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Conceptualizing and analyzing the pleasure travel decision-making process

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Pleasure Travel Decision-Making Process

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Abstract

This dissertation explores methodological approaches to the study of the pleasure travel decision-making process. Specifically, this dissertation explores methodological approaches to studying the relative importance of motivations and constraints in the travel decision-making process. Three segmentation approaches were used, principle components analysis, cluster analysis and unidimensional sequence alignment. 522 students from two South-western Ontario, Canada universities participated in this study examining their decision-making in relation to potential travel plans for reading week (February 2005).

The results indicate that individuals potentially have a multitude of constraint levels to over-come as part of the initial travel decision-making process. If these base constraints can be addressed successfully, the decision to travel becomes more likely. When the individual does decide to travel, interpersonal reasons were found to be the most important component to choosing a potential destination. This was followed by traveler's intrapersonal rationales followed by structural considerations. Where variation in the results occurred, purchase involvement differences were found to be a possible explanation. Three purchase involvement types, 'laissez-faire,' 'modestly discerning,' and 'highly discerning' were found. Those who where 'laissez-faire' were more likely to by motivations driven as opposed to those who were 'highly discerning' who were more constraints oriented.

Finally, this study introduced a new methodological approach to segmentation analysis. Unidimensional sequence alignment was used to segment individuals by their rank order of motivations and constraints in relation to their travel choices. The results of using this technique were insightful. The results indicate that this technique with further development could be a potentially useful tool in studying travel decision-making. This technique would be especially useful in situations where an intricate segmentation analysis is required.

Overall, the results of this study demonstrated the need to examine motivations and constraints in conjunction with each other. The role of both motivations and constraints in the travel decision-making process is dependent on a variety of factors such as purchase involvement. This research indicates the importance of examining each component of the travel decision-making process, not in isolation, but using an integrative approach to studying this phenomenon.

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A simple 'thank you' to all involved in this process (there is way too many people to mention each by name). Each and every one of you made a contribution not only to a document but to the development of a human being.

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Chapter One

Introduction

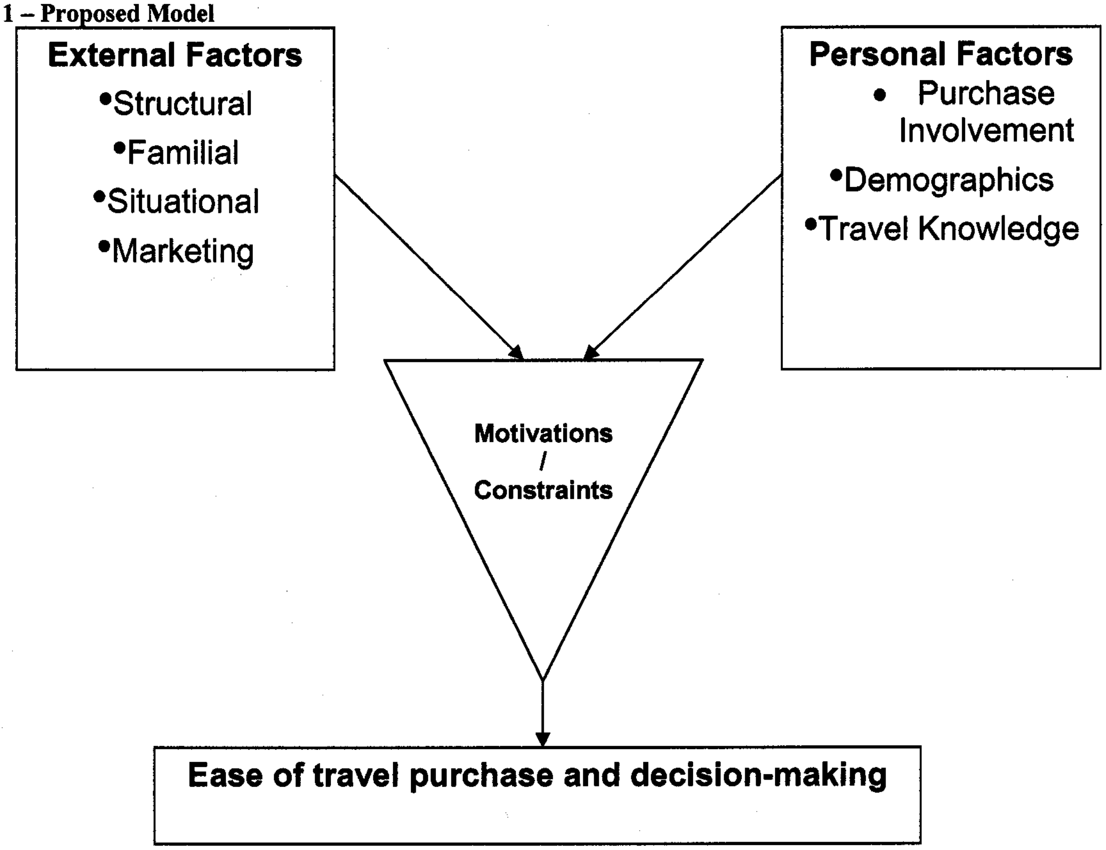
Travel choice is becoming increasingly complex and more independent. With the growth of the Internet as a resource and booking tool, as well as other resources, potential travelers have access to a wider range of choices. Fewer people are using the assistance of travel professionals to help them negotiate their motivations and constraints. As a result of this increase in complexity of travel choice and the increasing independence of the decision-making process there needs to be further study into how travel choices are made.

Over the past 25 years, tourism and leisure researchers have investigated both motivations and constraints as they relate to recreational activity/tourism participation (Boothby, Tungatt and Townsand, 1981; Iso-Ahola and Mannell, 1985; Searle and Jackson, 1985; Goodale and Witt, 1990; Crawford, Jackson & Godbey, 1991, Jackson and Rucks, 1993; Jackson and Scott, 1999; Nadirova and Jackson, 2000; Hubbard and Mannell, 2001; Alexandris, Tsorbatzoudis and Grouios, 2002). While the majority of studies have examined constraints or motivations separately there has been little research that combines the influences of both congruently on the decision-making process.

Consumer decision-making research is understudied in the tourism and leisure fields (Swarebrooke and Horner, 1999). While many models of consumer decision-making in regards to tourism have been developed, few have been empirically tested (Swarebrooke and Horner, 1999; Dellaert, Ettma and Lindh, 1998). This gap in the literature is unsurprising given the complexity and challenges associated with measurement of the decision-making process. Research studying the complexity of the decision-making process has focused on attitudes towards choices among a set of close substitutes (Weiner, 2000; Jain and Maheswaran, 2000; Lehmann, 1999; Bettman, Luce and Payne, 1998).

As a result of the complexity of studying decision-making there is a need to explore ways to empirically test the relative role both motivations and constraints play in the travel decision-making process. Using the literature as a guide, a model was created outlining what role motivations and constraints play in the decision-making process (figure 1).

Figure 1 – Proposed Model



This model outlines the travel decision-making process. The decision-making process can be defined as the procedures consumer's follow in choosing a product in which maximum utility or value is achieved (Bei & Simpson 1995). This model is based on Thaler's (1985) *acquisition-transaction utility theory* where consumer's purchase probabilities depended on the perceived value of a product compared to its potential costs. In this particular model, consumers attempt to balance motivational benefits derived from potential choices against potential negative consequences of their decision as a result of constraints. In this model, a decision is made when the consumer perceives that they have achieved the best balance of fulfilling motivations and mitigating constraints.

The model begins inside the funnel (represented by an upside down triangle) with an intrinsic primary motivation. In this stage all possibilities (that the individual knows about) are considered. The decision-making process then moves to a second stage whereby, the individual starts to negotiate through a variety of primary constraints such as cost and time. In this stage the individual starts looking at some limitations, which in turns starts to limit choice. If a final choice is not made during this initial process, the individual will continue the filtering process by examining secondary motivations and constraints. This filtering process continues until the individual chooses the destination that achieves the best balance of fulfilling motivations and mitigating constraints in their minds.

Influencing the individual's perception of such balance are external and personal factors. External factors refer to elements of the decision-making process that go beyond the individual's perceived ability to modify. Structural factors can be defined as policy or regulatory constraints that affect one's ability to choose travelling to a specific destination. Familial factors relate to the influence others have as part of the decision-making process. Situational factors refer to one's present ability to choose a destination based on current lifestyle. Marketing refers to the individual's ability to know the product exists so that it can be considered. Personal factors refer to those influences that come from within. One's level of purchase involvement is reflective of how one tends to process information. Demography is influential because of life stage. Travel information refers to the individual's gained knowledge about travel and travel products based on previous travel experiences.

This model is similar to one presented by McGuiggan (2004) who proposed a model in which the tourism decision –making process is predicated on four propositions: 1) that personality influences one's ability to negotiate through intrapersonal constraints; 2) one's motives for travel are heavily influenced by one's personality; 3) an individual's personality influences the ability to compromise with other's vacation needs and; 4) that the successful negotiation of interpersonal constraints will lead to a an acceptable vacation choice. This intriguing model has not been empirically tested.

While the presented model and McGuiggan's (2004) model have similarities in terms of the hierarchical nature of the decision-making process, a deviation occurs in the philosophy related to rigidity of both proposed models. In the model proposed by McGuiggan (2004), she states that movement through the process is based solely on personality and that the process is rigid. However, in the proposed model the concept is that purchase involvement influences decisions (particularly related to how one tends to shop). In both cases, however, these proposed models offer interesting possible insights into the tourist decision-making process which could be used by the industry to gain further understanding of how their customers negotiate through a decision-making process in order to fulfill their needs and desires.

This study has focused on segmenting students reading week travel choices in relation to motivations and constraints. As motivations and constraints are the primary factors upon which decision are made they will be focused upon in this study. As well, as this study will segment potential spring break travel all of the external factors discussed in the model have been held relatively constant. The students have relatively the same time available for trip taking and are marketed to in similar ways. While there may be some familial and situational variations, in terms of this study, it is assumed these factors are not so deviant that they will alter the reading week travel choice. It is also assumed that the demography and travel knowledge of the students is relatively homogeneous. Therefore, the only personal factor being examined is purchase personality and purchase involvement. The purpose of this is to gain a greater understanding of how different shopping typologies may affect potential travel choices. In total, this study will examine the following research questions:

1. What is the relative importance of motivations and constraints in the decision-making process?
2. Are there different types of decision makers in regards to travel?
3. Is there a pattern related to the influence of motivations and constraints on the decision-making process?

This study will contribute to the literature in two ways. Firstly, the study will examine motivations and constraints within a consumer behaviour framework. This has been rarely attempted in the tourism literature and will allow for future research to expand upon the theory developed in this research. Secondly, this study will bring a new typology of hierarchical modeling into the field. Unidimensional sequence alignment allows for rank order and nominal data to be grouped in a similar fashion to that of cluster or principal components analysis.

This study will link segmentation analysis methodologies to decision-making research. This type of study has only been introduced a in a limited fashion within the tourism and leisure literature. In the review of literature (chapter 2), a conceptual argument illustrating the components of the proposed model will be presented. Linkages will be made among studies on decision-making, tourism, leisure, business psychology and marketing to develop the foundation for the research undertaken for this project, which will be described in subsequent chapters.

The methodology employed in this study combines several segmentation techniques designed to identify patterns related to the influence of motivations and constraints on the decision-making process. Factor analysis was used in conjunction with cluster analysis to create profiles of the subjects based on the relative importance of motivations and constraints and buying personality. A new segmentation approach, unidimensional sequence alignment was used to segment the sample population by their rank order decisions related to motivations and constraints. The results are presented as typologies and profiles, which can be used to develop effective marketing strategies.

Chapter Two

Review of Literature

This chapter begins with a discussion outlining the evolution of consumer behaviour research in general and is subsequently narrowed to include how consumer behaviour and decision-making have been theorized in relation to tourism specifically. The next section includes a discussion of how personality type, demography and external inputs influence the travel decision-making process.

The next part of the literature review focuses on the role motivations and constraints play in the travel decision-making process. It will be argued that motivations and the negotiation through constraints are central to travel decision-making process. This argument provides the underlying assumption upon which this research is based.

Discussion of the methodological literature will be integrated within the third chapter, entitled Methodology.

Defining Consumer Behaviour

Consumer psychology is the study of the behaviour of customers (Mullen and Johnson 1990). Consumer behaviour can then further be defined as those actions involved in purchasing, and consuming products and services, *including* the decision processes that precede and follow (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard, 1990). According to Hawekins, Best and Coney (1995), all marketing decisions are based on the assumptions made in relation to consumer decision-making. It is this assumption upon which Chambers, Chako and Lewis (1995) discussed five basic premises which they believed provided a base understanding of core elements related to consumer behaviour.

1) Customer behaviour is purposeful.
2) The customer has free choice.
3) Consumer behaviour is a process.
4) The process can be influenced.
5) The process is dynamic.

Historical Approaches to Consumer Behaviour Research

Since the mid 1950s, there have been three phases of consumer behaviour research: 1) Undifferentiated, 2) Unilineal and 3) Cybernetic (Mullen and Johnson, 1990).

Prior to 1960, undifferentiated models dominated the literature. Undifferentiated models were lists of variables suspected to influence consumer behaviour. Examples of this type of model include: 'The Three *I*s' where customers based decisions on a product's surrounding: impact, image and involvement; AIDA (awareness, interest, desire and action); and AUB (attention, understanding and believability) (Leavitt, 1961). The primary criticism of these models is that they do not take into account how individuals choose products, nor do they go into any depth as to why consumers act as they do (Mullen and Johnson, 1990). This led to the next phase of thought, which lasted into the early 1970s, where research centred on the development and use of Unilineal models (Mullen and Johnson, 1990).

Unilineal models are based on a hierarchy of effects (Palda, 1966). These are based on advertising effectiveness. These models assume a hierarchical linear process that creates a "flow of influence among variables included in the model" (Mullen and Johnson, 1990, p. 5). Two examples of these models are Lavidge and Steiner's (1961) Hierarchy of Effects and McGuire's (1969) Information Processing Model of Advertising Effectiveness. Lavidge and Steiner's (1961) model assumes that a sequence of events must occur in order for a person to purchase Brand X. In their model, Customer 'A' has to first become aware of Brand X. Customer 'A' then has to learn about the qualities of Brand X and judge what he or she considers to be positive about the product. Customer

'A' then compares Brand X to its competitors. If Customer 'A' deems Brand X to be better than all others, the individual makes plans to purchase Brand X and then follows through. These unilineal models may be critiqued in that they are one directional, rigid and perhaps provide an overly simplistic view of consumer behaviour (Mullen and Johnson, 1990).

Kover (1967) stated that the primary criticisms of the both undifferentiated and lineal models are that they assume basic behaviours remain constant over time and that they are aimed at new purchasers rather than return customers. These criticisms led to further complexity in the development of consumer behaviour models with the introduction of cybernetic models. Such models attempt to address the earlier criticisms by increasing the level of complexity and providing feedback loops (Mullen and Johnson, 1990).

One often cited cybernetic model is that of Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1990). The primary rationale for the longevity of the model, first introduced in 1978, is that it was the first to include aspects of both internal and external influences on customers as critical elements of the purchasing process. The model uses the following logic. An individual recognizes a need (purchase intention). That individual begins to search for alternatives to fulfill the need (the complexity of the search depends on the type of purchase). The individual uses his or her memory of previous similar purchases and conducts an external search for information. That information is fed back and alternatives are considered. The individual sets up decision rules based on beliefs, attitudes and intentions that are influenced by environmental and individual factors. The alternatives are evaluated based on those rules and the purchase occurs.

One criticism of this model is that it does not consider the consumer's goals and objectives specifically (Carver and Scheier, 1990). It was because of this criticism in the early 1990s, that Carver and Scheier (1990) proposed a type of cybernetic modelling that was based on control process theory. Control process theory, provides an approach to understand how goals influence customer behaviour (Carver and Scheier, 1982; Ford, 1987; Fiske and Taylor, 1991; Locke and Latham, 1990; Lawson, 1997). Carver and Scheier's (1982, 1990) model proposes an embedded system of feedback mechanisms in which one's goals and objectives serve as reference values in determining choice. They propose a three-level hierarchy of feedback loops as part of the decision-making process. The first level of the hierarchy relates to a system concept followed by the second relates to principle and the third is a program level. They suggest that output from a higher level becomes a reference value at the next.

This creates what can be defined as a goal hierarchy. A goal hierarchy is a rank-ordered set of objectives a consumer creates as part of the decision-making process. This goal hierarchy is used to create a series of decision rules that will be followed throughout the purchasing process. This set of decision rules are used by the consumer to evaluate the probability that purchasing a certain product will meet objectives. As a decision rule is created, it is placed in terms of its relative importance to the consumer in the hierarchy. Those decision rules which are placed at the top of the hierarchy are the most rigid while those at the bottom are the most negotiable. This approach is particularly salient in large purchase decisions (such as tourist trips) where a large set of objectives are desired to be fulfilled thus creating a complex series of decision rules (Lawson, 1997).

Lawson (1997) in an adaptation of this model, proposed a four level hierarchy model to address their criticism of Carver and Scheier's (1990), work while also incorporating the theoretical concepts produced by Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1990). Lawson (1997) argues that there are four types of goals:

1) Brand Acquisition Level Goals;
2) Product Acquisition Level Goals;
3) Program Level Goals; and
4) Principle Level Goals.

He argues that differing types of purchases represent differing motivational levels and thus have a differing importance of goal orientations. For instance, his first two levels in the hierarchy represent brand and product type acquisitions. These types of products represent low level purchasing (e.g. buy a package of gum). Goal orientation may enter into the system, for example, someone may not eat at McDonald's because he or she perceives the company to be unethical in some of their business practices. This is an area where one creates decision rules based on program level goals, which may include something as simple as price cut off point (e.g. a hot dog at a baseball game is $5.00, a vendor outside charges $2.00, so one would not pay the higher amount for a hot dog). At the program and principle goal levels, one considers and creates decision rules that are more stringent and value oriented, as well as considering low level purchasing concepts, such as price cut offs. The decisions at this level however, are now based on higher-level goal orientations and are less flexible as a result.

Another approach to goal orientation is proposed by Luce, Bettman and Payne (2001), which is similar to that of Lawson (1997), but expands to include the notion of emotion in goal orientation. Goal-orientation is a set of objectives that consumers create as part of a purchase decision. A purchase decision is made based upon which product will best fulfill this set of objectives. In theory, this process is based on rational thought and careful consideration of each product. Those using a goal-oriented approach as part of the purchase decision-making process could be described as using an economic approach. The decision is based on cost benefit analysis with little emotion involved.

Luce, Bettman and Payne (2001) argue however, that emotion plays a strong role and is particularly prevalent in deciding whether or not coping strategies, in terms of constraints, are to be employed. They argue that constraint-based factors are the strongest elements within the decision-set. The issues surrounding whether or not to employ coping strategies are often in direct conflict with their goal orientations. For instance, assume an individual really wants to go to Australia. However, the price challenge of a $3000 airline ticket makes it unfeasible. Using Lawson's (1997) model as an example, the person examines their value orientation and may determine that even though it is out of their desired price range, they will sacrifice based on their desire to go. Under the model proposed by Luce, Bettman and Payne (2001), the individual would not only consider their value system but also the ramifications of their actions. The thought process would not be linear, but rather cause a re-evaluation of the goal orientation, whereby the individual may change the goal for a more realistic option. This can be referred to as the "trade-off difficulty."

The “trade-off difficulty”, as the authors note, is that constraints redefine goal orientations and motivations are based on emotional rather than rational thought processes. Negative emotions caused by constraints are more powerful than positive feelings based on goals, causing individuals to be more rationale about their decisions. The emotion-based process Luce, Betteman and Payne (2001) identify becomes more relevant as the risk associated with the decision increases. This may provides a good explanation of why constraints may be the most powerful and least flexible elements contained within the decision-set.

The goal-driven compositional approach begins, technically, when a person decides that they have an unfilled need. This can be at the self-actualization level or simply recognizing that one is hungry. No matter the need, a goal-driven process is engaged in an attempt to fulfill that need. This approach provides more complex conceptualization of the purchasing process while providing more in-depth insights into the factors affecting choice The challenge with a goal-driven approach is that very little attention is given to the powerful nature of constraints and their place within the decision-set. Operationalizing variables related to the phenomena and modeling of this type of research is difficult and requires specialized skill sets. There has been very little empirical research conducted in this area because of these difficulties.

In comparison, unilineal models merely address limited hierarchical decision frameworks. For instance, if one is researching Caribbean destinations with Customer ‘A’ using the unilineal model approach the information gathered would most likely contain a comparison between resorts that would lead to the conclusion that having a sauna and whirlpool is very important. While this is valuable data, it does not identify why sauna and whirlpools are considered important. It does not get to the crux of how the individual places value on items and how the individual decides what is important. This data has been collected traditionally because it is the easiest for the respondent to recall. Goal orientations and constraint factors (which some may not even want to admit they have) are more difficult for the individual to recall. However, in complex decision making contexts such as in tourism there is a need to examine the value of a goal-driven hierarchical approach, despite the difficulties involved in data collection

Buying Personality and Purchase Involvement

Historically, consumer behaviour focused upon the actual decisions the consumer made. Little attention has been placed on why consumers' make decisions. Personality has been often been treated in the consumer behaviour literature as an inherent component of the decision-making process rather than a factor to be considered in how the structure is created and interpreted. According to Baumgartner (2002), personality research in consumer behaviour has been relegated to narrow studies where it is a small component. As such, it appears in probalistic models of consumer choice behaviour but tends to have a peripheral rather than a core position in consumer decision models. This may be because personality is difficult to measure.

McAdams (2001) suggests that personality in consumer behaviour research should use a three-tiered framework involving three separate but overlapping levels of analysis: 1) personality traits; 2) personal concerns and; 3) life stories.

According to McAdams (2001), personality refers to the consistencies in individual's behaviour across situations and over time. John & Srivastava (1999) indicate that there are five primary personality traits that influence consumer behaviour. The first is related to the extraversion, energy and enthusiasm of the individual. These individuals are those most likely to purchase based on impulse with little to no research into the product. The second personality trait is related to the individual being agreeable or altruistic in terms of their purchasing style. In this the individual is most likely to act on the needs and desires of others. For instance, if a couple is planning a trip the individual who has the agreeable or altruistic personality trait is most likely to acquiesce to the decision-making process of the partner. The third trait is the conscientious, control or constraint-based personality. This individual is the most likely to the person to balance their needs and desires with the costs associated with purchasing the product. This fourth trait however, is more concerned with how the constraints will affect their lives. This personality trait described as those who consistently act in way that can be describe as close to neuroticism, have a negative affinity or nervousness and is based on how the decision can negatively affect them. These individuals also require reassurance in terms of marketing technique employed towards them. The final personality trait is the opposite in that these individuals show a high degree of openness to experiences, originality or open-mindedness. This trait is closely related in that these individuals are motivationally driven but are more likely to take chances than those who display extraversion, energy or enthusiasm traits. They are on the opposite end of the scale because while they are motivationally driven they also want a high level of information and conduct a high degree of research to assist in the decision-making process.

Personal concerns, according to McAdams (2001), then relate to the goal-orientation process. Research in this area has concentrated on the role values and means-end chains (Reynolds & Olsen, 2001). The concentration has led researchers in consumer behaviour to focus on the "trade-off principle" in which individuals attempt to strike a balance between meaningfulness and manageability in the decision-making process (Little 1989). Such research has focused on the combination of motivations for purchase with value-laden based questions to form a construct of purchasability.

The last of McAdams' (2001) three constructs involves studying what he entitled 'life stories' of consumers. He states that there are some key questions surrounding an individual's personal history which may address their purchasing behaviour. He argues for the understanding of the consumer's history in relation to "the stereotypical manifestations of self" (McAdams 1996 p. 299). This means that the researcher needs in-depth information related to how the person perceives themselves in terms of their self image. This perception of self image leads to the second question of how the individual's self image is then manifested into their behavioural patterns. Questions surrounding how much of the individual's behaviour is conscious versus unconscious should also be addressed. Finally, McAdams (2001) argues that this approach can be used over time to see how an individual's behaviour changes as his or her 'life story' is modified by maturity and experiences.

Despite the fact that personality is difficult to measure and model, it is likely that personality plays a major role in the product purchase decision-making process. In the proposed research, personality is considered to be a major variable to differentiate between types of decision makers and an important influence on decisions made. One way to examine the role of personality is to gain of measure of it by using a purchase involvement scale.

Purchase involvement relates to the relative importance an individual places on the decision (Bei & Simpson 1995). This is reflected in the amount of work an individual is willing to do in order to maximize utility (Kamis & Davern 2005). According to Beatty & Smith (2001) the amount of involvement a consumer undertakes as part of a purchase decision is based on three criteria: 1) Consumers tend to engage in a higher level of information gathering when the product being purchased is considered risky; 2) The amount of involvement is depend on the individual's access to information related to the product and; 3) The amount of data gathered is dependent on the benefits the individual believes they can achieve from searching.

In relation to this study, normally the risk related to the purchase of a trip is high. It would be expected that students who typically have limited financial resources would perceive the investment in both terms of monetary and time values of taking a reading week trip would lead to a high degree of purchase involvement. Secondly, students have a wide variety of potential spring break destinations to choose from. Students who in themselves are learning to be researchers should understand the wide variety of information available to them in terms of spring break travel products. They also have access to Internet, travel professionals and library sources they many members of the general population do not have. Therefore, it would be expected that a high degree of purchase involvement would be present based on the second factor as well. Last because of the high level of competition for the spring break travellers and travel companies understanding of students' cost sensitivities, there is a great potential for students' to get a higher value for dollar with increased research and effort. Therefore, once again it would be expected that a high degree of purchase involvement would be present.

Purchase involvement has typically been studied according to Beatty & Smith (2001) by examining purchasers' interaction with the product in the following areas: 1) retail searching (measured typically by the volume of interactions with retailers); 2) Media search (measured typically by the number of ads recalled and/or the number of items of non-commercial research items used); 3) Interpersonal search factor (measured typically by the number of other individuals the potential consumer talked to about the product) and; 4) The time factor (measured typically by the total amount of time the consumer took to make the decision).

In this study, a purchase involvement scale developed by Slama and Tashchian (1985) was used. This scale differed from the traditional measures of purchase involvement because it did not concern itself with specific measures of time and number of interactions with potential products but instead focused on the value concepts individuals' placed on these interactions. Therefore, this scale goes beyond a simple measure of purchase involvement but lends itself to indicating an individuals' potential purchasing personality type. As stated above personality is reflected in the methods one pursues in making a choice. Certain personality types are more likely to be constraint oriented while others are likely to be more motivationally driven. Also, some personality types may lead to a low level of involvement even though a decision by most would be considered risky. To be more cavalier about such as decision is a reflection of the importance the individual places on the decision which in turn as discussed above is related to one's personality. In total, the scale developed by Slama and Tashchian (1985) could be argued to be really a proxy measure of buying personality for these reasons.

Overview of Consumer Behaviour Research

The central question in consumer behaviour research is "how do consumers make purchase decisions?" As illustrated in the previous sections, there are many approaches to answering that question. As the research evolves, what is discovered is that this seemingly easy question is actually quite complicated. Factors such as the individual's personality, history, value system, the level of purchase involvement and the risk associated with the purchase all play critical roles in the decision-making process.

The research that has been done in this field however, has been concentrated highly on the type of purchase and cost/benefit approach. While this 'economic-man' approach has merit, there needs to be more research into the role personality and values play in the decision-making process. As Baumgartner (2002) notes:

> The mention of personality research frequently triggers associations of armchair theorizing or atheoretical empiricism. Recent developments in personality psychology have done much to dispel these notions, but these advances have not made their way into consumer research (p. 291).

Pleasure travel is often an 'emotional' decision which could make the role personality plays in the decision-making process of even greater importance. While personality does play an integral role in the decision-making process, it is related in how the information is processed. Therefore, there is a need to understand what information is critical for each personality type. In the next section of this chapter, a deeper examination of what information is required (in terms of motivations and constraints) and outside influences (such as family) affects decision-making in terms of travel is presented.

Conceptual Foundations of Consumer Behaviour Research in Tourism Studies

Frequently, the study of the decision-making process begins at the final destination choice and then moves backwards into the characteristics comparing why an individual would chose destination A over destination B (Dallaert, Bogers & Timmermans, 1997; Carmichael, 1992; Kim & Fesenmaier, 1990). This is referred to as the decompositional approach in the rest of this study. While this method is excellent when the decision-set is completed and alternatives are being weighed, it does not address how decision-sets are formed. Other decompositional approaches to the study of destination choice examined either motivations (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Plog, 1991) or constraints (Kotler, 1994; Caldow, 1997) and their effect on choice. While both areas are well studied, neither addresses how the decision-set is formed or implemented. This does not mean however, that these approaches are not valuable.

Decompositional approaches allow for valuable insights into the top-of-mind decision-making most individuals understand and undertake. The approach here is most appropriate when the researcher is attempting to understand why destination A was chosen over the competition. The decompositional approaches discussed above are designed to be comparative in nature are not intended to examine the individual decision-making process on a case by case basis.

In order to understand how the framework is developed, one has to examine the decision from its infancy (before the final choice is made) and take a compositional approach to destination choice. The compositional approach begins by attempting to understand first the pre-decision process. The pre-decision process, as defined by Correia (2002), begins at the moment when a 'need' is recognized. Jeng and Fesenmaier (2002) and Lawson (1997) both describe this stage as the point where individuals establish what information is required to make a buying decision and how each of those decisions are to be made based on meeting goals established through this process.

Jeng and Fesenmaier (2002) and Lawson (1997) argue that in the creation of the goal-hierarchy is based on a set of core conditions on which every future decision regarding the choice is based. These core conditions include: ability to pay; personal security; motivations; structural constraints; participants; and time available for trip taking. Each of these core conditions will be discussed in depth later in this chapter. If a future decision does not meet the standards developed at this stage, the decision is rejected. This goal-hierarchy is the point at which travel choice begins to be made. No possible destination choices or criteria for choosing destination A or B can be developed until this hierarchy of sub-decisions set is developed.

Once the hierarchy is developed, Luce, Bettman and Payne (2001) argue that a series of 'trade-offs' whereby the consumer negotiates through the process then takes place. Nadirova and Jackson (2000) argue that this successfully negotiation through this hierarchy is based on the ability to negotiate through potential constraints. For instance, Person 'A' establishes in their mind they only have $1500.00 for a trip and that is at the top of their goal hierarchy. Even though a potential trip might meet their motivations, timing structure, and every other possible condition, if the trip is over $1500.00 it cannot be chosen. Once all of the sub-decisions within the hierarchy are successfully negotiated, a final choice can then be made. The challenge associated with this approach is that many of these sub-decisions are made at a subconscious level and may not be easily identifiable by potential respondents.

Consumer Behaviour Research in Tourism Studies

Research conducted in the tourism field is infrequently linked with consumer behaviour models. The leisure/tourism literature is focussed primarily on participation versus non-participation, while the consumer behaviour literature is concerned with measuring individuals' choice patterns from an array of potential purchases. When a merging of consumer behaviour and leisure/tourism research is attempted, there is a divide in conceptual frameworks with some authors arguing a positive framework of motivations as a key driver in process (Hubbard and Mannell, 2001; Alexandris, Tsorbatzoudis and Grouis; 2002; Woodside and King, 2001; Moutinho, 1987) while others argue from a constraint-based framework (Crawford, Jackson and Godbey, 1991; Correia, 2002; Jeng and Fesenmaier, 2002). This creates a choice pattern that is entirely positively or negatively framed. While this theoretical approach is easier to reconcile in terms of research design, it is not based in reality where both motivations and constraints combine to help 'guide' the decision-making process. Due to this deficiency in the literature, there is a need for research that integrates the two conceptual frameworks within a consumer behaviour framework.

Moutinho (1987) developed a model of tourism decision-making that is divided into three stages (pre-decision; post-purchase evaluation; future decision-making). The first stage is based on the pre-purchase influences. Moutinho (1987) defined the pre-decision process as 'the flow of events, from the tourist stimuli to the purchase decisions' (Moutinho, 1987, p. 39). Decrop (2000), in an interpretation of Moutinho's (1987) model, argues that the preference structure can be split into three sub-fields (stimulus filtration, attention and learning, choice criteria). The first two sub-fields, stimulus filtration and attention and learning, are where individuals' examine both internal and external information sources similar to that of Mullen and Johnson's (1990) approach. Choice criteria, according to Decrop (2000), are then developed based on the alternatives that comprise the individual's evoked set. The evoked set consists of the factors decided upon based on decisions made at the earliest levels pertaining to motives, perceived risk, environmental influences and personal inhibitors and are influenced by personality, lifestyle, attitude and family (Moutinho 1987; Teare, 1994). Both Moutinho (1987) and Teare (1994) argue that the evoked set; combined with the learning conducted in the first two sub-fields, work in conjunction to create the cognitive structure that allows for a decision to be made. Interestingly, other than a mention of perceived risk, there is little to no consideration of the role of constraints (and the negotiation through them) as a key component in the decision-making process. Moutinho's (1987) model also does not discuss what factors are most influential, and while the model suggested a hierarchical structure, there is no explicit mention of this within the research presented.

The model of the tourist decision-making process proposed by Mathieson and Wall (1995) was predicated on their belief that the 'economic-man' approach did not accurately represent the unusual circumstances associated with the purchasing of vacations. They argue that buying decisions of potential tourists deviate from the norm in the following manner:

1) That tourism provides virtually no tangible return on investment (you purchase an experience rather than a good);
2) The expenditure or capital risk is often substantial;
3) Purchases are not usually spontaneous; and

4) Consumers of tourism products visit the site of production meaning, if the visitor is not a repeat customer, then the risk associated with arrivals are perceived to be great.

Mathieson and Wall (1995) then argue that because of those factors, a psychological approach rather than an 'economic-man' approach is appropriate for the study of tourist decision-making. The model they propose consists of five phases. The first phase is when the individual feels the need to travel. They argue that this phase includes a pre-decision stage where travel decisions are evaluated based on a series of variables including: time and money available, accessibility of destinations and domestic pressures .This is followed by the second stage whereby the individual collects information and evaluates the alternatives. Stage three is predicated on the information collected in stage two and the conditions of decision-making are established during that stage. It is also during stage three that a filtering process occurs until a final decision is made. Stage four is entered when the booking of the trip occurs. Stage five occurs after the trip when the decision is evaluated as a whole.

While Mathieson and Wall (1995), Moutinho (1987) and Teare (1994) all present strong arguments as to the existence and importance of the heuristic set (a decision-making framework derived from a sequence of pre-decisions), none of them suggest whether or not this set is hierarchical in nature or if the decision parameters within this set are flexible. The model presented by Mathieson and Wall (1995) surpasses those of Moutinho (1987) and Teare (1994) by suggesting that constraint-based variables play a key role in the decision framework while the others remain primarily motivations driven

In 2001, Woodside and King presented a model where they explicitly state that travelers use a decision-set to state priorities in their decisions related to trip taking. The model they developed however focuses on motivations as a primary driver in the creation of the decision-set. They make no mention of constraints and the role they may play in the decision-making process, except to note that lessons learnt, both positive and negative, from previous vacation experiences are employed in the next trip decision framing.

Woodside and King (2001) while explicitly stating the process is hierarchical in nature, find that the hierarchy is not based on individual categorizations but groupings of categorizations. They argue that between categorizations, a hierarchy is taking place but within each, a non-linear process is taking place. For instance, in Woodside and King's (2001) model box one includes, demographics, reference group and marketing influences affect problem framing, information search strategies, heuristic frame working and intentions. At any point within this grouping a non-linear relationship can occur. This model, while providing more depth of knowledge to the study of consumer behaviour, focuses on the more positive framing that is more consistent with the work of Hubbard and Mannell (2001) and Alexandris, Tsorbatzoudis, and Grouis (2002), where motivations rather than constraints lead the decision-making process.

The model presented by Correia (2002) argues, like Moutinho (1987), Teale (1994), and Mathieson and Wall (1995), that pre-decision can be divided into sub-stages. She defines the sub-stages in her model as:

1) Problem awareness;
2) Arising needs;

3) Collecting and filtering of information; and

4) Preference.

Where Correia (2002) really differentiates her perspective from those presented by Moutinho (1987) and Mathieson and Wall (1995) is that she argues that constraint variables, such as time and income, enter into focus at the choice stage rather than at the preference stage. She contends that motivations, internal influences such as lifestyle preferences, and external influences such as social class and culture, comprise the preference structure. She also, unlike other authors discussed previously, subscribes to a utility-based approach whereby vacation tourists are attempting to maximize satisfaction in relation to various goals set out in the decision-set. In this model, she suggests that a hierarchical structure may exist. This model attempts to merge a decompositional mentality on a compositional approach. The contradictions in the attempt lead to a confusing but thought-provoking conceptual base. Questions regarding whether the process is sequential or highly variant based on personality and other factors come to light.

This concept was furthered in the work of Jeng and Fesenmaier (2002) who, like Correia (2002), proposed that travel decision-making is a temporal, dynamic, successive multi-stage process but simplified the overall model by including core elements that are contained within every situation. Jeng and Fesenmaier (2002) argued that travel choice is a complex process that involves several sub-decisions in relation to each possible choice. They go on to state that the travel planning process is conducted in a sequential fashion whereby at the earliest stages individuals, "develop decision heuristics that facilitate the trade-off process between satisfying multiple travel needs and the limited cognitive ability of a decision maker" (Jeng & Fesenmaier, 2002, p.26). Because of this sequential nature combined with an individual's limited cognitive abilities, a hierarchical structure is required to create a 'funneling' process whereby decisions made at the earlier levels set the parameters for successive decisions. Finally, they argue that:

> based on three separate concepts, including centrality, rigidity and sequentially (i.e., decision order), it is argued that the travel planning process can be described as a three-stage hierarchical process including core decisions, secondary decisions and peripheral decisions (Jeng & Fesenmaier, 2002, p. 28).

Jeng & Fesenmaier (2002) describe centrality as the base element that individuals must consider when making a decision. Rigidity refers to the overall stability of these core elements, while sequencing refers to the order of the decision. Jeng & Fesenmaier (2002) argue that a set of core decisions that comprise the decision framework are established early in the decision-making process form the parameters from which all other decisions relating to the travel choice area made. These core factors (the elements of the decision-set) are defined by Jeng & Fesenmaier (2002, p. 30) as:

1) Ability to pay (how much one is able to pay for a trip);
2) Personal security (referring both to personal safety and comfort issues);
3) Motivations (both intrinsic and extrinsic);
4) Structural constraints (such as young children or legal constraints);
5) Participants (who is the person going to travel with and their level of input); and
6) Time available for trip taking.

The individual's cultural space, family and social situation, travel history, and attitudes influence how the core parameters are established, how the hierarchical structure is constructed, and how rigid or flexible the parameters are based on their position within the hierarchy.

These ideas developed by Jeng and Fesenmaier (2002) are very similar to those of Nadirova and Jackson (2000) who in a study of leisure constraints found that cost, partner's wishes, individual motivations and time availability were the most important elements to the decision-making process. The ideas present by Jeng & Fesenmaier (2002) are also consistent with the arguments presented by Bettman, Luce and Payne (2001) who argued that constraints are a major factor in the development and construction of the decision-set.

When the decision is framed, the relative importance of each sub-decision in the hierarchy plays a large role in whether or not a successful negotiation can take place. Those elements in the top of the hierarchy are rigid with less room for negotiation than those towards the end which have a higher degree of flexibility. This study attempts to examine the relative importance of motivations and constraints in the decision-making process as a result. Because of the suspected hierarchy within the decision-making process, the analysis begins with the primary decision of whether or not to travel.

The Decision to Travel or Not To Travel

The tourism literature has centred on tourist behaviour, which has assumed that people want to travel and that their travel decisions are based on the choosing the best option for their situation (Mansfield, 1992). The assumption is that given the right conditions, people will travel (Uysall and Jurowski, 1994). The primary reason for this focus on travellers is that understanding the ways in which customers select, use and evaluate products is integral to the success of any business and the business of tourism is no exception (Morrison, 1996).

For all of this research into the motivations, attitudes, and factors that may affect travel choices, over 33% of Canadians report not taking an overnight trip of 80 km or more for the years 1999-2000 (Smith and Carmichael, 2005). This rate of non-travel represents a large portion of the population over both time and space. In the fall of 1967, using a similar definition of non-travel, it was found that 50% of Canadians did not take a holiday even with Expo '67 in Montreal (Traveldata Ltd., 1969). After Expo '67, that same study found that the percentage of non-travellers climbed to 56% in the fall of 1968 (Traveldata Ltd., 1969). This apparently high rate of non-travel is not just a Canadian phenomenon. A European study of holiday-taking found that in 1985, 44% of the European population did not take a holiday of three nights or longer away from their usual place of residence (Commission of European Communities (CEC), 1986). A study of Australian non-travellers by Jackson, Schmeirer, and Nicol (1997) found that 38% of their sample reported not taking any trips in the previous five years.

Studies by Smith and Carmichael (2005) and Haukeland (1990) developed typologies of non-travellers. Haukeland's (1990) qualitative research design developed a typology of non-travellers based on a variety of socio-demographic and situational variables (such as age, income, personal health, and familial situation). His study presented a model in which societal and economic factors played an explanatory role as to why individuals chose not to travel. This model was later tested and supported in the study by Smith and Carmichael (2005) using a quantitative approach. Both of these studies focused socio-demographic rationales for non-travel as opposed to gaining insights into the decision-making processes involved with the choice of whether or not to travel.

Considering the size of the population reporting being non-travellers, perhaps the assumption that people have the intrinsic desire to travel is unjustified. Therefore, any meaningful analysis of travel decision-making has to begin with how the choice of whether or not to take a trip was first made. What roles do motivations and constraints play in the decision of whether or not to travel at all? If the individual chooses not to travel, what were the factors that influenced that choice? Are these individuals most likely to be constraint oriented, at least for the purpose of this decision?

The Evolution of the Leisure Constraints Literature

Over the past 25 years, leisure researchers have been investigating constraints as they relate to recreation participation (Boothby, Tungatt and Townsand, 1981; Iso-Ahola and Mannell, 1985; Searle and Jackson, 1985; Goodale and Witt, 1990; Crawford, Jackson & Godbey, 1991, Jackson and Rucks, 1993; Jackson and Scott, 1999; Nadirova and Jackson, 2000; Hubbard and Mannell, 2001; Alexandris, Tsorbatzoudis and Grouios, 2002). The recreation constraints literature and consumer behaviour literature, while not directly linked, have enough similarities from a theoretical perspective to make a meaningful comparison. This is due to both bodies being primarily concerned with whether or not to participate in or purchase services (either recreational or consumer based). The primary difference between the two bodies of literature is that the leisure literature is primarily concentrated on participation versus non-participation, while consumer behaviour is concerned with choosing from an array of potential choices. As noted earlier in this chapter, constraints play a major role in the choices made by consumers, thus making recreation constraints literature quite relevant in gaining a greater understanding of how the decision-set is constructed and implemented.

Constraints have been classified many different ways. In the 1980s, dichotomous models such as internal versus external constraints (Jackson and Searle, 1985), motivation versus physical barriers (Howard and Crompton, 1984), and temporary versus permanent constraints (Iso-Ahola and Mannell, 1985) were found to be prevalent. The primary criticism of these models was that while they were fruitful in identifying issues, they did little to understand the underlying factors in how the constraints were affecting behaviour (Crawford, Jackson and Godbey, 1991).

In 1991, Crawford, Jackson and Godbey introduced a leisure constraints model based on a hierarchical structure. They argued that constraints play an integral role in the development of the decision-set and its parameters. They identified three types of constraints: intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural.

First, intrapersonal constraints are defined as those that involve personal psychological barriers to participation. Examples of intrapersonal constraints include stress, depression and anxiety. In tourism context one could be very fearful of flying, thus making any trip with a flight involved impossible. In a 1993 study by Jackson and Rucks, Canadian adolescents reported a lack of skills as a large barrier to participation in recreational activities. Jackson and Rucks (1993) reported that there was a lack of self-confidence that precluded many from participating in desired activities.

Second, interpersonal constraints are defined as those that are the result of the relationship between the individual and those around them. A 2002 study by Pennington-Grey and Kerstetter testing the model of Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991) found that having someone to travel with, family interest and influence of friends were strong constraints in regards to participating in nature-based tourism. Finally, if one can negotiate through the first two types,

Third, structural constraints relate to availability of financial resources, the season and scheduling of work time. In the case of the Pennington-Grey and Kerstetter (2002) article, structural barriers were found to be the most heavily cited (cost and time) which is contrary to the hierarchy developed by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991). These findings are not surprising given that the most prevalent reasons given for non-travel are time and financial resources (CEC, 1986; Haukeland, 1990; Lang Research, 2001).

Considering the fundamental differences in everyday leisure participation and taking a tourist trip, the relative strength of the structural constraints is understandable.

Jackson and Ruck (1993) found that constraints, like those cited in the work by Luce, Bettman and Payne (2001) were negotiated in three ways. The first was that the person did not participate at all; the second was that the individual negotiated the constraint and participated fully and the third was those that participated but in an altered fashion. However, this study did not begin to understand if the negotiation process altered the motivation for participation or if the motivation remained the same, but the trade-off was found to be acceptable. Hubbard and Mannell (2001), in a study of corporate employee participation in recreation activities, found that those who were more highly motivated were much more likely to attempt and succeed in negotiating through constraints. This study, unlike that hypothesized by Luce, Bettman and Payne (2001), found that there was no correlation between motivational modifications and constraints. The findings of Hubbard and Mannell (2001) were supported by Alexandris, Tsorbatzoudis and Grouis (2002) in a study of recreational sport participation where the possible relationship between constraints and motivations were examined in depth. The only relationship they found to be significant was when intrapersonal constraints were present. Intrapersonal constraints were found to have a large impact on an individual's desire to negotiate through the constraints, and subsequently, affected the individual's overall motivation levels.

In contrast to the results of Hubbard and Mannell (2001), a study by Nadirova and Jackson (2000) suggested that while there is indeed a hierarchy of constraints, what is more important was the level or intensity of the constraint and that the hierarchy may not be based on the three previous categorizations established by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991). They found a series of five primary constraints:

1) Isolation (lack of opportunity);
2) Knowledge (lack of information regard service availability);
3) Skills;
4) Costs; and
5) Commitments (work and family).

Nardirova and Jackson (2000) argue that this hierarchy occurs at a less aggregated level that those three broad categorizations and that the intensity of constraints causes modifications to leisure plans rather that a simplistic dichotomy of participation versus non-participation. This is more consistent with the conceptual framework offered by Lawson (1997) and Bettman, Luce and Payne (2001) who argues that modifications to behaviours are based on ability to negotiate through constraints. They argue that there is a level of intensity that surrounds each variable and as that intensity increases, the likelihood of negotiating through the constraint lowers. This is consistent with the trade-off principle of Bettman, Luce and Payne (2001) who argues that as primary constraints at the top of the hierarchy, become more rigid, people will either modify their participation level or discontinue the activity, regardless of their motivation level. This reasoning stands in contrast to the findings of Hubbard and Mannell (2001) and

Alexandris, Tsorbatzoudis and Grouis (2002) and leads to several interesting propositions for future research about what perspective is most accurate in given situations.

Overall, it has been established that leisure participation is dependent on negotiating through a hierarchy of constraints (not unlike the models presented by Luce, Bettman and Payne, (2001) and Lawson (1997)). However, the sequence of the hierarchy and the relationship between constraints and motivations is inconsistent between the recreation and consumer behaviour literature. One exception is the work of Nadirova and Jackson (2000), which begins to bridge the gap between the two bodies of literature. Factors affecting these differences may be related to the type of decision (e.g. everyday recreation versus a week long international trip) and the circumstances surrounding those decisions, rather than just on an individual's demographic characteristics. For instance, ease of negotiation of a trip to the recreation center versus the ease of negotiating the time and expense needed to go on a vacation may affect both the sequential and motivational hierarchy. This may indicate that personality plays a large role in how a decision is resolved (Jackson and Ruck, 1993). The level of motivation, while seemingly important, may be secondary to one's ability to have a positive outlook over negative forces.

Motivations and Travel Choice

Motivations for travel are one of the most frequent and well studied aspects of tourism research, however many of the results can be described as superficial. Beginning with Grinstein (1955) who identified the need to 'get away from it all' studies have been conducted ever since then in the attempt to understand why people feel the need to travel and why they choose the destinations they do. This section will outline a historical perspective on how motivational research in the tourism field has evolved. This section will also illustrate how motivations contribute to the decision-making process and how they are studied traditionally in isolation.

Gray in 1970 provided the first well cited research into the motivations and tourism field. In his seminal study, he found that there were two primary reasons for pleasure travel: 'wanderlust' and 'sunlust.' Wanderlust, according to Gray (1970) was the individual's need to leave the familiar and explore new and different places. 'Sunlust' related then to the desire for the individual to visit a locale where one can enjoy better amenities than is available at their home location. This research developed the first concepts of 'push' and 'pull' factors in relation to motivations and their influence on travel choice. 'Push' and 'pull' refer to two different types of motivations: one (push) whereby one's desire to travel is enhanced by a perceived unfulfilled need at the home destination that is being sought to be fulfilled by traveling to another destination and the other (pull) is when the individual perceives another destination to have attributes that can fulfill certain needs.

There were seminal studies attempting to answer the question of what the key motivations to travel are (Dann 1977; Crompton 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Leiper 1995; Mansfeld 1992; Um & Crompton 1990; Pearce 1993). Dann (1977) stated that the basic motivators for travel were based on a reaction to anomie, ego-enhancement and fantasy. These were expanded by Crompton in 1979 who found that there were seven key motivators for travel:

1. Escape from the perceived mundane environment;
2. Exploration and evaluation of self;
3. Relaxation;
4. Prestige;
5. Regression (less constrained behaviour);
6. Enhancement of kinship relationships; and
7. Facilitation of social interaction.

These factors were brought together by Iso-Ahola in 1982 when he proposed a motivational model in which the concepts of escape and need fulfillment were merged. In his model, one set of motivational forces derived from individuals' desire to escape from everyday life combined with individuals' desire and to have their intrinsic needs fulfilled. Iso-Ahola (1982) cited specific motivators such as escaping personal problems, work stress and weather as examples of escaping everyday environment while rest and relaxation, ego-enhancement and greater social interaction as examples of the types of intrinsic rewards were being sought by potential travelers.

Research into the motivations for travel has evolved slowly over the past 25 years. One reason for that slow evolution is the difficulty in studying the topic (Pearce & Lee 2005). Because respondents often have a difficult time identifying their individual motivations for travel, researchers often use substitute measures such as primary purpose of travel as an 'easy to answer' alternative (Pearce & Lee 2005). As a result, studies using these substitute measures can lead to superficial results.

The 'Travel Career Ladder' (TCL), first introduced by Pearce in 1988, attempts to address this concern by modelling motivations using hierarchical approach. The TCL is based in part on Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs whereby individuals must satisfy basic needs such as biological and safety needs before attempting to address higher order esteem and self-actualization needs. The TCL is constructed on a similar hierarchical structure whereby tourist need to satisfy relaxation and safety needs before they can try to achieve fulfilling relationship, esteem and at the highest level the equivalence to Maslow's (1970) self-actualization. The hierarchy of needs has been criticized for being over simplistic and difficult to define.

The theoretical framework developed by Pearce (1998) attempts to address these flaws by focusing on the travelers prior experiences. In the TCL conceptualization travellers at first, attempt to fulfill only their basic travel needs such as relaxation and safety. As travellers gain more experience, they before more sophisticated and move up the 'needs ladder.' With each trip travellers go on, the benefits sought are increased to include higher order needs such as relationship, esteem and self-actualization.

In 2005, Pearce and Lee 'updated' the TCL and stated that the focus on the hierarchical nature as a one-directional approach was too simplistic. They proposed a travel career pattern (TCP) in which, "the dynamic, multilevel motivational structure that is seen as critical in understanding travel motivation, and it is these patterns that reflect and define careers." In this conceptual framework that have moved from a basic hierarchical structure to one of patterning. They cited that escape/relaxation, novelty, relationship and self-development were core to the majority of travel, the priority of these changed based on type of experience sought. The patterning of motivational qualities was found to be consistent with identifying trip choice and to getting at a deeper understanding of why people choose destinations.

Review of Literature Overview

As was illustrated in the review of literature the travel decision-making process is complex. Throughout the literature however; a few consistencies do arise. There is general agreement within the literature the decision-making process is multi-layered. This laying suggests that some type of filtering system within the brain takes place as part of the decision-making process. What is filtered and in what order is more contentious.

There is agreement that the decision-making process starts with the identification of a gap in an individual's needs. This is done at sub-conscious level. When that need moves into the conscious state it then becomes a want. That want then creates a motivation within the individual to fulfill it. Therefore, using that logic, the conscious decision-making process begins with primary motivation. The process beyond this stage is where debate within the literature occurs.

What is considered as potential choices to fulfill that need is based on a variety of factors. While there is debate upon what those factors are, there is a general agreement that potential choices for fulfilling needs are influenced by the individual's personal and social situation. These, as was illustrated in the conceptual model, can be stated as external and personal influences which create framework in which the decision is to be made.

This framework as was often cited in the review of literature was stated as the 'trade-off' principle. The 'trade-off' principle was argued by many as the tools individuals used to balance achieving their motivational goals with not hurting their well being in other areas of their lives as a result of this decision. This concept of not being hurtful to other areas of their lives could be defined by the word constraints. Therefore,

using the literature as a guiding force, the decision-making process could be defined as a filtering process in which the individual attempts to perceive maximizing motivational goals while limiting constraints. What is perceived as balanced (and the best decision for the individual) is dependent on the individual's personal and external influences.
What is in disagreement within the literature is how these influences affect the overall decision-making process. This research attempts to address this issue by examining how certain influences affects how motivations and constraints are filtered as perceived by the individual as part of the decision-making process.

This research explores how to examine the influence of motivations and constraints using a variety of methodological approaches. An examination of the literature surrounding the various methodological approaches is developed in chapter three.

Chapter Three

Methodology

A sample population of students was used to understand the importance and influence of motivations and constraints on the pleasure travel decision-making process. This group was chosen for this research because it represented a population likely to be travelling during a specific period of the time (reading week break). Reading week is a traditional Canadian university holiday period lasting one week in duration usually occurring during the last or second last week of February. While the original intent of this week is to give students an opportunity to catch up on school related work, many use this time as an opportunity to travel. The purpose of this chapter is to outline the methodological approach used to address the following research questions:

1. What is the relative importance of motivations and constraints in the decision-making process?
2. Are there different types of decision makers in regards to travel?
3. Is there a pattern related to the influence of motivations and constraints on the decision-making process?

This chapter will begin with an outline of the sample population followed by descriptions of the phase-one and phase–two overall methods. Following that, a more detailed discussion related to the questionnaire design and methods of analysis will be presented.

Sample Population

Students from two universities, Wilfrid Laurier University and the University of Waterloo, were asked to participate in this study.[1] Both universities are located in Waterloo, Ontario, Canada an urban centre located in south western portion of the province. These universities were chosen because their geographic proximity to each other (about 1.5 km apart) and relatively similar academic calendars. For instance, in this research, reading week for the University of Waterloo was the second last week of February and Wilfrid Laurier University's was the last.

The study primarily focused on students who were taking a 'reading week' trip of three nights or greater. This definition of a vacation trip is consistent with the Commission of European Communities (1986) definition of holiday, which is a pleasure trip of three nights or greater but no longer than a year away from one usual place of residence. This definition was used because of the larger risk factors associated, such as increased cost, with taking longer trips. This category however is limited because of only having a week available for trip taking without missing school time. Using this definition as the parameter for inclusion in the study will control for factors related to type of trip and for factors related to a get-away pleasure trips, which are shorter in duration and place less stress on time and financial resources.

Using these two parameters (reading week and 3 nights or longer) most of the external factors outlined in the model have been kept constant. Limiting the study to the context of trips taken primarily during reading week break addresses many of the structural elements related to time availability. The three nights or longer addresses the

[1] A description of how the students were selected can be found at the beginning of the phase one and two methods sections respectively.

situational perspectives as all of the students are looking for the same type of trip (a vacation trip as defined above).

This study by using a student population also is attempting to keep much of the demographic characteristics constant as well. The purpose of attempting to keep these factors constant is to focus on the effects of buying personality and motivations/ constraints on the decision-making process.

Phase-One Methods

Phase-one consisted of a pre-testing of the questionnaire design which was implemented in phase-two. The pre-test was designed to measure the effectiveness of the instrument in terms of reliability and validity. The pre-test consisted of distributing the questionnaire to approximately 184 students (both graduate and undergraduate) within the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Wilfrid Laurier University, located in Waterloo, Ontario, Canada. Students in the pre-test were asked about their Christmas holiday planning (as opposed to asking about their reading week plans in phase two). Christmas break, which is typically two weeks in length, was used in this phase as a surrogate for reading week. This data was not included in the final results reported in this study.

Students were recruited by asking each individual in person if they were willing to participate in the study. If willing, they were asked to provide an email address where a link to the questionnaire could be sent to them. When students received the e-mail, they were asked to click onto the link that would take them to the web-based questionnaire. Of the 184 students who were sent an invitational email to participate 139 students completed the questionnaire in November and December of 2004.

Of the 139 students, 55 or 30.7% were planning a Christmas vacation of three nights or greater. Those who stated 'yes' to planning a Christmas vacation trip 90.7% has chosen their final destination. As part of the test, each respondent was timed for the length of time required to complete the questionnaire. Those who said 'yes' to planning a Christmas trip, their time to complete the questionnaire ranged from 8 minutes 40 seconds to 16 minutes 55 seconds with an average of 14 minutes 45 seconds. Those who said 'no' to planning a Christmas trip completed the questionnaire on average in 3 minutes and 53 seconds. This timing may have been affected slightly by the type of Internet connection speed each respondent was working on but 100% of those who started the survey did complete it. Therefore, it was felt that the survey length was appropriate and that respondent 'burnout' as a factor was not an issue.

The scales used in test were then checked for reliability. Cronbach's Alpha test designed to measure internal consistency within scales was employed against the results of this test. According to Hair, Babib, Money & Samouel (2003) alpha scores range from 0 to 1. Alpha scores that are less than .6 show a poor level of internal consistency. Scores greater than .6 are stated by the authors to be acceptable in terms of internal consistency. The alpha scores found in this study would be considered as 'good' according to the standard described by Hair, Babib, Money & Samouel (2003) (Table 1). While typically, Alpha scores of .730 are used with sample sizes under 150, due to the exploratory nature of the research a score of .726 was deemed acceptable. The scales were then tested for multicollinearity using covariance matrices. The results fell within acceptable parameters for both scales with no two items being correlated at a greater than .030 level.

Table 1 – Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Analysis Scale

		N of Cases	N of Items	Alpha
Relative importance of motivations and constraints in the decision-making process	Phase-One Test	137	32	.812
Purchase Involvement scale	Phase-One Test	137	27	.726

The specificity of items used in the scalar measures were then tested using confirmatory-factor analysis to ensure that items loaded only on their designated constructs. The results of this testing also fell within acceptable parameters for both scales. The survey instrument was found to be valid and stable. With measures of reliability and validity within acceptable parameters the questionnaire was then deemed suitable for phase-two.

Phase-Two Methods

In phase-two a paper-based questionnaire was developed and disseminated to students taking tourism and/or geography courses at the University of Waterloo and Wilfrid Laurier University. Students were approached within two weeks of the beginning of their reading week, at the beginning or end of their class, and invited to participate. In all, six classes were approached. Students in these courses were chosen based on the following rationale: 1) students taking these courses represent a large spectrum of the total university population in terms of year of study and major; and 2) the scale of the classes, in terms of total number of students enrolled in these courses

Students were told that the survey would take between 10 and 15 minutes to complete and that as a 'reward' for participating in the study a $100.00 draw would be conducted at the end of the class. Students who agreed to participate were handed a questionnaire with a ticket attached. When the questionnaire was completed the ticket was ripped off the survey and half the ticket was placed into a draw box and the students kept the other half. Once all questionnaires were completed, a draw for $100.00 was conducted. This incentive was popular and in all, 522 students completed the questionnaire (representing over 97% of those in attendance in the six classes).

The Instrument

The questionnaire (Appendix A) was divided into five sections. The first section examined trip characteristics as well as the relative importance of motivations and constraints in the decision-making process. The trip characteristic questions included asking where the participants were leaving from, where they were going, how long they were going for, where were they staying while on their trip, what activities they were planning to engage in while visiting the destination and how much money they were planning to spend on their trip.

Respondents were asked to rate the relative importance of a series of constraints and motivations in their decision-making process for their last vacation trip. The constraints scale was built based on the work of Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002) study of eco-tourists and their barriers to participation (Table 2).

In that study, Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002) modified Crawford, Jackson and Godbey's (1991) constraint model for tourism purposes. The motivations were measured using a scale developed by Jang and Cai (2002). Their study examining the role of motivations in the decision-making process was based on Dann's (1981) concepts of 'push' and 'pull'. Jang and Cai (2002) studying overseas pleasure trips found that this scale was effective in maintaining reliability and validity. While Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002) used a five-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 = no influence to 5 very strong influence), this study modified the scale to a seven-point scale, as preferred by Jang and Cai (2002) in their study of motivations and destination choice. First, the results of this section were measured using a variety of techniques including basic bivariate analysis tests such a contingency tables, $\chi 2$, and t-tests. Secondly, typologies of reading week travelers were developed using a PCA/cluster analysis process.

Table 2 - Scale to measure the relative importance of motivations and constraints in the decision-making process

Item	Author
Going to a place I had not visited before.	Jang & Cai (2002)
Opportunity to increase my knowledge	Jang & Cai (2002)
Escaping from everyday life	Jang & Cai (2002)
Meeting new and different people	Jang & Cai (2002)
Being together with my family	Jang & Cai (2002)
Going to places my friends have not been	Jang & Cai (2002)
Experiencing a simpler lifestyle	Jang & Cai (2002)
Experiencing a unique culture	Jang & Cai (2002)
Indulging myself in luxury	Jang & Cai (2002)
The place has a high standard of cleanliness	Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002)
The destination is safe	Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002)
The best deal I could get	Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002)
Nice weather	Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002)
Destination provides value for holiday money	Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002)
Access to outside activities	
I can drive there on my own	Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002)
It is easy to get to	Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002)
The destination has plenty of arts and cultural attractions	Jang & Cai (2002)
It has an exotic atmosphere	Jang & Cai (2002)
Is romantic	Jang & Cai (2002)
My partner would enjoy the destination	Jang & Cai (2002)
I can just relax there	Jang & Cai (2002)
Shopping is abundant	Jang & Cai (2002)
I have a history there/ family tradition	Jang & Cai (2002_
My friends have been there	Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002)
It is easy to find information about the destination	Jang & Cai (2002)
My family would like the destination	Jang & Cai (2002)
My partner/ travel companions wants to go there	Jang & Cai (2002)
The travel time does not take too long	Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002)
My family will approve of the destination	Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002)

The second section of the survey was dedicated to ascertaining respondents' purchasing involvement (Table 3). The results of this section were measured using a modified version of the Purchase Involvement scale developed by Slama and Tashchian (1985). This 27-item modified scale measured the individuals' attitudes and behaviours towards purchasing their reading week trip. This scale was used to group individuals by their purchasing involvement in proxy of their purchasing personalities. Like the motivations and constraints scale, the results of this section were first analyzed using a variety of techniques including basic univariate and bivariate analysis. Secondly, typologies of reading week travelers were developed using a PCA/cluster analysis process. Finally, sections one and two were compared using the ANOVA tables to examine how the motivations/constraint typologies measured against the purchase involvement scale items.

Table 3 - Scale dedicated to ascertaining individuals' level of purchase involvement

Items
It does not matter what reading week destination I choose because it will make little difference to how much I enjoy the trip.
Usually reading about destinations or asking people about them won't really help you make a decision.
I have little or no interest in shopping for travel
I don't care what is written about the destination in newspapers or magazines.
I am not interested in bargain seeking
You can't save a lot of money by careful shopping for destinations
Because of my personal values, I feel that 'smart purchasing' is important to me.
I am usually not annoyed when I find out I could have bought an airline ticket/ hotel room cheaper than I did.
Being a smart shopper is worth the extra time it takes.
Even with small purchases (like gum), I will often evaluate a recent purchase and become annoyed because I chose a product that didn't meet my needs.
Seat/ hotel room sales don't excite me
I am not really committed to getting the most for my money.
In deciding where to travel, I spend a lot of time and effort making my purchase decision.
Consumerism issues are irrelevant to me
I view the purchasing of a trip as a rather petty activity, not relevant to my main concerns in life.
It is important to me to be aware of all the alternatives before purchasing a trip.
It is important to me to keep up with special deals being offered by travel agents/ web sites.
I am too absorbed in more personally relevant matters to worry about making smart travel purchases.
It is part of my value system to shop around for the best buy.
The travel section of the newspaper is highly relevant to me.
If I were buying a stay at a major resort, it wouldn't matter to me what brand I chose
The brand of airline I choose makes very little difference to me.
It is not worth it to read the travel section of the newspaper or travel magazines since most destinations are about the same.
You can save a lot of money by shopping on the Internet for the best deals.
Thinking about what destination traits you like before going to a travel agent will not make much difference to what trip you book.
It doesn't make much sense to get upset over a purchase decision that has gone wrong.
I am willing to spend extra time shopping to get the cheapest possible price on a trip of like quality.
I pay attention to ads for travel products I am interested in
Shopping wisely is rather a petty issue compared to thinking about how to make money.
I don't like worrying about getting the best deal when I go shopping for a vacation: I like to spend money as I please.
I don't like to waste a lot of time shopping trying to get good deals on trips.

The third section of the questionnaire consisted of asking respondents to rank-order their decision-making process. This was accomplished by asking respondents to rank-order the top four most influential variables discussed in section one. The unidimensional sequence alignment technique was then employed to segment the population and to examine if there were differences in the rank order structures.

Section four of the survey pertained to those who answered that they were not planning a 'reading week' vacation. This section was designed to explore the reasons individuals decided not to take a 'reading week' vacation. The scale for this analysis was developed by Nadirova and Jackson (2000) and modified for the purposes of this study (Table 4). Specifically, the scale was modified from a five to a seven point scale and the item, 'I have too much school work' was added. The results of this section were analyzed using the PCA/cluster analysis common in segmentation approaches.

Table 4 – Modified non-travel scale

Don't want to cross the border
No activities I am interested in
Cannot find suitable accommodations
Bad previous experiences with travel
Health
No one to travel with
My travel partners does not want to go to a destination I wanted to
Too far
Family situation won't allow travel at this time
I do not like to travel
I have work commitments
I have volunteer commitments
Cost
I have too much school work

Note: 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree

The final section of the questionnaire was devoted to collecting demographic information. In this section information related to gender, age, family status and income were asked. Given that this study was conducted using students, questions related specifically to that population were also asked. These questions included the students, year of study, major and living space while in school. These demographic characteristics are expected to be fairly homogeneous as the sample population is fairly uniform in many respects.

Methods of Analysis

Description of Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

While principal components analysis has more recently been commonly used as a device to reduce data, its original design intent was to test theory by grouping variables in order to achieve explanatory parsimony (Diekhoff, 1992). Principal components analysis begins with the construction of a bivariate correlation matrix of all variables. The procedure then identifies a number of vectors, equal to the original number of variables, each composed of the entire set of original variables but each weighted. The weights are called "loadings" to reflect its varying importance on each vector which are referred to as the "factors" (Diekhoff, 1992). Each factor has an eigenvalue, a measure of the explanatory power of each factor relative to the set of original variables. The first factor typically has a very high eigenvalue, with each subsequent factor having a lower eigenvalue. Every factor with an eigenvalue greater to or equal to 1.0 has greater explanatory power than the original set of variables (Diekhoff, 1992). Only these factors are normally retained for analysis. The typical output of factor analysis also contains a measure of the inter-relationship of each variable with every other variable - a so-called "commonality" (Diekhoff, 1992). Because principal components analysis is predicated on the assumption that the variables used in an analysis reflect a deep, complex structure hinted at by the statistical correlations among variables, one wants to see relatively high commonalities for every variable. A low commonality (less than $\leq$0.40) suggests that the variable is not part of a deeper structure but, instead, is a unique and "self-evident" influence (Diekhoff, 1992).

The initial factor set produced by principal components analysis typically contains a mix of loadings spread over the entire range of possible values of -1.0 to + 1.0 on each factor. Such a pattern makes interpretation of these factors difficult. As a result, a procedure called "varimax rotation" is typically employed. Rotation retains the original statistical relationships of the original solution, but loadings are forced to approach ± 1.0 or 0.0 as closely as possible. This simplifies the interpretation of the factors because the identity of each factor is suggested by the pattern of high (close to ± 1.0) loadings.

This method used in this study was employed by using a derivative of the scales developed by Pennington-Grey and Kerstetter (2002) in their testing of Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991) constraints based model in a tourism setting and combining that scale with the motivations scale of Jang and Cai (2002). Pennington-Grey and Kerstetter (2002) found this likert based scale (through the implementation of confirmatory factor analysis) to accurately measure the three types of constraints as outlined by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991). In this study, principal components analysis was used to both reduce the total number of variables as well as to provide explanatory parsimony.

Principal components analysis was used on both the purchase involvement and the motivations/constraints scales to understand the inter-relationships within each of the scales. Finally, the result of the principal components analysis was used to reduce the items in each scale to identify underlying dimensions for future analysis. As will be outlined later in this chapter, the results of the principal components analysis will then be used in conjunction with cluster analysis to develop segmentation profiles.

Description of Cluster Analysis

The objective of a cluster analysis is to identify different groups of clusters within a sample by examining the common features of respondents. Its importance lies in the fact that it offers explicit evidence that the respondents are not homogeneous. This type of segmentation analysis provides a more accurate reflection of average responses by forming different groups with a low degree of intra-group and high degree of inter-group variation. When selecting the most appropriate cluster method to apply, Aldenderfer and Blashfield (1984) indicate that a method of analysis should be considered that is compatible with classification goals, the variables introduced and the applicable density measure. A shortcoming of the cluster method is that it is difficult to decide how many groups to select before the analysis. This decision is conditioned by the researcher's knowledge of the phenomenon under study. In contrast, the advantage of this method of analysis is the ease with which the results can be interpreted.

In the selection of the appropriate segmentation method to employ, Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998) state that non-hierarchical clustering methods, such as the K-means method, are better than hierarchical procedures because their purpose is to reduce the data via the creation of uniform groups, under the premise that there must be a maximum inter-group and minimum intra-group variance. This implies that researchers must decide how many groups they wish to obtain before beginning the calculation process, leading to the formation of independent groupings. At the same time, the solution provided by K-means analysis is less heavily influenced by the presence of atypical cases, by the median of the distance measure applied and by the incorporation of irrelevant variables. Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998) show that agglomerative hierarchical methods can be unstable compared with other methods, resulting in unreliable results.

The next section of this chapter will outline how the results of principal components analysis can be used in conjunction with a cluster analysis to create a segmentation profile.

Principal Components/Cluster Methods

In this study both scales (buying personality and motivations/constraints) were first entered into a principal components analysis. A varimax rotation was used in both cases and only elements with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were accepted. The factors for each of the procedures were then examined for internal structures and found to be acceptable. The factor scores were then used in the K-means cluster analysis procedure. A variety of solutions were tested and in the end a three-cluster solution for both scales revealed the best 'balanced' and theoretically strongest results. This was decided by examining the clusters against scores for individual items in the original scale using ANOVA.

Cluster memberships were then tested against one another using contingency tables and $\chi 2$ analysis. Cluster membership was also tested against individual items in the opposing scale using ANOVA. This testing revealed few statistically significant relationships between the cluster memberships in both scales indicating there was a low chance of multicollinearity between the two scales. The elements that were statistically significant are discussed in the results chapter of the dissertation. The cluster membership of both scales was then tested against demographic characteristics. The results of these tests revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between groups in terms of demography. This result indicates that the attempt to keep demography constant was successful. The results of the cluster membership for both groups were then tested against trip characteristics with limited levels of statistical significance. These results are discussed further in the result section of this dissertation.

Unidimensional Sequence Alignment

Unidimensional sequence alignment was originally designed to compare differing DNA (*d*eoxyribo*n*ucleic *a*cid) and RNA (*r*ibo*n*ucleic *a*cid) structures along a series of alphabetical characters (Durbin, Eddy, Krough and Michinson (1998). In the context of this study, the sequencing was conducted in order to develop hierarchical groupings based on their rank-ordering of the top four most influential variables in choosing their reading week destination..

The output of the unidimensional sequential alignment is based on the construction of a tree similar to those developed through the use of several qualitative methodologies. According to Felsenstein (2002), the purpose of the technique is to find a tree that maximizes or minimizes (depending on perspective) the relational quantity or similar patterns of the sequences. In the context of this study, the technique attempted to group students who rank-ordered items similarly. The sequencing technique attempts to find the best tree by first taking the initial two inputs and constructs an initial tree based on the best fit. Then each other sequence is added into the tree and each time the sequencing performs a 'local rearrangement.' This 'local rearrangement' is the algorithm's attempt to find a better tree. Each time it is successful, the new arrangement is accepted and a new 'branch' is created. As Felsenstein 2002 notes, 'this phase is continued until the program traverses the entire tree, attempting local arrangements without findings any that improves the tree.'

Based on the work of Nadirova and Jackson (2000) and Jeng and Fesenmaier (2002), a 13-decider solution was developed (Table 5). The 13 motivations and constraints used in the analysis were based on the core constraints developed by Jeng and

Fesenmaier (2002) and the motivations and constraints used in the study by Nadirova and Jackson (2000). Students were asked to rank order these 13 variables on the order of importance.

When the students rank-ordered their top four influences on choosing their reading week destination elements were coded as letters A through N. The reason for this is that the CLUSTAL W program used to conduct the sequencing technique only accepts sequences of data coded in alpha format. This alpha coding creates a string of data. For instance if a student rank-ordered the first four deciders as the most importance influences their string would read ABCD.

Table 5 – 13 Decider Solution on Influence of Choosing Reading Week Destinations

A. Good value for money
B. Recommendations from friends/relatives
C. Media stories
D. They have the activities I want to do there.
E. It is easy to get to.
F. Friends and relatives live there.
G. Weather conditions at your home
H. Weather forecast for the destination
I. Easy to get accommodations.
J. Tradition (I always go there).
K. It is the cool place to be.
L. My friends wanted to go there.
M. My mate/ partner wanted to go there.
N. None of the above

The method employed in the unidimensional sequencing alignment is designed to find the best 'local arrangement' based on an algorithm designed to find similarities between the strings of data (Durbin, Eddy, Krough and Michinson, 1998; Elofsson, 2002; Bargeman et al 2002). According the Bargeman, *et al.* (2002), the sequencing algorithm evaluates each pairing of sequences in order to determine how many changes would be required for sequence A to be turned into sequence B. This attempt to modify sequence A into sequence B is done by using, substitution, identity, insertion and deletion operations (Bargeman et al 2002). Substitution and identity operations refer to the presence and ordering of the components within the sequences. In both these instances the algorithm attempts to match each pair of sequences. With each attempt the algorithm, assigns each pair a matching score and places it on the tree based on the score. As each pair of sequences in the data set is matched the tree grows.

Substitution operations refer to a one movement of one sequence decision within the framework. An example of this would be if sequence one was coded as ABCD and sequence two was coded as ABCF the algorithm would give credit for the three matching components but subtract from its matching score based on its variance. As more variance within the sequence occurs, the matching score is reduced and the places of the two sequences on the tree are spaced further apart. Identity operations refer to the sequence being in the same ordering for both A and B. Thus, if sequence one were ABCD and sequence B was ABDC the components would be 100% identical but the sequence would not. The algorithm will then adjust the matching score to reflect the fact that the components are misaligned.

Insertion and deletion operations are employed when one or more components of the sequencing are missing. For the purposes of simplicity, in the context of this study those who did not add all four components to the sequence were eliminated from this analysis. Therefore, no interpretations based on insertion or deletion operations were made as part of this research. [2]

The algorithm uses these four techniques to develop a matching score. If the two sequences are 100% matching and they are placed on the same branch of the tree output. As each of the operations are needed, the matching score is reduced and the placement of each string is placed further apart on the tree.

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[2] Insertion operations refer to a similar pairing in the sequence with the exception of a missing component at the end of the sequence. For instance, take two strings of rank order data: 1) ABDC and 2) ABC. Because 'D' is missing from the second sequence the technique will attempt to group it based on the first three elements (ABC). The algorithm will acknowledge the matching of the first three and give credit that if a fourth element was to be added to the second sequence it could be a 'D'. Deletion operations refer to a 'hole' in the middle of the sequence where a variety of decision contexts could be made. Deletion operations are similar to insertion operations in that there are missing components, but in this context if sequence one is ABCD and sequence two is AB?D (the question mark meaning that component is missing) the algorithm will then drop the third component of the first sequence and adjust the matching score accordingly. In the case of this study, once again all four components had to be included in order to be used in the analysis therefore eliminating this operation from occurring.

The CLUSTAL W program was used to develop the tree framework using the PHYLIP output framework (CLUSTAL W, 2003). CLUSTAL W is a program designed to allow for a fully automated 'global multiple alignment' for DNA and protein sequences (CLUSTAL W, 2003). The program contains the capability to calculate trees from multiple alignments. The tree developed using this program can then be transferred to programs such as the 'Treeview' program used in this study for interpretation. The grouping were then decided based on a visual inspection of the tree and transferred into SPSS and examined further with the use of contingency tables. As with a real tree, there are several levels of branches. In the case of this scenario, accepting the groupings on the 2^{nd} level would be appropriate. In DNA/RNA sequencing, the grouping is akin to accepting at the species level (Sauder, Arthur and Dunbrack, 2000). By accepting at this level, it can be stated that individuals stating the sequence of choices have enough similarities to be confidently segmented. This technique however, is relatively untested with a few exceptions such as; Joh, Arentze, Hofman and Timmmermans (2002); Baregeman, Jon, and Timmermans (2002) and Kemperman, Borgers and Timmermans (2002) and in each of those cases, the sequence alignment technique was used to measure travel patterns rather than rank-order sequences.

Chapter Four

Description of the Sample Population

In total, 522 students completed the questionnaire. Of those who completed the questionnaire 61% were women. The mean age of the participant was 21 years. The ages ranged from the youngest being 17 to the oldest being 34. Over 15 different majors were represented within the sample with the preponderance being geography students (28%) The sample population was fairly evenly distributed among years of study with 24% in first year, 29% in second, 25% in third and 22% in fourth year. The majority of the sample reported having incomes of less than $15,000 per annum. A reflection of this low level of yearly income may be reflected in that 50% of the sample population did not work for pay during the school year. In total, only 5% of the sample worked for pay more than 30 hours per week during the school year.

Trip Characteristics

Of the 522 completed surveys only 30% (n=158) stated that they were taking a trip of three nights or greater during reading week. Of those, 74% were paying in part or fully for the trip out of their own budgets and 92% had finalized their travel plans within the two weeks before the beginning reading week. The primary purpose for reading week trips was for pleasure purposes (62%) however, significant portions (35%) were traveling primarily to visit friends and relatives. The majority of the student population were planning to travel with friends (58%) displaying a high likelihood of group travel preferences.

While the primary destination for the majority (40%) traveled domestically within Canada, 30% traveled to US destinations and 20% traveled to Caribbean/South American destinations with the remaining 10% traveling to other International destinations. The average length of stay planned was five nights with a median budget of $400.00 per trip.

Motivations for Travel Choice

As outlined in the methodology chapter, the relative importance of motivations and constraints in the decision-making process were measured using a scale that incorporated both motivations and constraints. The constraints scale was built based on the work of Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter's (2002) study of eco-tourists and their barriers to participation; while the motivation scale was based on the work of Jang and Cai (2002) (table 6). As was reported in the pre-test section upon completion of this phase, this scale was again test for reliability using Cronbach's Alpha. In the case of this scale, the alpha score rose from .812 in the pre-test to a score of .847.

In examining the univariate results the measures that related to primary internal motivations (escaping from everyday life, it has activities I like to do, I can just relax there and access to outside activities) were rated as the most important factors in choosing a destination. Constraints such as: the destination is safe, the best deal I could get, nice weather, the destination provides value for holiday money and the destination is inexpensive rated as being secondary in importance. Following those, a mixture of motivations and constraints were found with those related to family and cultural enhancement being the least important factors in choosing reading week destinations. This is probably a reflection of the pleasure context on which these vacations are based.

Table 6 - Scale to measure the relative importance of motivations and constraints in the decision-making process

Item	N	Std. Dev	Mean
Escaping from everyday life	158	1.2	6.0
It has activities I like to do	158	1.4	5.9
I can just relax there	156	1.5	5.8
Access to outside activities	157	1.3	5.6
The destination is safe	156	1.7	5.2
The best deal I could get	158	1.2	5.2
Nice weather	158	2.0	5.1
Destination provides value for holiday money	158	1.7	4.9
The destination is inexpensive	158	1.7	4.9
The place has a high standard of cleanliness	158	1.8	4.7
My partner/ travel companions wants to go there	157	2.1	4.6
Meeting new and different people	158	1.9	4.5
Indulging myself in luxury	158	2.0	4.5
It is easy to find information about the destination	158	1.8	4.3
It has an exotic atmosphere	157	1.9	4.2
Experiencing a unique culture	158	2.0	4.1
The travel time does not take too long	157	1.9	4.1
It is easy to get to	157	1.9	4.0
My family will approve of the destination	156	2.1	4.0
Going to a place I had not visited before.	158	2.2	3.9
Shopping is abundant	157	2.1	3.9
Being together with my family	158	2.2	3.7
Going to places my friends have not been	157	2.0	3.7
My family would like the destination	157	2.2	3.7
Opportunity to increase my knowledge	158	2.1	3.6
Experiencing a simpler lifestyle	158	2.0	3.6
The destination has plenty of arts and cultural attractions	156	1.8	3.6
My partner would enjoy the destination	156	2.3	3.6
I can drive there on my own	158	2.3	3.5
Is romantic	157	1.9	3.2
My friends have been there	158	2.0	3.1
I have a history there/ family tradition	157	2.0	2.8

Range of scale = 1 - not at all important, 4 - moderately important, 7 - very important

Students & Buying Preferences

The Purchase Involvement scale developed by Slama and Tashchian (1985) for shopping was modified for use in a tourism setting in this research. This 27-item scale measured the individuals' attitudes and behaviours towards purchasing their reading week trip. As was reported in the pre-test section upon completion of this phase, this scale was again test for reliability using Cronbach's Alpha. In the case of this scale, the alpha score rose from .726 in the pre-test to a score of .728.

In the univariate examination of the purchase involvement scale the results indicate that the student sample is price-conscious (Table 7). Given the incomes reported in the demographic section this result is consistent with the level of reported incomes. The student population, as part of being price-conscious, is willing to allocate extra time to get the best price possible. Another finding is that the student population prefers to use the Internet and word-of-mouth over travel agents and newspapers as their primary information sources. This is an indication that students search for easily accessible information as part of their decision-making process.

Table 7 - Scale to measure purchase involvement

Item	N	Std. Dev	Mean
Being a smart shopper is worth the extra time it takes.	156	1.6	5.0
It is important to me to be aware of all the alternatives before purchasing a trip.	155	1.3	4.9
Because of my personal values, I feel that 'smart purchasing' is important to me.	156	1.5	4.7
I am willing to spend extra time shopping to get the cheapest possible price on a trip of like quality.	154	1.4	4.7
You can save a lot of money by shopping on the Internet for the best deals.	152	1.6	4.7
It is important to me to keep up with special deals being offered by travel agents/ web sites.	155	1.5	4.6
It is part of my value system to shop around for the best buy.	155	1.5	4.6
I pay attention to ads for travel products I am interested in	153	1.5	4.4
The brand of airline I choose makes very little difference to me.	154	1.8	4.3
If I were buying a stay at a major resort, it wouldn't matter to me what brand I chose	154	1.7	4.0
It does not matter what reading week destination I choose because it will make little difference to how much I enjoy the trip.	156	1.7	3.8
Shopping wisely is rather a petty issue compared to thinking about how to make money.	155	1.5	3.8
It doesn't make much sense to get upset over a purchase decision that has gone wrong.	154	1.6	3.7
I don't like worrying about getting the best deal when I go shopping for a vacation: I like to spend money as I please.	155	1.6	3.6
I don't like to waste a lot of time shopping trying to get good deals on trips.	155	1.5	3.6
Thinking about what destination traits you like before going to a travel agent will not make much difference to what trip you book.	155	1.4	3.5
Consumer issues are irrelevant to me	153	1.4	3.5
I am too absorbed in more personally relevant matters to worry about making smart travel purchases.	155	1.5	3.4
Seat/ hotel room sales don't excite me	155	1.6	3.3
It is not worth it to read the travel section of the newspaper or travel magazines since most destinations are about the same.	152	1.6	3.3
Even with small purchases (like gum), I will often evaluate a recent purchase and become annoyed because I chose a product that didn't meet my needs.	155	1.8	3.1
Usually reading about destinations or asking people about them won't really help you make a decision.	156	1.65	3.0
I am not interested in bargain seeking	156	1.7	2.9
You can't save a lot of money by careful shopping for destinations	156	1.8	2.9
I am usually not annoyed when I find out I could have bought an airline ticket/ hotel room cheaper than I did.	156	1.8	2.9
I am not really committed to getting the most for my money.	155	1.5	2.8
I like to make others make my travel decisions for me.	156	1.6	2.4

Range of scale = 1 – strongly disagree, 4 - neutral, 7 – strongly agree

Behavioural Dimensions & Typologies of Student Travelers

As previously discussed, the relationship between the positioning of motivations/constraints in the decision-making process is related to demographic characteristics and buying personalities. In this research, the demographic characteristics are held constant in regards to age, education level and income. While there is some deviation, overall demographic characteristics measured against both the buying personality and motivations/constraints scales were found to be not significant. With demographics held constant, it was then possible to examine factors related to the buying personality and motivations/constraints in relation to the decision-making process in isolation.[3]

[3] All principle component analyses in this section were tested for reliability and validity by checking communalities for multicolinearity. It was also decided that due to the exploratory nature of this research factor scores of less .400 would be accepted.

Purchase Involvement Scale Typologies

Principal component analysis was run using a varimax rotation with a Kaiser normalization procedure. The rotation converged in 28 iterations revealing 61% of explained variance for the solution in which dimensions with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 was accepted. Principal component analysis on the Purchase Involvement scale revealed eight dimensions (table 8).

The first dimension, 'price immaterial' (13% explained variance), relates to insensitivity to cost. This dimension includes items related to a lack of need to save money, comparison shop or deal with consumer issues. People who score highly on this dimension place higher value on other personally relevant matters and do not consider price to be important.

The second dimension 'impulse consumers' (10% explained variance) relates to aspects of the shopping where little research is conducted and there is little concern placed upon the final outcome of the purchase. People who score highly on this dimension show a lack of interest in spending time on the decision-making process and are generally unconcerned with the outcomes of the experience.

The third dimension 'value conscious' (8% explained variance) measures how likely people are to want constant information when planning a trip. People with high scores in this dimension are likely to follow trends and be aware of the latest information.

'Smart purchasers' (7% explained variance) are looking for a balanced product. People with high scores in this dimension evaluate their purchases based on what they believe is a smart set of criteria.

‘Blasé purchasers’ (7% explained variance) do not place a high value on seeking information from outside sources when making decisions, nor do they feel that the destination is a relevant part of their trip experience. Individuals who score highly in this dimension do not care where they go, as they feel it is irrelevant to the overall enjoyment of the experience, and as such, will not spend time on researching their destination.

‘Indifferent purchasers’ (6% explained variance) tend not to place value on written material when making their travel decisions. People who score highly on this dimension may be more likely to be lead by a group decision.

‘Brand consciousness’ (6% explained variance) measures the importance of brand within their travel purchase. Individuals who score highly on this dimension place little value on brand within their decision-making process.

‘Internet purchasers’ (5% explained variance) measures the belief that you can save money on your travel purchases by using the internet. People who score highly in this dimension feel that the internet is a valuable tool.

The factor scores were then used in the K-means cluster analysis procedure. A variety of solutions were tested and in the end a three-cluster solutions for both scales revealed the best ‘balanced’ and theoretically strongest results.

Table 8 – Principal components analysis of scale measuring purchase involvement

	Price Immaterial (13%)	Impulse purchasers (9.5%)	Value Conscious (8%)	'Smart' Purchaser (6.5%)	Blasé Purchaser (6.5%)	Indifferent purchasers (6%)	Brand Conscious (6%)	Internet (5%)
Consumer issues are irrelevant to me	0.745							
Seat/ hotel room sales don't excite me	0.707							
You can't save a lot of money by careful shopping for destinations	0.675							
I am not really committed to getting the most for my money.	0.639							
I am too absorbed in more personally relevant matters to worry about making smart travel purchases.	0.539							
I am not interested in bargain seeking	0.503							
I am usually not annoyed when I find out I could have bought an airline ticket/ hotel room cheaper than I did.	0.466							
I don't like to waste a lot of time shopping trying to get good deals on trips.		0.717						
I don't like worrying about getting the best deal when I go shopping for a vacation: I like to spend money as I please.		0.675						
It doesn't make much sense to get upset over a purchase decision that has gone wrong.		0.590						
I am willing to spend extra time shopping to get the cheapest possible price on a trip of like quality.		-0.526						
Even with small purchases (like gum), I will often evaluate a recent purchase and become annoyed because I chose a product that didn't meet my needs.		-0.489						
It is important to me to keep up with special deals being offered by travel agents/ web sites.			0.788					
It is part of my value system to shop around for the best buy.			0.734					
It is important to me to be aware of all the alternatives before purchasing a trip.			0.657					
Because of my personal values, I feel that 'smart purchasing' is important to me.				0.801				
Being a smart shopper is worth the extra time it takes.				0.702				
It does not matter what reading week destination I choose because it will make little difference to how much I enjoy the trip.					0.690			
Usually reading about destinations or asking people about them won't really help					0.679			

you make a decision.								
Thinking about what destination traits you like before going to a travel agent will not make much difference to what trip you book.					0.539			
It is not worth it to read the travel section of the newspaper or travel magazines since most destinations are about the same.						0.594		
Shopping wisely is rather a petty issue compared to thinking about how to make money.						0.494		
I pay attention to ads for travel products I am interested in						-0.484		
I like to make others make my travel decisions for me.						0.341		
If I were buying a stay at a major resort, it wouldn't matter to me what brand I chose							0.783	
The brand of airline I choose makes very little difference to me.							0.741	
You can save a lot of money by shopping on the Internet for the best deals.								0.747
Eigenvalues	3.536	2.568	2.261	1.796	1.783	1.611	1.585	1.307

Extraction Method: Principal Components Analysis. ¬ Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 28 iterations.

Cluster 1 was labeled 'Laissez-faire' (N=54). This cluster demonstrated a lack of interest in being a smart or informed shopper. This group was least likely to use outside sources to make their buying decision, including being the least likely to use the internet.

Cluster 2 was the 'Modestly discerning' (N=59). This cluster was moderate in almost all categories. This group tended to show an interest in smart purchasing tactics and was the most likely not to care about brand loyalty and, in general, were the most willing to spend time to find the appropriate travel product to suit their needs.

Cluster 3 was the 'Highly discerning' (N=24). This cluster is very price-conscious, and is the most likely to use the internet and other relevant sources to find their travel product. They were willing to spend the most time to find the best value for their dollar. This group is most likely to use multiple sources to find their best deal. This cluster wants to make the most informed decision possible and is the most likely to be annoyed if they miss an opportunity.

Table 9 – Cluster analysis of scale measuring purchase involvement

	Laisez-faire (N=54)	Moderately Discerning (N=59)	Highly Discerning (N=24)	F	Sig.
Price Immaterial	**.121**	**.136**	**-.463**	**3.745**	**0.026**
Consumer issues are irrelevant to me	3.500	3.525	2.958	1.605	0.205
Seat/ hotel room sales don't excite me	3.555	3.695	2.125	9.710	0.000
You can't save a lot of money by careful shopping for destinations	3.296	3.102	2.125	3.618	0.029
I am not really committed to getting the most for my money.	3.222	2.932	1.542	12.395	0.000
I am too absorbed in more personally relevant matters to worry about making smart travel purchases.	3.611	3.831	2.208	11.676	0.000
I am not interested in bargain seeking	3.315	2.915	2.333	2.852	0.061
I am usually not annoyed when I find out I could have bought an airline ticket/ hotel room cheaper than I did.	2.519	3.610	2.167	9.012	0.000
Usually reading about destinations or asking people about them won't really help you make a decision.	2.759	3.041	3.136	.890	0.413
Impulse Consumers	**.316**	**-.023**	**-.860**	**16.591**	**0.000**
I don't like to waste a lot of time shopping trying to get good deals on trips.	4.074	3.966	1.875	27.010	0.000
I don't like worrying about getting the best deal when I go shopping for a vacation: I like to spend money as I please.	3.833	3.780	2.583	6.587	0.002
It doesn't make much sense to get upset over a purchase decision that has gone wrong.	3.760	3.848	3.125	2.001	0.139
I am willing to spend extra time shopping to get the cheapest possible price on a trip of like quality.	4.111	4.627	6.125	23.921	0.000
Even with small purchases (like gum), I will often evaluate a recent purchase and become annoyed because I chose a product that didn't meet my needs.	1.796	3.900	3.750	29.998	0.000
Value Conscious	**-.230**	**-.108**	**.668**	**8.202**	**0.000**
It is important to me to keep up with special deals being offered by travel agents/ web sites.	4.019	4.475	5.667	12.070	0.000
It is part of my value system to shop around for the best buy.	4.148	4.509	5.583	8.829	0.000
It is important to me to be aware of all the alternatives before purchasing a trip.	4.722	4.949	5.375	2.231	0.111
Smart' Purchasers	**-.535**	**.380**	**.242**	**15.960**	**0.000**

Because of my personal values, I feel that 'smart purchasing' is important to me.	4.093	5.051	5.125	7.276	0.001
Being a smart shopper is worth the extra time it takes.	4.167	5.339	5.708	13.008	0.000
Undifferentiated Shopper	**-.318**	**.191**	**198**	**4.502**	**0.013**
It does not matter what reading week destination I choose because it will make little difference to how much I enjoy the trip.	3.136	3.932	3.708	.232	0.793
Usually reading about destinations or asking people about them won't really help you make a decision.	2.759	3.136	3.042	.890	0.413
Thinking about what destination traits you like before going to a travel agent will not make much difference to what trip you book.	2.583	3.056	4.136	17.475	0.000
Coat tail' Shoppers	**-.338**	**.716**	**-1.060**	**57.715**	**0.000**
It is not worth it to read the travel section of the newspaper or travel magazines since most destinations are about the same.	3.241	3.949	1.625	23.727	0.000
Shopping wisely is rather a petty issue compared to thinking about how to make money.	3.630	4.339	2.375	22.327	0.000
I pay attention to ads for travel products I am interested in	4.074	4.085	5.875	18.200	0.000
I like to make others make my travel decisions for me.	2.352	3.271	1.792	10.529	0.000
Brand Loyalty	**.159**	**-.048**	**-.186**	**1.187**	**0.308**
If I were buying a stay at a major resort, it wouldn't matter to me what brand I chose	3.944	4.186	3.750	.650	0.524
The brand of airline I choose makes very little difference to me.	4.519	4.085	4.042	.964	0.384
Internet	**-.433**	**.291**	**.325**	**9.930**	**0.000**
You can save a lot of money by shopping on the Internet for the best deals.	3.944	4.915	5.500	11.676	0.000

All three groups displayed a high degree of price consciousness and generally wanted to get high value for their dollar. The primary difference among clusters however is the amount of time and the dedication to information gathering processes. This 'dedication' to getting to the purchasing process seems to be the primary separator between groups.

Motivations/Constraint Typology

The 32-item scale measured the individuals' motivations and constraints related to purchasing their reading week trip. Principal components analysis was once again run using a varimax rotation with a Kaiser normalization procedure. The rotation converged in 28 iterations revealing 67 % of explained variance for the solution in which dimensions with eigenvalues greater than one accepted. Principal components analysis on the motivations and constraints scale revealed nine dimensions of measurement within it (table 10).

Dimension one, 'Intrapersonal Rationales' (19% explained variance), reflects the internal structure and desires of decision-making. This dimension measures personal preferences in the perceived environment such as cleanliness, luxury and safety. The dimension reflects one's desire to escape from everyday life but to a safe, secure feeling locale. Individuals who score highly on this dimension are focused on their personal needs.

'New experiences' is the second dimension (13% explained variance). It reflects the importance of new experiences of the trip experience. Individuals who score highly on this dimension are searching for opportunities to go where neither they nor their friends have gone, and where they will learn something.

The third dimension is 'access' and it reflects the importance of ease of access to the destination (explained variance 8%). Individuals who score highly in this area are more likely to drive to the destination, be traveling with companions and are looking for a destination that does not require significant travel time.

Table 10 – Principle components analysis of scale measuring motivations and constraints.

	Component								
	Interpersonal Rationales (19%)	New Experiences (13%)	Access (8%)	Family (7%)	Romance (5.5%)	Activities (4%)	Cost (4%)	Socialization (3%)	Familiarity (3%)
The place has a high standard of cleanliness	0.786								
The destination is safe	0.678								
Indulging myself in luxury	0.635								
I can just relax there	0.607								
The destination has nice weather	0.524								
Escaping from everyday life	0.452								
The destination provides value for holiday money	0.445								
Going to a place I had not visited before.		0.866							
Opportunity to increase my knowledge		0.792							
Going to places my friends have not been		0.679							
Experiencing a unique culture		0.486							
I can drive there on my own			0.812						
My partner/ travel companions wants to go there			0.751						
It is easy to get to			0.711						
The travel time does not take too long			0.665						
My family would like the destination				0.834					
Being together with my family				0.814					
My family will approve of the destination				0.750					
I have a history there/ family tradition				0.584					
Is romantic					0.730				
My partner would enjoy the destination					0.709				
The destination has plenty of arts and cultural attractions					0.616				
It has an exotic atmosphere					0.473				
Access to outside activities						0.760			
It has activities that I like to do						0.685			
The destination is inexpensive							0.813		
I got a great deal to visit the destination							0.430		
My friends have been there								0.728	
Meeting new and different people								0.409	
Shopping is abundant									0.690
Experiencing a simpler lifestyle									-0.525
It is easy to find information about the destination									0.445
Eigenvalues	3.536	2.568	2.261	1.796	1.783	1.611	1.585	1.307	1.202

Extraction Method: Principal Components Analysis. ¬ Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 28 iterations.

The fourth dimension is 'family' and is a reflection on measures related to the importance of family (explained variance 7%). Individuals who score highly in this dimension want to put family first. This could be by traveling to be with family, to family or to places where family tradition or approval dictates.

The fifth dimension is 'romance' and is a reflection of couples' needs (explained variance 5.5%). People who score highly in this dimension are looking for activities and services that meet their needs as well as their partner's needs. They would be most likely to be interested in destinations that are perceived to be romantic and/or exotic.

The sixth dimension is 'activities' (explained variance 4%). Individuals who score highly in this dimension are looking to have access to specific experiences and activities that meet specific needs. For instance, an individual scoring highly in this dimension may have an interest in mountain climbing. This is an activity not available at all destinations; therefore they would be searching for specific destinations that offer this opportunity.

'Cost' is the seventh dimension (explained variance 4%). Both perceived value and overall expense are evaluated in this dimension. Individuals who score high in this dimension are looking for high value/low cost destinations.

'Socialization' is the eighth dimension (explained variance 3%) and measures both the perceived benefit of meeting new people and sharing common experiences with friends.

The ninth dimension is 'familiarity' (explained variance 3%). Individuals who score highly in this category are looking for destinations that have experiences that they understand and enjoy, such as shopping. This dimension measures the level of comfort that an individual has with their destination.

The factor scores were then used in the K-means cluster analysis procedure (table 11). A variety of solutions were tested and in the end a three-cluster solutions for both scales revealed the best 'balanced' and theoretically strongest results.

The first cluster is the 'escapists' (N=52). This cluster is very self-centered. Their need to escape everyday life is of the utmost importance. Individuals in this cluster are not looking for familiar surroundings or new adventure, education or culture, nor are they concerned with romance or family. In general, this group is looking for escape. They can be focused on activities within their opportunities, primarily as it relates to them as an individual.

The second cluster is the 'budget-conscious' group (N=22). This cluster is similar to the escapists, however, they have significant financial constraints and are looking for cost-effective travel options. They are more likely to go to places where they have a history or family tradition and places where their friends have been. This group wants to know that they are getting the experience they desire for the price they can afford.

The third cluster is the 'experience-seekers' (N=62). This cluster is concerned with increasing their knowledge or experience. They are the most likely to visit new places and to look for cultural attractions. This group is the least affected by intrapersonal motivations and constraints. This group while very value and price conscious is seeking novelty for their travel dollars and want to have appropriate time to enjoy the destination as ease of access to the destination is also a primary concern.

In total, the three clusters differ considerably on several components. The 'escapists' are the least likely to be concerned with finances while the other two groups are highly concerned with them. The 'escapists' and 'budget-conscious' are similar in their strong desires in terms of intrapersonal needs and wants while the 'experience seekers' are more directed to the interpersonal and structural elements.

Table 11 – Cluster analysis of scale measuring motivations and constraints.

	Escapists (N=54)	Budget-Conscious (N=22)	Experience -Seekers (N=62)	F	Sig.
Intrapersonal Relations				**8.154**	**0.000**
The place has a high standard of cleanliness	5.375	4.919	4.308	3.426	0.035
The destination is safe	5.125	5.339	4.962	0.628	0.535
Indulging myself in luxury	5.708	4.903	3.769	10.478	0.000
I can just relax there	6.375	5.936	5.577	2.559	0.081
The destination has nice weather	5.500	5.000	5.173	0.521	0.595
Escaping from everyday life	6.291	6.210	5.962	0.996	0.372
The destination provides value for holiday money	4.000	5.339	4.865	5.875	0.004
New Experiences				**38.937**	**0.000**
Going to a place I had not visited before.	3.417	3.290	4.480	3.105	0.048
Opportunity to increase my knowledge	2.833	2.984	4.500	10.277	0.000
Going to places my friends have not been	2.792	3.854	3.866	3.105	0.048
Experiencing a unique culture	2.917	4.0323	4.615	6.089	0.003
Access				**2.995**	**0.053**
I can drive there on my own	2.292	3.742	3.673	4.183	0.017
My partner/ travel companions wants to go there	4.333	4.307	4.921	1.487	0.230
It is easy to get to	2.833	3.984	4.423	5.992	0.003
The travel time does not take too long	3.208	3.871	4.654	5.374	0.006
Family				**10.953**	**0.000**
My family would like the destination	3.000	3.212	4.016	5.374	0.006
Being together with my family	3.000	3.790	3.519	1.136	0.324
My family will approve of the destination	3.542	3.846	4.210	3.042	0.051
I have a history there/ family tradition	2.250	3.613	1.942	12.310	0.000
Romance				**2.666**	**0.073**
Is romantic	2.792	3.161	3.269	.533	0.576
My partner would enjoy the destination	3.048	3.417	4.077	2.936	0.056
The destination has plenty of arts and cultural attractions	2.583	3.161	4.365	12.132	0.000
It has an exotic atmosphere	3.833	4.226	4.289	0.453	0.637
Activities				**7.686**	**0.001**
Access to outside activities	5.625	5.516	5.635	0.130	0.878
It has activities that I like to do	5.376	5.904	6.080	2.269	0.107
Cost				**44.566**	**0.000**

The destination is inexpensive	2.791	5.290	5.330	30.668	0.000
I got a great deal to visit the destination	3.583	5.258	4.712	9.230	0.000
Socialization				**3.372**	**0.037**
My friends have been there	2.167	3.548	2.462	7.558	0.001
Meeting new and different people	3.000	4.855	4.365	9.268	0.000
Familiarization				**0.850**	**0.430**
Shopping is abundant	2.250	3.613	1.942	.287	0.751
Experiencing a simpler lifestyle	2.500	4.758	2.923	21.480	0.000
It is easy to find information about the destination	3.875	4.468	4.212	0.981	0.378

Reading Week Destination Rank Order Sequences

In the examination of the results of the Unidimensional Sequence Alignment, nine groups were identified. One group, however, contained only one sequence and was eliminated from further analysis. The groups were identified and described using three techniques (appendices B and C). The first technique used the JAL View feature of CLUSTAL W. JAL View is a multiple alignment editing tool designed to allow the results of CLUSTAL W to be displayed from a variety of perspectives. One of the features of JAL View is that it creates a series of charts that break potential groupings into series of sequence codes based on levels of matching. In the case of this dissertation, acceptance at three levels of matching was attempted.

The levels of matching are representative of the gap distance between sequences. As this is a new technique within the social science field, there are presently no 'cut off' guidelines. As was outlined in the methodology chapter, the method employed in the unidimensional sequencing alignment is designed to find the best 'local arrangement' based on an algorithm designed to find similarities between the strings of data (Durbin, Eddy, Krough and Michinson, 1998; Elofsson, 2002; Bargeman et al 2002). According the Bargeman, *et al.* (2002) the sequencing algorithm evaluates each pairing of sequences in order to determine how many changes would be required for sequence A to be turned into sequence B. This attempt to modify sequence A into sequence B is done by using, substitution, identity, insertion and deletion operations (Bargeman et al 2002). In this study, only substitution and identity operations were used as part of the analysis.

Substitution and identity operations refer to the presence and ordering of the components within the sequences. In both these instances the algorithm attempts to match each pair of sequences. With each attempt the algorithm, assigns each pair a matching score and places it on the tree based on the score. As each pair of sequences in the data set is matched the tree grows (appendix B).

At the first level, a perfect match is obtained (two or more sequences are exactly alike). At the second level, there is usually one slight modification or misalignment between sequences is present. A modification is the introduction of a completely new element i.e. ABCD could be ABCE. A misalignment refers to a change in the order of the elements, i.e. ABCD could be ABDC. In the second level only one element of the sequence not in perfect match. This may be as a result of a single substitution or identity operation. At the third level it is possible that both a modification and a misalignment could be present (this would most likely include multiple substitution or identity operations). In the case of these results, acceptance at this level would have created 18 groups. At the fourth level (which was also tested for acceptance), it is possible that up to two modifications and misalignments of elements may be present. At this level, 12 groups would have been created using this sample (this would most likely include both a substitution and identity operation). Finally, at the fifth level (which was accepted), there could be up to three modifications and a misalignments of elements (this would include 2 substitution operations and one identity operation). This created the nine groups of which one was eliminated from further examination due to its outlier status. At the sixth level (the highest to which CLUSTAL W matched this data set), up to three modifications could be present, as well as additional misalignment (which reflect two substitution and two identity operations).

The second technique for identifying and describing grouping involved using the alignment file in colours (appendix C). The alignment file displays visually how the technique merged the data into groupings. For the purposes of this dissertation, two different types of alignment files were used. The first was the basic alignment file, which displayed the series of sequences aligned as the technique merged them. The second alignment technique displayed the propensity of elements in the sequences. This graphic displayed the common trends along the sequences. These alignment files allowed for a series of rules to be developed. The rule, "if X, then Y" was then tested in the third technique.

The third technique involved doing basic counts of each of the elements within each grouping. Then using the alignment file in conjunction with the counts rules were created for each grouping. These rules were then tested against each sequence in the grouping. For instance, if one element was missing from one sequence and replaced with another it had to be true for all other sequences in the group to be accepted. In some cases because of the level of acceptance a sub-rule of a substitution element had to be created. The substitution element was an X element within the series of sequences that were inconsistent. In almost all cases (with the exception of group 6) the substitution element was the final components of the sequence whereby a variety of elements could be entered.

Table 12 – Unidimensional Sequencing Branch Groupings

Group #	Sequence	N/# of Sample (N=144)
1	A/H B/G/D F/L/E	27 (19%)
2	A/E D/H B/F	27 (19%)
3	M/A C/F/K -	16 (11%)
4	A/D H/G B/I/K	22 (15%)
5	F/I K/B E/D	13 (9%)
6	A/- H L D	9 (6%)
7	D/H K/L A/-	24 (17%)
8	F D/K -	6 (4%)

A. Good value for money
B. Recommendations from friends/relatives
C. Media stories
D. They have the activities I want to do there.
E. It is easy to get to.
F. Friends and relatives live there.
G. Weather conditions at your home
H. Weather forecast for the destination
I. Easy to get accommodations.
J. Tradition (I always go there).
K. It is the cool place to be.
L. My friends wanted to go there.
M. My mate/ partner wanted to go there.
N. None of the above
\- indicates a substitution element
/ indicates OR

Group one's primary elements were good value for money (A) and weather at destination (H) (table 12). These two elements are insertions for each other (meaning that one or both had to be in every sequence in the group). These represented the first or second element in 85% of the sequences within the group. When examining the trip characteristics of the first group of students, 100% of the students stated they were going to a sun destination of some type. Therefore, the weather element at the destination being important was unsurprising and considering the overall student income being value conscious in relation to a long haul trip is also to be expected. At the second level, recommendations from friends/relatives (B), 'weather conditions at home' (G) and 'activities I want to do there' (D) were found be substutions of each other. If a group member cited 'good value for money' at the beginning of the sequence 'weather conditions both at home and at the destination' became prevalent in the middle and end of the sequence. If 'weather conditions at the destination' was cited first, 'recommendations from friends and relatives' and 'activities' became the secondary elements within the sequence. Finally, at the third level of the sequence individuals cited 'easy to get to', 'friends and relatives live there' and 'my friends wanted to go there' as substitutions for each other. In this case, those who were 'value-conscious' were more prone to answer 'my friends wanted to go there' (showing a display a peer pressure). Those who responded with 'friends and relatives live' there as opposed to the 'weather' side of the group who were more concerned with 'ease of access'. Overall, this group was consistent in their desire for weather (either escaping the weather at home or going to warm weather at the destination) in which in all sequences one or both of the weather factors are present. There was some variation within the group, however; those with a 'high value' element cited more push factors such as 'weather at home', peer pressure, or 'inexpensive accommodations' ('being with friends and relatives'), while those not as worried about value were more responsive to pull factors.

Group two was primarily concerned with 'value for money' and 'ease of access'. In all group two sequences, either 'value for money' and ease of 'access' was present. In 78% of the cases, both 'value for money' and 'ease of access' were present within the sequence. In cases where only one of 'value for money' or 'ease of access' was present, both 'activities I want to do' and 'weather forecast for destination' were present at the second level. If both 'value for money' and 'ease of access' were present, either one of 'activities I want to do' and 'weather forecast for destination' was present. At the third level, the presence of 'recommendations from friends and relatives' or 'friend and relatives live there' shows how this group is influenced. Only one of these two elements is present in each sequence as the three other spaces are filled with three of the four other elements stated in the first two levels. In the examination of this group, 76% were heading to destinations in the Southern USA while the others were heading for what could be considered traditional Canadian ski destinations (Banff, Mont Tremblant).

My 'mate wanted to go there' and 'value for money' dominated group three. Every sequence with the exception of one contained the 'my mate wanted to go there' element (the other one contained 'value for money' and all of the secondary elements). In 85% of the groups, both my 'mate wanted to go there' and 'value for money' were present as part of the sequence. On the secondary level, all sequences contained one of elements related to 'media stories', 'friends and relatives live there' or ''it is a cool place to be'. One or two the secondary elements are present in most sequences (with the exception of the one that has all three of them). Finally, a wide variety of elements are contained at the tertiary level. This may be due to one element in each pertaining to the individual himself or herself. Unsurprising, those who cited 'a cool place to be' did not cite 'value for money' in any case with the exception of the one case that cited value and all of the secondary elements (which probably indicates it is an outlier). Those who stated 'value for money' as the first element, always cited 'friends and relatives live there' as a secondary component.

The fourth group's primary focus is on 'value for money' and 'activities I want to participate in'. One of these elements is present in all cases and both are present in 25% of the cases (in these cases. one is at the beginning of the sequence and the other is at the end). In cases where only value is present, only one of 'weather conditions at home' or 'weather conditions at the destination' is selected and one or two of the tertiary elements ('easy to get accommodations' and it is a 'cool place to be' and 'recommendations from friends/relatives') is present. In cases where 'activities' is only present, both tertiary elements 'easy to get accommodations' and it is a 'cool place to be' is in the sequence. If both on 'value for money' and 'activities I want to participate in' are present then the sequence is filled with one of the secondary or tertiary elements and can contain a substitution element somewhere in the sequence. Overall, this group centres on 'value' and 'activities' with strong secondary and tertiary elements than the other sequences discussed so far. The primary elements being together less frequently and when so separated from beginning to end indicates that in this group the secondary and tertiary elements become more important than in previous groupings.

The fifth group primarily focuses 'friends and family live there' and 'ease of getting accommodations'. If both elements are present in the sequence the tertiary level elements 'ease of access' and 'activities' then become more prevalent however, they are the third and fourth elements in the sequences. If only 'friends and relatives live there' is present then 'recommendation from family and friends' is also present and is usually in the second or third position. If only 'ease to get accommodations' is present then 'cool place to be' becomes the important second element. In both cases as stated above if only one of the primary elements exist, the tertiary elements become more important in the sequence. In all, this group is focused on easy travel options where value elements are not stated as important.

The sixth group features heavily focused and displays consistent sequences. 'Weather forecast for the destination', 'friends wanting to go to that destination' and 'activities I want to do' are present in all sequences. The first component, 'value for money', is either the first item in the sequence or is replaced with another component which is substituted. This indicates that while the majority of this group places a high priority on value there is a subset within it that does not cite it as one of the top four factors in their decision-making process. However, what bring this group together so strongly is that all members have the three other elements in common.

Group seven was one of the larger groups (N=24) and, as with group six, featured a large segment that was highly 'value conscious' while having the remaining segments not stating it as part of their sequences. This may be because this group was highly focused on 'activities',, 'weather forecast at the destination' and combining those features with 'cool place to be' and 'friends wanting to go there'. Interesting, members of this group who cited both 'cool place to be' and 'friends wanting to go there' never cited 'value for money'. What distinguishes this group from the others is the relative consistency of the secondary elements across the sequences in relation to both the primary and tertiary elements. When this group is examined in more depth, the destinations are those that could be considered resort destinations (both hot weather and cold weather) and when the proposed activities are examined, they include primarily those with a high degree of socializing with friends. In total, this group in general focuses on 'value', 'activities at the destination' and 'weather forecast for destination' first. However, a 'cool place to be' and a place that their 'friends want to go to' is an important element in the decision-making process.

The final group (eight) is the smallest and like group five has a strong focus on 'friends and relatives living at the destination'. Unlike group five, however, group eight has that component in every sequence within the group. Also, the secondary element of 'activities I want to do there' and 'cool place to be' are also prevalent in every sequence as well though sometimes as individual elements and sometimes as a pair. The last element is a substitution element whereby while 'friends and relatives living at the destination' is positioned along side either one of 'activities I want to do there' and 'cool place to be'. What is particularly fascinating about this group is that not one sequence contained a reference to 'value for money'.

Non-Travel

In contrast to the 30% of students who indicated that they were planning a reading week vacation, 70% of the students reported that they were not taking a trip during that time. This section explores the results of further questioning of these subjects regarding their decision not to travel.

The two main reasons for not taking a reading week trip were cost and too much school work; however, work commitments, not having anyone to travel, and family situation all displayed a high standard deviation (table 13).

Table 13 -Mean score analysis of scale measuring non-travel.

	N	Std. Dev.	Mean
Don't want to cross the border	320	0.95107	1.3281
No activities I am interested in	317	1.27696	1.612
Cannot find suitable accommodations	316	1.5328	1.9462
Bad previous experiences with travel	314	0.84382	1.3248
Health	330	1.10006	1.4667
No one to travel with	330	1.92845	2.5545
My travel partners does not want to go to a destination I wanted to	303	1.45201	1.868
Too far	336	1.16469	1.5685
Family situation won't allow travel at this time	311	1.86395	2.1961
I do not like to travel	310	1.16703	1.3774
I have work commitments	303	2.18996	3.2343
I have volunteer commitments	285	1.55078	2.0035
Cost	358	1.82564	5.2542
I have too much school work	356	1.97672	4.1826

Note: 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree

The non-travel typology was modified for use in a tourism setting by the researcher. This 14-item scale measured the individuals' constraints related to their decision not to take a reading week trip. Principal components analysis was once again run using a varimax rotation with a Kaiser normalization procedure. The rotation converged in 6 iterations revealing 57 % of explained variance for the solution in which dimensions with

Eigenvalues greater than one accepted. Principal components analysis on the non travel scale revealed four dimensions of measurement (table 14).

Soft Social Constraints, such as no one to travel with, distance to travel, or fears of traveling, are variable and potentially removable constraints. These constraints are most easily managed.

Hard Social Constraints are more fixed and more difficult to overcome. They include health, family situations, and not liking to travel.

Time constraints are specifically fixed to time and include work, volunteer, and school commitments.

Financial constraints are specifically related to cost.

Table 14 – Principle components analysis of scale measuring non-travel.

	Component Soft Social Constraints (24 %)	Hard Social Constraints (14%)	Time Constraints (11%)	Financial Constraints (8%)
My travel partners does not want to go to a destination I wanted to	0.768			
No one to travel with	0.767			
Bad previous experiences with travel	0.725			
Don't want to cross the border	0.628			
Too far	0.628			
Cannot find suitable accommodations	0.528			
I do not like to travel		0.628		
Family situation won't allow travel at this time		0.603		
Health		0.575		
No activities I am interested in		0.561		
I have volunteer commitments			0.764	
I have work commitments			0.741	
I have too much school work			0.582	
Cost				0.881
Eigenvalues	3.297	1.976	1.566	1.127

Extraction Method: Principal Components Analysis. ¬ Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

The factor cluster procedure illustrated results bear some resemblance to that of Haukland (1990). Four types of non-travellers were identified. The four types of non-travelers identified were 1) socially and economically unconstrained, 2) socially unconstrained and economically constrained 3) socially constrained and economically unconstrained and 4) Socially and economically constrained. Each of these categories represents variable and potentially movable constraints. This is effectively displayed as a simple 2x2 table (figure 2)

Figure 2 - Haukeland (1990) Typology of Non-Tourists

		Economic Factors	
		Unconstrained	Constrained
Social Factors	Unconstrained	Type A	Type B
	Constrained	Type D	Type C

Table 15 – Cluster analysis of scale measuring non-travel.

	Socially and Economically less constrained (N= 55)	Socially less constrained & Economically constrained (N= 90)	Socially constrained & Economically less constrained (N= 46)	Socially and Economically constrained (N= 30)	F	Sig.
Soft Social Constraints					42.969	.000
My travel partners does not want to go to a destination I wanted to	1.6000	1.2111	1.4130	3.2000	27.691	.000
No one to travel with	2.2364	1.7333	1.9783	3.9667	14.274	.000
Bad previous experiences with travel	1.0727	1.0333	1.0870	2.6333	56.042	.000
Don't want to cross the border	1.1636	1.1000	1.0435	2.4333	28.544	.000
Too far	1.0545	1.3333	1.3478	3.2667	35.974	.000
Cannot find suitable accommodations	1.8000	1.4333	1.2391	3.3333	32.121	.000
Hard Social Constraints					27.527	.000
I do not like to travel	1.1455	1.2333	1.0435	2.7667	20.956	.000
Family situation won't allow travel at this time	1.7455	1.8444	2.0435	3.3667	6.780	.000
Health	1.0909	1.0667	1.1739	2.6000	46.201	.000
No activities I am interested in	1.2364	1.2222	1.1739	3.1333	1.4751	.000
Time Constraints					108.141	.000
I have volunteer commitments	1.2909	1.2000	3.4565	2.4333	48.164	.000
I have work commitments	2.7091	1.9000	5.2826	3.7333	41.117	.000
I have too much school work	2.4364	3.9444	5.5435	4.5333	29.727	.000
Financial Constraints					89.863	.000
Cost	3.3031	6.5333	5.1739	5.8333	64.308	.000

Socially and economically less constrained non-travelers (N=55) displays that there are few real constraints to travel for members of this group (table 15). Of all variables, cost is the most likely factor to be identified.

Socially less constrained and economically constrained non-travelers (N=90) indicated that cost is the overwhelming factor in their decision-making process. The only other constraint that approaches significance is too much schoolwork.

Socially constrained and economically less constrained non-travelers (N = 46) have significant draws on their time, and are constrained by work, volunteer, or school commitments. Although time is certainly the most important factor in this case.

Socially and economically constrained non-travelers (N=30) have the most constraints of any group, with financial, time, soft and hard social constraints all playing a role.

Chapter Five

Discussion

This study was designed to examine the importance and influence of motivations and constraints on the pleasure travel decision-making process. As was illustrated at the beginning of this dissertation (Figure 1), it was hypothesized that the travel decision-making process was affected by potential tourists' perceived motivations and constraints. Further, perceptions of motivations and constraints were shaped by a series of external and personal factors.

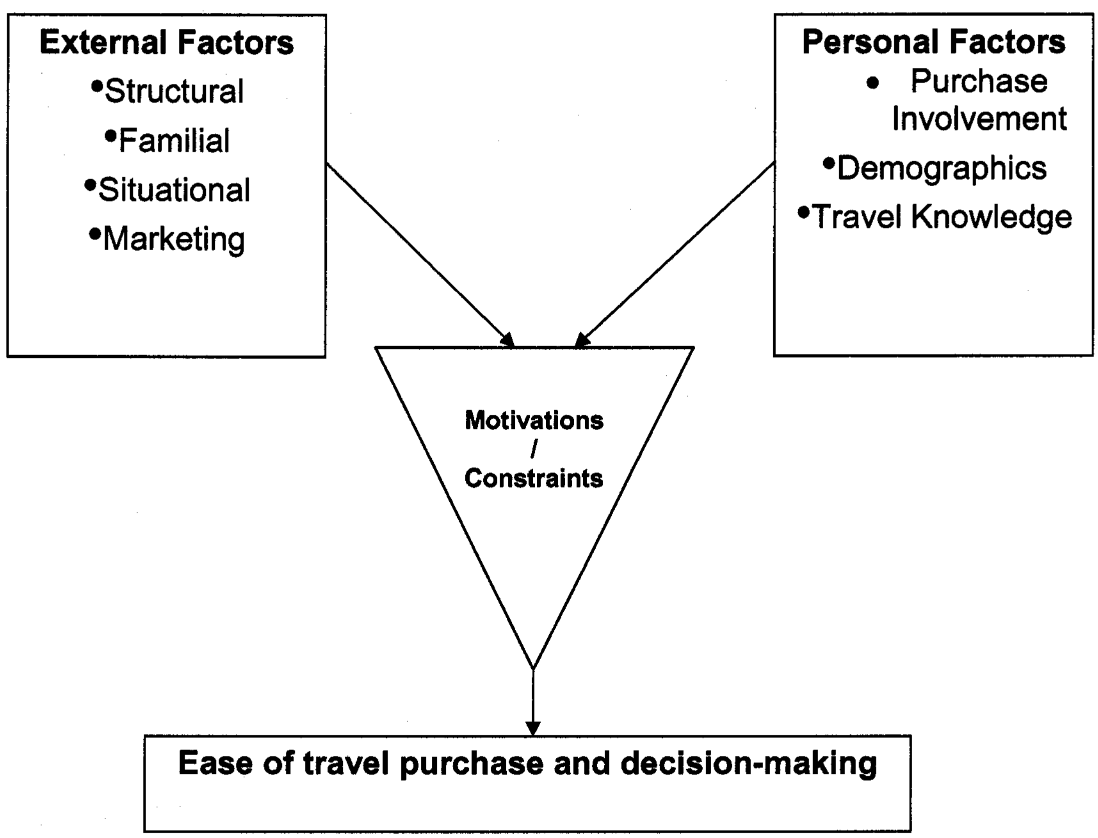

Figure 1 – Proposed Model (repeated)

This study was then designed to examine the following research questions in relation to the model:

1. What is the relative importance of motivations and constraints in the decision-making process?
2. Are there different types of decision-makers in regards to travel and non-travel?
3. Is there a sequential pattern related to the influence of motivations and constraints on the decision-making process?

This chapter will review how each of these questions were addressed in relation to the literature and discuss limitations in the study that affect generalizability of the findings.

Relative Importance of Motivations and Constraints

The relative importance of motivations and constraints was examined using two separate methodological approaches. The first was how constraints affected the decision to travel. The second, once the trip has been decided upon, was an analysis of how motivations and constraints affected the final destination choice. These two methodological approaches combined allowed for a deeper understanding of the trip decision-making process.

Only about 30% of students surveyed planned to take a reading week trip. What prevented many students from choosing to travel altogether was informative. In the analysis of the non-travel group (approximately 70% of the sample), the expected problems of cost and too much school work were found to be prominent. At a deeper level, however, the principal components analysis revealed four primary types of constraints; soft social, hard social, time, and financial. These results, while slightly different from the work of Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991), contain many of the same elements. Although the elements were similar to those found in studies by Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) and Pennington-Grey and Kerstetter (2002), the results of this study seemed to indicate more of a hierarchy of constraints similar to the arguments presented by Nadirova and Gobey in 2000. At each level (soft social, hard social, time, and financial), the typology of constraints that were experienced together become tougher to negotiate. What results of this study do not indicate is how challenging the negotiation process is at each level and how each level affects the overall decision to travel or not.

However, this analysis did provide the opportunity to segment reading week non-travelers in the attempt to understand how these levels of constraints interact as part of the travel decision-making process. These results are consistent with the results of Haukeland (1990), and Smith and Carmichael (2005) who found that various combinations of constraints prevented travel. The cluster analysis segmentation results indicated that the predominant number of non-travelers in this study were socially less constrained but economically constrained. This finding is consistent with that of Haukeland (1990), and Smith and Carmichael (2005) who also found this grouping to be most prevalent. Interestingly, the group of participants was socially constrained and economically less constrained was found to represent 21% of the sample. This is also consistent with the results of Smith and Carmichael (2005). Haukeland (1990), however, found no individuals who fit into this categorization; he hypothesized that there would be individuals that do. The other two groups were consistent with the findings of previous studies (Haukeland, 1990, and Smith and Carmichael, 2005). These results indicate that individuals potentially have a multitude of constraint levels to overcome as part of the travel decision-making process. If they can overcome these constraints, a new series of motivations and constraints then must be addressed.

There is a need to understand how the various components merge to affect destination choice in the examination of motivations and constraints of those who did take a reading week trip. In this study, the results most closely mirrored those indicated by Jeng and Fesenmaier (2000) whose decision-making framework was closely linked to that of Nadirova and Jackson (2000), and Bettman, Luce, and Payne (2001). The dimensions with the highest degree of explanatory power ('Intrapersonal Rationales' and

'New Experiences') are related to internal decision-making structures. From the intrapersonal perspective, the 'family', 'romance' and 'socialization' dimensions focus on relationships within decision-making. These are mid-level factors in terms of explained variance. Finally, 'access,' 'cost' and 'familiarity' are structural considerations. Interestingly, 'cost' and 'familiarity' are the lowest in terms of explained variance however; 'access' is much higher. 'Access' may have a higher degree of importance because of the time availability associated with reading week travel. 'cost' may be lower because 'vacation provides value for dollar' is classified as part of 'intrapersonal rationales' leading to the thought that actual cost is related to structural factors where as 'value for money', which is more important, is classified as an interpersonal factor.

The cluster analysis revealed more insight into the role motivations and constraints play in the destination decision-making process. The three groups found in this analysis, 'escapists', 'budget conscious', and 'experience seekers' displayed significant variations in their travel choice considerations. These results may indicate the respondents position on the 'travel career ladder (TCL)' (Pearce and Lee 2005). Unfortunately, this study did not examine previous travel experiences. These results may, however, reveal something about the individuals' overall buying behaviour. As was examined in the next section, the results of this section may be linked to how motivations and constraints are perceived as part of the travel decision-making process.

Purchase Involvement

This section examined the responses to a modified purchase involvement scale first developed by Slama and Tashchian in 1985. The results pertaining to this scale were not entirely consistent with that of the original study. The eight dimensions that resulted from the factor analysis differed in that it separated factors that may be considered 'irrational' from those that some would consider more logical. For example, those who scored high on the 'impulse' dimension did not want to spend time to research destinations while those who scored high on 'value-consciousness' spent considerable time comparing potential vacation options. These findings are consistent with those of Mendelssohn (1993) and Baumgartner (2002) who argued that the reason this area of study has not been examined in great depth in the literature is the lack of rationality within many shopping behaviours. What is not known in this research is whether or not the lack of knowledge regarding travel purchasing is as a result of personality itself or of the inexperience of many of those in the sample. If one does not know where to research potential alternatives, one could be expected to miss many sources. In both cases, however, the results indicate that there are groups of student purchasers who behave in very different ways in their trip decision-making.

When examined more closely using the cluster analysis technique, Cluster analysis reveals three typologies of tourists. The three groups, 'laissez-faire', modestly discerning', and 'highly discerning' were relatively consistent with the findings of McAdams (2001). McAdams (2001) found five different personality types that provided the same range from those who are very impulsive to those who are highly constraints orientated as was found in this study. The variations in the number of segments could be artefact of sample size. With the much smaller sample size in this study than that used by McAdams (2001), smaller 'in-between' groups are less likely to emerge from clustering. This is most likely the reason this study found three groupings as opposed to McAdams finding five. Further, the modifications to the scale and asking about a specific purchase (as opposed to McAdam's (2001) who was looking at purchasing in general) could also influence the number of clusters.

One of the more interesting results of this study was the finding related to the 'laissez-faire' group. The member of this group were the least likely to put time and research effort into the purchase of their trip. Given that tourism is often considered a major purchase which usually implies a higher degree of risk, this finding is surprising. Upon further review however, given that a high percentage of trips were in groups, fairly low cost (in relation to other types of tourism) and involved what Pearce and Lee (2005) would describe as 'lower-end' or 'base' needs there may be some mitigating factors to being more diligent in the trip decision-making process. Combine those mitigating factors with the lack of inexperience with travel purchasing and a perceived 'lack of time', a 'laissez faire' approach to travel purchases should not be surprising.

The purchase involvement scale did display that there are variations in buying patterns that are correlated with personal traits. Whether or not these traits are flexible or rigid are areas for future research. There needs to be a greater understanding of which traits change over time with experience and which ones remain rigid as part of the individual.

This analysis into purchase involvement in relation to travel decision-making has raised more questions than it has answered. One answer this research did provide was that students in this sample prioritized criteria used in decision-making in various ways. The level of work and the level of research into their trip purchases is a good indication of this variation in priorities. Combined, these findings with those found in the section on motivations and constraints, could be an indication that personality traits affect which motivations and constraints are prioritized as part of the decision-making process. While this research does not evaluate this question specifically, the next section of this paper does examines how motivations and constraints were prioritized by the sample population and how those rankings can be use to illustrate sub-groupings based on them.

Reading Week Destination Rank Order Sequences

The answer to the third question; "Is there a sequential pattern related to the influence of motivations and constraints on the decision-making process?" in this study can be described as inconclusive. While there does seem to be a prioritization by the respondents, the results do not indicate that this prioritization is hierarchical in nature. These 'mixed' results were as a result of introducing a new technique and issues pertaining to proper interpretation as a result. Four questions must be addressed when examining the effectiveness of the use of unidimensional sequence alignment:

1. Did the technique add depth to the information that could not be gained by using 'traditional' techniques?
2. If so, what are the strengths and weaknesses related to the technique?
3. Finally, under what conditions would this technique be useful for further research?
4. Was this technique appropriate to the data?

The response to the first question is that this technique allowed for further depth by requiring respondents to make explicit choices related to their priorities. The use of Likert scales is common in this sort of research, but that method carries the risk that respondents will rate everything as being "very important". The use of this technique 'forces' respondents to prioritize decision criteria and thus provide greater insight into trip decision-making criteria. The groupings generated through the use of this technique allowed for intricate differentiations between segments to be identified. In the relative importance of motivations and constraints section, the results for many of the individual items were rated by the respondents in the similar fashion. This bunching of scoring lead to the need for the additional steps of (1) using factor analysis (to address that issue) and

(2) using factor scores in the cluster analysis. While this provided good information it was amalgamated so individual characteristic variables were not easily identifiable. In contrast, unidimensional sequence alignment allowed the importance of individual variables to be examined. The use of this technique in this study created a depth of knowledge that would have been unobtainable using 'traditional' techniques.

In response to the second issue related to the strengths and weaknesses of the technique, several important insights arose from this analysis. The first insight is that there are no previous studies conducted to provide guidelines for levels of acceptability for use of this technique in a social sciences context.

While the analysis technique is felt to be rigorous, there are several weaknesses that must be acknowledged in connection with use of the technique. The analysis of the technique at present requires several man-hours because no computerized algorithms have been developed yet to support this procedure. As such, much of the analysis has to be conducted by the researcher using a variety of software packages such as SPSS, Excel, Treeview, and CLUSTAL W. This approach is labour intensive, which means that smaller sample sizes must be used in order to make the process manageable. With better tools, the sample size threshold currently imposed upon this research could be expanded. Another weakness of the technique is the inability to use the results in conjunction with other types of analyses. It was hoped to cross-tabulate group membership with other variables such as personality type; however sample size limited such analysis, thus resulting in inconclusive findings.

As discussed in the review of literature, this research expands upon the work of Bargeman, Jon, and Timmermans (2002), and Kemperman, Borgers, and Timmermans (2002) who used unidimensional sequence alignment technique to order people travelling from place to place within the setting of a simulated theme park or sequencing vacation time structures. The technique worked well in those settings. Could the insights derived from these studies be brought in to measure sequences of decision patterns?. As indicated by the results of this study, this technique could be employed to gain in-depth knowledge of a particular market. This technique may be of special use when used in conjunction with a qualitative analysis. The sequence strings could then be used as a catalyst for discussion providing further depth into a decision-making process. It could also be used to compare the decision patterns in groups of people (as the original purpose of the test was to compare DNA structures). The use of this technique in tourism research in this manner creates possibilities that are not readily available using traditional means.

Overall, unidimensional sequence alignment with further enhancement of the technique could be a valuable tool in gaining a greater understanding travel decision-making. The technique as illustrated in the results of this study show that there is a sequential pattern related to the influence of motivations and constraints on the travel decision-making process and that these patterns can be grouped and/or segmented. While significant development is needed, the technique show significant potential for understanding travel decision-making.

Limitations

In this study, there were several limitations to the research that if addressed would have enhanced its overall quality. The need to complete the research in a timely fashion, within strict budgetary guidelines combined with the desire to test specific components of the proposed model all created limits to the research.

As has been discussed throughout the study, trade-offs at various points were required in order to achieve the goal of completing the research. An example of one of these trade-offs was the use of students' reading week travel choices as the main focus of the research. Students were chosen because demography, structural and marketing components of the study were designed to remain as constant possible. The use of reading week as the research context helped minimize potential variation is these characteristics, thus allowing a clearer focus on the role of personality, familial and structural considerations, as well as motivations and constraints in relation to trip decision-making.

In the development of the methodology, there were also time and budgetary pressures. Reading week travel occurred during a specific time period, which required the research to be conducted just prior to the break. This created a situation whereby not all students may have made their final choice regarding their travel plans. Also, with many being in the midst of planning for reading week, several of their stated priorities may have been slanted by their individual places within the decision-making process. This research therefore, is a 'snap shot' at a point in the decision-making process. Ideally, this study would have followed students all through the process, evaluating their responses are various points within it.

As outlined in the methodology chapter, the classes were chosen because of their size. While the overall response rate of those in attendance was high, in some of the courses the overall attendance in some sampled classes was lower than expected. This may have lead to a potential bias in the results. Also, because of the cost of the incentive offered and the study's budgetary limitations, only a limited set of classes were asked to participate. While a smaller dollar-value incentive could have been offered to permit surveying in more classes, it was felt that the high response rate was partially induced by a strong incentive. These effects combined with a higher than expected rate of non-travel, created a lower than desired sample size. As a result, the results of this study are not generalizable to the entire student population.

Overall the limitations were recognized to ensure that the research questions (including the proposed model) could be examined in an effective and efficient manner. The result of the study even with the limitations give insights into the travel decision-making process and makes a contribution to the literature. The results and the discussion that arise from them, displays a strong foundation for future research.

Chapter Six

Conclusions

This study illustrates the importance of examining motivations and constraints in conjunction with each other rather than in isolation. The results indicate that the proposed model is correct in intertwining the two concepts as part of the decision-making process. The importance and influence of motivations and constraints on the pleasure travel decision-making process was examined in this study from several perspectives. Each of these perspectives: non-travel, buying personality and the role of motivations and constraints in the decision-making process gave insight into the destination choice selection.

In examining students who chose not to take a reading week trip, it was discovered that while there may be a strong motivational desire to travel, constraints often prevented that choice from being enact upon. In the statistical replication of Haukeland's (1990) model it was found that of those who did not choose to go on a reading week trip only 21% of the sample reported being less constrained and presumably disinterested in travel. The rest of the sample faced significant challenges whereby with the choice to not travel at all was made. This finding leads to the question of whether the choice to travel or not should be separated from the choice of where to travel. Are these two choices mutually exclusive? There seems to be a separate two-stage approach to travel decision-making. The results of this study also indicate that there is a need to understand more about the hierarchy of motivations and constraints throughout the process. Are constraints more important in the initial decision to travel; are motivations more important in the decision related to the final destination choice?

When examining motivations and constraints at the destination choice level, it was found that the role of these elements was interdependent. In this segmentation analysis, three groups arose; 'escapists', 'budget conscious' and 'experience seekers'. Each of these groups could be considered primarily motivations driven however, the role constraints played was found to differ. Intrapersonal constraints were found to be easier to negotiate than interpersonal or structural types of constraints. The 'budget conscious' segment was focused on getting 'value for money' and could be hypothesized as being more willing to trade-off motivational properties if the constraint elements became more balanced. Finally, the 'experience seekers' were similar to the 'escapists' in many ways but were distinct in the type of motivations in which drove them. They were searching for novelty as opposed to the 'escapists' group who were motivational driven. In terms of constraints, this group was the most structurally-oriented group in that they were the most concerned about ease of access (in terms of both time and space).

In examining their sequences groupings, it was found that details in each of the eight groupings showed a wider variation in the roles specific motivations and constraints played as part of the decision-making process. This is unsurprising as human decision-making is generally quite varied dependent upon a variety of factors. What the sequencing did reveal however, was that when individuals are forced to rank order, a more varied and complex segmentation is found in comparison to when subjects were asked to use Likert scale to score their responses. This creates a 'double edged sword' scenario. On one 'edge' is the question of whether we are sub-segmenting to the point where the amount of disaggregation becomes useless. On the other 'edge' is segmenting to this level of detail about potential consumers in this information, customization orientated age now going to be a necessary component of marketing strategies? Both 'edges of the sword' creates more questions than they answer. The development of this technique as was discussed in the previous chapter leads to interesting possibilities. In isolation however, this technique while showing some depth does require additional research to enhance its abilities. One possibility for the future is to link this technique along with buying personality profiling.

The purchase involvement results illustrated that even though tourism is often considered a high risk decision, youth combined with potential inexperience and peer pressure can lead to a '*laissez faire*' approach. In the analysis of these results, the students' place on the travel career ladder (Pearce and Lee 2005) would have been a nice addition to have as part of an explanatory process. Did their place on the ladder affect their level of purchase involvement? Another fascinating element of the purchase involvement was that the segmentations found in this analysis did not correlate to the segmentations found in the motivations and constraints analysis. If a correlation was found between 'laissez faire' individuals with those who were 'escapists' and so forth logical links could have been developed. This was not the case however. It is not known if these links were not made because of the scale designs being incompatible from a methodological perspective or if there really is no link between the two perspectives. There is more study required on this question.

The research conducted as part of this dissertation not only examined the roles of motivations and constraints as part of the decision-making process, it also contributed to the literature in three ways; 1). The study examined motivations and constraints within a consumer behaviour framework (including their role in the initial decision to travel or not as well as in the final destination choice). This has been rarely attempted in the tourism literature and will allow for future research to be expanded upon the theory developed in this work; 2). The study introduces a new typology of hierarchical modeling into the field. Unidimensional sequence alignment allows for rank order and nominal data to be grouped in a similar fashion to that of cluster or principal components analysis however, it adds a level of detail not possible using those traditional methodologies; and 3). The examination of buying personality in relation to the travel decision-making process has not been studied in large detail within the tourism literature previously. This contribution, if further developed, will increase the understanding of the decision-making process greatly.

Overall, the results of this study raise more questions than are answered. The relative roles of motivations and constraints in the travel decision-making process are interdependent. Both external and internal factors affect how motivations and constraints are perceived as part of the pleasure travel decision-making process. However, there is a need to understand more about this phenomenon. Questions as to whether rank order of decision-structures is more effective in understanding decision-making than traditional means is still to be answered. Further, there is a need to understand more about the role purchase involvement plays as part of the decision-making process. Ideas related to how purchase involvement is reflective of motivations and constraints in relation to the travel decision-making needs to be further explored. Basic questions as to the role of the staged process in travel decision-making still needs to be addressed within the literature.

The aims of this dissertation beyond the scope of the original research questions can be described in a three-fold manner; 1) Did the research test theory? In that, did the research increase our knowledge of a phenomenon; 2) Did the methodological approach help answer the research questions in a manner that would be considered both valid and reliable; and 3) Did the results of the study raise possibilities for future research?

In terms of the first aim, more is now understood about the intricate nature of motivations and constraints as part of the travel decision-making process. More is now known about the role personality plays as well. Finally, a greater understanding of potential methodological approaches has been developed. As for the second aim, traditional approaches have been applied to answering many of the research questions which have been tested and found to be reliable and valid over time. The new methodological approach unidimensional sequence alignment was employed in a manner that followed a logical progression. Even with that progression, the technique has been questioned and its results left open for debate as to their validity and reliability. As for the third and final aim, as was stated above several pertinent questions have been raised as a result of this research. These questions, if taken up by researchers will progress the knowledge about this phenomenon further. In all, that is the contribution that will end as the most worthy.

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Appendix A - Questionnaire

WILFRID LAURIER UNIVERSITY
INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT
Exploring the Importance and Influence of Motivations and Constraints on
Students Reading Week Travel Choices
Wayne W. Smith
Wilfrid Laurier University

You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to understand why you decided to travel or not to travel during reading week. Further, this study seeks to understand why those who are planning to travel during reading week chose the destination they did.

INFORMATION

The researchers for this study are Wayne W. Smith and Barbara Carmichael from Wilfrid Laurier University. This research is being carried out as part of the dissertation process of the PhD program in the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Wilfrid Laurier University.

You role in this study will be only to answer the questionnaire following this letter (if you accept its terms) and if you elect to, participate in one-on-on interviews regarding your answers on this questionnaire. The questionnaire will take between 10 and 15 minutes to complete. All answers you provide to the researcher will be kept strictly confidential.

RISKS

In all surveys there is a potential for embarrassment and other detrimental effects in how one responds to a question. If you feel at all uncomfortable with a question asked, please do not answer it.

BENEFITS

The potential benefits of this study include:

- The development of a new type of market segmentation
- The development of a greater understanding of travel decision-making
- The development of better understanding of the role of constraints in travel decisions

CONFIDENTIALITY

Respondents will be answering the survey within a classroom environment. Data will be stored in the computer of Wayne W. Smith for the period of one year. Copies of the data will be given to Barbara Carmichael to be disposed of within three months of the study completion date.

COMPENSATION

As a 'thank you' for taking the time to fill out a questionnaire, you are invited to enter a draw for a series of $100 prizes. This is totally optional on your part. The chances of winning are dependent on the number of entries.

CONTACT

If you have questions at any time about the study, (or you experience adverse effects as a result of participating in this study), you may contact the researcher, Wayne W. Smith, at the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Wilfrid Laurier University (Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, and can be reached by phone at (519)884-0710 ext 2442 or via email at smit3246@wlu.ca. This project has been reviewed and approved by the University Research Ethics Board. If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or your rights as a participant in research have been violated during the course of this project, you may contact Dr. Bill Marr, Chair, University Research Ethics Board, Wilfrid Laurier University, (519) 884-0710, extension 2468.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You have the right to not answer any question(s) you choose.

FEEDBACK AND PUBLICATION

The results of this study will be used as part of the dissertation process in the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Wilfrid Laurier University. Also, the results will be used for publication in academic journals and for academic conferences.

CONSENT

I have read and understand the above information and I agree to participate in this study

Signature ________________________________ Date ________________________________

Questionnaire #______________________ Class Code _______________________

Thank you for responding to this survey. Your responses to the following questions will help me to assess how students select (or choose not to select) a spring break destination.

The questionnaire should take no more than fifteen minutes. Please just follow the instructions related to each question. Also, remember that the answers you provide are kept in confidence.

Part I

Are you planning to take a trip of three nights or greater during reading week (please circle your answer)?

Yes No (if no please skip to Part IV)

If yes, are you paying (in full or in part) towards the purchase price of the trip (please circle your answer)?

Yes No

What city are you planning on leaving from? ___________________________________

Have you chosen a final destination yet (please circle your answer)?

Yes No

If yes, where are you planning to take your reading week trip to (final destination)?

City_________________ Province/State____________________ Country ___________________________

How long are you planning to stay at your final destination? ________________(In nights)

How you been to this destination before?

Yes No

If yes, how many times previously have you visited this destination in the past three years? ____________________

What will be the primary purpose of your trip (please circle your answer)?

a. Visiting friends
b. Visiting relatives
c. Pleasure
d. Business
e. Other (please specify)

What activities do you plan on doing while on your reading week trip?

Who do you plan on traveling with during your reading week trip (please circle your answer)?

a. Alone
f. Alone with children
g. As a couple
h. As a couple with children
i. With friends
j. With other family members

What type of accommodation do you plan to stay in at the final destination of your reading week trip (please circle your answer)?

a. Motel/Hotel/Inn
b. With Friends
c. Bed & Breakfast
d. Resort
e. With Relatives
f. Other (please specify)______________________________

Approximately how much money do you plan on spending per person on this trip?

____

For each of the following questions please circle the response that describes your feelings of how important each statement was in choosing the final destination for your reading week trip?

	Not at all Important			Moderately Important			Very Important
Going to a place I had not visited before.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Opportunity to increase my knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Escaping from everyday life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meeting new and different people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Being together with my family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going to places my friends have not been	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Experiencing a simpler lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Experiencing a unique culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Indulging myself in luxury	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The place has a high standard of cleanliness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is safe	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I got a great deal to visit the destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The destination has nice weather	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination provides value for holiday money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Access to outside activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can drive there on my own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is easy to get to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination has plenty of arts and cultural attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It has an exotic atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Is romantic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My partner would enjoy the destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can just relax there	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Shopping is abundant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a history there/ family tradition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My friends have been there	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is easy to find information about the destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family would like the destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My partner/ travel companions wants to go there	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The travel time does not take too long	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family will approve of the destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is inexpensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It has activities that I like to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part II

For each of the following questions please circle your feelings regarding the following statements.

Items	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
It does not matter what reading week destination I choose because it will make little difference to how much I enjoy the trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Usually reading about destinations or asking people about them won't really help you make a decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have little or no interest in shopping for travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I don't care what is written about the destination in newspapers or magazines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am not interested in bargain seeking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
You can't save a lot of money by careful shopping for destinations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Because of my personal values, I feel that 'smart purchasing' is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am usually not annoyed when I find out I could have bought an airline ticket/ hotel room cheaper than I did.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Being a smart shopper is worth the extra time it takes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Even with small purchases (like gum), I will often evaluate a recent purchase and become annoyed because I chose a product that didn't meet my needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Seat/ hotel room sales don't excite me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am not really committed to getting the most for my money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In deciding where to travel, I spend a lot of time and effort making my purchase decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Consumerism issues are irrelevant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I view the purchasing of a trip as a rather petty activity, not relevant to my main concerns in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is important to me to be aware of all the alternatives before purchasing a trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

It is important to me to keep up with special deals being offered by travel agents/ web sites.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am too absorbed in more personally relevant matters to worry about making smart travel purchases.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is part of my value system to shop around for the best buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The travel section of the newspaper is highly relevant to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I were buying a stay at a major resort, it wouldn't matter to me what brand I chose	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The brand of airline I choose makes very little difference to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is not worth it to read the travel section of the newspaper or travel magazines since most destinations are about the same.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
You can save a lot of money by shopping on the Internet for the best deals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Thinking about what destination traits you like before going to a travel agent will not make much difference to what trip you book.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It doesn't make much sense to get upset over a purchase decision that has gone wrong.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am willing to spend extra time shopping to get the cheapest possible price on a trip of like quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I pay attention to ads for travel products I am interested in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Shopping wisely is rather a petty issue compared to thinking about how to make money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I don't like worrying about getting the best deal when I go shopping for a vacation: I like to spend money as I please.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I don't like to waste a lot of time shopping trying to get good deals on trips.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part III

From the list below, what were the most important factors in deciding your destination for your reading week trip (please rank from 1st to 4th most important)?

_______________ Good value for money

_______________ Recommendations from friends/relatives

_______________ Media stories

_______________ They have the activities I want to do there.

_______________ It is easy to get to.

_______________ Friends and relatives live there.

_______________ Weather conditions at your home

_______________ Weather forecast for the destination

_______________ Easy to get accommodations.

_______________ Tradition (I always go there).

_______________ It is the cool place to be.

_______________ My friends wanted to go there.

_______________ My mate/ partner wanted to go there.

_______________ None of the above

What other destinations did you consider for your reading week trip?

Why did you choose your reading week destination over these other places?

Please Skip to Part V

Part IV

Why are you not taking a reading week trip (circle as many as applies to your situation)?

1. I do not like to travel
2. Cost
3. I have too much school work
4. I have work commitments
5. I have volunteer commitments
6. Too far
7. Health
8. Family situation won't allow travel at this time
9. No activities I am interested in
10. Cannot find suitable accommodations
11. No one to travel with
12. My travel partners does not want to go to a destination I wanted to
13. Bad previous experiences with travel
14. Don't want to cross the borders
15. Other (please specify)__________________________________

What were the most important factors in deciding not to take a reading week trip this year (please rank from most important to 4th most important)?

________________ Cost

________________ I do not like to travel

________________ I have too much school work

________________ I have work commitments

________________ I have volunteer commitments

________________ Too far

________________ Health

________________ Family situation won't allow travel at this time

________________ No activities I am interested in

________________ Cannot find suitable accommodations

________________ No one to travel with

________________ My travel partners don't want to go to a destination I wanted to

________________ Bad previous experiences with travel

________________ Don't want to cross the borders

________________ Other as specified above

Part V – Demographic Characteristics

Gender (please circle your answer)?

a. Male

b. Female

Age ______________________________

Major______________________________ Year of Study______________________

What is your current family status (please circle your answer)?

1. Partnered
2. Partnered with Children
3. Partnered with Adult Children
4. Single with Children
5. Single with Adult Children
6. Single

What was your personal income level for the year 2004 from all sources (incl. Parental contributions, person income from employment, student loans/scholarships) (please circle your answer)?

i. Under $5,000
ii. $5,000 - $9,999
iii. $10,000 - $15,999
iv. $16,000 - $20,999
v. $21,000 - $25,999
vi. $26,000 - $29,999
vii. $30,000 or more

Where do you live while attending university (please circle your answer)?

1. At home with relatives
2. Dormitory
3. Off campus alone
4. Off campus with roommate(s)
5. Off campus with partner

During the school year do you (please circle your answer)?

1. Work part time (under 30 hours per week)
2. Work full time (over 30 hours per week)
3. Do not work during school year

Are you registered as (please circle your answer)?

1. A full time student
2. A part time student

Are you willing to participate in a one-on-one interview regarding the answers you provided in this questionnaire (please circle your answer)?

Yes No (if no, thank you for your time)

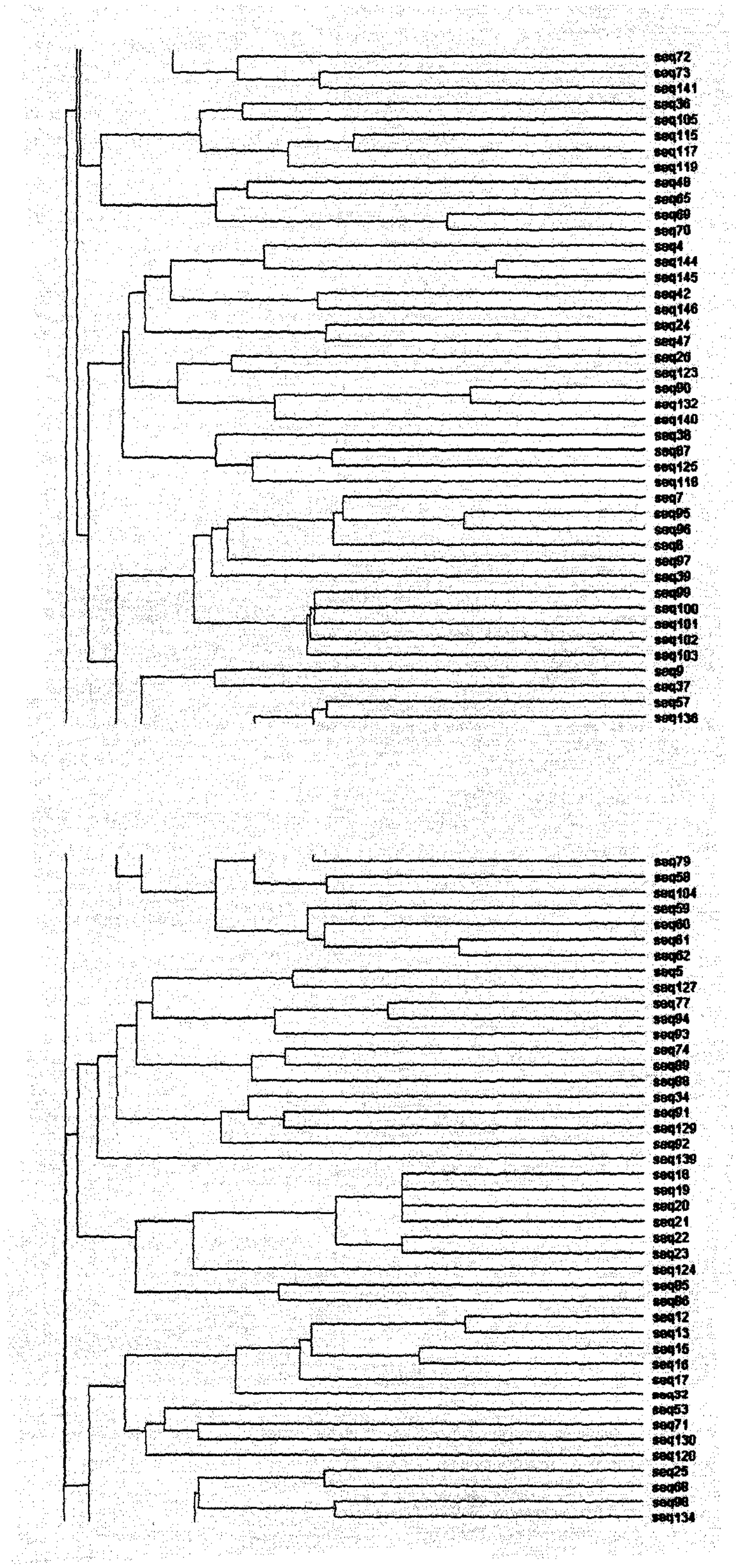
If, yes do you understand that individual anonymity will be broken and that the researcher Wayne Smith will interview you about the answers you provided in this questionnaire but your confidentiality however, will be protected in all other forms (please circle your answer)?

Yes No (if no, thank you for your time)

If you answered yes to the previous two questions, please provide your Email address below and the researcher will contact you for schedule a time for a one-on-one interview (interviews will take approximately one hour).

Email Address ____

Appendix B – Unidimensional Sequence Alignment Tree Output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seq36
seq105
seq115
seq117
seq119
seq48
seq65
seq69
seq70
seq4
seq144
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seq42
seq146
seq24
seq47
seq26
seq123
seq90
seq132
seq140
seq38
seq87
seq125
seq118
seq7
seq95
seq96
seq8
seq97
seq39
seq99
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seq9
seq37
seq57
seq136
seq79
seq58
seq104
seq59
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seq61
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seq5
seq127
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seq94
seq93
seq74
seq89
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seq92
seq139
seq18
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seq21
seq22
seq23
seq124
seq85
seq86
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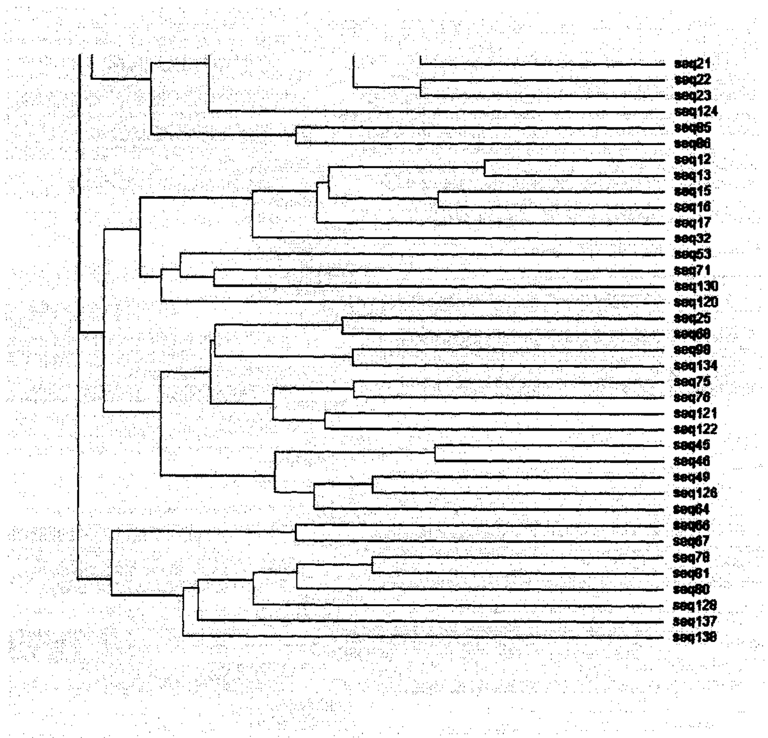
seq15
seq16
seq17
seq32
seq53
seq71
seq130
seq120
seq25
seq68
seq98
seq134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seq25
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seq134
seq75
seq76
seq121
seq122
seq45
seq46
seq49
seq126
seq64
seq66
seq67
seq78
seq81
seq80
seq128
seq137
seq138

Appendix C – Unidimensional Sequence Alignment Colours Output

Jalview alignment editor
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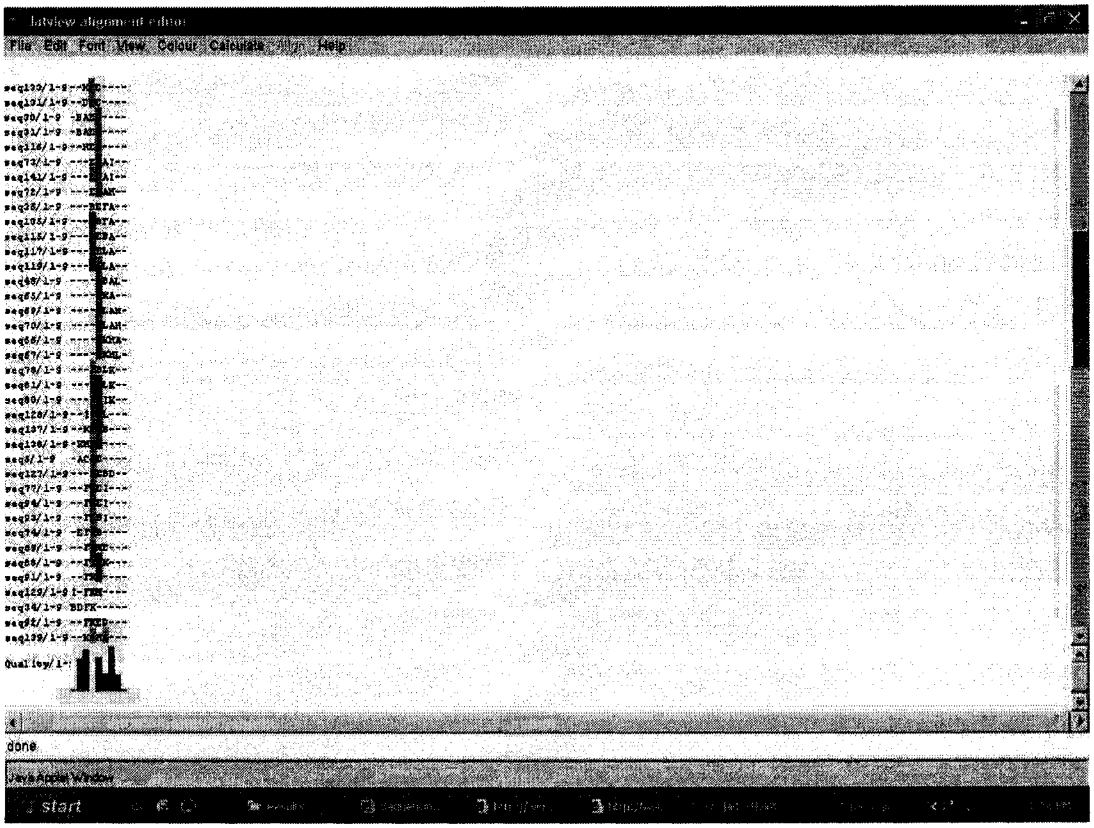
done
Java Applet Window
start


File Edit Font View Colour Calculate Align Help
done
Java Applet Window
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Jalview alignment editor
File Edit Font View Colour Calculate Align Help
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Java Applet Window
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Jalview alignment editor
File Edit Font View Colour Calculate Help
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Java Applet Window
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