore the "constraint effect" that socioeconomic, demographic, physical, political, and sometimes cultural factors have on the individual decision maker. In fact, there is a growing demand by various researchers to concentrate on studying the constraints rather than the decision process itself (Longley 1984:380-381).

CONCLUSIONS

The attempt to review and evaluate the body of knowledge that forms the basis of a theoretical framework for tourist destination-choice processes showed that these processes have not yet been fully discovered by the social sciences, specifically psychology, geography, and sociology. The lack of a sound theoretical base for this issue emerged from a review of all the main stages of destination-choice process. Emphasis was found to be placed, instead, on the relative contribution of each discipline to the theoretical knowledge guiding each stage.

The need to study the destination-choice process has become more important in recent years as a result of the rapid growth of both travel demand and the tourist industry. In the wake of this growth, the struggle of the industry to attract more potential tourists has also grown. At the same time, tourists have become more experienced and, hence, more sophisticated in terms of their destination-choice behavior and their expectations of the "tourist product." There is no doubt, therefore, that solving the destination-choice puzzle and establishing a sound theoretical framework for this process are no longer matters of purely academic interest; they can be applied to the highly vulnerable tourist industry, which is urging a better understanding of this process. This situation raises a fundamental question as to the course of action that should be taken in order to attain a better understanding of the mechanism behind the destination-choice process.

Travel motivation has been pointed out to be the stage that triggers the whole decision process and channels it accordingly. As such, many researchers still believe that the achievement of a theoretical breakthrough in understanding its function would bring about a full understanding of the choice process. Such a breakthrough is attainable if the research on this issue would take an entirely different course. If it is assumed that travel motivation is reflected in the way tourists evaluate destination attributes, then the relative importance placed on the various attributes can be measured, and, thus, a great deal can be learned about what actually motivates tourists to travel. In order to pursue such a research approach successfully, it is necessary to incorporate two prevailing research strategies. One is the study of tourists' stated preferences; the other is the study of actual choice. Louvière and Timmermans (1990) in a recent review of these two possible research strategies, concluded that stated preference methods should be complementary tools for the study of travel preferences and destination choice. Such complementarity, however, can enhance an understanding of both intrinsic and extrinsic travel motivation only if one incorporates models that characterize the reflection of travel motivation, based upon both preferences and actual choice behavior. A good example of such model is Della Fave's (1974) "value stretch" model, which not only can detect various motivations but can also measure their relative importance in a given profile of motivations.

The second research direction should look into the "information-gathering" stage. In this case, the impact of promotional information material on various types of tourists should be examined. More and more tourists are being exposed to such information sources. Because this material is meant to create favorable images and to stimulate

"nonleading" motivations, it is important to evaluate its "bias effect" on possible choice directions. This evaluation should differentiate among the various information sources in order to learn about their "marginal contribution" to the tourist information base. It is assumed here that the impact of tourist maps, photographs appearing in brochures, promotional videos, and other information sources has a differential effect on a tourist's perception of destinations. Because these sources of information are basically filters that color one's overall image of tourist destinations, on the one hand, and, that the tourist employs as risk minimizers, on the other, it is important to study the individual effect of each type on preferences and actual choice.

A substantial number of studies cited in this article have narrowed their research perspective by investigating only tourists' preferences and destination-choice behavior. These studies have not gone further to examine whether similar destination-choice patterns lead to similar spatial behavior among these tourists. In other words, the assumed causal relationship between choice and spatial behavior has not, as yet, been thoroughly investigated. The question of the regularity of both choice patterns and spatial-behavior patterns is extremely relevant for the tourist industry, tourist planners, and recreation researchers. Characterization of the assumed regularity and causal relationships between these behaviors will enable the designing of a more "tailor-made" tourist product, one that takes into account tourists' motivations and needs while minimizing their possible frustrations when undertaking the actual travel.

In reviewing the existing body of knowledge in the subject, this article revealed another problem relating to the definition of the research unit called "tourist destination." The "destination" has, in most studies, been vaguely defined, if at all. The same models and research techniques have been used to study the evaluation of destination attributes irrespective of the characteristics of a destination. Future research into destination choice, therefore, must establish a clear destination hierarchy based on size and function. It is assumed that the tourist considers various types of destinations in the same decision process. He or she can assess the destination attributes of a whole country, a region, or a local resort. If there exist universal attributes to be considered at the country level, then the smaller the perceived destination, the more likely it is that it will be considered by rather specific, nonuniversal characteristics. This means that concepts, models, and techniques that are applicable in the study of one destination category might not be applicable in others.

Specifying future research directions is one matter; pursuing them is another still. It is clear that the research aims outlined earlier may be attained only if supported by efficient methodologies. The cooperation of various social science disciplines in this regard is a key element in the establishment of a comprehensive theoretical framework for tourist destination-choice processes. □ □

REFERENCES

- Aschenbrenner, K. M., M. Zaus, N. Mai, and M. I. Ksiensik
1982 Theory and Application of Utility and Decision Analysis. *In* *Studies in Deci-*

- sion Making: Social Psychological and Socio-Economic Analyses, M. Irle, ed. Berlin, New York: Walter de Gruyter.
- Bass, J. M., M. J. Manfredo, and D. J. Allen
1989 Evaluation of an Informational Brochure for Promoting Charter Boat Trip Opportunities along the Oregon Coast. *Journal of Travel Research* 27:35-37.
- Berkeley, D., and C. Humphrey
1982 Structuring Decision Problems and the Bias Heuristic. *Acta Psychologica* 50: 201-252.
- Bettman, J. R.
1979 *An Information-Processing Theory of Consumer Choice*. Reading MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Burkart, A. J., and S. Medlik
1981 *Tourism—Past, Present and Future*. London: Heinemann.
- Burnett, P.
1973 The Dimensions of Alternatives in Spatial Choice Processes. *Geographical Analysis* 5:187-204.
- Chapin, F. S.
1963 Land and Water for Recreation—A Working Scheme. *Journal of American Institute of Planners* 34:1-18.
1974 *Human Activity Systems in the City*. London: John Wiley.
- Cheek, N. H., and W. R. Burch
1976 *The Social Organization of Leisure in Human Society*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Clawson, M.
1963 *Land and Water for Recreation—Opportunities, Problems and Policies*. Resources for the Future Policy Background Series. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Claxton, J. D.
1989 Conjoint Analysis in Travel Research: A Manager's Guide. In *Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Research—A Handbook for Managers and Researchers*, J. R. Ritchie and C. R. Geoldner, eds., pp. 459-472. New York: John Wiley.
- Cohen, E.
1979 Re-thinking the Sociology of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 6:18-35.
1989 "Primitive and Remote" Hill Tribe Trekking in Thailand. *Annals of Tourism Research* 16:30-61.
- Cohen, S., and L. Taylor
1976 *Escape Attempts*. London: Penguin Books.
- Coltman, M. M.
1989 *Travel & Tourism: An International Approach*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Dann, G.
1977 Anomie, Ego-enhancement and Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 4: 184-194.
- Dann, G., D. Nash, and P. Pearce
1988 Methodology in Tourism Research. *Annals of Tourism Research* 15:1-28.
- Davis, H. L., and B. P. Rigaux
1974 Perception of Marital Roles in Decision Processes. *Journal of Consumer Research* 1:51-62.
- de Charms, R., and M. S. Muir
1978 Motivation: Social Approach. *Annual Review of Psychology* 29:91-113.
- de Leeuw, J., W. J. Keller, and T. Wansbeek, eds.
1983 Introduction. *Journal of Econometrics* 22:i-vi.
- Della Fave, R.
1974 Success Values: Are They Universal of Class Differentiated? *American Journal of Sociology* 80:155-169.
- Edwards, W., H. Lindman, and L. D. Phillips
1965 Emerging Technologies for Making Decisions. In *New Directions in Psychology*, T. M. Newcomb, ed. New York: Holt, Reinhart & Winston.
- Etzel, M. J., and R. G. Wahlers
1984 The Use of Requested Promotional Materials by Pleasure Travelers. *Journal of Travel Research* 23:2-6.
- Ferrario, F. F.
1979a The Evaluation of Tourist Resources: An Applied Methodology, Part 1. *Journal of Travel Research* 17:18-22.

- 1979b The Evaluation of Tourist Resources: An Applied Methodology, Part 2. *Journal of Travel Research* 17:24-30.
- Fischhoff, B., B. Gointein, and Z. Zhipira
1984 The Experienced Utility of Expected Utility Approaches. *In* *Expectancy, Incentive and Action*, N. T. Feather, ed. Hillsdale NJ: Erlbaum.
- Fisher, M. M., and P. Nijkamp
1985 Development in Explanatory Discrete Spatial Data and Choice Analysis. *Progress in Human Geography* 9:515-551.
- Francken, D. A., and W. F. van Raaij
1979 Longitudinal Study of Vacationers' Information Acquisition Behavior. *Papers on Economic Psychology*, No. 2. Rotterdam: Erasmus University.
- Gilbert, D.
1989 Tourism Marketing: Its Emergence and Establishment. *In* *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management—Volume One*, C. P. Cooper, ed., pp. 77-90. London: Belhaven Press.
- Girt, J. L.
1976 Some Extensions to Rushton's Spatial Preference Model. *Geographical Analysis* 1:137-152.
- Gold, J. R.
1980 An Introduction to Behavioural Geography. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Goodall, B.
1988 How Tourists Choose their Holidays: An Analytical Framework. *In* *Marketing in the Tourism Industry—The Promotion of Destination Regions*, B. Goodall and G. Ashworth, eds., pp. 1-10. London: Croom Helm.
- Gray, H. P.
1979 *International Travel: International Trade*. Lexington MA: Heath Lexington Books.
- Halperin, G. D., N. G. Richardson, and C. M. Constanzo
1984 A Generalized Procedure for Comparing Models of Spatial Choice. *Environment and Planning* 16:1289-1301.
- Heywood, J. L.
1988 Leisure Collectives: A Theoretical Perspective. *Leisure Sciences* 10:119-130.
- Humphreys, P., and D. Berkeley
1983 Problem Structuring, Calculi and Levels of Knowledge in Decision-making. *In* *Decision-making under Uncertainty*, R. W. Scholz, ed. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Jackson, E. L.
1988 Leisure Constraints: A Survey of Past Research. *Leisure Sciences* 10:203-215.
- Jakle, A. J.
1985 *The Tourist: Travel in Twentieth Century North America*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Jefferson, A., and L. Lickorish
1988 *Marketing Tourism—A Practical Guide*. Harlow: Longman.
- Jenkins, R. L.
1978 Family Vacation Decision-Making. *Journal of Travel Research* 16:2-7.
- June, L. P., and S. L. J. Smith
1987 Service Attributes and Situational Effects on Customer Preferences for Restaurant Dining. *Journal of Travel Research* 26:7-20.
- Kent, P.
1990 People, Places and Priorities: Opportunity Sets and Consumers' Holiday Choice. *In* *Marketing Tourism Places*, G. Ashworth and B. Goodall, eds., pp. 133-161. London: Routledge.
- Kipnis, B. A., and Y. Mansfeld
1986 Work-place Utilities and Commuting Patterns: Are They Class or Place Differentiated? *Professional Geographer* 38:160-169.
- Lee, W.
1971 *Decision Theory and Human Behaviour*. New York: John Wiley.
- Longley, P.
1984 Discrete Choice Modelling and Complex Spatial Choice: An Overview. *In* *Recent Developments in Spatial Data Analysis—Methodology, Measurement, Models*, G. Baurenberg, M. M. Fisher, and P. Nijkamp, eds. London: Gower.
- Louvière, J., and H. Timmermans
1990 Stated Preference and Choice Models Applied to Recreation Research: A Review. *Leisure Sciences* 12:9-32.

- McIntosh, R. W.
1977 *Tourism: Principles, Practices and Philosophies*. Columbus OH: Grid.
- Manferedo, M. J.
1989 *An Investigation of the Basis for External Information Search in Recreation and Tourism*. *Leisure Studies* 11:29-45.
- Mansfeld, Y.
1987a *Destination-Choice and Spatial Behaviour of Tourists: Evaluating the Potential of Psychological-Geographical Collaboration in Geography of Tourism Research*. L.S.E., Geography Discussion Papers, New Series No. 21.
1987b *The Choice of Destination made by Tourists and its Impact on their Spatial Behaviour*. Unpublished Ph.D dissertation, London School of Economics.
- Mathieson, A., and G. Wall
1982 *Tourism—Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*. London: Longman.
- Matley, I.
1976 *The Geography of International Tourism*. Association of American Geographers, Resource paper No. 76-1.
- Mazursky, D.
1989 *Past Experience and Future Tourism Decisions*. *Annals of Tourism Research* 16:333-344.
- Meinke, H.
1968 *Tourismus und Wirtschaftliche Entwicklung (Tourism and Economic Development)*. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht.
- Mill, R. C., and A. M. Morrison
1985 *The Tourism System: An Introductory Text*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Montgomery, H.
1983 *Decision Rules and the Search for a Dominance Structure: Towards a Process Model of Decision-Making*. In *Analysing and Aiding Decision Processes*, P. Humphreys, O. Svenson, and A. Vári, eds., pp. 343-370. Budapest: Akadémiai Kiado.
- Montgomery, H., and O. Svenson
1976 *On Decision Rules and Information Processing Strategies for Choices Among Multiattribute Alternatives*. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology* 17:283-291.
- Murphy, P. E.
1985 *Tourism: A Community Approach*. New York: Methuen.
- Nash, D.
1979 *The Rise and Fall of an Aristocratic Tourist Culture—Nice: 1763-1936*. *Annals of Tourism Research* 6:61-75.
- Nichols, C. M., and D. J. Snepenger
1988 *Family Decision-Making and Tourism Behavior and Attitudes*. *Journal of Travel Research* 26:2-6.
- Nolan, S. D.
1976 *Tourists' Use and Evaluation of Travel Information Sources: Summary and Conclusions*. *Journal of Travel Research* 14:6-8.
- Pearce, D. G.
1981 *Tourist Development*. London: Longman.
- Pearce, P. L.
1982 *The Social Psychology of Tourist Behaviour*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Pipkin, J. S.
1981 *The Concept of Choice and Cognitive Explanations of Spatial Behaviour*. *Economic Geography* 57:315-331.
- Pred, A. R.
1967, 1969 *Behaviour and Location: Foundations for a Geographic and Dynamic Location Theory*. Parts 1 and 2. *Lund Studies in Geography*, B, 27 and 28. Lund: Gleerup.
- Raffée, H., M. H. Grabicke, T. Schätzle, and M. Schöler
1982 *Consumer Information Requirements and Information Acquisition with Regard to Decision-Making Processes*. In *Studies in Decision-Making: Social, Psychological and Socio-economic Analysis*, M. Irle, ed. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- van Raaij, W. F., and G. Eilander
1983 *Consumer Economizing Tactics for Ten Product Categories*. In *Advances in Consumer Research* 10:169-174.

- van Raaij, W. F., and D. A. Francken
1984 Vacation Decisions, Activities and Satisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research* 11:101-112.
- Robinson, H.
1979 *A Geography of Tourism*. Plymouth: Macdonald & Evans.
- Rushton, G.
1969 The Scaling of Locational Preferences. *In Behavioural Problems in Geography: A Symposium*, K. R. Cox and R. G. Golledge, eds. Evanston IL: Northwestern University Press.
- Savage, L. J.
1954 *The Foundation of Statistics*. New York: John Wiley.
- Scholz, R. W.
1983 Introduction to Decision Making Under Uncertainty: Bases, Fallacies, and Development of Decision Making. *In Decision Making Under Uncertainty*, R. D. Scholz, ed. Oxford: North Holland.
- Sheldon, P. J., and J. Mak
1987 The Demand for Package Tours: A Mode Choice Model. *Journal of Travel Research* 25:13-17.
- Smith, S. L. J.
1989 *Tourism Analysis—A Handbook*. Harlow: Longman.
- Snepenger, D.
1987 Segmenting the Vacation Market by Novelty Seeking Role. *Journal of Travel Research* 29:8-14.
- Stabler, M. J.
1988 The Image of Destination Regions: Theoretical and Empirical Aspects. *In Marketing in the Tourism Industry*, B. Goodall and G. Ashworth, eds., pp. 133-161. London: Croom Helm.
- Svenson, O.
1979 Process Description of Decision-Making. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance* 23:86-112.
- Timmermans, H.
1984a Decompositional Multiattribute Preference Models. *In Spatial Choice Analysis: A Review of Some Recent Developments*. *Progress in Human Geography* 9: 189-221.
1984b Decision Models for Predicting Preferences Among Multiattribute Choice Alternatives. *In Recent Developments in Spatial Data Analysis—Methodology, Measurement, Models*, G. Baurenberg, M. M. Fisher, and P. Nijkamp, eds. London: Gower.
- Thomas, J.
1964 What Makes People Travel? *Asia Travel News* (August):64-65.
- Urbain, J.-D.
1989 The Tourist Adventure and his Images. *Annals of Tourism Research* 16:106-118.
- Wahab, S. E.
1975 *Tourism Management*. London: Tourism International Press.
- Wahlers, R., and M. Etzel
1985 Vacation Preferences as a Manifestation of Optimal Stimulation and Lifestyle Experience. *Journal of Travel Research* 17:283-295.
- Wegener, B., ed.
1982 *Social Attitudes and Psychophysical Measurement*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Association.

Submitted 11 August 1989

Revised copy submitted 22 November 1990

Second revised copy submitted 17 June 1991

Accepted 1 August 1991

Refereed anonymously

Coordinating Editor: Peter F. Stringer