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MOTIVATION FOR DOMESTIC TOURISM: A CASE STUDY OF THE KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA

NAIMA BAKOR BOGARI

A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Huddersfield

JULY 2002

Abstract

In Saudi Arabia there is a growing amount of leisure time and a high percentage of disposable income is being spent on various forms of tourism; such trends have increased the number of Saudis travelling to tourist destinations, internationally or domestically. Spending the annual holiday away from Saudi is normal for most Saudi families and it is estimated that the total expenditure on domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia is only 16.7% of total tourism expenditure. International expenditure was estimated (in 1995) to be US$ 7.6 million US$ and this increased to more than US$ 8.2 million in 1997 which is about 17.3% of total oil revenue estimated in 1998 and nearly 5.6% of the Saudi gross domestic product. Consequently, foreign tourism is a substantial drain on the current account, so the government has been trying to persuade more of its citizens to holiday at home. This situation will require tourism marketer to understand fully the need of tourists. Under increasingly competitive conditions, effective tourism marketing is impossible with out an understanding of tourists' motivation to choose a Saudi travel destination.

The purpose of this study is to describe and analyse the status of domestic tourism motivation. The research took place in Saudi Arabia, concentrating on the motivation 'push' and 'pull' factors of tourist behaviour towards domestic tourism in an Islamic and Arabic culture.

Data were collected by means of a questionnaire using a 5-point Likert-scale. Out of 1400 questionnaires distributed, in two tourism cities Jeddah and Abha, 505 usable questionnaires were verified and prepared for the final analysis. In view of the intensive and extensive data and interdependent relationships between variables, the statistical techniques used in this research include reliability analysis, frequencies, cross tabulation, mean, standard deviation, chi-square, factor analysis, Pearson correlation, multiple regression and one-way ANOVA.

The results of the analysis of push motivation indicates nine factors: (F1) cultural value factor; (F2) utilitarian factor; (F3) knowledge factor; (F4) social factor; (F5) economical factor; (F6) family togetherness factor; (F7) interest factor; (F8) relaxation factor; (F9) convenience of facilities factor.

The result of the factor loading for pull motivational items presents nine pull factors: (F1) safety factor; (F2) activity factor; (F3) beach sports/activities factor; (F4) nature/outdoor factor; (F5) historical/cultural factor; (F6) religious factor; (F7) budget factor; (F8) leisure factor; (F9) upscale factor. This study found that the most important push and pull factors as perceived by Saudi tourists are 'cultural value' and 'religious'.

The major findings of the study were that the push factors positively and strongly related to pull factors. Also, the study found that no significant correlation existed between push and pull motivation items and the social demographic variables, educational level, income level and age. The only significant correlation was found between pull motivation items and the gender.

In the case of the push factors the test found that there is no significant correlation between push motivation factors and the educational level, with one exception, a significant correlation between social factor and the educational level in Abha. The study found that there are significant correlations between the economical push motivation factor and the income level, while the remaining eight factors are not significantly correlated with the income level in Jeddah. Also, there is a significant correlation between the knowledge factor and the income level in Abha.
The results indicate that there is significant correlation between push motivation factors and age as follow: cultural value factor and age in Jeddah, interest factor and age in Abha and social factor and age in Abha.

The study found that there is significant correlation between push motivation factors and the gender. A significant correlation is found between the interest factor, social factor and the gender in Jeddah. In addition, a significant correlation is found between the interests, the cultural value, the utilitarian factors and the gender in Abha.

Relating to pull factors, the results indicate that there is no significance correlation between pull motivation factors and the educational level with the exception of a significant correlation between the upscale factor and the educational level in Jeddah, and a significant correlation between the activity factor and the educational level in Abha. A significance correlation exists between the upscale factor and the income level in both Jeddah and Abha.

There is no significant correlation between pull motivation factors and age in Jeddah. However, there is significant correlation between the activity factor, the beach sports activities factor, the upscale factor and age in Abha. There is no significance correlation between pull motivation factors and gender in Jeddah, except the activity factor. In Abha there is significant correlation between the nature/outdoor factor, the activity factor, the safety factor and gender.

The results indicate that educational and income level have no significant correlation with the kind of accommodation, while tourist age and the length of tourist stay have significant and strong correlation with the kind of accommodation. In respect of the family number and the kind of accommodation the result shows that there is a significant correlation between the kind of accommodation and the number of adults and number of children under 11 years group. The study indicates that there is no correlation between the kind of accommodation and the number of children in the 11-16 years group.

The complex interdependent relationships mean that providers of tourist facilities have to have a deep understanding of the motivation of potential markets to provide the required facilities and activities.

DEDICATION

To My Mother
To the Memory of My Father

To My Beloved Husband Fahad

To My Sons & Daughters
Molham & Moshab
Renad & Rahad

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All praise is due to Allah, most Gracious, most Merciful, for His help, blessing and guidance which gave me the patience and endurance to accomplish this work.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The Arab world has been acquainted with travel (tourism) for a very long time, mainly in the form of trade caravans and pilgrimages. Therefore, tourism is an age-old practice in the Arab world that, over recent years, has seen, as has the rest of the globe, the emergence of new forms of tourism that have modified the links between the worlds of culture and development. Tourism has become a major phenomenon, economically, socially and culturally, and has brought both risks and opportunities for culture and development, depending on how it is managed.

Important economic and social changes have occurred in Saudi Arabia during the last 28 years. The sharp rise in oil prices in 1973-74 and in 1980-81 contributed to an increase in GDP per head from US$1,200 in 1972 to US$16,650 in 1981. Reflecting the decline in production and price trends in the oil industry during the 1980s, GDP per head fell back to US$5,500 by the end of the 1980s. The 1990-91 Gulf War helped to increase the figure and it has remained fairly steady since then, reaching an estimated US$6,980 in 1999.

Forms and states of employment play a determining part in people's tourism behaviour. The average working week for Saudi men/women civil servants is less than 40 hours. The working days are from Saturday to Wednesday (five-days a week) for most government workers. The average working hours might increase to nine hours a day for particular types of workers where the work is continuous, such as

some industries and hotels. Similarly, for some types of workers where the work is harmful, the average working hours is decreased (Civil Service Department, 1989).

All official governments, educational institutions and private sectors are closed during the two official holidays on the Islamic calendar of ten days each. The first is Eid Al-Fitr which starts from the 25th day of Ramadan (the month of fasting) until the 5th day of Shawwal the following month. This holiday could last between ten days and two weeks, depending on how the weekend falls. The other official holiday is Eid Al-Adha which lasts approximately ten days from 5th to 15th of Al-Hajj month. The university and school students have a three month holiday during the summer. In addition, all the civil service employees are allowed 30 days paid holiday a year with a normal right to accumulate this for up to three years. There is some expectation in certain sectors, such as education, where the employees need to take their holiday during school summer holidays. In the private sectors every worker has the right to have 15 days paid holiday yearly.

Therefore, in Saudi Arabia there is a growing amount of free time and a high percentage of disposable income is being spent on various forms of tourism. These facts have increased the number of Saudis travelling to tourist destinations, internationally or domestically. Consequently, spending the annual holiday away from home is normal for most Saudi families. Additionally, day or short-break journeys to the coastal regions, countryside or desert are normal several times a year.

It is estimated (Sajini, 1997) that the total expenditure on domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia is only 16.7% of the total tourism expenditure. International expenditure was

estimated (in 1995) to be 7.6 million US$ and increased to more than 8.2 million US$ in 1997 (Asharq Alawsat Newspapers, 1998), which is about 17.3% from oil revenue estimated in 1998 and nearly 5.6% of the Saudi G.D.P. According to Economist Intelligence Unit Limited (1998) Saudis themselves spend the most on tourism $17bn pa. But only small percentage is spent in the country. Foreign tourism is a substantial drain on the current account, so the government has been trying to persuade more of its citizens to holiday at home.

Many Saudis take their annual holidays abroad where better recreational opportunities and facilities are identified to exist. Within Saudi Arabia too few facilities are being offered in the countryside and desert for camping and other activities. National parks are being set up, but often with few attractions and facilities for tourists. In the last 25 years the number of hotel rooms has doubled; however, most of these are suitable, or in an appropriate location, for holiday use (Al-Thagafy, 1991) but the satisfaction level tends to be lower among those better-educated and wealthier respondents. An element of the cause of this lack of co-ordination between tourists needs (demand) and supply of facilities results from the divided responsibilities of the government and private sectors providing tourism facilities (Al-Thagafy, 1991). Also, there is a lack of research data about tourists' needs.

Domestic tourism contributes to an improved balancing of the national economy through redistribution of national income and, therefore, provides a better environment for the development of both domestic and inbound tourism (World Tourism Organisation, 1995a). Domestic tourism has begun to demand increased attention in most countries of the world. According to the World Tourism

Organisation (1994), domestic tourism exceeds international tourism with the latter averaging only 75% of domestic tourism in 1987. This percentage varies from country to country. For example, in the United States it is 94%, in the United Kingdom 70%, in Italy 46% and in Switzerland 44%.

The Saudi Arabian government plans to continue developing the tourism sector to be one of the important sectors in the economy that can develop substantial income resources and contribute to the social development and economy (Ministry of Planning, 1995a). The development of domestic tourism acquires particular importance in the Kingdom as a competitive alternative to international tourism on which a great deal of Saudi income is spent annually with adverse impacts on the balance of payments and the volume of demand for domestic goods and services (Ministry of Planning, 2000). In 2000 the Supreme Commission for Tourism was established by the Saudi Arabian government for the first time. The Commission's main purpose is to develop, promote and enhance the tourism sector in the kingdom and to facilitate the growth of a sector which is deemed to be an important resource of the national economy.

Important factors about tourism within Saudi Arabia are that the vast majority of international tourists inwards are religious pilgrims. So, tourism in Saudi Arabia can be divided into three categories: the Haj (pilgrimage), business visitors and recreational tourists from other Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC) states and from inside the kingdom. Efforts to boost tourism revenue were stepped up in September 1999 when a decision was taken to allow visitors performing the Omra (minor pilgrimage) to travel to other cities of the country beyond the holy cities of Makkah and Madina. Those cities are Taif, Abha, Madain Saleh which is famous for its

historical and recreational background, Assir for its culture and Riyadh. The new regulations allow Muslims to perform the Omra nine months of the year, allowing them to visit the kingdom's tourist and archaeological sites (Kamal, 2001).

From 1998 Saudi Arabia was welcoming foreign tourists (British, US and Japanese) in limited numbers and in carefully controlled groups for the first time (Economist Intelligence Unit Limited, 1998). In early 2000 the cabinet approved guidelines for issuing tourist visas to foreigners, to enable local travel companies to arrange group visits. Some 3 million people were expected to visit the kingdom on these visas in 2000-04, generating income of SR10bn (US$2.67bn) (Economist Intelligence Unit Limited, 2000a).

Business tourism is also influenced by the religious calendar. There tends to be a sharp fall in business travel during the Haj and during Ramadan, forcing hotels to offer rooms at a discount of up to 50%. The hottest months of the year are June to September, which also show a fall in hotel reservations, as business travellers are deterred and nationals choose to travel abroad. Table 1.1 illustrates international tourist arrivals to Saudi and their expenditure.

Table 1.1 International Tourist Arrivals and Expenditures to Saudi

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Tourist Arrivals (1000s)	2,869	3,229	3,325	3,458	3,594
Tourist Expenditures ($US Millions)	1,121	1,140	1,210	1,308	1,420

Source: Economist Intelligence Unit Limited, 2000a.

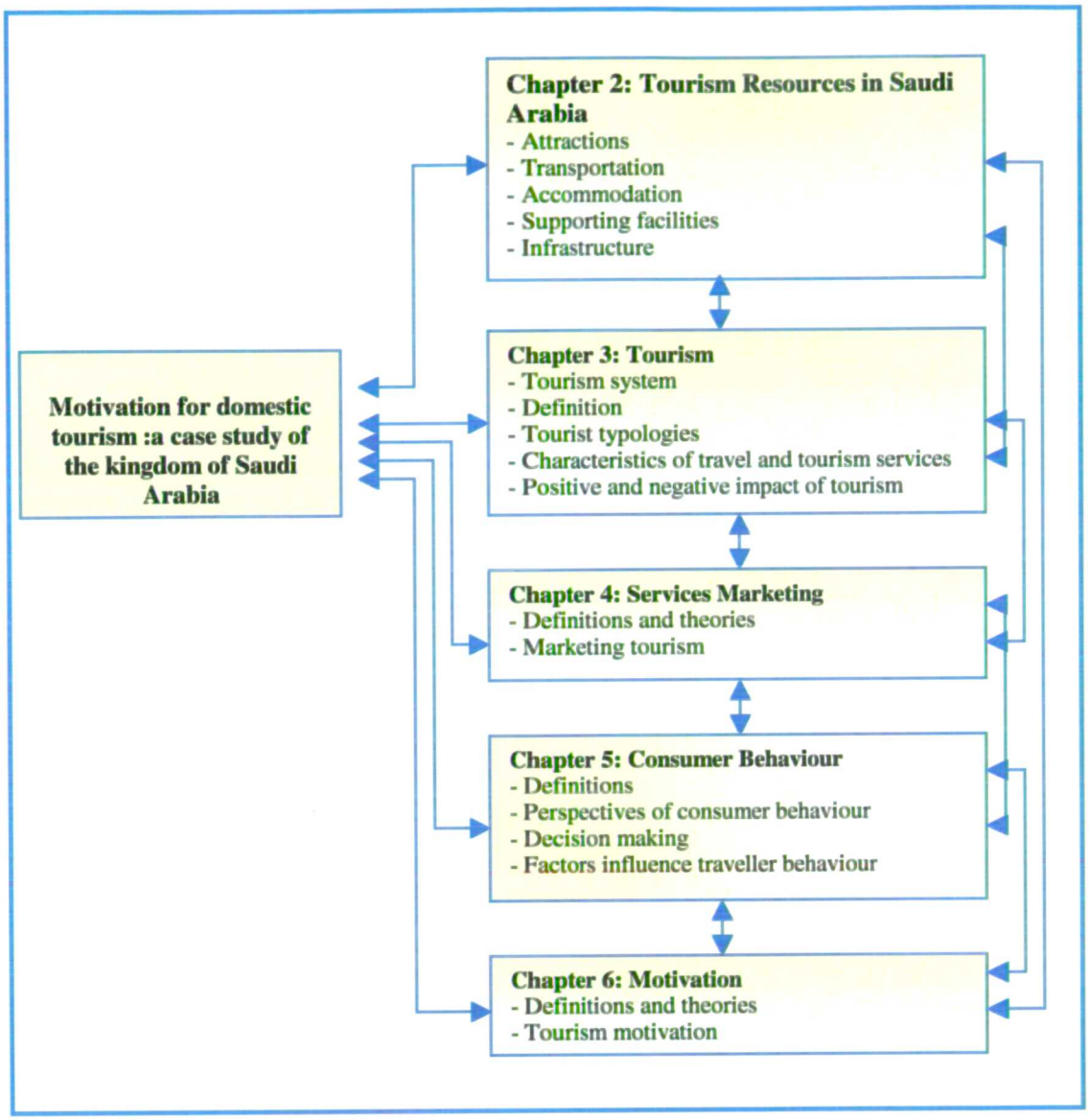
The internal market for tourism is growing, although it has been estimated that only 17% of Saudi tourists spend their holidays in the kingdom. The country has historical sites as well as impressive natural beauty. There has been heavy investment, especially along the Red Sea coast. One example is the leisure complex (including a golf course, theme park and marine park) that is being developed north of Jeddah. The first foreign tour groups, limited to archaeological trips for married couples and women over 45, visited in 1998. Tourist visas are being issued with fewer restrictions as the authorities try to attract visitors who will spend money and help to spur economic growth (Economist Intelligence Unit Limited, 2000a).

The Saudi government, in the seventh plan (2000), gives particular attention to the establishment of a tourism database since the success of tourism efforts depends on the availability of a comprehensive and detailed information base about tourists, their nationalities, social and economic characteristics. Studies of tourist motivation in Saudi Arabia and the Arab Muslim culture are very limited. Thus, this research will contribute to cover this gap. Motivation for domestic tourism is examined in Islamic culture from the cognitive perspective which is important for the tourism industry from the planning and marketing management perspective.

1.2 Conceptual Framework for the Study

Figure 1.1 illustrates the conceptual framework model that has been considered to illustrate the key conceptual literature reviews areas that need to be cover by the study and the links between them.

Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework Model

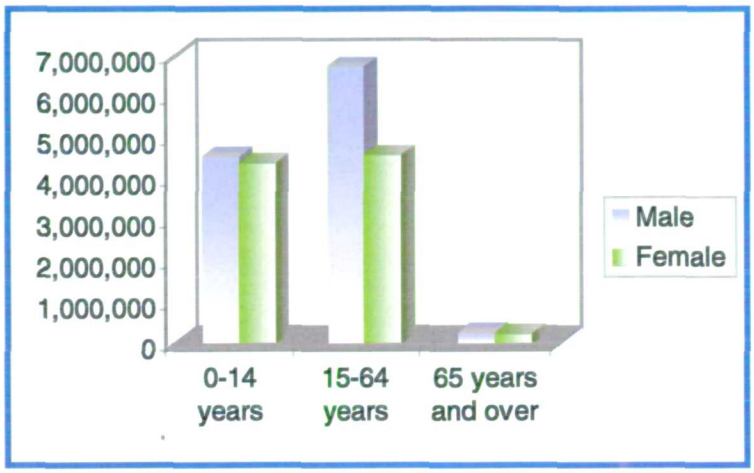


1.2 The Saudi Population

According to the 1992 census, Saudi Arabia had a population of 16,929,294. The 1998 estimate is 20,785,955 which includes 5,244,058 non-nationals (Worldrover, 2001). The population is extremely young: 46% were under the age of 15 years in 1999, with 38% aged 15-39 years and only 16% over 40 years (Economist

Intelligence Unit Limited, (2000b). The estimation of age structure for Saudi's population is shown in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2 The Age Structure in 1998*

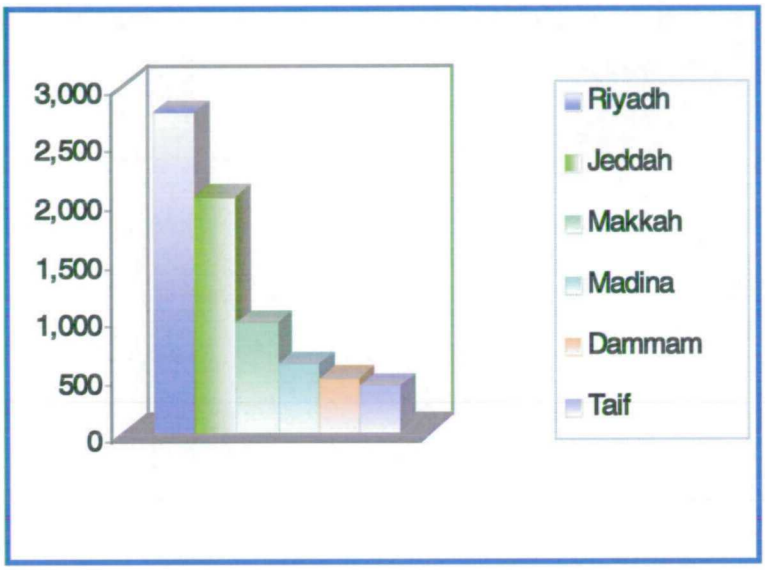


* = estimate
Source: Worldrover, 2001.

The country is divided into 13 administrative regions or provincial governorates. About 26% of the total population lives in the Makkah governorate in the western geopolitical region of Hejaz. Makkah governorate includes the Red Sea port of Jeddah. A further 23% live in the Riyadh governorate in the central geopolitical region of the Nejd, which includes the kingdom's capital, Riyadh. Eastern Province has 15% of the total population, concentrated in the cities of Dammam, Al-Khobar and Dhahran. Asir province is the fourth most populous administrative region but is far behind the first three, with less than 8% of the total population. The least populated governorates are those on the kingdom's periphery: Najran in the south and

Al-Jawf and Hudud al-Shamaliyah (Northern Borders) in the north. Figure 1.3 shows the population densities in main cities in Saudi Arabia.

Figure 1.3 Population Densities in Main Cities in Saudi Arabia 1992



1.4 The Profile of the Saudi Consumer

All Saudis are Arab Muslim. Thus, it is essential to realize that Islamic culture, which permeates every aspect of a Muslim's life, also permeates every aspect of the Saudi Arabian state. Islam, as a way of life, is a religion revealed to Prophet Mohammad. Islam in Arabic simply means submission and derives from a word meaning peace. In a religious context it means complete submission to the will of God.

Exploration of the consumer through Islamic social ethics would relocate him from a 'homo-economicus' into a 'homo-Islamicus' (Zarka, 1980). For example, the consumer in Islamic society is expected to take action consistent with the Islamic

ethical values related to consumption, saving and investment. In the mode of consumption the 'homo-Islamicus' consumer is dominated by four main factors: the concept of ownership, the belief in the system of reward/punishment in the Hereafter, the concept of moderation and the relationship between saving and investment (El-Ashker, 1983).

According to Metwally (1997) the Muslim consumer differs from other consumers.

1. A Muslim consumer does not achieve satisfaction only from consumption of outputs and the holding of capital goods. His/her economic behaviour pivots around the achievement of God's satisfaction.
2. A non-Muslim consumer may be able to select from all elements of goods and services obtainable, while a Muslim consumer is quite different. The consumption and/or the possession of a number of items are prohibited by Islam and a number of activities are forbidden. The Muslim people cannot consume pork or participate in any form of gambling or usury (Tuncalp and Erdem, 1998).
3. A Muslim consumer is limited in terms of the type of goods from which he/she derives utility.
4. A Muslim consumer cannot buy capital goods via loans which carry interest.
5. The budget of the Muslim consumer is his/her net income after the payment of the religious tax of zakat.

In addition, the family is the most important social institution in Islamic society. For Saudis, commonly, the family is the primary basis of identity and status for the

individual and the immediate focus of individual loyalty. Families form alignments with other families sharing common interests and life-styles and individuals tend to socialise within the circle of these family alliances. The strong family role plays an important part in the Saudi buying decision. Family and community considerations are primary in each individual's mind when engaged in any activity or in making important decisions (Hammadi, 1993). Also, Saudi families tend to be large (this is rapidly altering towards a nuclear family of an average of about 4-5 people) with a 4.4% rate of annual growth (UNESCO, 2002)

In addition, privacy is a very important factor in relation to designing the recreational and tourism products. The privacy of others, in relation to the Islamic law, should be respected and its infringement is forbidden, for example, via direct visual corridors into the private area of others. The Qur'an prescribes numerous behavioural patterns comprising those intended to respect the privacy of others, for example the approach of notifying one's presence to the residents of a house or keeping away from other women, or lowering the eyes (Hammadi, 1993). The Qur'an teaches the virtues and significance of privacy, the right to it and respect for it. Thus, the major concern is visual privacy; basically, the significance of protecting female members from the eyes of male strangers so females are prescribed by the Qur'an to be veiled.

1.5 Research Objectives

The aim of this study is to explore motivation for domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia using quantitative data to generate and test hypotheses on the lines of the classic hypothetico-deductive model and to use the quantitative data to explain the findings and processes.

In sequence, to achieve these research goals, the objectives are:

- to assess the motivation 'push' and 'pull' factors of tourist behaviour towards domestic tourism
- to examine the nature and usefulness of the relationship between push and pull motivation factors and to examine if there is any significant correlation between tourist motivations factors and social demographic variables: educational level, income level, age and gender
- to test if there is any significant correlation between motivation items and the demographic variables: educational level, income level, age and gender in Jeddah and Abha
- to examine the correlation between the educational level, income level, gender and age of the tourists and the location
- to test the correlation between the educational level, income levels, age, length of staying, family number and the kind of accommodation.

1.6 Outline of the Research

The research thesis is composed of nine chapters.

Chapter one includes an introduction to the theses and the conceptual framework for the study. The profile of the Saudi consumer is summarized. The objectives of the study are listed with a summary of each chapter.

Chapter two provides a summary of the tourism resources in Saudi Arabia. This chapter presents the components of the tourist supply side in Saudi Arabia: attractions, transportation, accommodation, supporting facilities and infrastructure. The cities of Jeddah and Abha are the focus of this study.

Chapter three is designed to provide a general background of tourism. In this chapter the tourism system, definitions, domestic tourism, tourism, leisure and recreation and tourist typologies are discussed. In addition, the characteristics of travel and tourism services are summarised. Finally, the positive and negative impacts of tourism are reviewed.

The research aims to study the motivation for domestic tourism. Motivation research remains a useful tool for marketers seeking a deeper understanding of consumer behaviour. As a necessary preface to the conceptualisation and history of marketing, **Chapter four** looks firstly at the distinctive aspects of services marketing. Secondly, the marketing concepts for services are summarised. Thirdly, the marketing strategy is discussed. Finally, tourism marketing is reviewed.

Chapter five studies the consumer behaviour field since it provides the keystone to all marketing activities carried out to develop, promote and sell tourism products. In the first part of this chapter the definition of consumer behaviour is discussed. The concept field of consumer behaviour contains five inclusive perspectives of consumer behaviour: the cognitive perspective, the behavioural perspective, the trait perspective, the interpretive perspective and the postmodern perspective are summarised.

The decision making which comprises the levels of decision making, individual customer decision making processes and household customer decision making are discussed. The factors that influence consumer behaviour comprise cultural factors (subculture, social class), social factors (reference groups, family, roles and statue),

personal factors (the customer's age and life-cycle stage, occupation, economic circumstance lifestyle and personality and self-concept) and, finally, psychological factors (perception, learning, belief and attitudes) are reviewed.

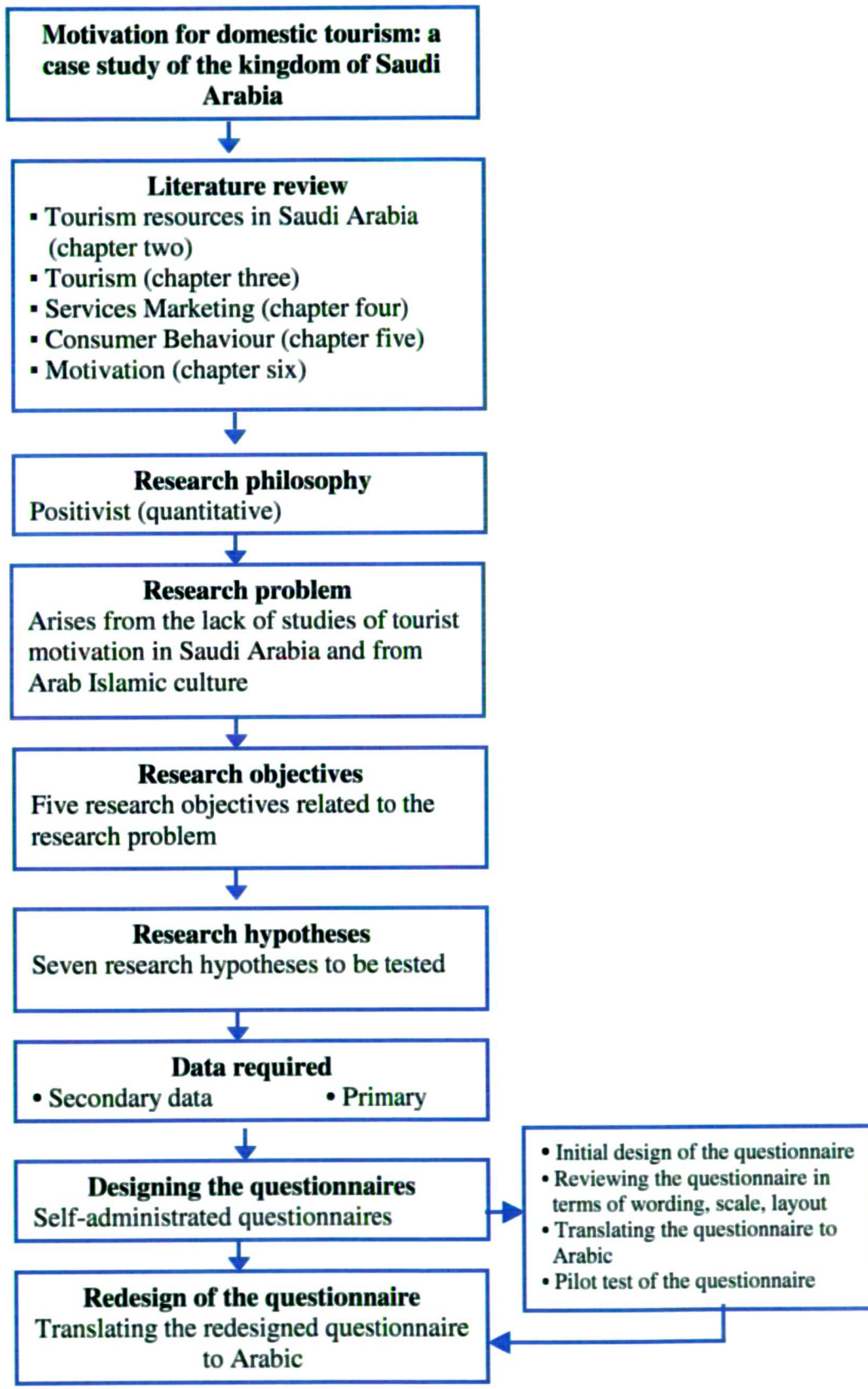
Chapter six is focused on motivation since it is the starting point for all consumer behaviour, the driving force, which encourages tourists to make particular purchase decisions. In this chapter definitions of motivation are presented. The motivational theories which are relevant to marketers, Murray's psychogenic needs, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Dichter's consumption needs, McCllelland's theory of learned needs and a selection of marketing scholars' lists of customer needs and goals are summarised. The literature classifying motives according to simplified schemes and a comprehensive scheme are explained. Major areas of motivational research, value and emotion are mentioned. Involvement, types of involvement and factors which affect involvement are reviewed. The motivational studies of tourism (e.g. Plog 1974; Crompton 1979; Hudman 1980; Dann 1981; Iso-Ahola 1982; Beard and Rageb 1983; Pearce and Caltabiano 1983; Mansfeld 1992; Uysal and Hagan 1993; Fodness 1994) are explained in more detail.

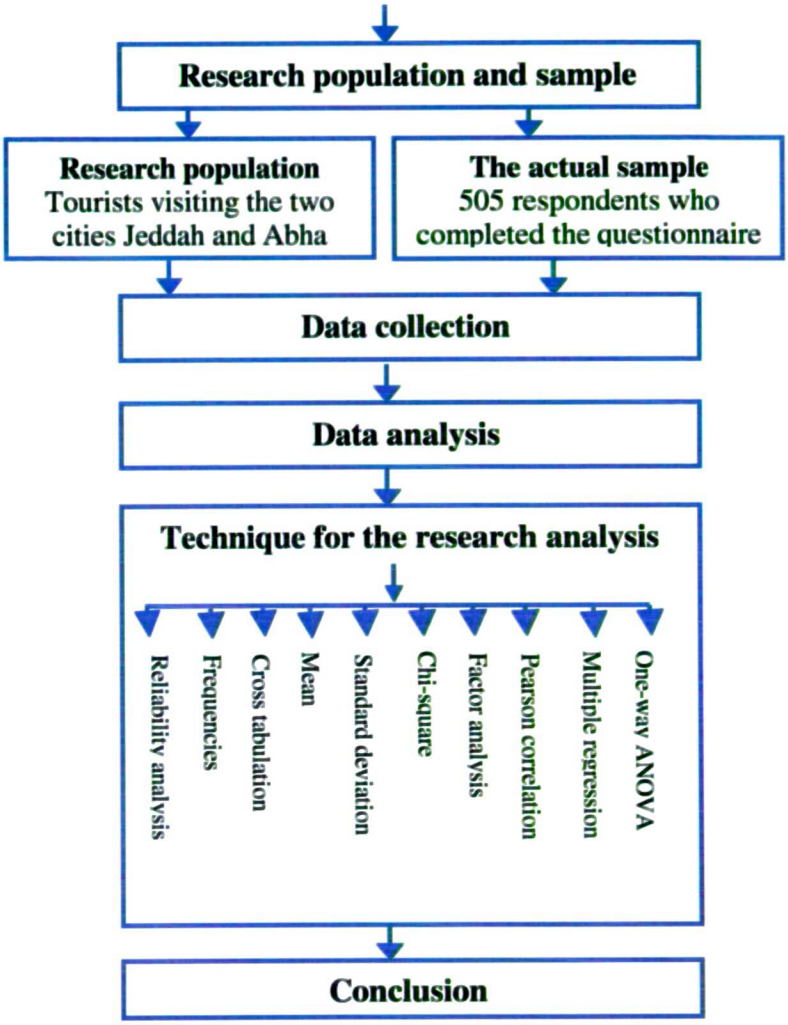
Chapter seven provides the research methodology which discusses the research philosophies. In addition, it presents the research strategy which comprises the research problem, the research objective; the formulation of the hypotheses; research design and methods of data collection; study difficulties; designing the questionnaires; the translating of the questionnaires; the pilot study; the choice of sample techniques and the data analysis procedure. It presents the data analysis technique and the validity and reliability of the research.

Chapter eight result and discussion which examines some of the sample characteristic variables, demographic, socio-economic, geographic and length of stay. Then the form of holiday is analysed which includes the main and the additional visiting reasons, kind of transportation used, kind of accommodation in which tourist stays and the correlation between the accommodation and the demographic variables and who arranges the tourist accommodation. In addition, different kinds of tourist information obtained before arriving and the tourist opinion about tourist facilities. Furthermore, factor grouping of push and pull motivational items and their correlation with the demographic variables are discussed. Tourists' attitude to push and pull motivational items correlation between tourists' attitude and the demographic variables are analysed. Finally, the relationship between push and pull factors are tested.

Chapter nine the conclusions which summarises the main argument and findings for each objective of the study and considers some of the potential contributions and implications of the research findings and their limitations on the basis of methodology and theory. Figure 1.4 shows the route map of the current study.

Figure 1.4 The Route Map of the Study




Research population and sample
Research population
Tourists visiting the two cities Jeddah and Abha
The actual sample
505 respondents who completed the questionnaire
Data collection
Data analysis
Technique for the research analysis
Reliability analysis
Frequencies
Cross tabulation
Mean
Standard deviation
Chi-square
Factor analysis
Pearson correlation
Multiple regression
One-way ANOVA
Conclusion

CHAPTER TWO

TOURISM RESOURCES IN SAUDI ARABIA

CHAPTER TWO

TOURISM RESOURCES IN SAUDI ARABIA

2.1 Introduction

The pilgrimage is the oldest form of tourism in the world and Saudi Arabia is prominent in size and standing, antediluvian and magnificent in history, complex in physical and social aspects, diverse in tradition and culture. The various regions of the kingdom are diverse in natural and cultural recourses and enjoy advanced infrastructure and great tourism potential. This chapter provides an overview of the components of tourism supply in Saudi Arabia: the attractions, transportation, accommodation, supporting facilities and infrastructure. In addition, the cities of Jeddah and Abha are the focus of this study.

2.2 Attractions

Saudi Arabia has numerous tourist attractions. The government plans to encourage the development of tourism in the country. The tourist attractions can be divided into two main factors: firstly, the natural attractions and, secondly, cultural attractions, historic or modern.

2.2.1 Natural Attractions

The basic elements of this factor include location, climate, mountains, seacoast, flora and fauna and deserts.

a) Location

Saudi Arabia lies at the crossroads of three continents: Asia, Africa and Europe. It is the largest of the seven Gulf countries, covering 70 % of the Arabian Peninsula

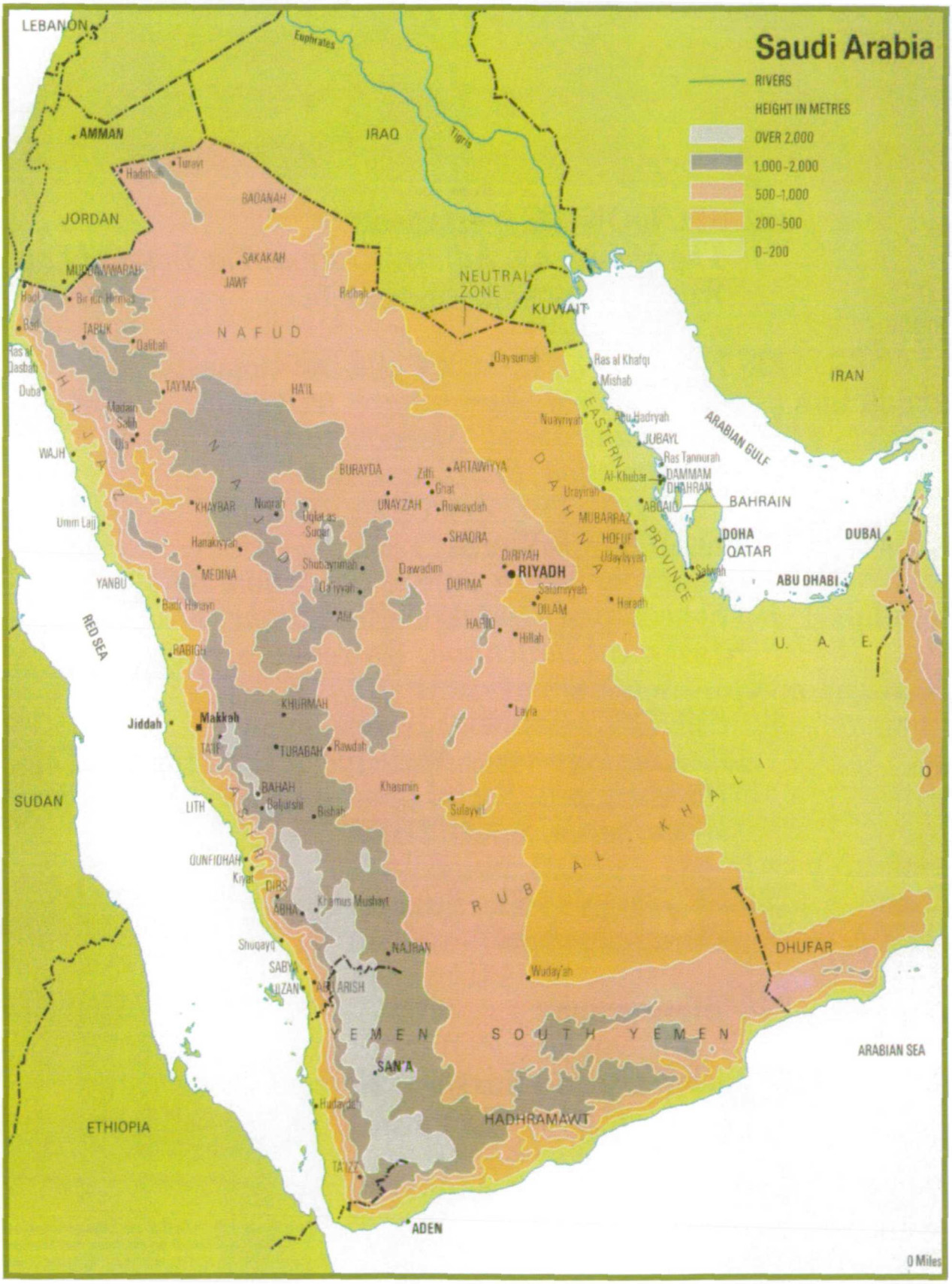
between the Red Sea and the Arabian Gulf and it covers approximately 2,250,000 square kilometres (870,000 square miles). It is bordered to the west by the Red Sea, to the east by the Arabian Gulf, United Arab Emirates and Qatar, to the north by Kuwait, Iraq and Jordan and to the south by Oman and Yemen, as shown in Figure 2.1.

Geographically, the Arabian Peninsula is divided into five distinct regions: Najd plateau, the heart of the peninsula; The Hejaz, the lowland between the Red Sea and Najd plateau; Al-Hasa, the lowland between the Arabian Gulf and Al-Dahna sand dunes; east of Najd Plateau; Asir, the high lands in the south western part of the Arabian Peninsula and Tihamah, a strip that is parallel to the highland mountains and the Red Sea. Such taxonomy provides the base for differentiations in the form of place as well as culture.

b) Climate

A favourable climate can be a major attraction for an area, particularly the high number of sunshine hours. The sun shines most of the year in Saudi Arabia. The climate of Saudi Arabia varies from one region to another according to the topographical visage. In general, most of Saudi Arabia has a desert climate, hot in summer and cool in winter, except the south-western region and the coastal areas which have more moderate climates. The climate is affected by the subtropical high-pressure system which causes monsoons in the west and southwest. Most rainfall is generally in winter.

Figure 2.1 Map of Saudi Arabia



Source: Anderson, 1993.

Saudi Arabia can be classified as an arid environment (Ministry of Information, 1993). The annual average temperature is 22 °C in Tabouk, in the northwest, but, in Abha, in the southwest, the annual average temperature is 19 °C and Al-Baha is 17 °C because of the high elevation. To the west the annual average temperature is 28 °C in Jeddah and, in the east, in Dhahran, it is 26 °C (Ministry of Planning, 1995b). The average temperatures are shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Average Temperature, By Month and Meteorological Station: 1995
(In degrees Centigrade)

Station / Month	Riyadh	Jeddah	Makkah	Madinah	Dhahran	Taif	Tabouk	Al-Khamis	Abha	Al-Baha
January	14.2	24.3	25.3	20.1	16	17.1	12	15	13.6	16.6
February	16.9	22.9	23.9	19.3	17.7	16.7	12.7	16.1	15	17
March	19.3	24.5	27	23.4	20.1	19.6	16.8	16.7	15.4	18.8
April	24.8	27.4	30.3	28	25.2	22.5	21.1	18.9	17.7	21.3
May	31.6	30.4	34.6	32.2	31.1	25.1	26.6	21.9	20.9	24.7
June	34.6	31.6	36.8	37	34.6	30	30.4	24.8	23.5	28.9
July	35	33.1	35.6	35.5	34.8	28	30.5	23.3	22.2	27.3
August	35.7	32.7	35.6	37.8	34.9	29.5	31.4	23.5	22.3	29.3
September	31.8	30.7	35	35.1	28.8	27.9	28.9	21.5	21.4	27.2
October	27.6	30	32.9	31	27.9	24.2	23.9	19.6	18.4	23.3
November	18	27.2	26.8	23.4	17.7	26.8	15.6	16.2	19.7	18.5
December	14	24.5	24.4	19.1	16.6	16.4	11.5	14.8	13.6	16
Annual Average	25.3	28.3	30.7	28.5	25.5	23.7	21.8	19.4	18.6	22.4

Source: Ministry of Planning, 1995.

c) Mountains

Mountains can be another tourist attraction factor. The Sarawat Mountain Chain lies to the west along the Red Sea. These mountains rise to over 9,000 feet at the southern point and 8,000 feet behind Makkah and gradually fall to 3,000 feet near Madinah to the north. Several valleys slope westward and eastward from these mountains, such as Fatima Valley, Rumah Valley, Najran Valley and Bisa Valley. Running through the centre for about six hundred kilometres and roughly parallel to the Dahna is Tuwaiq Mountain, a westward-facing escarpment rising 100-250 metres. Najd, which means

'highlands' in Arabic, is in central Saudi Arabia and consists mainly of sedimentary plateaus interspersed with sand deserts and low, isolated mountain ranges. The most prominent range is Shammar Mountain in the north.

d) Seacoast

Another significant tourist attraction is the seacoast. In the extreme west, along the Red Sea, there is a coastal plain (Tihamah), flat and usually very narrow, except in the Jeddah area where it offers a small but useful lowlands gap giving access to Makkah and the interior. It is 1,100 kilometres long extending from Aqaba to the borders with Yemen. It includes many potential tourist places such as, Jeddah, Yanbu and Jizan. On the other side there is the eastern coastal plain on the Arabian Gulf which is 610 kilometres long and contains a large area of sand. The waterway, which is very shallow and reaches a maximum depth of approximately 500 feet, is noted for its variety of sea life. The places with further tourist potential in this area are Dammam and Jubail.

e) Flora and Fauna

There is remarkable variety of Saudi Arabian flora which is due to the country's range of climate and soils. In some areas a sudden rainfall will make an apparent desert bloom. The desert trees in Saudi Arabia are a group of a small number of kinds. Most important of this group are the acacia of which 14 types grow wild in Saudi Arabia. Four of these, acacia tortilis, acacia ehrenbergiana, acacia gerrardii and acacia raddiana, are located in the central desert regions, typically in wadis or plains through which the flood water runs at least once in several years. Wildflowers of Saudi Arabia by Collenette (1999) lists more than 80 wild flowers growing in a region often

thought to be entirely barren. Examples of Saudi flora are shown in (Appendix A, Exhibit 1 and 2).

Except in parts of the highlands, such as Al-Sawdah, Abha, Ghamid, Zahran and Taif, where the juniper, the wild olive and some other larger trees grow together over large areas, there are no forests in Saudi Arabia. These large tree areas are good for tourists during summer holidays because they are green and contain wild fauna. The Ministry of Agriculture and Water plan to re-plant 80 hectares of tree areas. In the east and north the vegetation is characteristic of arid steppes – hundreds of square kilometres of small, drought-adapted shrubs, a metres or less high. Frequently, one type, such as the rimth saltbush or the yellow-flowered arfaj shrublet, dominates the landscape. The ground between these shrublets is green for only two to three months of the year, when winter rains bring forth a host of herbs.

As a result of the hot climate, the distribution of wildlife has been affected. Arabian oryx is the largest wild mammal of Saudi Arabia. Graceful gazelles were once common throughout most of Arabia, but their numbers are now much reduced due to over hunting. The ibex was also once widespread, but it is now rarely to be encountered except in the mountains of north-west and, possibly, the Hajaz and south-west (some of fauna shown in Appendix A, Exhibit 3). In addition, the Arabian wolf, jackals, foxes and the striped hyena are found in Arabia, as are the hedgehog, the porcupine and the ratel or honey badger (Anderson, 1993).

Several million birds, including warblers, flamingos, wagtails, swallows, storks and many more, pass through Arabia on their spring and autumn migrations. The bird life

of the country is, consequently, rich and varied and includes African, oriental and northern types.

Brilliantly coloured and exotically shaped tropical fish, such as angelfish, parrotfish and butterfly fish, fill the seas and reefs of Arabia. The Saudi Arabian government has adopted a policy towards the conservation of the country's flora and fauna. Recognising that several of Saudi Arabia's animals were nearing extinction, it prohibited hunting except under strict circumstances. Also, the National Commission for Wildlife Conservation and Development (NCWCD) was established to preserve and protect the wildlife by creating many protected areas.

The Kingdom's commitment to the conservation, protection and development of the wildlife population (including both marine and terrestrial life) is illustrated in the functions of the National Commission for Wildlife Conservation and Development:

- to encourage and carry out scientific research in different fields of biology, with special emphasis on the plant and animal life of Saudi Arabia
- to promote public interest in the environmental issues related to the wildlife of Saudi Arabia and to seek proper solutions to problems through organizing meetings, symposia and conferences
- to develop and implement plans and projects drawn up to preserve wildlife in its natural environment, to propose the establishment of protected areas and reserves for wildlife in the Kingdom, and execute relevant laws and regulations.

f) Deserts

Most of Saudi Arabia is desert interspersed with oases, some lying along the banks of wadis (intermittent-stream riverbeds) and others covering huge areas, such as Al-Hasa

in the east (Long, 1997). Those deserts are Al-Rub Al-Khali Desert, Samman Desert, the Al-Dahnaa Desert and Great Nefud Desert. Desert camping became accessible to everyone. Visitors heading for desert destinations have many choices.

2.2.2 Cultural Attractions

Saudi Arabia is rich in cultural heritage (man-made). It has both historic and modern cultural attractions, such as religious centres and historic buildings.

a) Religious Centres

The two Holy shrines of Islam, Makkah and Madinah, are found in Saudi Arabia. Makkah is located in the western region of Saudi Arabia. It is the destination for all Moslem pilgrims and visitors (as shown in Appendix A, Exhibit, 4, 5). The Holy Ka'abah is situated in Makkah. There are other Holy sites where pilgrims execute the liturgy of the Umrah and the Haj at Arafat and Muna. Madinah is the second Holy city, located in the northwest of Saudi Arabia. It is the city of the second Holy Mosque. There are also many other religious locations, such as Ohud Mountain and Qiba Mosque.

b) Historic Buildings

Saudi Arabia has also many important historical archaeological monuments, such as mosques, palaces, historical sites, old villages and ancient dams, that could be developed as tourist attractions. In the heart of Old Riyadh the Masmak Fortress was built around 1865 and extensively renovated in the 1980s. Inside the mud fortress there is a nicely reconstructed traditional diwan (sitting room) with an open courtyard

and a working well (as shown in Appendix A, Exhibit 6). The fortress is now a museum devoted to Abdul Aziz and his unification of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

To the west side of the Kingdom the most historical places in Taif are the area of the Souk of Okaz, which played an important role in the history of Arabic poetry, the Shobra Palace, which was built in the traditional design of the western part of Saudi Arabia and mosque of Al-Abbas. In Najran there are the relics of Al-Okhdoud which are mentioned in the Koran.

Marid Castle is in Jouf; it is 600 m high and built with stones. It is believed that the castle was built two or three thousand years BC. Also, Zaa'BAL Fortress is founded in Jouf. Examples of ancient monuments in Jazan are Utr City, one of the most famous historic cities in the Arabian Peninsula, and Old Jazan City. Al-Ula has many antiquities and historical monuments, such as the tombs of Madain Saleh which are north of Al-Ula (as shown in Appendix A, Exhibit 7).

c) Modern Cultural Attractions

Saudi Arabia has many modern cultural attractions in most cities. These include public parks, sports activities and educational centres. In Riyadh, the capital city of Saudi Arabia, King Fahad International Stadium (as shown in Appendix A, Exhibit 8) was constructed.

There are many scientific and educational centres, like King Saud University, King Abdul Aziz City for Science and Technology and King Khalid Military College. Riyadh zoo contains gardens, artificial lakes and a fountain. Saiah Park, park of Jabal

Al-Mahjkhrouq and Al-Suwayay Park are examples of recreation resources in areas of Riyadh.

On the eastside of Saudi Arabia there is King Fahad Park in Dammam. Its lawns have an area of 273.000 square metres; it has a variety of recreational facilities. The Corniche of Dammam in the Eastern Region Park, which stretches for more than 40 km alongside the coast of the Arabian Gulf, is another example. Dharan has King Fahad Petroleum and Minerals University and Al-Ahsa has King Fiaisal University.

In Taif, on the west side, there are many parks and gardens, such as The Municipal Park, Red Shaeeb Park, Al-Radi Park, The Green Belt Park and King Fahad Garden which is the biggest garden in Taif. Many modern cultural attractions in the cities of Jeddah and Abha are reviewed subsequently.

2.3 Transportation

The transportation sector includes air transport and land transport. It plays a vital role in the movement of tourists.

2.3.1 Air Transport

Saudi Arabian Airlines (Saudia) is the only national carrier. It flies to 25 domestic airports. In addition, Saudi Arabian Airlines publishes books and reports about tourist places in the Kingdom. Table 2.2 shows passengers travelling by domestic routes. The total number of domestic passengers reached approximately one million in 1995, for all purposes.

Table 2. 2 Saudi Arabian Airlines: Passengers Travelling by Domestic Routes 1994-1995

Airport	1994		1995	
	Arr.	Dep.	Arr.	Dep.
Al-Baha	93051	89909	86523	87209
Abha	503506	497452	480731	483772
Al-Jouf	63269	61524	60112	60505
Qayssumah	32508	30179	38550	35961
Bisha	73240	72716	67877	68568
Dhahran	1026150	970065	977436	909544
Najran	103719	102009	105179	105553
Wedjh	11064	13207	10839	13189
Qasseem	182685	167001	164471	155611
Jizan	243003	249664	232807	243305
Ha`il	142307	139307	133763	136596
Hafr Al-Baten	15304	14048	414	127
Hofof	22556	21438	13821	14241
Jeddah	3162621	3215748	3021112	3111038
Khamis Mushait	11	0	30	0
Jubail	0	0	82	0
Madinah	646386	593649	639811	572736
Old Riyadh Airport	875	160	399	155
Ar`ar	43418	42689	42213	42567
Rafha	16889	15666	15655	15571
King Khaliad Airport(Riyadh)	3434231	3442484	3231046	3263205
Turaif	24842	26536	25118	27798
Taif	180608	169839	165274	159442
Turaif	8177	8295	8259	8065
Tabouk	242716	235982	219528	214143
Quarayet	31222	31066	32463	31791
Wadi-al-Dawasir	30883	30897	31973	32439
Yanbu	100451	98303	98459	96918
Total	10425692	10339833	9903945	9890049

Source: Ministry of Planning, 1995b.

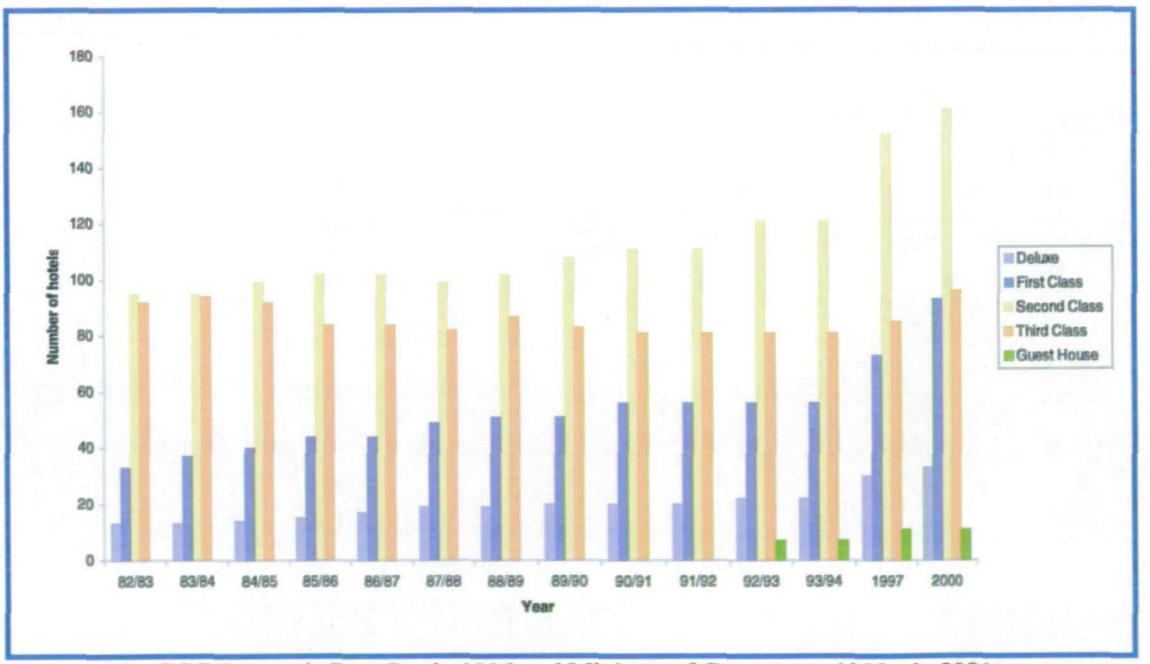
2.3.2 Land Transportation

The only railway in the Kingdom connects Dammam with Riyadh; it is on east side. Saudi Arabian Public Transportation Company (SAPTCO), taxis and limousines provide public road transport services to passengers and transport between many cities. Rental car agencies are available in the main cities.

2.4 Accommodation

The types of tourist accommodation in Saudi Arabia may be grouped by the commercial sector (hotels, furnished apartments, bed sits and guest house) and the private sector (staying with friends and relatives, second homes). The hotel system is growing in Saudi Arabia. Hotels can be classified according to the size, quality and range of the facilities by deluxe, first class (A and B), second class (A and B), third class (A and B) and guest house, as shown in Figure 2.2. There were 287 hotels with a total of 24,740 rooms in 1994 but the number had increased to 394 hotels with a total of 38879 rooms by 2001. Hotel regulations are under the general direction of the Ministry of Commerce.

Figure 2.2 Numbers of Hotels in Saudi Arabia by Class



Source: The GCC Economic Data Book, 1996 and Ministry of Commerce, 1998a, b, 2001.

Table 2.3 shows the distribution of hotels and number of rooms in each region in the Kingdom in 1997-2000. Most of the hotels are localised in the big cities (71 hotels have been established in Jeddah). In the southwestern region more than half of the

hotels are found in Abha, al-Baha, Al-Khamis, Najran and Jizan, but it is still difficult to find good accommodation in towns or some tourist areas.

Furnished apartments are another kind of accommodation in the commercial sector which is expanding rapidly in the main cities of Riyadh, Jeddah, Makkah, Madinah, Dammam, Abha and some tourist areas, but the statistics are not available.

Table 2.3 Number of Hotels and Rooms in Saudi Arabia in 1997-2000

Region	1997		2000	
	number of hotels	number of rooms	number of hotels	number of rooms
Riyadh	50	6081	66	7020
Jeddah	66	7367	71	8244
Makkah	26	4695	55	8762
Madinah	17	2557	22	4797
Taif	22	1046	22	1046
Yanbu	4	480	4	480
Eastern region	37	3629	39	3684
Hafuf and Hafer Al-Baten	22	762	22	762
Breadah area	10	548	10	560
Tabouk area	16	572	21	820
Arar area	16	533	17	575
Al-Jof area	7	197	7	197
Al-Baha area	6	265	6	265
Abha and Al-Khamis	21	1204	22	1259
Jizan area and others	31	1350	10	364
Total	**351**	**31286**	**394**	**38879**

Source: Ministry of Commerce, 1998a,b, 2001.

The demand for hotel services usually shows marked fluctuations. For hotels, in most cities in Saudi Arabia, there may be peaks of demand during the week for business-hotels and little demand at weekends. In the two Holy cities the peaks of demand are during Haj and Omra seasons. Table 2.4 shows that the average rate of occupancy for Saudi hotels in 1998 was less than 50 %.

Table 2.4 Average Rate of Occupancy for Saudi Hotels in 1998

Regions	Deluxe	First class	Second class	Third class	Average total degree
Riyadh	62	54	48	66	58
Jeddah	71	51	43	51	54
Makkah	37	39	32	15	31
Madinah	49	39	34	60	46
Taif	27	37	25	31	30
Eastern region	51	33	40	47	43
Al-ahasa	-	15	52	53	40
Qasseem	-	25	36	43	35
Hafr Al-Baten	-	-	28	53	41
Asir	23	37	39	37	34
Ha`il	-	34	42	-	38
Tabouk	-	36	43	55	45
Al-Baha	-	26	8	42	25
Northern area	-	33	32	49	38
Al-Jof	-	35	32	38	35
Jizan	-	55	30	22	36
Najran	-	52	70	49	57
Different areas	-	40	39	17	32
Average	46	38	37	43	40

Source: Ministry of Commerce, 2001.

2.5 Supporting Facilities

All tourists need supporting facilities, such as banks, health centres, restaurants, pharmacies and coffee shops. In the main cities supporting facilities are obtainable but in small towns and tourist places they are not offered.

2.6 Infrastructure

The infrastructure plays an important role in tourist attractions. In Saudi Arabia there is a significant recent development in the provision of transportation, hotels and supporting infrastructure.

2.6.1 Airports

The number of airports in Saudi Arabia has risen to 25, including three international airports, seven regional airports and fifteen local airports. The three international airports are King Abdul Aziz in Jeddah, King Khaled in Riyadh and King Fahad in Dhahran.

2.6.2 Roads

There is continuous expansion not only to provide essential links between regional administrative centres and remote settlements but also to improve existing road systems for major population centres. There is a highways network in Saudi Arabia with anything up to eight lanes for traffic. Some of the more important inter-city highways are:

Dammam - Abu Hadriya - Ras Tanura Highway (257 kms)

Khaybar - Al Ola Highway (175 kms)

Makkah - Madinah Al Munawarah Highway (421 kms)

Riyadh - Dammam Highway (383 kms)

Riyadh - Sedir - al Qasim Highway (317 kms)

Riyadh - Taif Highway (750 kms)

Taif - Abha-Gizan Highway (750 kms)

By 1995 the length of the asphalt roads network was about 43,000 km; about 36,000km was highways and secondary roads.

2.6.3 Telecommunications and Postal Services

Significant improvement has been made in communications services. There is a wide range of services: telephones, mobile telephones, telex, paging systems, leased

circuits, letter and parcel services. These services are connected inside Saudi Arabia and also all round the world.

2.6.4 Water

A water shortage is one of the main constraints on socio- economic development in the Kingdom. Water resources can be divided into four groups: ground water, surface water, desalinated seawaters and reclaimed wastewater. The Kingdom plans to continue providing plenty of good quality water for the population.

2.6.5 Electricity

Electricity is a basic source of socio-economic development. This sector has witnessed notable progress. The Saudi Arabian Government plans to provide the generating capacity needed to supply the anticipated growth in electricity loads.

2.7 Tourism in Selected Cities

This study focuses on two tourist cities, Jeddah and Abha. The tourist sites in the Kingdom are shown in Figure 2.3.

2.7.1 Jeddah

Jeddah is a historical city. It has different names: Jeddah, Judda and Jaddah. These names have different meanings. Mohamed Bin Makram Al-Ansary and Yaquat Al-Hamawi said that Judda referred to the area near to Makkak (Al-Ansary, 1982). Al-Bakary said it referred to a river. Ibn Al-Majaor Al- Damasgy mentioned that it means the "grandmother" of mankind because Eve is buried in this place. Caliph Othman bin Affan chose Jeddah as a main port to Makkah instead of Shuaybah in the year 26 H. (A.D.646).

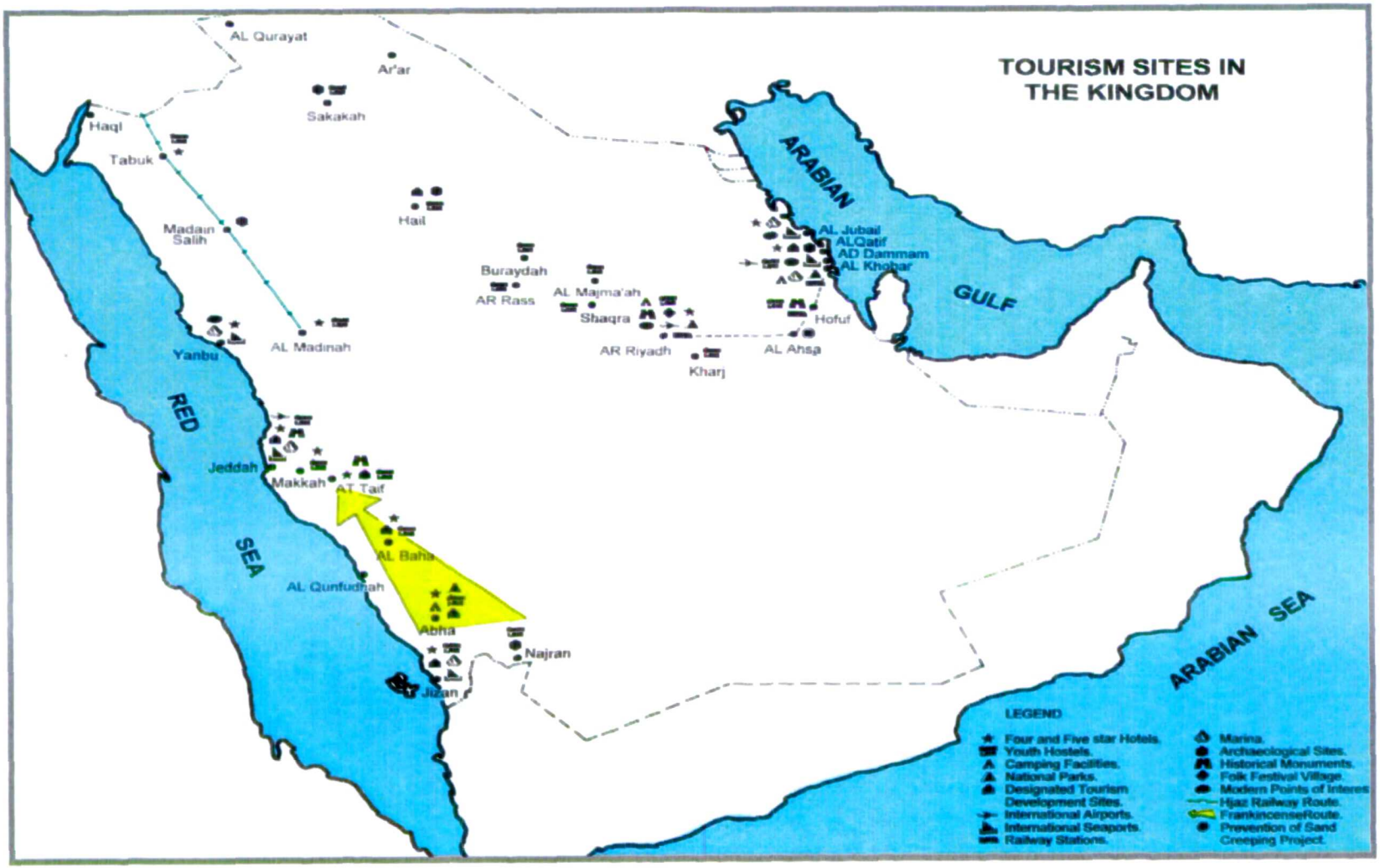


Figure 2.3 Tourism Sites in the Kingdom

Source: Ministry of Planning, 1995, p.279.

Points to the Holy City Makkah

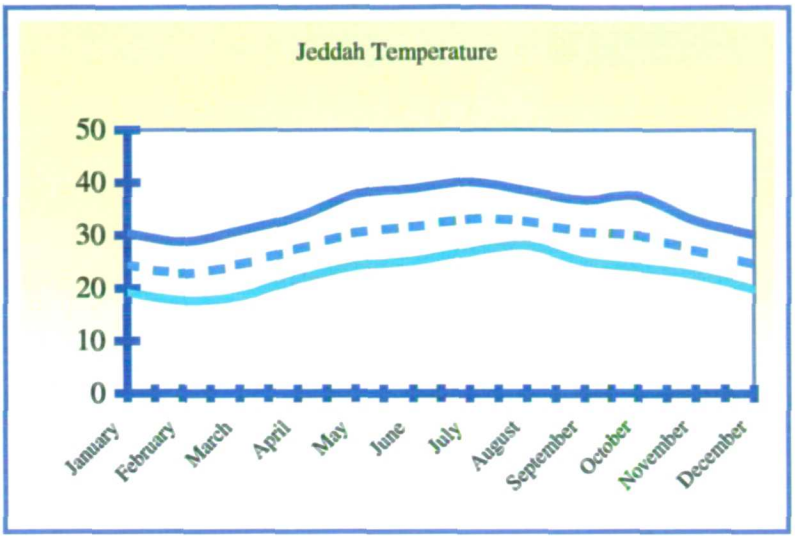
Many geographers wrote earlier about this city as, Ibn Khoradadbih did (about 820-912) and, also, Ibn Hauqal in 988 said Jeddah is equally placed on the seashore, at a distance of two dates from Makkah and rich in commerce. Makdisi said that Jeddah is a coastal town and its name is derived from its position in relation to the sea (Pesce, 1974); it is located halfway down the eastern coast of the Red Sea.

Jeddah has been, traditionally, the commercial centre of Saudi Arabia. At the same time it has been, for centuries the arrival and assembly point every year for Muslims from all over the world embarking on the greatest journey of their lives, the Hajj pilgrimage (Black, 1998).

Jeddah is located on the eastern shore of the Red Sea. Jeddah is one of six cities in the western region, the others being Makkah, Madinah, Taif, Yanbu and Tabouk. The general area where Jeddah is located is free from any important topographic relief. The climate in Jeddah is generally humid. Humidity sometimes reaches 98%. The average temperature is 28.4° C. Figure 2.4 shows the average maximum and minimum temperatures during the year for Jeddah. It can be seen from the figure that the lowest temperatures are during December, January, February and March. Rainfall is irregular and characterised by sudden, torrential, brief rainstorms.

By the end of the 1970s (1391 AH) the population of Jeddah was estimated to be close to one million. By 1986 (1406/07 AH) the estimated population was 1.4 million. With an estimated growth rate in excess of 10%, the population by 2000 had passed the two million.

Figure 2.4 The Average Maximum and Minimum Temperatures During the Year for Jeddah



Jeddah now boasts some of the most beautiful examples of modern architecture in the world. Tree-lined avenues and the generous distribution of bronze sculptures attest to the success of the city's beautification programme (Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs, 1995).

Traditionally, Jeddah's people have used the sea for fishing and transportation. Now the coastal area (corniche) is used as a sea-based tourist attraction. Jeddah's corniche is one of the city's most impressive features. Taking advantage of its long sea shore, the city has constructed a three-part corniche, 20 miles (80 km.) in length, which provides recreational facilities and superb views of the sea for citizens and visitors (as shown in Appendix A, Exhibit 9).

Jeddah has many tourists attractions and facilities. Jeddah is centred on Al-Balad, the strip of buildings along its coast road, and the old city directly behind them. Jeddah has some great museums, including the Municipality Museum (as shown in Appendix A, Exhibit 10). Located in a 200-year-old, restored, traditional house built from Red

Sea coral, the museum has interesting photos of the development of Jeddah, along with rooms decorated in traditional style (as shown in Appendix A, Exhibits 11 and 12 exemplify the old building in Saudi Arabia and Jeddah). The Museum of Abdel Raouf Hasan Khalil houses 10,000 items. Also, there is the Jeddah Museum which is the regional museum of archaeology and ethnography. Additionally, King Abdul Aziz University, one of the educational centres in Saudi Arabia, is located in Jeddah.

Jeddah has one of the best souks (markets) in the kingdom, the spectacular Souk Al-Alawi, which winds its way through the old city. Although some sections of it have been paved over, and others fitted with bizarre green and white columns, it is still a great place to spend hours strolling and browsing. Jeddah has three reconstructed old city gates.

The Jeddah fountain rises some 853 feet (260 metres) from the sea. This jet of water is the highest of its type in the world and is an unforgettable sight, especially when illuminated at night. As previously shown in Table 2.4, Jeddah has the highest number of hotels in Saudi Arabia with 71 hotels with a total of 8244 rooms. Another form of accommodation is furnished apartments (units), the total number was 185 units in 1997, it has risen to 215 units in 2001. Not only has Jeddah many kinds of restaurants but, also, there are varieties of entertainments and sports. Table 2.5 shows information about Jeddah.

North of Jeddah, Durrat Al-Arus, a residential and leisure complex on Saudi Arabia's Red Sea coast, is the first major tourist project to satisfy the needs of modern living while upholding the Islamic kingdom's cultural and religious values.

Table 2.5 Information about Jeddah in 2001

Lists	Numbers
Restaurants	303
Fast food restaurants	47
Parks and entertaining centres	23
Shopping centres	35
Travel agencies	102
International airlines	56
Car hire	19
Hospitals	43
Health centres	190
Clinics	276
Pharmacies	751
Population	2,486,338
Hotels	71
Furnished apartments	215
Tourist villages and beach cabins	37
Museums	9
Art galleries	9
Area cover	747,62 square kilometres

Source: Jeddah Chamber of Commerce & Industry, 2001.

Since 1997 private companies, as well as government bodies, have taken part in the two-month summer programme, which is aimed at promoting domestic tourism and attracting visitors and holidaymakers from outside the Jeddah area sectors and the Gulf States to visit Jeddah during the summer holiday period. The summer festival was established for this purpose and encompasses many activities, such as fire works, a circus, dolphin shows and water-skiing. According to the Jeddah Chamber of Commerce and Industry the summer festival in 1999 raised U.S. $ 212 million (SR 795 million) and recorded over one million visitors (SPA, 2000).

2.7.2 Abha

Abha City is located in Asir region. From west to east, a cross-section of the region rises dramatically from the hot, dry, coastal plain of the Tihamah up to the cool and

fertile highlands of al-Sarawat and then gradually descends into the eastern desert plateau. With peaks rising over 9000 feet, the highlands receive ample rainfall (Peterson, 1993). The region is influenced by the southern tropical zones which produce the rainfall in summer. The variety of the climate and altitudes allows for the cultivation of a wide diversity of crops, from tropical and sub-tropical produce to fruit and vegetables in temperate regions (example from the beautiful seen sight in Asir region is shown in Appendix A, Exhibit 13 and 14)

Abha's position, some 7,200 feet (2,200 metres) above sea-level, gives it a relatively moderate climate. Temperatures remain within a narrower band than is the case in many other parts of the Kingdom. The Abha region also enjoys the highest level of rainfall of any part of Saudi Arabia. The natural beauty of the region and its fertility have encouraged the Saudi Arabian Government to establish a number of national parks enabling Saudi citizens to holiday in locations of outstanding scenery and natural interest to rival anywhere abroad. In 1981 the Governorate of Asir created the first Office of Tourism Development and Environmental Protection (Rifai, 1987). One function of this office is to develop the distinctive resources offered by Asir's environment and heritage. Another function is to promote investment in many areas of tourism by Saudi and the Gulf States residents. During Abha summer festivals the number of recorded visitors to the Asir region increased from 1,089,571 visitors in 1991 to 1,330,488 in 1999 (Al-Kahtani and Abraham, 1999). Table 2.6 shows the growth percentage of passengers arriving at Abha airport.

Table 2.6 Comparative of Passengers Travelling to Abha Airport 1997-1999 During the Summer Season

	Season			Growth Percentage Between 1997-99
	1997	1998	1999	
Arrival	196306	219797	248815	13.2%
Arrival and departure	364934	429818	501059	16.6%

Source: Saudi Arabian Airlines, 1999.

Table 2.7 shows the information about Abha. The main attraction resources in the Asir area are the Asir National Park, Al-Qara'ah Park and Al-Sawdah Park.

Table 2.7 Information about Abha in 2000.

Lists	Numbers
Tourism restaurants	10
Fast food restaurants	26
Parks and entertaining centres	16
Shopping centres	3
Travel agencies	2
Supermarkets	8
Car hire	2
Hospitals	6
Health centres	4
Pharmacies	17
Hotels	11
Furnished apartments	78

Source: Abha Chamber of Commerce & Industry, 2000

Asir National Park

The Asir National Park, located in the south western region of Saudi Arabia, became the first major natural national park in the Arab world (Waller, 1988) and started operating in 1980. It was established to conserve an outstanding example of Saudi Arabian people and their natural and cultural heritage. The purpose of the park is to

preserve wildlife in its natural habitat for the pleasure of the individual. It covers about 450,000 hectares of land and comprises the most scenic parts of the kingdom. The park includes a diversity of species of trees including Juniperus Excelsa, Tamarix Aphylla and Zisphus Spina-chrisli. The park also comprises life zones with various landforms, plants, animals and human activities and is provided with main services, such as water, sanitary units, tables, grills, exhibitions and information.

Al-Qara'ah Park

Al-Qara'ah Park is a conservation project to protect the natural and built environment in the region of Asir and, in addition, it provides outdoor tourism facilities for the people. The park is located between 2275 and 2100 metres above sea level facing the Tihammah region of Asir.

Al-Sawdah Park

Al-Sawdah Park provides outdoor attractions for the tourist. It has an area of 2180 acres. It is located at the top of Al-Sawdah Mountain, between 2700 m. and 2900 m. above sea level. The park has been developed with most of the recreational facilities, such as parking, picnic tables, trails for hiking, toilets and stove stands.

Weekly Markets

In Asir urban settlements were established around mosques, as were markets, industries and crafts (as shown in Appendix A, Exhibit 15 and 16). Public markets were held, as they are today, in given locations at given times every week. Each village has its market and tribes people come to it from miles around to barter, as shown in Table 2.8. These markets usually open from early morning until noon.

Table 2.8 Weekly Markets in Abha

Saturday market (Bany Razam)
Sunday Rofiydah market
Monday market (bin Homos)
Tuesday Abha market
Wednesday market (Al-Yazied)
Thursday Al-Khamis market
Friday Al-Wadeyen market

2.8 Summary

This chapter provides a review of the components of tourist supply in Saudi Arabia: attractions, transportation, accommodation, supporting facilities and infrastructure. Saudi Arabia has tourist attractions which can be divided into two main factors. Firstly, the natural attractions include location, climate, mountains, seacoast, flora and fauna and deserts. It can be recognised that there is diversity in the natural attraction in the country. Saudi Arabia is rich in cultural heritage (man-made) and natural attraction. Secondly, the cultural attractions include the historic and modern, such as religious centres and historic buildings. The two holy shrines of Islam, Makkah and Madinah are found in Saudi Arabia.

Makkah is located in the western region of Saudi Arabia. It is the destination for all Moslem pilgrims and visitors. Saudi Arabia also has many important historical archaeological monuments, such as mosques, palaces, historical sites, old villages and ancient dams that could be good tourist attractions, such as Madain Saleh. In addition, there are many modern cultural attractions in most cities, including public parks, sports activities and educational centres.

The transportation sector, including air and land transport, is reviewed since it plays a vital role in the movement of tourists. The types of accommodation in Saudi Arabia

may be grouped by the commercial sector (hotels, furnished apartments, bed sits and guest houses) and the private sector (staying with friends and relatives, second homes). The hotel system is growing in Saudi Arabia, there are 394 hotels with a total of 38879 rooms in 2001, but the average rate of occupancy for Saudi hotels in 1998 was less than 50 %. The occupancy comes from business, religious and domestic tourism that cause the seasonality and demand fluctuations in tourism facilities. The infrastructure plays an important role in domestic and international tourist attractions. In Saudi Arabia there is a significant recent development in the provision of transportation, hotels and supporting infrastructure.

The current study focuses on two tourist cities, Jeddah and Abha. It can be recognised that Jeddah is a coastal city and it has many tourists attraction and facilities. The moderate temperatures for Jeddah are during December, January, February and March. Abha's position, some 7,200 feet (2,200 metres) above sea-level, gives it a relatively moderate climate. Temperatures remain within a narrower band than is the case in many other parts of the Kingdom. The Abha region also enjoys the highest level of rainfall of any part of Saudi Arabia. In addition, it has many tourist attractions.

It can be concluded that Saudi Arabia is rich in tourism resources as well as natural, cultural and environmental features. Also, there has been considerable recent development of tourism services, such as hotels, restaurants, public parks, museums and mountain and coastal resorts. The current situation in Saudi Arabia provides substantial potential for the expansion of tourism in the future.

CHAPTER THREE

TOURISM

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TOURISM

3.1 Introduction

Tourism is considered as one of the most notable economic and social phenomena of the last century. Tourism is a multidimensional, diverse activity that touches many lives and includes many different economic activities. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (1996), travel and tourism is the largest industry in the world on virtually any economic measure, including gross output, value added, capital investment, employment and tax contributions. The World Tourism Organisation (1999) mentioned that travel and tourism continues to show consistent year on year expansion with worldwide arrivals growing by 4.3% per annum between 1989 and 1998. In 2000 664 million tourists spent $455 billion (excluding international transport).

The World Travel and Tourism Council (2001) stated that travel and tourism for the Middle East is expected to generate US$ 84.4 billion of economic activity (total demand) in the year 2001, growing to US$ 159 billion by 2011. Travel and tourism economic activity in the Middle East is expected to grow by 5.4% per annum between 2000 and 2010. In 2000 the industry's gross output was estimated to be US$ 23 billion, rising to US$ 59 billion by 2010 (WTTC, 2000). The travel and tourism industry is the world's largest employer. In 2001 travel and tourism industry employment in the Middle East was estimated at 3,279,700 jobs or 8.2% of total employment. By 2011 this would grow to 4,830,700 jobs, 8.3% of total employment. Travel and tourism industry jobs account for 3.5% of total employment in the Middle East in 2001 and are forecast to rise to 1,997,500 jobs or 3.7% of the total by 2011

(WTTC, 2001), as shown in Table 3.1. (Table 1 and 2 in Appendix B shows the Middle East international tourist arrivals and tourism receipts by country of destination).

Table 3.1 WTTC Middle East Estimates and Forecasts

Middle East	2001			2011		
	US$	Bn % of Tot	Growth 1	US$	Bn % of Tot	Growth 2
Personal Travel & Tourism	37.0	9.4	4.2	74.8	9.6	-0.1
Business Travel	7.1	—	3.7	13.7	—	0.0
Government Expenditures	2.3	1.6	4.6	4.3	1.7	1.5
Capital Investment	10.4	8.1	0.9	21.0	8.3	0.6
Visitor Exports	13.5	8.4	3.4	24.0	9.2	2.1
Other Exports	14.2	8.9	23.0	21.3	8.2	1.7
Travel & Tourism Demand	84.4	—	5.4	159.1	—	0.5
T&T Industry GDP	27.7	4.1	3.8	55.2	4.3	-0.1
T&T Economy GDP	66.4	9.7	5.7	128.5	10.1	0.3
T&T Industry Employment	1,397.4	3.5	3.9	1,997.5	3.7	3.6
T&T Economy Employment	3,279.7	8.2	6.8	4,830.7	9.0	3.9

1. 2000 Real Growth Adjusted for Inflation (Percent);
2. 2001-2011 Annualised Real Growth Adjusted for Inflation (Percent); Employment in Thousands

Source: World Travel & Tourism Council, 2001.

Thus, the travel and tourism industry has become a major provider to the gross national output for several nations with marketing destinations and its products are becoming a broadly recognised practice for both public and private sector organisations (Riege and Perry, 2000).

In this chapter the tourism system is reviewed. Then, the tourism definitions, domestic tourism, new tourism, leisure and recreation and travel and tourism are discussed. In addition, tourism typologies are argued. The characteristics of travel and tourism are explained. Finally, the economical, political and socio-cultural impacts of domestic and international tourism are examined.

3.2 The Tourism System

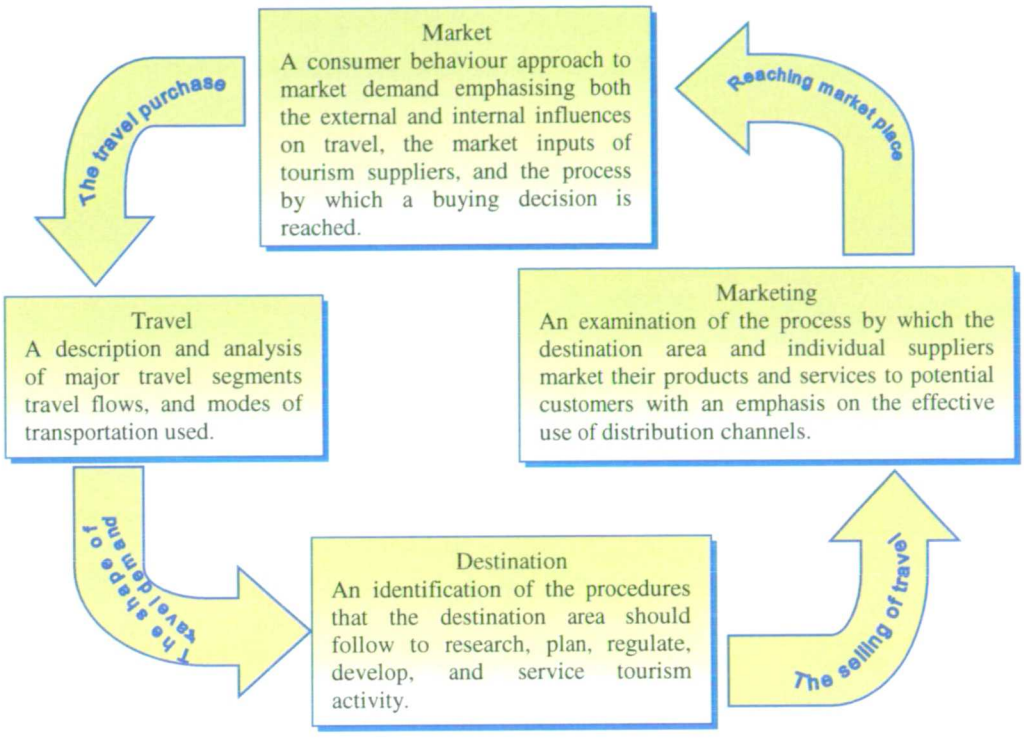
A system is defined as a set of inter-related elements (Bertalanffy, 1968). Mill and Morrison (1985, p. xix) contended that "a *system is like a spider's web-touch one part of it and reverberation will be felt throughout*". Skyttner (1996, p. 35) defines a system as "*a set of interacting units or elements that form an integrated whole intended to perform some function*". The tourism system approach has the advantage of taking a broader outlook instead of being myopic and isolated. It aims to examine, define and synthesise various angles from an overall perspective (Tosun and Jenkins, 1998). Mill and Morrison (1985), Leiper (1990), Burns and Holden (1995) and Middleton and Hawkins (1998) analyse tourism as a system. The following section discusses these models.

3.2.1 The Mill and Morrison Model

Figure 3.1 shows the tourism system. According to Mill and Morrison (1985) the tourism system is integrated into four parts.

- **Market.** This part of the system highlights the need to understand the cultural and social aspect of consumer behaviour.
- **Travel.** This segment of the system examined the tourist flows both internationally and domestically and was applied to determine recent and possible future trends.
- **Destination.** This part refers to the mix of the attractions and services used by the traveller.
- **Marketing.** This part of the system is responsible for the development of the marketing plan, the selection of an appropriate marketing mix and the choice of distribution channel.

Figure 3.1 The Mill and Morrison Model



Source: Mill and Morrison, 1985, p. 2.

3.2.2 The Leiper Model

Leiper suggested this model for a tourism system in 1979 and updated it in 1990. Figure 3.2 illustrates Leiper's model. There are three basic elements of Leiper's model.

1. Tourists. The tourist is the actor in this system. Tourism, after all, is a human experience, enjoyed, anticipated and remembered by many as a very important feature of their lives.

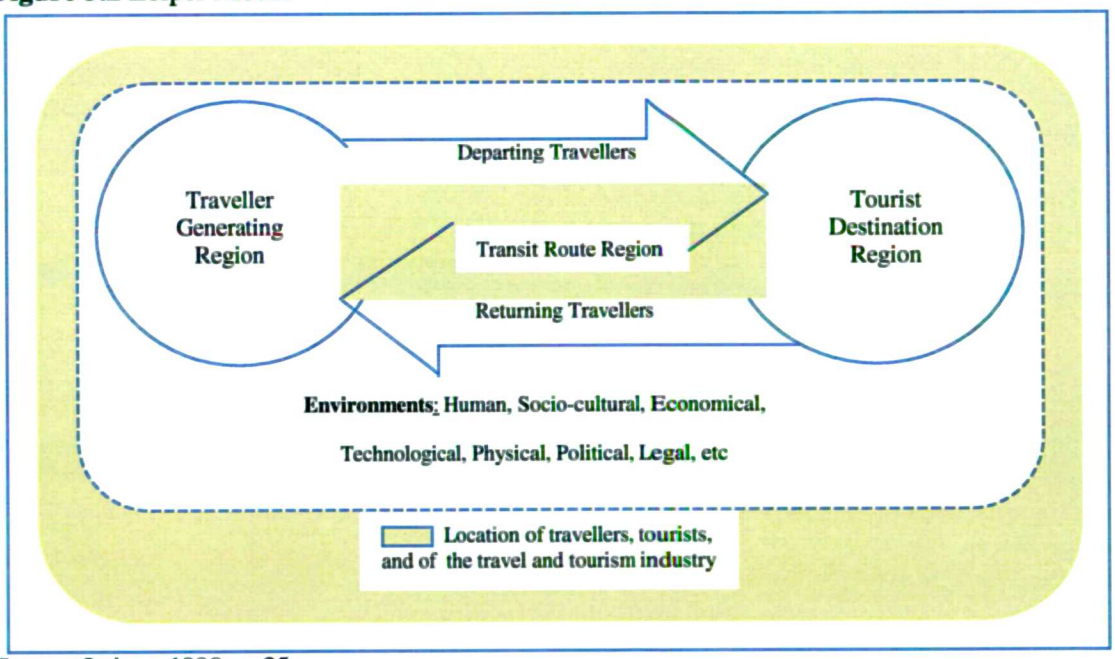
2. Geographical elements. Leiper summarises three geographical elements in his model.

- Traveller-generating region represents the generating market for tourism and, in a sense, presents the push to stimulate and motivate travel.

- Tourist destination region represents the sharp end of tourism. At the destination the full influence of tourism is felt and planning and management strategies are implemented. The pull to visit a destination energises the whole system and creates demand for travel in the generating region.
- Transit route region represents not only the short period of travel to reach the destination, but also, the intermediate places that might be visited en route.

3. Tourism industry is the third element of Leiper's model which includes the range of businesses and organisations involved in providing the tourism product.

Figure 3.2 Leiper Model



Source: Leiper, 1990, p. 25.

The tourism industry can be defined as "*the sum of the industrial and commercial activities that produce goods and services wholly or mainly for tourist consumption*" (Weaver and Oppermann, 2000, p. 47).

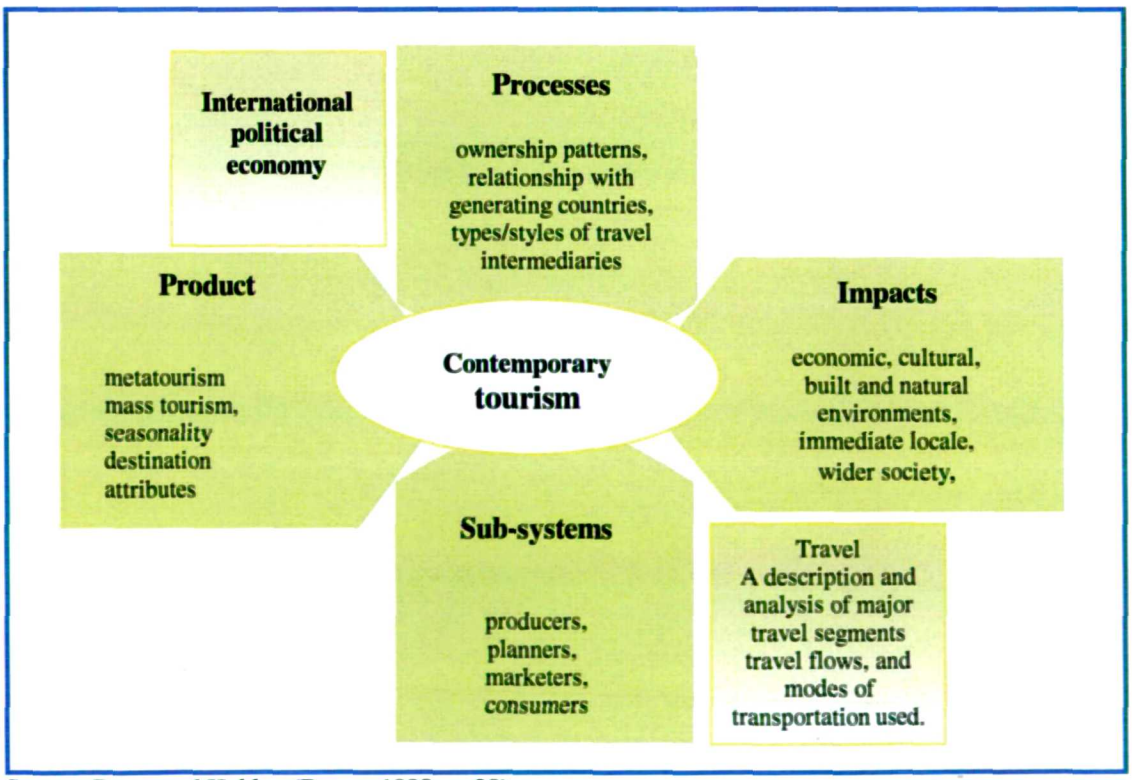
Leiper's tourism system highlights the interaction between supply and demand in tourism operations. Foster and Jones (2000) pointed out that the supply and demand

sides of the industry are made up of a variety of stakeholder groups, such as tourist enterprises and government agencies.

3.2.3 The Burns and Holden Model

Burns and Holden (1995) stated that contemporary tourism could be seen as comprising four parts: the process, the product, the system (sub-system) and the consequences (impact). Figure 3.3 shows that the Burns and Holden model illustrates three things: first, that the four parts are interrelated; second, that they all assist shape and form the characteristics of tourism at a particular destination; third, that all the elements will alter over time from both internal and external influences. Also, the figure serves as a reminder that tourism should be considered in its wider socio-economic and political environment.

Figure 3.3 The Burns and Holden Model

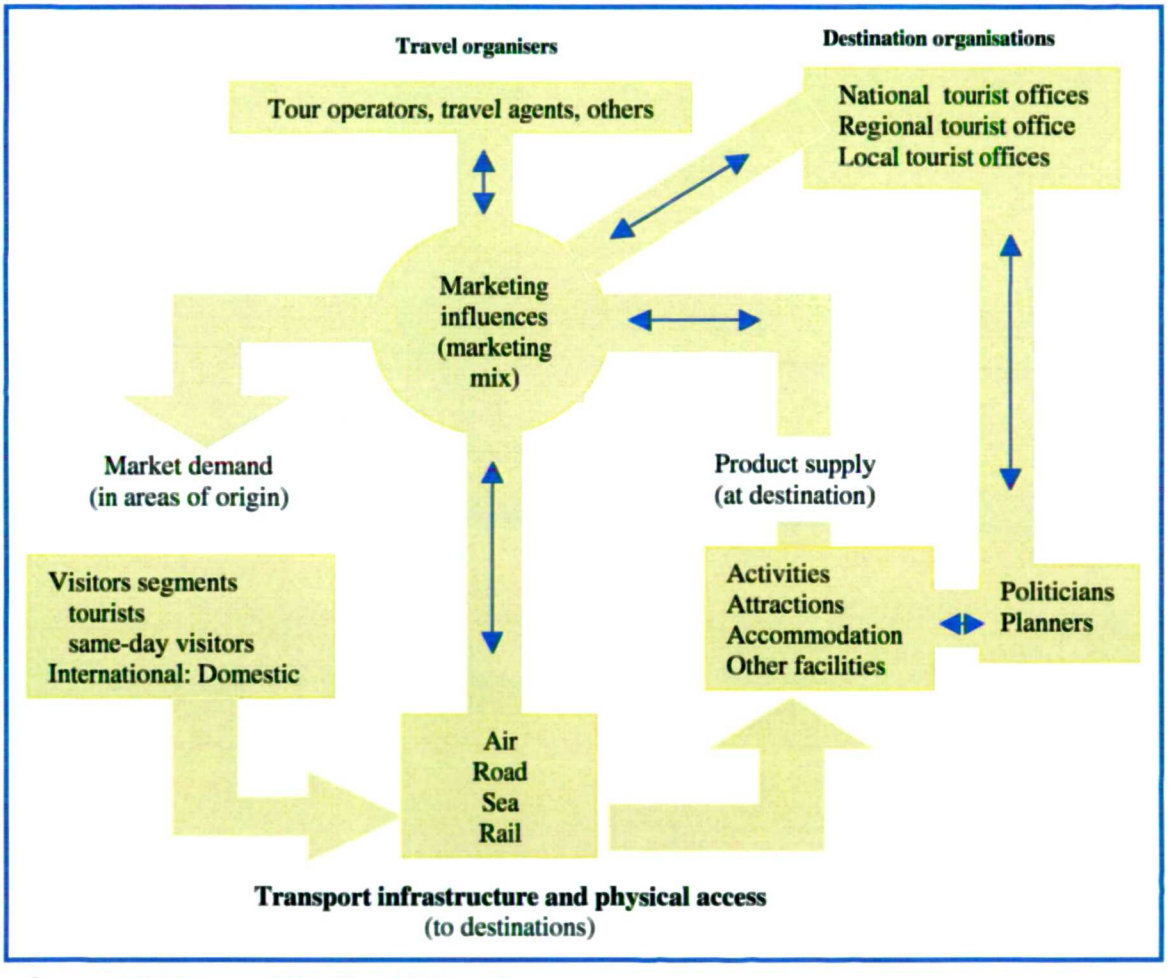


Source: Burns and Holden (Burns, 1999, p. 28).

3.2.4 The Middleton and Hawkins Model

Middleton and Hawkins (1998) provided an overview of the systematic links between the four main component sectors of the travel and tourism industry which focuses on the influence of the marketing perspective. Figure 3.4 shows the systematic links between demand and supply, and the influence of marketing.

Figure 3.4 The Systematic Links Between Demand and Supply, and the Influence of Marketing



Source: Middleton and Hawkins, 1998, p 60.

The four sectors are

1. accommodation
2. attractions
3. transport

4. travel organisers, such as tour operators.

The first two sectors are business operations taking place at the destination and dependent on it, while the last two sectors are business operations taking place mainly away from the destination and independent of it.

The major advantages of the discussion about systems model are:

- the tourism system consists primarily of a demand (market) side and supply side which means studying a system of consumers and suppliers who demand and supply the tourism product and services;
- it can be seen readily that every tourism element is in some way connected to it and dependent on every other element. This fact demonstrates that no element can be planned independently and that only planning on a large scale can reflect the true dynamics of tourism as a system.

3.3 The Definition of Tourism

There are various definitions proposed for tourism and it is difficult to find a basis of approach for defining tourism. Van Harssel (1994) argued about the lack of a universally accepted definition of tourism partly because of the complexity of tourist activity and partly because different concerns are interested in various features of tourist activity. A definition is created according to a scholar's needs and situations. Tourism has been variously defined or redefined by governments and academics to relate to such fields as economics, sociology, geography and cultural anthropology.

Indeed, the task of defining tourism is not nearly as easy as it would appear (Holloway 1994; Cooper et al. 1997). The literature on tourism is a mixture of studies of economy, geography, anthropology, sociology and psychology. Leiper (1979) and

Ryan (1991) agreed that there are three viewpoints in defining tourism: *economic, technical and holistic.* Ryan (1991) added the *experiential* viewpoint which focuses on the motives. From this point of view it can be "*argued that the attitudes, expectations and perceptions of the holidaymaker are significant variables in setting goals, influencing behaviour and determining final satisfaction*" (Ryan, 1994, p. 294).

From the *economic* viewpoint tourism can be construed as an economic activity. Ryan (1991, p. 5) defined it as "*a study of the demand for supply of accommodation and supportive services for those staying away from home, and the resultant patterns of expenditure, income creation and employment*". This definition identifies tourism as an industry.

From the *holistic* viewpoint there are many definitions (Leiper 1979; Ryan 1991; Sharpley 1999). The definition most widely identified and used is that produced in 1963 by the United Nations Conference on International Travel and Tourism in Rome, that was adopted by the International Union of Official Travel Organisation (IUOTO) in 1968. It used the phrase "visitors" to describe "*any person visiting a country other than that in which he has his usual place of residence, for any reason other than following an occupation remunerated from within the country visited*". This definition fails to take into account the domestic tourist.

A holistic definition that embraces both the factual and theoretical perspectives of tourism by Jafar (1977, p. 8) is a "*study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs and the impacts that both he and the industry have on the host socio-cultural, economic and physical environment*". This

definition's use of word 'man' is dated, but it does not distract from the useful holistic nature of the definition.

The definition of tourism by Burkart and Medlik (1974) was adopted by the Tourism Society in UK (1979). Tourism "*is deemed to include any activity concerned with the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, and their activities during the stay at these destinations*" (The Tourism Society, 1979, p. 70). The previous definition is inclusive, it holds good for all countries and it encompasses all the elements of visitor categories.

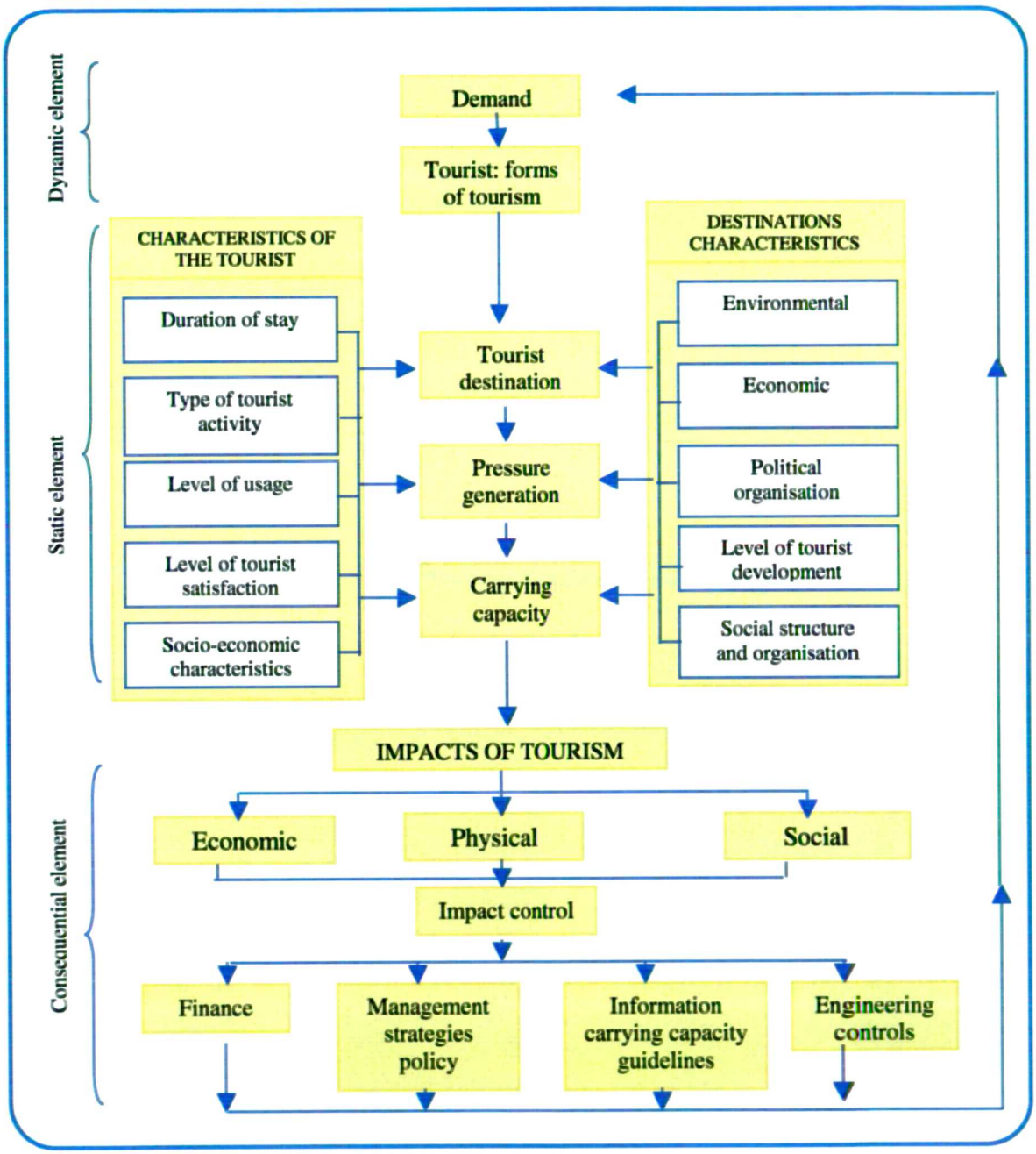
McIntosh and Goeldnor (1986, p. 4) defined tourism as " *the sum of phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction of tourist, business suppliers, host governments and host communities in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors*". This definition considers tourism as consisting of activities, services and industries that deliver travel experience.

Mathieson and Wall (1992, p. 14) determined tourism as a "*multi-faceted phenomenon which involves movement to and stay in destinations outside the normal place of residence*". They considered that tourism is a composite phenomenon that incorporates the diversity of variables and the relationships to be found in the tourist travel process. Mathieson and Wall's (1992) conceptual framework of tourism is shown in Figure 3.5. They stated that tourism is composed of three basic elements:

1. a dynamic element which involves travel to a selected destination or destinations;
2. a static element which involves the stay in the destination;

3. a consequential element, resulting from the two preceding elements, which is concerned with effects on the economic, physical and social sub-systems with which the tourist is directly or indirectly in contact.

Figure 3.5 A Conceptual Framework of Tourism



Source: Mathieson and Wall, 1992, p. 15.

According to Mill (1992, p. 9) tourism is "*the term given to the activity that occurs when tourists travel. This encompasses everything from planning of the trip, the travel to the place, the stay itself, the return and the reminiscences about it afterwards. It includes the activities the traveller undertakes as part of the trip, the purchases made and interactions that occur between host and guest. In sum, it is all of the activities and impacts that occur when a visitor travels*".

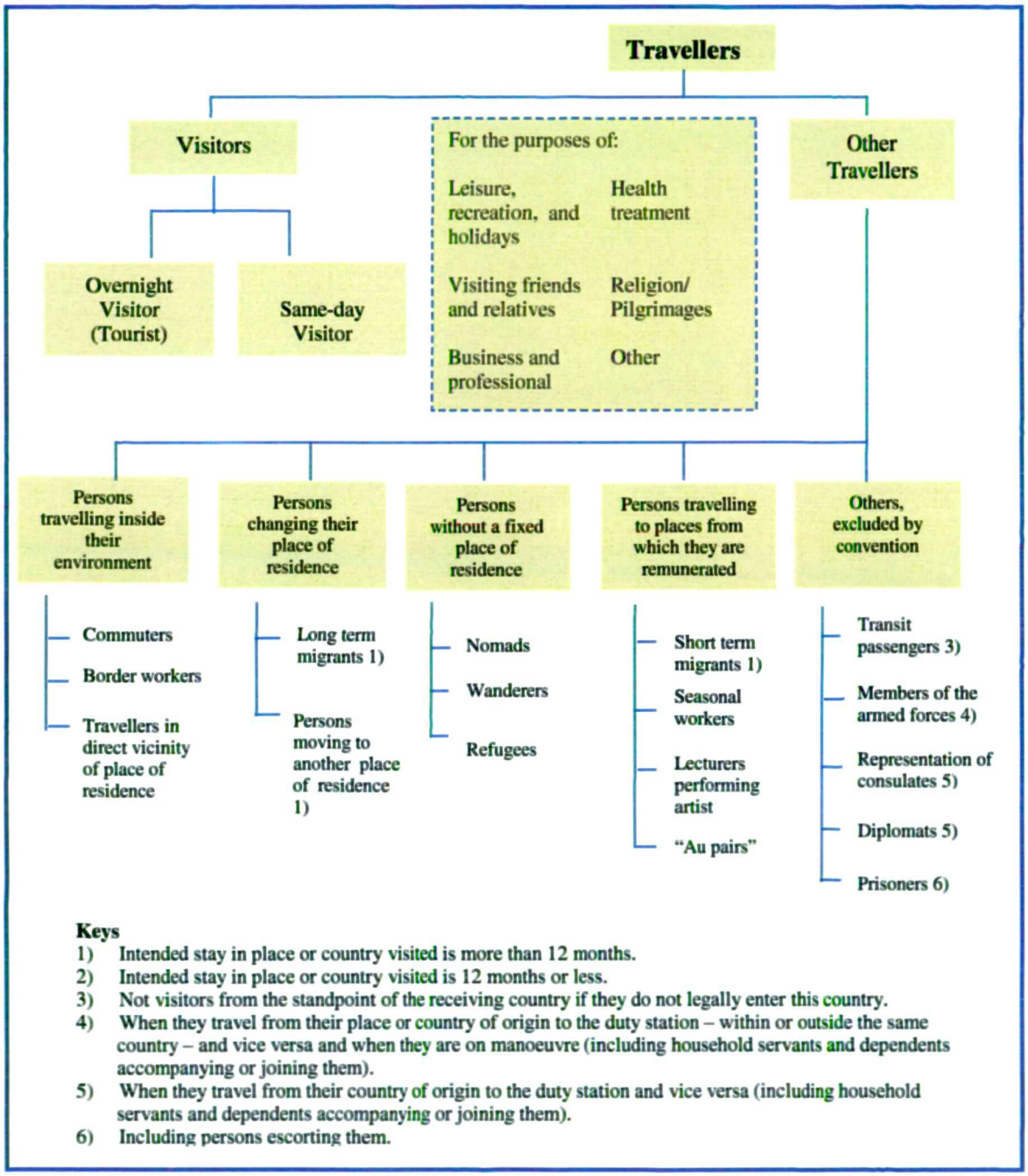
Mill (1992) and Davidson (1994) believed that defining tourism as an industry is incorrect and demeaning to what it really is and they agreed that tourism is an activity engaged in by people who travel, while Smith (1995) looks at tourism as an industry. "*Tourism is not just hundreds of thousand of businesses, but a global industry with major policy implications*" (Smith, 1995, p. 7).

There are *technical* definitions that provide tourism information for statistical or legislative purposes. These technical definitions of tourism contribute descriptions that can be used in both international and domestic settings. Many international organisations, such as the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the World Tourism Organisation (WTO), have developed both the supply and demand side definitions of tourism.

The World Tourism Organisation's (WTO, 1995b, p. 21) definition is "*tourism comprises of the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and*

other purposes". Figure 3.6 outlines the definition by the World Tourism Organisation which has gained acceptance on a global basis.

Figure 3.6 Visitors and Other Travellers



Source: World Tourism Organisation, 1995b, P.17.

The following explanation is based on the WTO definitions and classifications.

Tourist (overnight visitor) is a "*visitor staying at least one night in a collective or private accommodation in the place visited*" (Gee and Fayos-Solá 1997, p. 5).

Same day visitor (excursionists) is a "*visitor who does not spend the night in a collective or private accommodation in the place visited*" (Gee and Fayos-Solá 1997, p. 5).

Visitor is "*any person travelling to a place other than that of his/her unusual environment for less than 12 consecutive months and whose main purpose of travel is not to work for pay in the place visited*" (World Tourism Organisation, 1995b, P.17).

Traveller refers to "*any person on a trip between two or more locations*" (World Tourism Organisation, 1995b, P.17).

There are three types of tourism at any level, in relation to a given area, e.g., domestic region, country or group of countries:

1. outbound tourism, involving residents travelling as visitors in an area other than the given area;
2. inbound tourism, involving non-residents travelling as visitors in a given area;
3. domestic tourism, involving residents of the given area travelling (as visitors) only within that area which is the focus of this study.

Smith (1999) mentioned that the core component of technical definitions "usual environment", makes explicit the notion that tourism does not comprise routine travel or travel close to home. Smith indicated that the definition of the World Tourism Organisation in 1993 does not identify how the concept "usual environment" should be operationalised. Smith reviewed possible methods for defining "*usual*

environment" and observed that a distance threshold presented significant advantages. Smith (1999, p. 143) concluded that the "*fundamental definition of tourism should be based on an understanding of what tourism means within the jurisdiction and where the conceptual boundaries are to be drawn between tourism as one concept and local recreation, routine shopping and routine visits as a different concept*".

From an *experiential* viewpoint the psychological influence of tourism which might be recognised as a major element of tourism is holiday travel and the main motivations for travel are rest, discovery and pleasure. According to this viewpoint Ryan (1991, p. 6) defined holiday tourism as "*the means by which people seek psychological benefits that arise from experiencing new places and new situations that are of a temporary duration, whilst free from the constraints of work, or normal pattern of daily life at home*". The focuses of this definition are humanistic and experiential aspects of both host and guest.

From all the earlier discussion, for different viewpoints in defining tourism, it can be concluded that the economic definitions view tourism in terms of the supply and demand of tourism products. Technical definitions identify the tourist in order to provide a common basis by which to collect data. Holistic definitions attempt to include the entire essence of the subject. The experiential viewpoint focuses on the tourist's motives.

Conceptually, Burkart and Medlike (1981) recognized five main characteristics of tourism.

1. Tourism arises from a movement of people to, and their stay in, different destinations.

2. Two elements, the journey to the destination and the stay, are essential.
3. The kind of activity takes place away from the usual place of residence and work and is so diverse to those enjoyed by residents in the areas in which the visitor travels or stays.
4. Movement to destinations is short term and is proposed to be of a temporary nature.
5. Visits to destinations take place for a number of reasons, other than taking up permanent residence or employment remunerated.

In addition, three more characteristics can be added.

6. Tourism contains the activities of day visitors or excursionists (Middleton 1994, Holloway 1998).
7. Tourism is not a wholly neutral process but could implicate substantial benefits and disbenefits to society (Burns and Holden, 1995).
8. Tourism involves mainly the consumption of a broad variety of products and services that are offered by public and private organisations (Middleton 1998).

From Davidson's (1994) point of view tourism can be viewed as:

- a social phenomenon, not a production activity;
- the sum of the expenditures of all travellers or visitors for all purposes, not the receipt of a select group of similar establishments;
- an experience or process, not a product; an extremely varied experience at that.

General conclusions can be drawn from the above discussion:

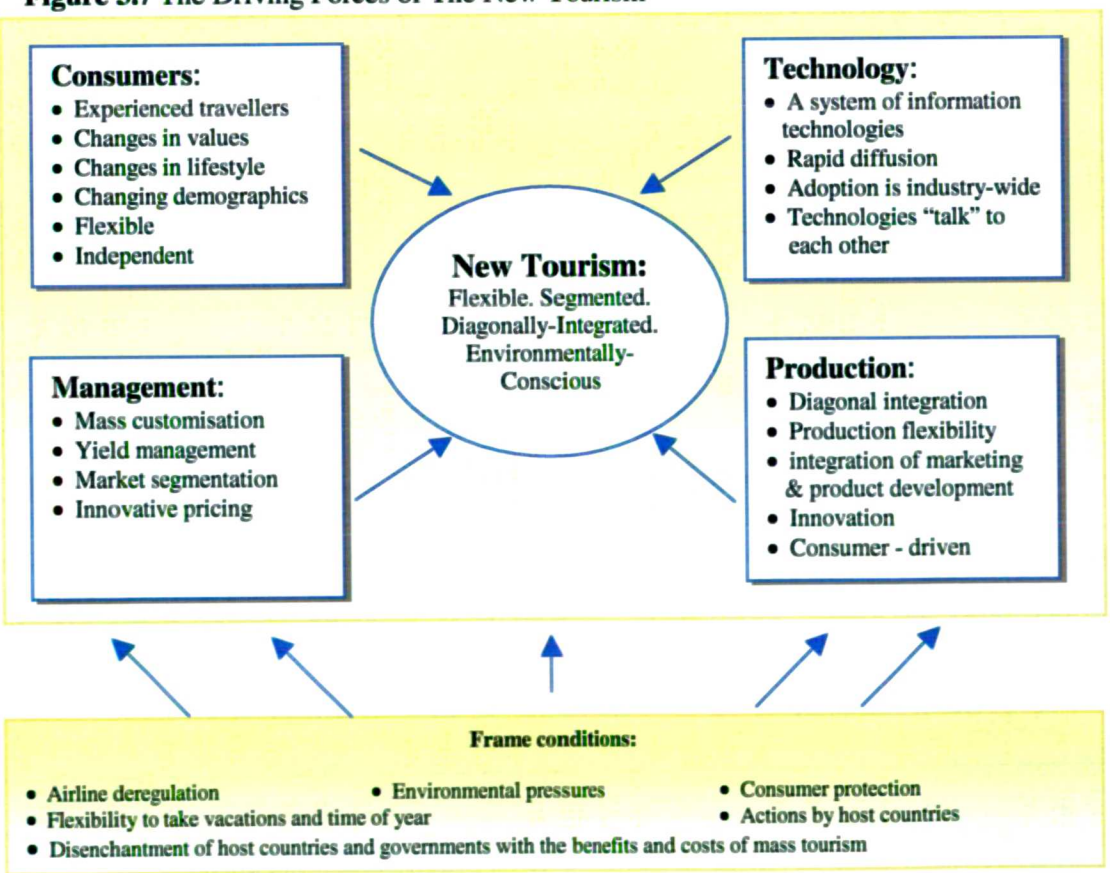
- tourism is a social activity;
- tourism is deemed as a leisure activity;
- tourism is a commercial activity;

- tourism is acknowledged by diverse and multiple sectors.

3.3.1 New Tourism

Poon (1998) explained that new tourism is a useful way of describing the form of tourism which this thesis thinks can be the basis for turning the traditional approach into one which is more environmentally, socially, culturally and economically sustainable for the longer term. New tourism is a "*phenomenon of large-scale packaging of non-standardised leisure services at competitive prices to suit the demands of tourists as well as the economic and socio-environmental needs of destinations*" (Poon, 1998, p.48). Poon noted that five forces are driving the new tourism, as shown in Figure 3.7.

Figure 3.7 The Driving Forces of The New Tourism



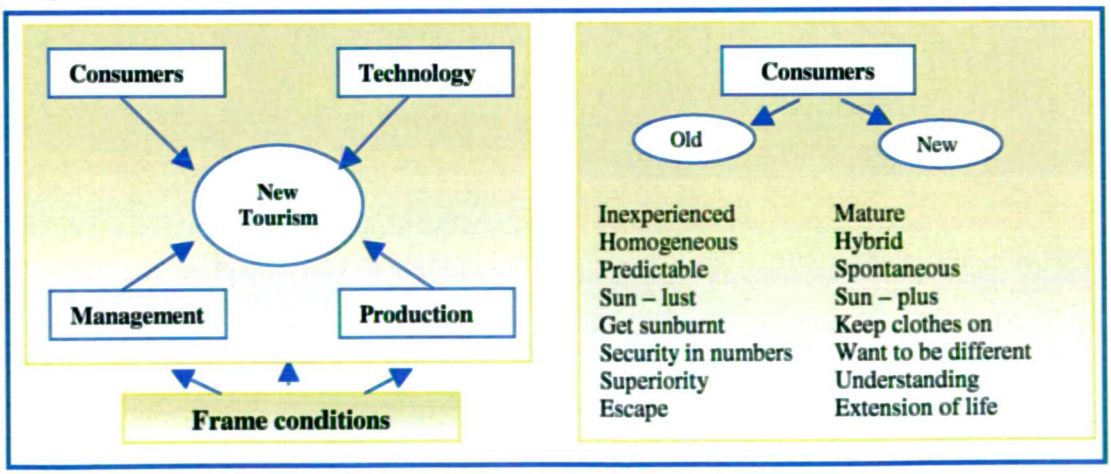
Source: Poon, 1998, p. 49.

These factors are:

- consumers;
- technology;
- management techniques;
- production practices and frame condition.

Poon argues that changes in consumer behaviour and value give the essential guiding force for the new tourism; an assertion with which this thesis would agree. Those consumers who want to buy the new tourism are more informed and experienced travellers. "*They are products of universally accepted education. They have acquired changed values and lifestyles. They are products of changing population demographics. New tourists are flexible and more independent - they are hybrid consumers, spontaneous and unpredictable. They want to be active and in charge. They want to be different from the crowd. The increased travel experience, flexibility and independent nature of the new tourists are generating demand for more flexible holidays*" (Poon, 1998, pp. 48-49). Figure 3.8 summarises the main differences between new tourists and old tourists.

Figure 3.8 The New Consumers



Source: Poon, 1998, p. 51.

3.3.2 Domestic Tourism

People who travel and stay overnight within the boundaries of their own country are categorised as domestic tourists. The World Tourism Organisation's (1995a, p. 14) definition for a domestic tourist is "*any person residing within a country, irrespective of nationality, travelling to a place within a country other than his usual residence for a period of not less than 24 hours or one night for a purpose other than the exercise of remunerated activity in the place visited*". There are rarely currency, language or visa implications and domestic tourism is more difficult to measure than international tourism even in the developed countries.

International travel implicates the crossing of the boundaries. It is, thus, easier to observe, while domestic tourism implicates movement internally and is, thus, more difficult to research.

The World Tourism Organisation (1999, p. 19) illustrates the economic and social significance of domestic tourism as:

- introduces shifts in consumer markets
- contributes to re-distribution of national income
- source of revenue for tourism industries during lean seasons of international tourism
- better utilisation of local materials to service the tourists
- minimum infra-structural requirements
- less conflict with local cultural, political and social tradition
- large scale employment generation
- restrains the exodus of people to large towns
- relatively low unit cost per job

- helps to achieve better understanding between different linguistic, religious and communal groups living in the country
- reflects the economic and social well being of a nation.

3.3.3 Tourism, Leisure and Recreation

Leisure is seen as a period of time, as an activity and as a state of mind. According to Boniface and Cooper (1987, p. 1) leisure is "*a measure of time and usually used to mean the time left over after work, sleep and personal and household chores have been completed. Leisure is free for individuals to spend as they please*". Leisure is perceived as a state of mind whereby individuals feel that they are "at leisure" in any particular set of circumstances. From the experiential perspective Kelly (1987, p. 49) defined leisure as "*a phenomenon that is experienced as it is constructed and yet with elements that permit its identification in shared communication*".

Definitions of leisure, recreation and tourism indicate the importance of the meaning and the subjective nature of these areas of social interaction. Iso-Ahola (1980, p. 8) argues that leisure is based on an individual's own perception and that "*leisure becomes a subjective perception of an actual or imagined activity a person participates in at a given time*". Hudman (1980, p. 25) defined tourism as "*freedom from the necessity to labour*".

The interrelation between tourism and leisure has been an issue of much research over the last two decades, especially since tourism has become an area of special scrutiny (Bodewes 1981; Jafari and Ritchie 1981; Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987; Leiper 1990). Boniface and Cooper (1987) argued that leisure is a measure of time and recreation

which embraces the activities undertaken during that time. They considered that tourism is only one of those activities, whilst other research has suggested that specific types or kinds of tourism can be distinguished based on leisure attributes (Hamilton-Smith, 1987).

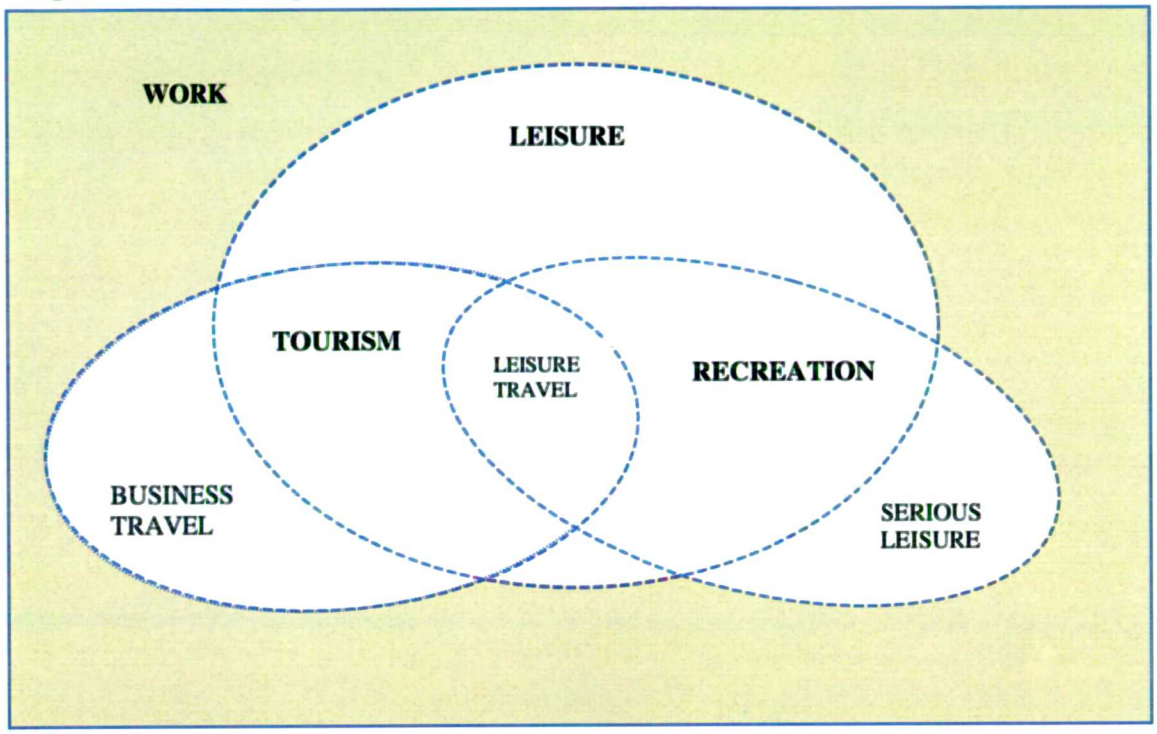
Leiper (1990) has argued that tourism is a special form of leisure, having its own special characteristics. Morgan (1996) proposes that tourism and leisure, in terms of the nature of activities undertaken during leisure time, are approximately indistinguishable except for location. Earlier, Fedler (1987) noted that the overlaps between leisure, recreation and tourism exist at several levels and several common threads, besides the phenomena, link leisure, recreation and tourism together.

Motivation, perception, relationships and theoretical orientations can be applied to the study of leisure, recreation and tourism to better realize the functions, forms and process involved. Also, Hall and Page (1999) considered that tourism, recreation and leisure are generally seen as a set of interrelated and overlapping concepts. A numbers of commentators agree that tourism falls within the conceptual framework of leisure (Smith and Godbey 1991; Ryan 1994; Cooper et al 1997; Ryan and Glendon 1998).

Earlier the National Tourism Policy Study (1978, p. 5) defines recreation as " *the action and activities of people engaging in constructive and personally pleasurable use of leisure time. Recreation may include passive or active participation in individual or group sports, cultural functions, natural and human history appreciation, nonformal education, pleasure travel, sightseeing and entertainment*". Use of this definition makes the association between tourism and recreation clear.

Hall and Page (1999) illustrate the relationship between leisure, recreation and tourism as shown in Figure 3.9. Broken lines are exploited to exemplify that the boundaries between the concepts are "*soft*" (Hall and Page, 1999, p. 3).

Figure 3.9 Relationships Between Leisure, Recreation and Tourism



Source: Hall and Page, 1999, p. 4.

Travel and tourism are terms which are related to precisely the "*same market and they are used interchangeably*" (Middleton, 1990, 6). Van Harssel (1994) explained that the universal element in all definitions of tourism is that 'tourist' is synonymous with 'traveller'. People travelling for health reasons, for business or to attend a conference, or holiday, to study and to visit friends and relatives are tourists. Thus, tourism comprises all transient people who have a temporary relationship with a society visited.

According to McIntosh et al. (1995) travel and tourism are synonymous. Tourism may also be defined as "*people taking trips away from home and it embraces the entire range of transportation, lodging, food service and other activities relating and serving the traveller*" (McIntosh et al., 1995, p. 15).

3.4 Tourist Typologies

The word tourist has a formal definition generally creating the difference between those who travel for a day or less (excursionists) and those who travel overnight or longer. This is the classification made by the World Tourism Organisation. The distinction is an important one when planning for tourism at the destination: excursionists would not make demands on accommodation but use other tourism facilities. Tourists can be classified into different typologies This section briefly reviews some tourist typologies.

3.4.1 Cohen's Typology

Cohen (1972) described four types of tourism based on the degree of institutionalisation of the tourist and the nature of the impact upon the host community.

- The organised mass tourist who is low on adventurousness and is concerned to maintain their "environmental bubble" on the trip. This sector is characterised by comprehensive fully packaged holidays, familiarity dominated and novelty non-existent or highly directed.
- The individual mass tourist who is similar to the mass tourist but more flexible and has scope for personal choice to be built into the holiday. They utilise the institutional facilities of the tourism system (scheduled flights, centralised

bookings, transfers) to organise as much as possible before leaving home, maybe visiting the same sights as the mass organised tourist but going under their own steam.

- The explorers who organise their own trip independently and try to get off the beaten track. This type move into the bubble of comfort and familiarity if the going gets too rough.
- The drifters who seek novelty at all costs; even discomfort and danger. Novelty is their total goal and their spending patterns tend to benefit the immediate local, rather than larger, company. The drifters live with the local people and adopt several of the practices of that community.

3.4.2 Plog's Typology

Plog (1974) categorised travellers into three typologies:

- allocentrics: explorer style of people who seek an undeveloped and unspoilt destination
- psychocentrics: not at all adventuresome, seeking the familiar rather than unusual
- midcentrics: those who lie somewhere in the middle of the spectrum.

Plog typologies relate to a travel motivation theory, therefore, more details are discussed in chapter six (section 6.8.1).

3.4.3 American Tourist Traveller Classification

American Express (1989) commissioned a survey by the Gallup Organisation of 6,500 potential respondents in the USA, United Kingdom, West Germany and Japan. The study identified five distinctive types of people.

- Adventurers who are independent and confident. They like to try new activities, meet new people and experience different cultures.
- Worriers who worry about the stress of travel and their safety and security while on holiday.
- Dreamers who are fascinated with the idea of travel and attach great importance to the meaning it can bring to their lives.
- Economisers who simply see travel as a routine outlet for relaxation rather than as a special part of their lives. They want to enjoy holidays at the lowest possible price.
- Indulgers who want to be pampered when they are on holiday.

3.4.4 Different Types of Tourism

Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) classified types of tourism according to the chronological development of tourism from a geographical perspective to as follows:

- Visiting friends and relatives which, according to Law (1993), account for great numbers of trips, whether long holiday, short break or day. However, they have commonly been discounted in studies of tourism. This is because they are largely invisible in the statistics because many of them are domestic and no national borders are crossed. In addition, most visits to friends and relatives do not involve the use of commercial accommodation.
- Business tourism involves people travelling for work related purposes, such as attending meetings and conferences or being present at trade fairs and exhibitions. The business travel market is characterised by a relative lack of seasonality.
- Religious tourism usually includes visiting places of significance or attending religious events, such as the Islamic pilgrimage of Hajj to Makkah which is

considered the "*greatest single tourism in the world*"(Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999, p. 32). The Islamic pilgrimage is one of the Five Pillars of the Islamic faith recommended to all adherents for the period of the seventh to thirteenth day of the month Dhu'l Hijjah, according to the Al-Hijira Muslim Year.

- Health tourism is where the people travel for medical treatments.
- Social tourism, in common with the holiday market, is a commercial market where the consumers have to pay for their holiday. But, in social tourism, holidays are sponsored in some way, either by government or voluntary sector.
- Educational tourism comprises attending lectures, short training courses and language courses that are held outside the student's usual place of work and residence.
- Cultural tourism means the desire to experience other current cultures.
- Scenic tourism is where the tourist desires to view spectacular natural scenery.
- Activity tourism is based upon the desire for new experiences on the part of the evermore sophisticated tourist and are, as well, a reflection of growing social concerns for example health and fitness.
- Special interest tourism is that in which the types of interest are very diverse, such as painting, visiting gardens and attending music festivals.
- Hedonistic tourism is motivated by a desire for sensual pleasure and is encapsulated by the classic 'Ss': sea, sand and sun.

3.5 Characteristics of Travel and Tourism Services

According to Middleton (1990), related to the generic characteristics of all services, there are three more features which are relevant to tourism services. These are

seasonality, the interdependence of tourism products and the high fixed costs of operations.

3.5.1 Seasonality and Demand Fluctuations

According to Allcock (1995, p. 92) "*seasonality refers to the tendency of tourist flows to be concentrated into relatively short periods of the year*". Seasonality can be expressed in terms of visitors, traffic flows, admissions to attractions, accommodation occupancy rate and employment (Butler and Mao, 1997).

There are regular fluctuations within most patterns of demand in tourism. A high concentration of visitor activity takes place at particular times of the year, month, week and day. Butler's (1994) analysis of the causes of seasonality demonstrates a substantial overlap with that of Frechtling (1996) and Baum and Hagen (1999) extend this analysis.

Butler (1994) notes two basic origins of the seasonality in tourism, 'natural' and 'institutional', although there is a considerable level of interdependence between the two. Frechtling (1996) mentioned that the seasonal pattern is due to climate and weather, social customs and holidays, business customs and calendar, as shown in Table 3.2.

1. The main causes of seasonality are recognised by Butler (1994, pp. 332-334). Natural seasonality is the result of regular variation in climate conditions (temperature, daylight, rainfall, snowfall). Natural seasonal variation increases according to distance from the equator and, consequently, has varied impacts upon human activity.

2. Institutional seasonality is the result of human decision factors and is more extensive and less predictable than natural seasonality. It is the result of social, religious, cultural and ethnic activities of forms of institutional seasonality which affect the demand of tourism services are school or industrial holidays, public holidays and religious holy days.

Table 3.2 Causes of Seasonality in Tourism Demand

Causes of seasonality	Tourism examples
Climate/weather	Summer vacation, snow skiing, autumn foliage tours, popularity of tropical destinations in winter, cruise line departures, ocean resort demand, *transport access*
Social customs/holidays	Christmas/New Year holidays, school breaks, *industrial holidays* or *'fortnights'*, travel to visit friend and relatives, fairs and festivals, religious observances, pilgrimages
Business customs	Convention and trade shows, government assemblies, political campaign tours, sports events; *date of Easter*
Calendar effects	Number of days in the month, number of weekends in the month, quarter, season or year
Supply side constraints	*Availability of labour (school holidays, competition from other sectors, i .e. agriculture), alternative use of facilities (school to hotels)*

Source: Frechtling, 1996, p. 55.
Italicised material has been added by Baum and Hagen, 1999, p. 300.

Butler has identified additional causes of tourism seasonality.

3. Social pressure or fashion which has an influence on seasonal tourism behaviour, affecting choice of sun destination on the basis of prevailing fashion, with reference to skin pigmentation, for example.
4. Sporting seasons which have been associated with social activities, such as hunting and snow skiing.
5. Inertia or tradition within wide institutional frameworks also generates seasonal inflexibility with respect to holiday patterns, thus, the main shifts in seasonal

behaviour are hard to achieve, even with the efforts of governments and marketing. School holidays are a good example of institutionalised inertia.

There are summer and weekend peaks of holiday, travel and peak days and overcrowding at many tourism resorts and sites in most countries and destinations (Bar-On, 1999). These have substantial economic, environmental and social effects. Therefore, seasonality of demand causes major problems for the tourist industry as it is not possible to store the product.

The disadvantages of major variations in seasonal demand explained by Baum (1999, p. 6) are:

- a short business operating season with major time of closure or decreased level of operation;
- the subsequent need to create a full year's revenue within a short operating season while fixed costs for servicing span over a twelve month period;
- under-utilisation of capital assets which are nonflexible and, usually, do not have alternative uses;
- the subsequent problems of attracting inward investment in tourism;
- problems in maintaining the supply chain on the basis of a short operating season;
- problems ensuring sustained support from transport providers, such as airlines and shipping companies, who are reluctant to maintain commitment to, and investment in, highly seasonal operations;
- short-term employment rather than sustainable long-term jobs creating high levels of either off-season unemployment or temporary outward migration;
- problems of maintaining service and product quality standards in the absence of permanent, long-term employees.

Bar-On (1999) suggested that seasonality should be studied as an element of the inclusive analysis of monthly (or quarterly) series in terms of their major components - trends and cycles, seasonality, festival date effects and working (trading) day effects and the effects of unusual events. There are four principal strategies for managing seasonality: changing the product-mix, market diversification, differential pricing and encouragement/facilitation by staggering holidays (Allcock, 1995).

Baum and Hagen (1999) suggested four main forms of strategies to counter seasonality.

1. Events and festivals: this approach is recognized as the most common single strategy to counter seasonality. Events and festivals take many forms and are of differing size and duration (Getz, 1991,1997).
2. Market diversification: excessive seasonal demand variation is the consequence of a number of interrelated factors. The simplest market diversification strategy is one that seeks to recognise a new demand for existing products or facilities. Effective market diversification into shoulder and off-season periods must be accompanied by the realisation that various seasons create demands for different products, with alternative presentation, packaging and pricing.
3. Product diversification: various tourist markets, visiting destinations at various times of the year, will need different products.
4. Structural and environmental response: this is required at a community and government level to co-ordinate and realise the role that needs to be played by all public and private sector organisations and operators working together to overcome some of the effects of seasonality.

3.5.2 The Interdependence of Tourism Products

The majority of tourists combine not one but several products in their travel buy decisions. A holidaymaker may choose attractions at a destination together with the quality of accommodation and other facilities, such as catering. The sales of tourist accommodation suppliers at a destination are influenced to some extent by marketing decisions made by tour operators and travel agents, attractions, transport interests and tourist boards which, together or separately, promote the destination and its activities and facilities.

This vital interdependence was designated "complementarity" by Krippendorf (1971). The same concept emerges as "*partnership*" in the USA (Morrison: 1989, p. 175). The complementarity of destination components are difficult to control by destination managers given the fragmented nature of enterprises in tourism.

3.5.3 The High Fixed Costs of Operations

Costs in tourism are normally fixed, semi-fixed and variable. A major feature of tourism supply activity is the heavy preponderance of fixed costs. The following are the main costs that must be incurred in order to be open to receive visitors:

- premises (capital costs and annual maintenance costs),
- equipment (including repairs and renewals), rents and rates,
- heating, air conditioning, lighting and other energy costs, insurances,
- wages and salaries of permanent employees, management overheads and administrative costs.

High fixed costs of operation force all service operators' attention on the need to create extra demand. The marketing manager needs to know at what point in the sale

is break-even point achieved where the total costs precisely match the total revenue received from sales, then it will be possible to establish how this break-event point will be influenced by charging different prices for the product. This will reveal how many further holidays should be sold at a lower price in order to recover costs.

3.6 Impacts of Tourism

International and domestic tourism bring about an intermix of people from varied social and cultural backgrounds and, also, a significant spatial redistribution of spending power which has a significant impact on the economy of the destination area (Archer, 1975).

There are positive and negative impacts of tourism economically, politically, socio-culturally, environmentally and ecologically (Cooper et al. 1993, Archer and Cooper, 1998). The positive impacts mean benefits to the destination areas and their residents. These positive impacts should consist of results; for instance, of improvements in local economic conditions, social and cultural understanding and protected environment resources (Theobald, 1998).

Gonsalves (1999) said the impact of international tourism in the Third World (developing countries) is different from that in the developed world for many reasons: differences in economic level, cultural patterns, legal systems, public awareness.

The impacts of tourism on any destination will be determined by an extensive diversity of factors (Cooper et al. 1997, p. 94):

- the volume of tourist arrivals
- the structure of the host economy
- the types of tourism activity

- the difference in sociocultural characteristics between the hosts and the tourists
- the fragility of the local environment.

Figure 3.10 and Figure 3.11 summarize the negative and positive environmental impacts of tourism, especially holiday tourism.

Figures 3.10 Negative Environmental Impacts of Tourism Especially Holiday Tourism.

Physical

- Erodes natural spaces through construction of airports, marinas, resort complexes and so on.
- Pressure of overdevelopment and too many visitors erodes and damages fragile natural and built environment – from Alpine ski resorts, coral reefs, to cathedrals and heritage cities such as Venice.
- Produces congestion and overcrowding leading to loss of wildlife habitats and damage to ecosystems.
- Generates litter, wage, noise, emissions and use of chemicals and pollutants for maintaining landscapes golf courses, laundries and visitor transportation.
- Leads to ugly uniformity of buildings and townscapes with no respect for architectural integrity or for such traditional styles as may exist.
- Diverts local resources and amenities such as water and land for tourism developments which disadvantages residents.

Social/economic

- Commercialises the environment for profits which are diverted from the destination and do not accrue to local residents.
- Employment at management level often goes to non-residents leaving only low-paid menial jobs. Tourism employment disrupts traditional employment patterns and the community structures they created.
- Economic benefit leak away from destinations through imports of materials and food and beverage, exacerbated by imposition of Western business methods alien to many local communities in the developing world.
- Tourism provides a market for prostitution and is associated with drugs and crime.
- Introduces developed country moral standards into local communities, generating greed, indolence, violence and crime.
- Effectively lowers traditional qualities of life by introducing an alien, dominant, all-pervasive industry imposed upon and controlled from outside the community.
- Generates tension and animosity between visitors and residents.

Cultural/educational

- Undermines local arts and cultural traditions of local residents by removing their original rationale and turning them into artificial staged events for profit.
- Undermines and eventually destroys original local identities and traditions of place.
- Communicates messages of environmental destruction, by examples of bad practice.

Source: Middleton and Hawkins, 1998, p. 76.

Figures 3.11 Positive Environmental Impacts of Tourism Especially Holiday Tourism.

Physical

- Provides a long-run justification for the protection, preservation and enhancement of natural and built resources, including the protection of biodiversity.
- Provides access to internationally recognised quality standards for environmental resources.
- Stimulates improvements to the quality of physical environment available to residents.
- Provides an economic justification and means for the regeneration of degraded/disused heritage environments based, for example, on nineteenth- century harbours, railways, warehouses and manufacturing sites for which the original economic rationale has disappeared,

Social/economic

- Creates economic value/generates markets for natural or built environments that otherwise may have no direct economic contribution to resident populations.
- Generates revenue which may be used for conservation goals.
- Provides employments and opportunities for small businesses. Stimulates compatible new economic activity to supply tourism businesses.
- Raises the standard of living for resident populations, especially if tourism generates otherwise unobtainable foreign currency and tax revenues.
- Underpins the provision of restaurants, sports recreation facilities, local transport and generally improves the quality of life for residents.

Cultural/educational

- Supports and helps to fund local music, theatre, the arts, folk traditions, festivals and events. Provides a market for local crafts and manufacturing.
- Reinforces and focuses local identities and the traditions of particular places. Helps to sustain and focus pride of place.
- Provides a medium for demonstrating and communicating environmental appreciation and values to both visitors and residents.

Source: Middleton and Hawkins, 1998, p. 76.

3.6.1 Tourism Economic Impact

According to WTO (2000a), over 660 million people around the world travel abroad each year and at least six times this number travel away from their homes on a trip lasting four nights or more within their own countries. According to WTO (2000b), in 1999 international tourism receipts were US$ 455 billion (in current prices) and a further US$ 93 billion in international fare receipts, as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 A Profile of International Tourism, 1985-1999

Year	Arrivals (m.)	Receipts ($bn)
1985	327.1	118.1
1990	457.2	263.6
1991	462.7	276,9
1992	500.9	315.4
1993	515.7	321.9
1994	550.3	354.9
1995	565.4	405,8
1996	597.4	436.5
1997	618.2	439.7
1998	636.0	441.8
1999*	664.4	455.5

Note: excludes international fares.
* = estimate
Source: World Tourism Organisation, 2000b, pp.4-9.

Table 3.4 shows the world's top 15 tourism earners. In 1999, the receipts registered for international tourism amounted to more than US$ 1 billion a year in 60 countries and territories. The United States is the leader, with US$ 74.4 billion in international tourism receipts.

Table 3. 4 World's Top 15 Tourism Earners

Rank		International Tourist Receipts (US$ billion)		% Change 1999/98	Market share 1999
		1998	1999		
1	United States	71.3	74.4	4.5	16.3
2	Spain	29.7	32.9	10.7	7.2
3	France	29.9	31.7	5.9	7.0
4	Italy	29.9	28.4	-5.1	6.2
5	United Kingdom	21.0	21.0	0.0	4.6
6	Germany	16.4	16.8	2.4	3.7
7	China	12.6	14.1	11.9	3.1
8	Austria	11.2	11.1	-0.9	2.4
9	Canada	9.4	10.0	6.7	2.2
10	Greece	6.2	8.8	41.6	1.9
11	Russian Fed	6.5	7.8	19.4	1.7
12	Australia	7.3	7.5	2.6	1.7
13	Switzerland	7.8	7.4	-5.9	1.6
14	Mexico	7.5	7.2	-3.6	1.6
15	Hong Kong, China	7.1	7.2	1.8	1.6

Source: World Tourism Organisation, 2000b, p. 8.

Table 3.5 illustrates the world's top 15 tourism spenders. According to the World Tourism Organisation (2000a), in 1998 forty five countries recorded more than US$ 1 billion in international tourism expenditure, with the big industrial powers clearly in the lead. The United States, Germany, the United Kingdom and Japan lead the list with spending ranging from US$ 28.8 billion to US$ 56.1 billion a year. Tourism expenditure refers to "*the total consumption made by a visitor, or on behalf of a visitor, before and during his/her trip and stay at the destination*" (World Tourism Organisation, 1995b, p.16).

Table 3.5 World's Top 15 Tourism Spenders

Rank	**International Tourism Expenditure (US$ billion)**	
	1998	**1999***
1 United States	56.1	60.1
2 Germany	46.9	48.2
3 Japan	28.8	32.8
4 United Kingdom	32.3	-
5 France	17.8	17.7
6 Italy	17.7	16.9
7 Netherlands	11.0	11.4
8 Canada	10.8	11.3
9 China	9.2	-
10 Austria	9.5	9.2
11 Belgium/Luxembourg	8.8	-
12 Sweden	7.7	7.6
13 Russian Fed	8.3	7.4
14 Switzerland	7.1	7.0
15 Australia	5.5	5.8

* = estimate
Source: World Tourism Organisation, 2000a.

Many researchers have estimated the economic impacts of tourism on regional or national economies (Johnson and Moore 1993; Adams and Parmenter 1995; Archer 1996; Lindberg and Johnson 1997; Wagner 1997; Zhou et al. 1997; Alavalapati and Adamowicz 2000; Vaughan et al. 2000).

Tourism impacts on the economy of the regions, countries or continents where it takes place and also on origins. These are identified as tourist *destinations*. The areas from which the tourists come to visit these destinations are identified as *generating* areas because the tourists carry their money with them to spend at other places. That represents a net loss of revenue to the generating areas and a gain to the destination areas. Economic impacts concern issues of income, employment and balance of payments. Jafari (1986) argued that domestic tourism creates new economic prosperity primarily in and around destinations and, afterwards, in areas beyond.

According to Archer and Cooper (1998), domestic tourism has somewhat similar economic effects upon the tourist destinations of a country. While international tourism brings a flow of foreign currency into the country, domestic tourism redistributes currency locally within the frontiers of a country. From the viewpoint of a tourist region within a country, domestic tourism is a form of invisible export. Money earned in other regions is expended within the tourist destinations generating additional business revenue, jobs, income and revenue to local government.

a. Income

Income is generated from wages and salaries, interest, rent and profits. In a labour-intensive industry, such as tourism, the greatest proportion is likely to be derived from wages and salaries paid to those working in occupations either directly serving the needs of tourists or profiting indirectly from the tourists' expenditure. Income will be greater in those areas that receive large numbers of tourists, where visitors tend to stay for longer periods, where the destination attracts an upmarket or more free-spending consumer and where there are many opportunities to spend.

As wages and salaries within the region rise, local consumption increases and this might give a further impetus to the region's income. The sum of all incomes in a country is called the national income and the importance of tourism to a country's economy can be measured by looking at the proportion of national income created by tourism. In Britain this is estimated to be about 4 %, comprising income from accommodation, tourist transport and all types of additional activities for which tourists pay (Holloway, 1998).

b. Employment

Tourism is a service industry requiring large numbers of employees in relation to the amount of the investment; that is, tourism relies on relatively high inputs of labour contrasted to capital and, thus, generates a relatively large number of jobs. Jobs will be created in tour operators, travel agencies and other intermediaries that supply the tourist service in both generating and destination areas. Tourism generates primary or direct employment in such areas as restaurants and lodgings. Indirect employment can also be created in agriculture, manufacturing industries and construction.

Tourism as a form of employment is economically beneficial, although efforts must be made to create more full-time jobs in the industry. According to an estimation by the World Travel and Tourism Council (1996), tourism employs around 25.5 million people, with tourists spending $3.6 trillion annually. According to the World Tourism Organisation (1999, p 94), the tourism industry in Egypt generates about 350,000 direct jobs. This estimate is, to a large extent, conservative, as it only considers employment in formal establishments.

c. Balance of payments

In a national context, tourism may have a major influence on the country's balance of payments. Domestic and international tourists are buying tourist services in other regions or countries and these payments are noted in the country's accounts as 'invisible'. The money spent by a Saudi visitor to Britain is contributing to Britain's balance of payments, becoming an invisible receipt for Britain while, if a Saudi visitor spends money within the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, it contributes positively to the Saudi balance of payments.

Tourism impacts on balance of payments of Saudi Arabia are not available but an example of tourism impacts on balance of payments of Egypt is presented. The table illustrates that tourism receipts from Egypt tourism account for almost one-third of the invisible export proceeds and cover 37 % of the country's trade deficit (World Tourism Organisation 1999), as shows in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6 Tourism Impacts on Balance of Payments of Egypt

	1993/94	**1994/95**	**1995/96**	**1996/97**
Trade deficit (US$ million)	7,309.8	7,853.5	9,498.1	9,788.1
Tourism coverage ratio (%)	24.3	29.3	31.7	37.3
Invisible exports (US$ million)	8,677.3	9,555.6	10,636.0	11,240.9
Tourism receipts share (%)	20.5	24.1	28.3	32.4

Source: World Tourism Organisation 1999, p. 93.

d. The economic costs of domestic and international tourism

The economic costs of domestic and international tourism include several factors.

Inflation tourism comes mainly in two areas: land value and tourism related goods. Any tourism development requires land: since most tourism development takes place on coastlines and/or in the vicinity of urban centres it is possible to be in competition with other forms of land use, such as residential, industry and agriculture. The increased demand for land forces the land price to rise which is an advantage to landowners, real estate agents and, maybe, builders. Local residents are also forced to pay higher prices for their homes and, probably, higher tax (Archer 1973; Long 1991, Mathieson and Wall 1992).

Tourists are often willing and able to pay more for the same product as local residents. When tourism demand is strong, retailers begin charging more for their products. More often, retailers increase their prices, thus, tourism contributes to inflation of products. Inflation caused by tourism is particularly hard on residents who are not engaged in tourism and do not get any advantage or income from it. These residents are confronted with increased expenses of living with no increased income balancing the equation.

It can be concluded from the previous debate that there are positive and negative economic impacts of international and domestic tourism on a destination. The major argument for tourism concentrates on its potential to generate earnings for the destination through direct tourist expenditures. The main economic phenomena described are income, employment and balance of payments. Therefore, domestic and international tourism provides many jobs, wealth and tax support for many government services. This fact has stimulated nations and businesses to establish promotional staff and spend much money to attract more tourists.

3.6.2 Tourism Political Impacts

The advantages of international tourism have been exalted as a major force for peace and understanding between countries (World Tourism Organisation 1980 and 1982). Domestic tourism can act as an integrating strength reinforcing national sentiment. People in outlying areas are traditionally more preoccupied with local village affairs and, as a result, sometimes prove easy victims to separatist agitators. If, by travel to other parts of the same country, such people could experience pride in their national heritage, a sense of national unity might help to prevent regional fragmentation (Archer and Cooper, 1998).

3.6.3 Tourism Socio-cultural Impacts

Social impacts can be thought of as "*changes in the lives of people who live in destination communities which are associated with tourism activity*" (Mathieson and Wall, 1982, p. 24). Travel has significant influence on the national understanding and appreciation of other people's culture. Wide cultural differences often occur between different countries and, sometimes, between different regions inside the same country. In reality, the existence of such different patterns of life can be one of the principal stimulants of the tourism industry.

According to Przeclawski (1997, p. 106) tourism is "*a form of learning and experiencing the world. It becomes a way of life of the contemporary man*". The negative and positive socio-cultural impact of tourism depends on the behaviour of people involved in tourism, on the behaviour of tourists, of inhabitants of the localities visited by tourists and on the behaviour of brokers. These brokers are:

- the central and local tourism administration, as well as the local self-government officers;
- tour-operators and guides;
- hotels staff as well as hostels and camping staff and couriers;
- tourist information and advertising staff.

The negative socio-cultural issues of international tourism in the Third World (Gonsalves, 1999, pp. 9-10) are:

- disintegration of traditional value systems, which are replaced by 'modern values',
- breakdown of family and social structure,
- primary productive activities, such as agriculture, fishing and animal husbandry, seen as having lower status than those in the service sector,
- loss of identity and origin (often because of rural-urban migration and incoming migrants and often resulting in distrust, suspicion and conflict between communities),
- alienation and anomie,
- personal relations seen as less important than personal achievement,
- increase in personal crime.

The real profits of tourism can be greater if the ethical norms are observed. Therefore, it is necessary to create the foundations of the ethics in tourism. Przeclawski (1997, p. 111) stated that tourists, inhabitants and brokers should respect essential values, for example: human life and dignity, natural and cultural environment, family, holidays and holy places, real and suitable information, private property and freedom (while respecting the rights of others), and observe the ethical norms connected with them.

3.6.4 Tourism Environmental Impacts

Tourism has an indirect impact on the physical environment (Hunter and Green 1995). Figures 3.10 and 3.11 (page 74-75) presented an overview of the major potential impacts of tourism on the natural environment.

General conclusions can be drawn from the previous debate that there are positive and negative socio-cultural and environment impacts of international and domestic tourism on a destination. The negative socio-cultural impacts of domestic tourism are limited because there are no cultural differences between the guests and the hosts. Thus, domestic and international tourism requires considerable development planning to achieve successfully the positive economic, socio-cultural and environment tourism impacts.

3.7 Summary

The rapid growth in tourism, both domestically and internationally, has brought about an industry of vast proportions and diversity. Tourism can be studied as a system, a set of inter-related units or elements. The tourism system approach has advantages of taking a broader outlook instead of being myopic and isolated. It aims to examine, define and synthesise various angles from an overall perspective. Tourism has been defined from four viewpoints: economic, technical, holistic and experiential. Tourists can be classified into different typologies according to the tourists' motivation. Tourist classification is important when planning for tourism at the destination: excursionists would not make demands on accommodation but use other tourism facilities. There are three characteristics relevant to tourism services: seasonality, the interdependence of tourism products and the high fixed costs of operations.

The main causes of seasonality are climate, human decision factors (social, religious or cultural), social pressure or fashion, sporting seasons and inertia, or tradition. Four principal strategies can be used for managing seasonality: changing the product-mix, market diversification, differential pricing and encouraging/facilitating the state of staggering holidays.

There are positive and negative impacts on domestic and international tourism economically, politically, socio-culturally, environmentally and ecologically. Domestic and international tourism are major strengths to many of the world's countries, regions, cities and rural areas. The primary economic benefits of tourism are generally regarded as income, employment and balance of payments. The economic costs of domestic and international tourism include inflation and land value. In conclusion, domestic and international tourism results in a complex series of economic, politic, socio-culture and environment impacts on host societies. Assessing those negative and positive impacts on many countries is complicated by difficulties in measurement and lack of local control over the tourism industry. So, domestic and international tourism needs to be managed professionally to provide the economic, socio-cultural and environment benefits from it.

The development of domestic tourism industry in Saudi Arabia requires understanding tourism as a system. When viewed as a system, it can be readily seen that every tourism site, is in some way, related to, and dependent on every other site and programme. This means that no site can be planned independently. In order to influence the system, co-operation between the government and the private sector is required to provide for tourists' needs.

The economic benefits of developing domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia may be regarded as increasing income, a high level of employment and an improved balance of payments. Domestic tourist spending provides a direct injection of money into the regional economy producing an income for local people.

Tourism involves a wide variety of industrial sectors requiring large numbers of employees thus generating a relatively large number of jobs. If domestic tourism continues to be developed this means that jobs will be created for tour operators, travel agencies and other intermediaries who supply the tourist service in both the originating and destination areas within Saudi Arabia that will help absorb some unemployed citizens. Also, tourism generates primary or direct employment in such areas as restaurants and lodgings. Indirect employment can also be created in agriculture, manufacturing industries and construction.

The development of domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia may have a significant influence on the balance of payments. The current situation is that foreign tourism has negative effects on the balance of payments because Saudi citizens spend money in foreign countries and these expenditures become imports for Saudi Arabia. Sums of values of national exports and imports are used to calculate a nation's balance of payments. A plus balance results when exports exceed imports, thus increasing the Saudi gross national product. Consequently increasing incoming and domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia will contribute to reducing balance of payment deficits.

CHAPTER FOUR

SERVICES MARKETING

CHAPTER FOUR

SERVICES MARKETING

4.1 Introduction

Tourism is generally categorised as part of the service sector of an economy. It ranks beside finance, professional services, not-for-profit and retailing. Within the service sector tourism was, and is, important in terms of national income. Tourism, as a service offering, entails tourists' intimate participation with the organisation, its employees and other fellow tourists at various stages of the production and consumption process (Grönroos, 1982). Service industries are the source of economic leadership. Services lie at the centre of the economic activity of any culture and interconnect closely with all other divisions of the economy. Tourism promises a new resource of income for many nations which, if utilised successfully, can direct them to improved economic conditions. This is mainly relevant to developing countries, as the paradigm shift in tourism consumption throughout the world moves toward a culture, history and nature-seeking perspective (Kandampully, 1995).

One of the chief trends in a modern economy in the past two decades has been the dramatic growth of services. The field of services marketing is becoming more and more significant within the whole discipline of marketing. This chapter includes an overview of the field of services marketing management. Since marketing has the potential to be one of the key management tools for achieving sustainability in terms of tourism production and consumption it is necessary to preface the conceptualisation of services marketing. This chapter looks firstly at the distinctive aspects of services

marketing. Secondly, the marketing concepts for services are summarised. Finally, tourism marketing is reviewed.

4.2 Distinctive Aspects of Services

The thought that the service sector should be worthy of study in its own right is a comparatively contemporary phenomenon. This section covers the definition of services, the characteristics of services and the classification of services.

4.2.1 Definition of Services

The idea of services has been developed across a comprehensive range of literature over the past 25 years (Gabbott and Hogg, 1998). The American Marketing Association (1960, p.15) defined services as "*activities, benefits or satisfactions which are offered for sale, or are provided in connection with the sale of goods*". Stanton et al., (1994, p. 8) defined services as "*identifiable, intangible activities that are the main object of a transaction designed to provide want-satisfaction to consumers*". This definition discounts subsidiary services that assist the sale of goods or other services.

Kotler et al. (1996a, p. 11) defined services as "*any activity or benefit that one party can offer to another which is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything*". This definition focuses on the fact that a service, in itself, produces no tangible output although it might be instrumental in producing some tangible output.

Gonçalves's (1998, p. 1) definition for service sector business is "*one in which the perceived value of the offering to the buyer is determined more by the service*

rendered than the product offered". This definition includes businesses that have an intangible offering, such as health care and cleaning services. In addition, it includes businesses which offer both services and products, such as shopping services and restaurants.

Kasper et al. (1999, p. 13) defined services as "*originally intangible and relatively quickly perishable activities whose buying takes place in an interaction process aimed at creating consumer satisfaction but during this interactive consumption this does not always lead to material possession*".

While Lovelock et al. (1999, pp. 6-7) defined services from two approaches. The first approach is "*a service is an act or performance offered by one party to another. Although the process may be tied to a physical product, the performance is essentially intangible and does not normally result in ownership of any of the factors of production*". The second approach is "*services are economic activities, that create value and provide benefits for consumers at specific times and places, as a result of bringing about a desired change in - or on behalf of – the recipient of the service*".

Johns (1999) stated that service could be viewed from either a provider's or consumer's view. From the provider's point of view the service process includes elements of core delivery and interpersonal performance that are present to different extents in various service industries and processes and have to be managed in different approaches. The consumer's experience includes elements of core transaction and personal experience that are present in different proportions in various service outputs and encounters and contribute in different ways to each individual's experience.

McDonald et al.'s (2001, p. 340) definition is "*a service is an activity which has some element of intangibility associated with it. It involves some interaction with customers or property in their possession, and does not result in a transfer of ownership. A change of condition may occur and provision of the service may not be closely associated with a physical product.*"

4.3 Characteristics of Services

The definitions given above tend to show that services have a number of distinctive characteristics which make them different from physical goods and have implications for the manner in which they are marketed. Gonçalves (1998) used eight characteristics to differentiate products from services. These characteristics are:

- intangibility;
- inseparability of buyer and provider (simultaneity);
- lack of inventory;
- sensitivity to time;
- difficulty in measuring and controlling quality;
- high degree of risk/difficulty of experimentation;
- customisation of the offering;
- personalisation of buyer-provider relationship.

The more customarily settled characteristics of services are intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity, perishability and ownership. Table 4.1 shows these differences and associated marketing implications.

Table 4.1 Services Are Different

Goods	Services	Resulting implications
Tangible	Intangible	Services cannot be inventoried. Services cannot be patented. Services cannot be readily displayed or communicated. Pricing is difficult.
Standardised	Heterogeneous	Service delivery and consumer satisfaction depend on employee actions. Service quality depends on many uncontrollable factors. There is no sure knowledge that the service delivered matches what was planned and promoted.
Production separate from consumption	Simultaneous production and consumption	Consumers participate in and affect the transaction. Consumers affect each other. Employees affect the service outcome. Decentralisation may be essential. Mass production is difficult.
Nonperishable	Perishable	It is difficult to synchronize supply and demand with services. Services cannot be returned or resold.

Source: Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000, p. 12.

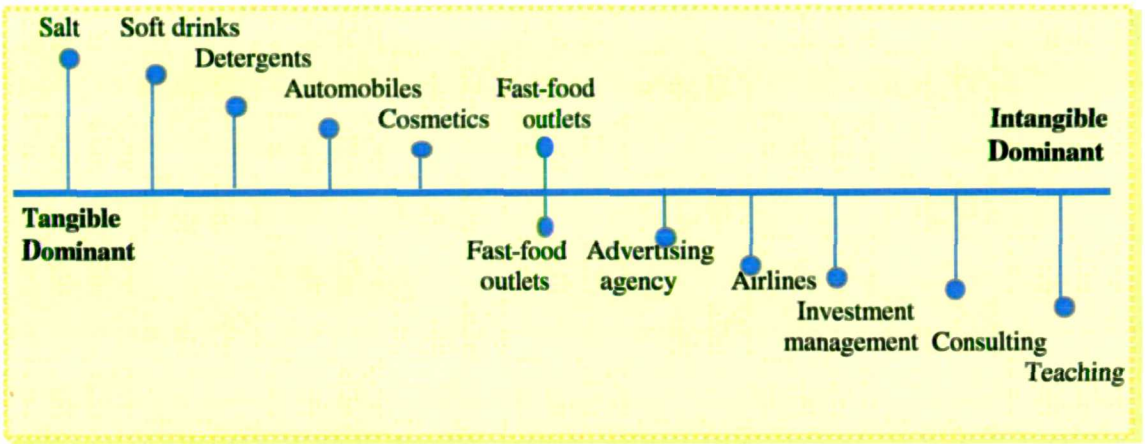
4.3.1 Intangibility

The broad definition of service implies that intangibility is a key determinant of whether an offering is, or is not, a service. Whilst this is true, it is also recognised that very few products are purely intangible or totally tangible. Services are likely to be more intangible than manufactured products and manufactured products are likely to be more tangible. Palmer (1998) mentioned that the level of tangibility present in the service offered derives from three major sources:

- tangible goods are those which are integrated in the service offer and consumed by the consumer
- the physical environment in which the service production/consumption process takes place
- tangible evidence of service performance.

Services are fundamentally intangible so the consumers cannot taste, see, hear, smell, or feel them before they buy them. The demarcation line between tangibility and intangibility is not always that simple to draw. As proposed by Shostack (1977), goods and services can be ranked along a spectrum, from tangible dominant to intangible dominant, as illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Dominance of Tangible Versus Intangible Elements



Source: Shostack, 1977, pp. 73-80.

Johns (1999) discussed the intangible characteristics of service and stated that much service output has a substantial tangible element, so the intangible feature is unclear because much service output has a substantial tangible element. For example, a restaurant provides food and drink. Haircutting is also a tangible entity.

According to Clemes et al. (2000), the service literature recognised several problems stemming from intangibility.

- *Communication*: intangible services cannot be readily exhibited or simply communicated to consumers.
- *Diffusion:* services, as performances or experiences, are often mentally difficult to understand and are slow to diffuse.

- *Protection:* intangibly dominant services are difficult to patent.
- *Cost calculation:* people-based services, which depend on consumer involvement, make costs difficult to calculate.
- *Price setting:* prices are difficult to set for people-based, heterogeneous services.

4.3.2 Inseparability

The production and consumption of tangible goods are two discrete activities. Companies usually produce goods on one central site and then transfer them to the location where consumers most want to purchase them. The manufacturer is able to make goods at a time which is suitable to itself, then make them available to consumers at times that are suitable to consumers. Production and consumption are said to be separable.

Conversely, the consumption of a service is said to be inseparable from its means of production. Producer and consumer should interact in order to create the service product by serving themselves (such as withdrawing money from an automated cash machine) or by cooperating with service personnel in settings, such as hospitals or colleges. The inter-reliance between producer and consumer during service delivery can lead to many varying and unstable conditions where there is potential for ambiguity, confusion and differing perceptions between operational and frontline staff. Thus, the implementation of service delivery can be problematic (Gilmore, 1997).

Clemes et al. (2000) stated four problems stemming from the characteristic of inseparability.

- *Consumer involvement in production*: as the consumer is involved in the production process they can affect the quality of the outcome.
- *Inter-client interaction*: consumers can influence the service experience in a positive or negative way.
- *Provider representation*: as the provider is heavily involved in the production process, the service provider is frequently seen as the service itself.
- *Mass production centralisation*: it is difficult to mass-produce a service because the service provider cannot be separated from the service itself.

4.3.3 Heterogeneity

Heterogeneity connects to the difficulty in accomplishing a standardised output in people-based performance (Clemes et al., 2000). As services are performances, commonly produced by humans, so no two services produced by a machine will be exactly similar. Since services are delivered by individuals to individuals each service encounter will be different by virtue of participants or time of performance. A service provider should attempt to find the optimum in controlling people and time with respect to these quality appraisals. The opportunity of heterogeneity in the final output of the service delivery process will still be large even in companies that attempt to standardise their service operations, provide manuals and train their employees.

Two marketing problems have been identified by Clemes et al. (2000) as stemming from heterogeneity characteristic.

- *Quality control*: it is hard to control quality in performances that depend on fallible people as the main inputs.
- *Promotion*: it is difficult to promote services as output is often variable.

4.3.4 Perishability

Perishability refers to the fact that, unlike physical goods, services cannot be stored, saved, resold or returned to meet future demands. A room in a hotel, a seat in a restaurant, an appointment at the dentist cannot be reclaimed or reused or resold at a later time. The perishability is frequently compounded by the fact that the demand for most services is characterised by distinct peaks and troughs.

Parasuraman et al. (1988) give evidence that the incapability to store inventory, and the difficulty of demand/supply synchronisation, are substantial problems for service marketers.

4.3.5 Ownership

The inability to own a service is related to the characteristics of intangibility and persishability. With the sale of goods the consumer usually obtains ownership of it. By contrast, in the services the consumer only has temporary access or use of it: what is owned is the benefit of service not the service itself. Service providers should make a special effort to reinforce their brand identity and affinity with the consumers because of the lack of ownership.

4.4 Classification of Services

Researchers have developed a variety of classification schemes that attempt to group services on the basis of common characteristics in an attempt to aid service marketers in developing marketing strategies (Bowen, 1990).

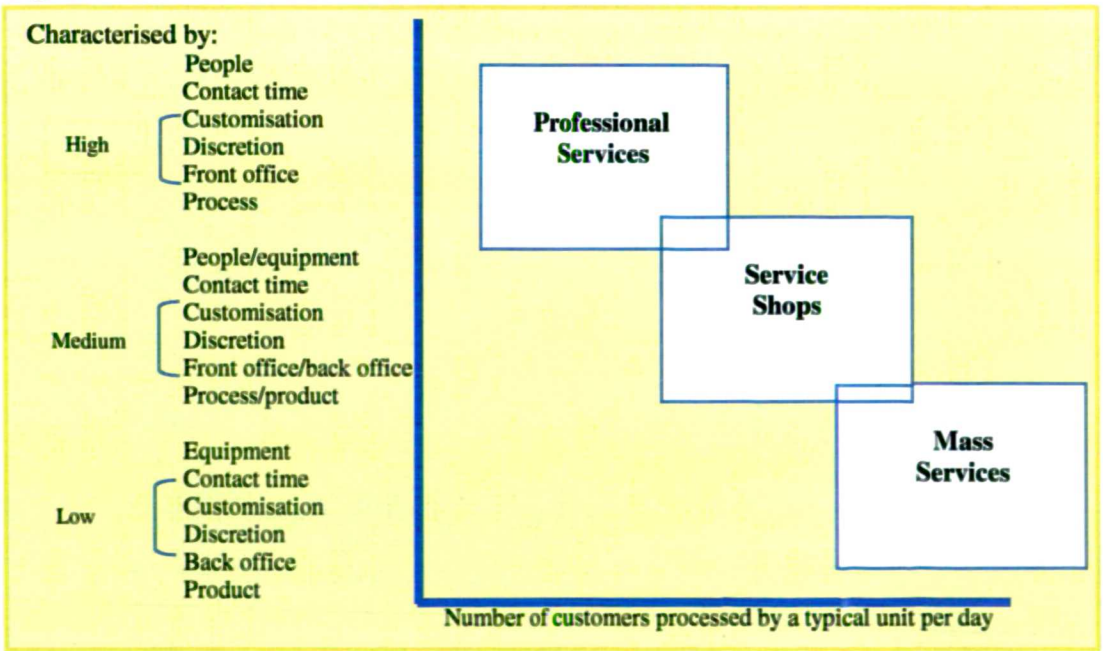
According to early work by Hunt (1976), although classification schemes have their limitations, they can offer important insights for both practitioners and researchers. Various proposals have been made for classifying services (Lovelock, 1983).

Bowen (1990) and Silvestro et al. (1992) have developed service classification schemes that use multiple characteristics as the foundation for classification. The multiple dimension approach permits analysis of a greater number of characteristics which may differ among service organisations (Bowen, 1990).

Silvestro et al. (1992) suggested three types of service processes: professional services, service shops and mass services, by using six dimensions: people versus equipment, level of customisation, extent of employer/consumer contact, level of employee discretion, value added in back office versus front office and product versus process focus.

Figure 4.2 illustrates the model of service processes suggested by Silvestro et al. (1992) that formulated the three types of service processes.

Figure 4.2 Model of Service Processes



Source: Silvestro et al., 1992, p. 73.

1. *Professional services:* organizations with relatively few transactions, highly customised, process-oriented, with comparatively long communication time, with most value added in the front office, where substantial judgement is applied in meeting consumer needs.

2. *Mass services:* organisations where there are many consumer transactions, involving limited communication time and little customisation. The offering is principally product-oriented with most value being added in the back office and little judgement applied by the front office staff.

3. *Service shops:* a classification that falls between professional and mass service with the levels of the categorisation dimensions falling between the other two extremes.

Lovelock et al. (1999) classified services according to those listed in Table 4.2.

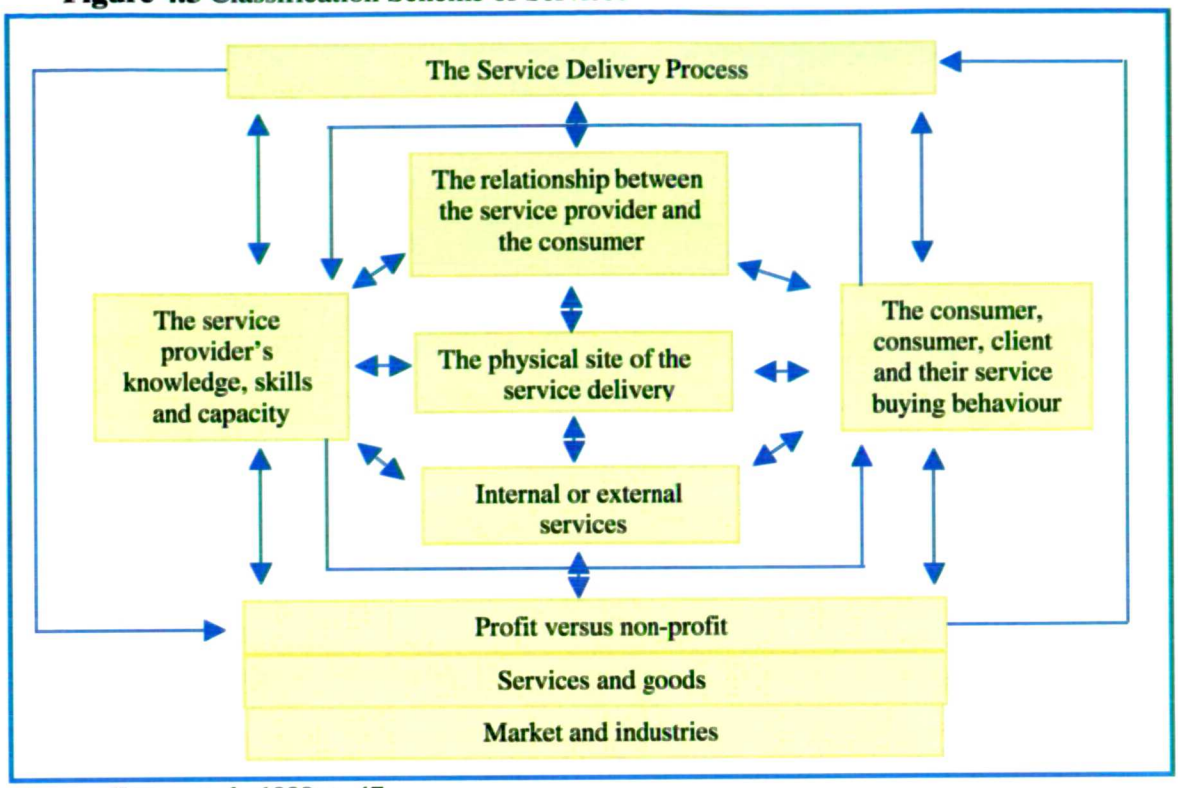
Table 4.2 Selected Ways of Classifying Services

- Degree of tangibility of service process.
- Who or what is the direct recipient of the service process?
- The place and time of service delivery.
- Customization versus standardization.
- Nature of the relationship with consumers.
- Extent to which demand and supply are in balance.
- Extent to which facilities, equipment and people are part of the service experience.

Source: Lovelock et al., 1999, p. 31.

Kasper et al. (1999) have defined nine categories of subjects useful in classifying services. Figure 4.3 puts them all together.

Figure 4.3 Classification Scheme of Services



Source: Kasper et al., 1999, p. 47.

The nine categories are labelled as:

1. services and goods;
2. profit versus non-profit;
3. markets and industries;
4. internal or external services;
5. the consumers and their service buying behaviour;
6. the relationship between the service provider and the consumer;
7. the service provider's knowledge, skills and capacity;
8. the service delivery process;
9. the physical site of the service delivery.

Further explanation of categories will create better understanding.

1. *Services and goods.* Services are different from goods in the sense that they are intangible. The difference between services and goods could be formulated in its most extreme form as the difference between intangibles and tangibles. The services/goods that fall between the two extremes are composed of varying mixtures of tangible and intangible attributes. Classifying these products as either services or goods might be misleading unless the classification is accompanied by a clear understanding on the part of the marketer about which attributes are decisive from the consumer perspective (Shostack 1977; Wright 1995).

2. *Profit versus not-for-profit.* Traditionally a distinction can be made between the profit and not-for-profit sectors. This is almost similar to the distinction between marketable and unmarketable services. Unmarketable services are provided by the government for the public benefit but no attempt is made to charge users of the services.

Services not-for-profit organisations, such as

- charitable and philanthropic, such as research foundation and welfare groups;
- cultural, such as museums;
- educational, such as universities, colleges and high schools;
- health care, such as hospitals, and health research organisations;
- political, such as political parties;
- social causes, such as organisations dealing with stopping smoking.

Services in profit organisations, such as

- business and other professional services, such as legal, management consulting;
- communication, such as telephone, computer;
- banking, insurance and other financial services, such as loan and credit services and business and personal insurance;

- housing, such as rental houses, apartments, hotels and motels;
- household operations, such as household repairs;
- medical and other health care, such as all medical services, nursing and hospitalisation;
- personal care, such as beauty care, dry cleaning and laundry;
- private education, such as nursery schools;
- retailing, such as department stores;
- recreation and entertainment, such as admission to all entertainment, recreation and amusement events.

Recently, some of the not-for-profit services are moving towards the profit area, such as museums.

3. *Producer versus consumer services.* Consumer services are offered for people who use the service for their own satisfaction or benefit. The service of a hairdresser can be defined as a consumer service. Producer services are those which are purchased by a business in order that it can produce something else of economic benefit.

4. *Internal and external services.* Internal marketing was first proposed as a method of service management which entailed the application of the traditional marketing concept and the associated marketing mix inner within an internal market, in which employees are treated as consumers of the organization to improve corporate efficiency by improving internal market relationships (Helman and Payne, 1992). Internal marketing is a tool that can be used to develop and motivate consumer consciousness among employees (Quester and Kelly, 1999).

Many authors agree that internal marketing should improve service quality (Grönroos 1985; Gummesson 1987; George 1990; Berry and Parasuraman 1991; Piercy 1995).

Rafiq and Ahmed (2000, p. 454) defined internal marketing as "*a planned effort using a marketing-like approach to overcome organizational resistance to change and align, motivate and inter-functionally co-ordinate and integrate employees towards the effective implementations of corporate and functional strategies in order to deliver consumer satisfaction through a process of creating motivated and consumer-orientation employees*".

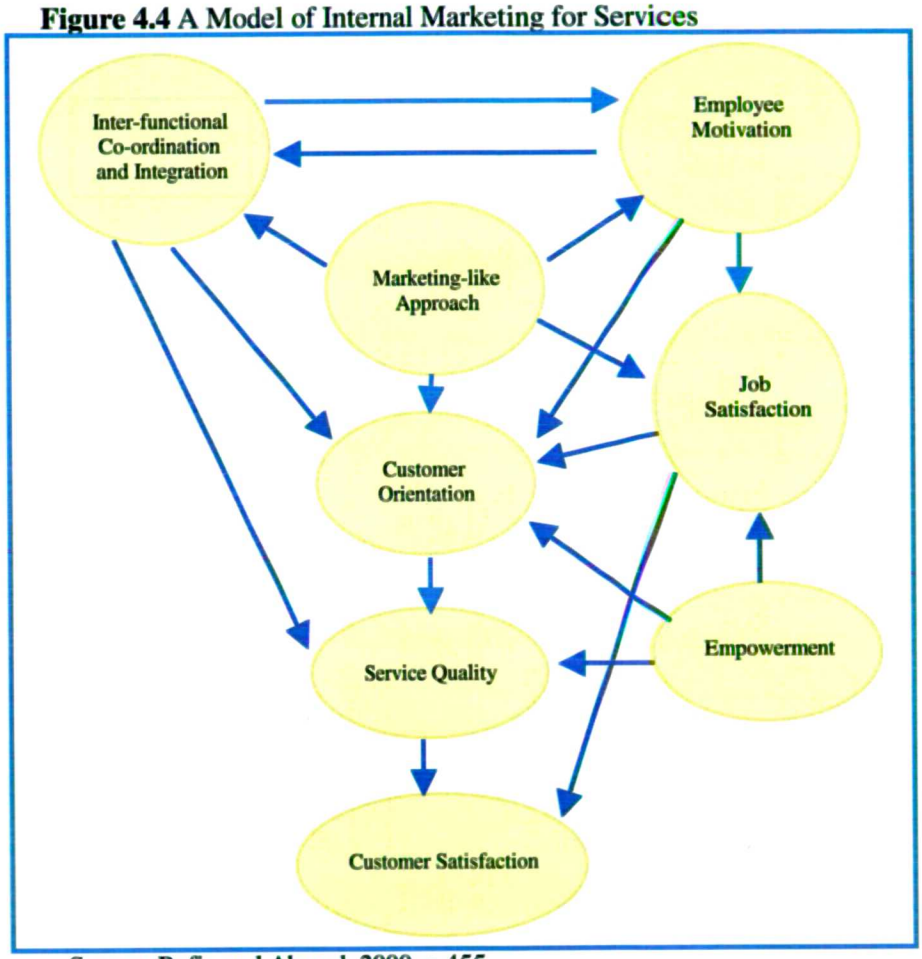
One way of looking at the functioning of organisations is to examine the cooperation between individuals and departments as if they were each other's consumers. Internal marketing has come to be associated with efforts to sell the message of an organisation to its internal audience, applying much the same technique as would be used in the organisation's relationships with external audiences.

Internal consumers' service is different from internal marketing, in that the former concentrates on how employees serve other employees, whilst the latter concentrates on how the company serves the employees (Berry 1981; Grönroos1985; George 1990). Internal consumer service is considered as a two-way exchange process between individuals in different functional departments of a firm in which the provider is charged with responding to the needs of his/her internal consumer, resulting in a satisfied internal exchange partner (Marshall et al., 1998).

For companies the distinction between internal and external services is closely related to the well known "make- or buy-decision". The services provided to the external market are subject to a "buy-decision" of the consumer while internal services are the result of a "make-decision" (Kasper et al., 1999).

Rafiq and Ahmed (2000) developed a model of internal marketing for services, as shown in Figure 4.4. At the centre of this model is consumer orientation which is achieved through a marketing-like approach to the motivation of employees and inter-functional co-ordination.

Figure 4.4 A Model of Internal Marketing for Services



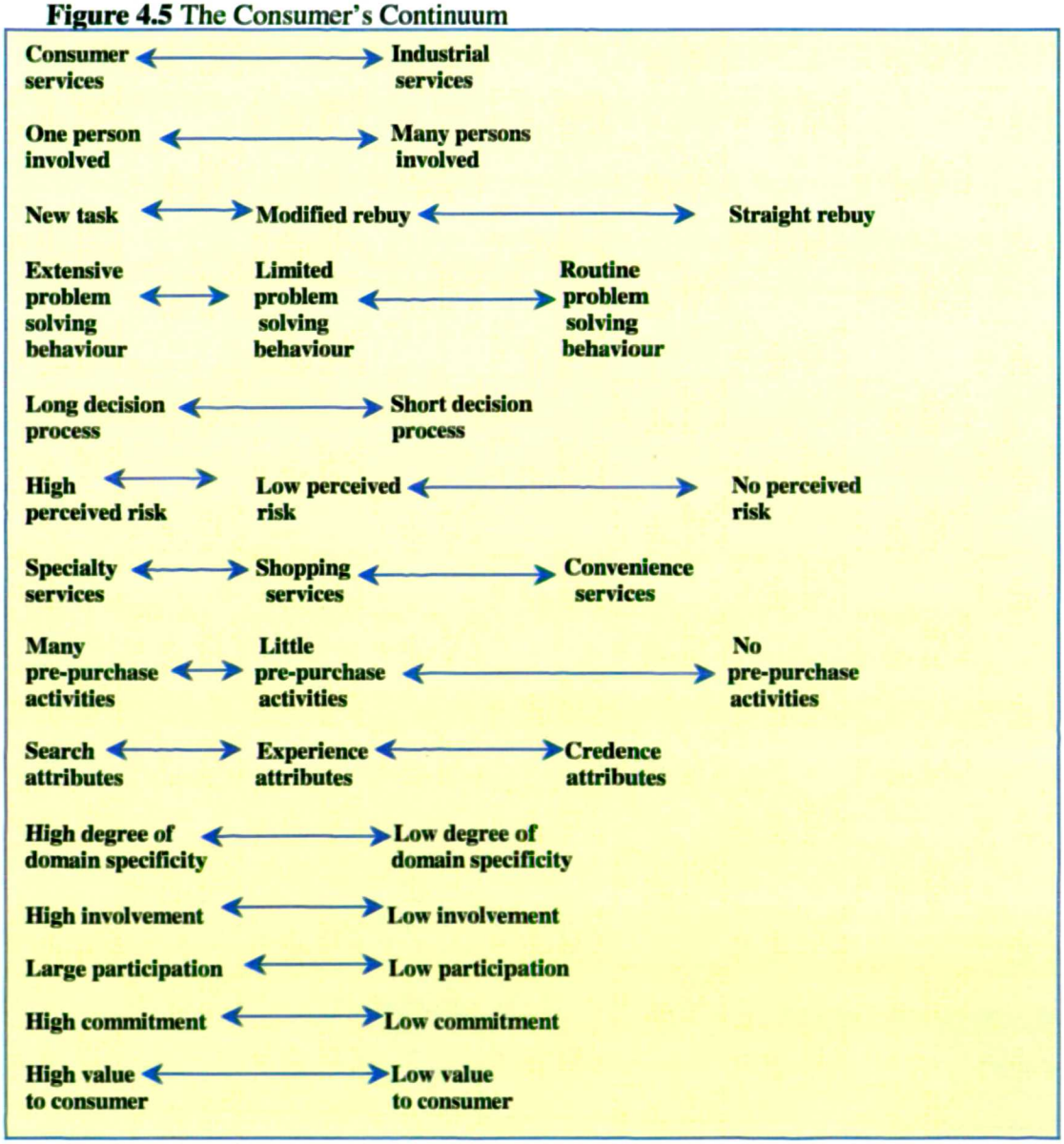
Source: Rafiq and Ahmed, 2000, p.455

Rafiq and Ahmed identified the main elements of internal marketing as:

- employee motivation and satisfaction;
- consumer orientation and consumer satisfaction;
- inter-functional co-ordination and integration;
- marketing-like approach to the above; and
- implementation of specific corporate or functional strategies.

5. *The consumers and their service buying behaviour.* The major difference to be made between consumers and other organisations indicates the difference between consumer services and industrial services. This reflects another classification called consumer or industrial markets. Both industrial consumers and individuals may have dissimilar needs and wants and may be seeking dissimilar benefits. Figure 4.5 illustrates the consumer's continuum.

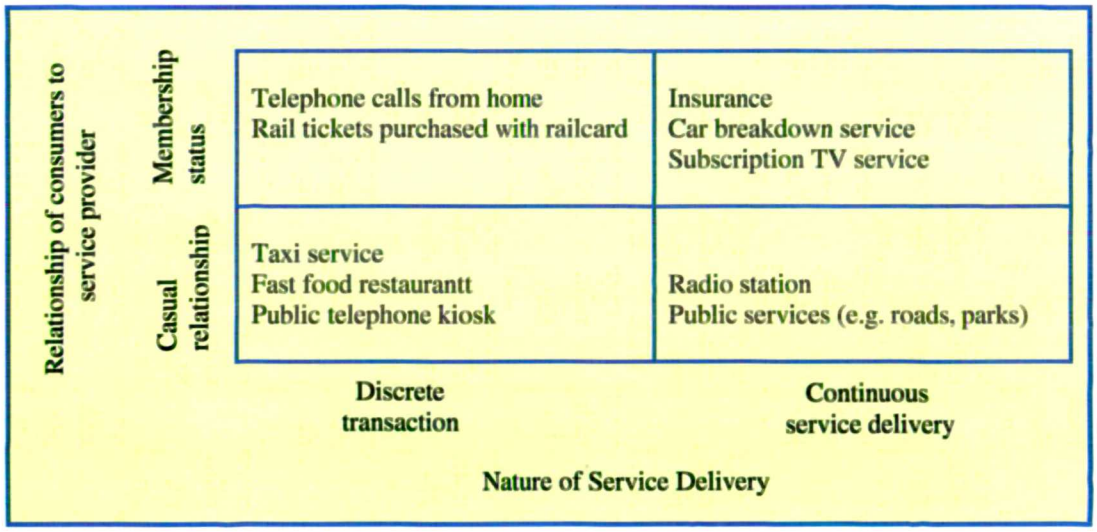
Figure 4.5 The Consumer's Continuum



Source: Kasper et al., 1999, p. 55.

6. *The relationship between the service provider and the consumer.* In Lovelock's (1996) classification he raised the question, does the service organisation enter into a membership relationship with its consumers or is there informal relationships? A number of services implicate a formal relationship in which each consumer is identified with the organisation and all transactions are individually recorded and attributed. But, in other services, unknown consumers undertake transitory transactions and then disappear from the organisation's sight. Figure 4.6 shows the service classification according to the nature of their provider.

Figure 4.6 The Nature of the Relationship Between Producer and Consumer



Source: Palmer, 1998, p. 23.

7. *The service provider's knowledge, skills and capacity.* An important subject that can be applied in classifying providers of services is the degree to which the organisation's service rendering activities rely on one specific person. Also, the degree of loyalty of the consumer to a specific member of the contact personnel is relevant and can vary from very high to very low.

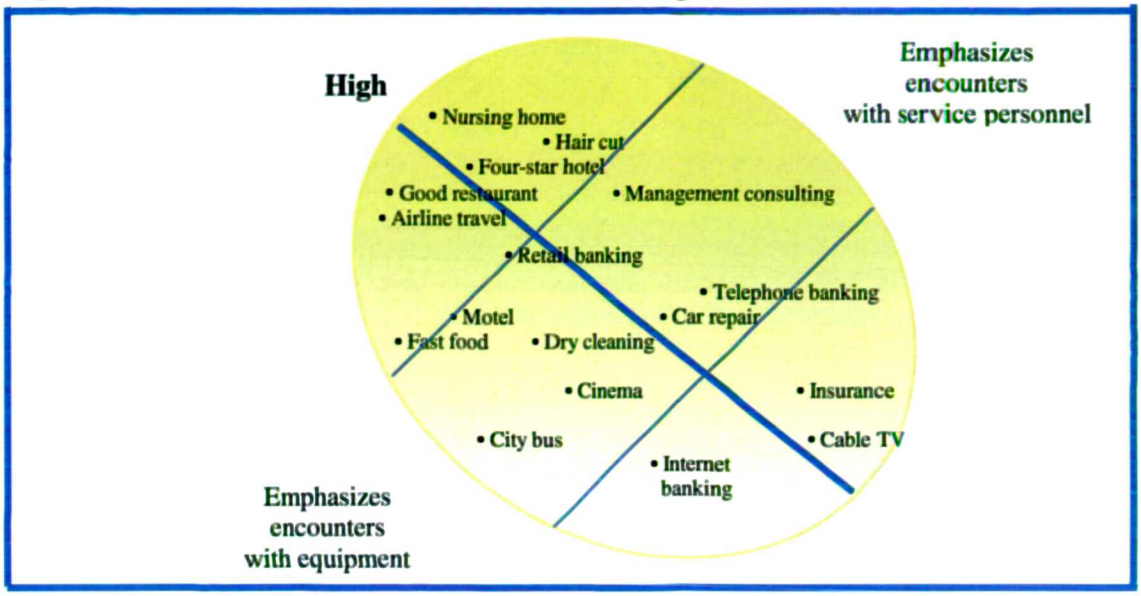
Some services could be characterized as knowledge-based, such as lawyers (professional service provider). This connection need not be based on knowledge or personal capability alone. Some service providers not only offer knowledge but also provide facilities to be used.

Some other issues can be raised in the classification of service providers. They deal with matching demand and supply and, thus, with the capacity of the service provider. The capacity of the service organisation has to do with the ability to react properly to temporal change in demand. Are these fluctuations in demand small or large, do they arise regularly or not, is the difference substantial, is it easy to cope with these fluctuations, or not?

8. *The service delivery process.* Most services are assessed as much by their production process as by their final outcome. Delivering services is a process not only with a front office and a back office but also involving interaction in actions, episodes and relationships. The interaction between the consumer and service deliverer occurs in the "service encounter". Shostack's (1985, p.243) service encounter is defined as "*a period of time during which consumers interact directly with a service*".

Kasper et al. (1999, p.63) describe service processes "*in terms of the presence of the consumer during this process*". Lovelock et al. (1999) grouped services into three levels of consumer contact, representing the extent of interaction with service personnel, physical service elements, or both, as shown in Figure 4.7.

Figure 4.7 Levels of Consumer Contact with Service Organisations



Source: Lovelock et al., 1999, p. 49.

High-contact services tend to be those in which consumers visit the service facility in person. Consumers are actively involved with the service organisation and its personnel throughout service delivery, such as medical services.

Medium-contact services require less involvement with service suppliers. They implicate circumstances in which consumers visit the service provider's facilities or are visited at home or a third-party location, such as a personal finance advisor.

Low-contact services involve very little physical contact between consumers and the service supplier. Instead, contact takes place through the medium of electronic or physical distribution channels.

9. *The physical site of the service delivery* is also labelled in terms of the physical distance or physical proximity of the service encounter. It deals with operational aspects with respect to the physical place where the service delivery process takes place.

4.5 Services Marketing

According to Gabbott and Hogg (1998), earlier research on the services marketing and management subject followed three different schools of thought regarding the relationship between goods and services marketing.

The first school of thought, presented by Lovelock in 1981, debates that service marketing is a special case and that most normal marketing is not applicable. Therefore, service marketing must develop its own theoretical methods, not in separation, but in parallel to goods marketing (Lovelock, 1981).

The second school reflects the belief that most marketing is situation particular and, thus, only limited generalisation is probable within common situational boundaries (Rushton and Carson, 1989).

The third school, and most convincing dispute, is that services marketing is an application of basic marketing, not a separate discipline in its own right. This implies that there are concepts and techniques that could be applied regardless of product type, but there are a number of distinct product characteristics which require that these concepts be modified or adapted (Rust and Oliver, 1994).

According to Lovelock (1996), a better understanding of service marketing has not only led to greater marketing sophistication in traditional service industries but, also, has an important influence on the management practices of service-driven manufacturing firms. This section discusses the marketing concept of services, understanding the service consumer behaviour, services marketing triangle, market segmentation and services marketing mix.

4.5.1 Marketing Concept for Services

Marketing, in its widest sense, relates to an exchange process and classic definitions consistently focus on this prime belief of exposition. Consider three different ways to determine a definition.

Firstly, some writers stress the supplier or management system rather than the consumer. As Middleton (1990, p. 13) explained, marketing "*is a process of achieving voluntary exchange between two individual parties*:

1. *consumers who buy or use products*
2. *producer organisations who supply and sell them*".

Dibb's et al., (1991, p. 5) definition is "*marketing consists of individual organisational activities that facilitate and expedite satisfying exchange relationships in a dynamic environment through the creation, distribution, promotion and pricing of goods, services and ideas*".

Secondly, the American Marketing Association's definition of marketing is "*the process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion and distribution of ideas, goods and services to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organisation goals*" (Bennett, 1996, p. 166).

Thirdly, some authors, such as Drucker, (1955), Levitt (1986) and Kotler et al. (1996a), emphasized the importance of consumer orientation. Kotler et al., (1996a, p. 23) defined marketing as "*a social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging products and value with others*".

The marketing orientation concept is a cornerstone of the marketing discipline, very little concentration has been given to its implementation. The marketing concept is basically a business philosophy, an ideal or a policy statement (Barksdale and Darden 1971; McNamara 1972).

The business philosophy can be contrasted with its implementation reflected in the activities and behaviours of an organization. In keeping with tradition (McCarthy and Perreault 1984), the researchers use the term 'market orientation' to mean the implementation of the marketing concept (e.g. Kohli and Jawarksi 1990; Narver and Slater 1990; Brassington and Pettitt 2000). Therefore, a market-oriented organization is one whose actions are consistent with the marketing concept.

Narver and Slater (1990, p. 20) defined market orientation as "*the organization-wide generation of market intelligence pertaining to current and future needs of consumers, dissemination of intelligence horizontally and vertically within the organization, and organization-wide action responsiveness to market intelligence*". Market orientation has been defined by Kasper et al. (1999, p. 24) as "*the degree to which an organisation in all its thinking and acting (internally as well as externally) is guided by and committed to the factors determining the market behaviour of the organisation itself and its consumers. The right internal and external actions, then, will create the benefits and value for the organisation and their consumer*".

Earlier, Narver and Slater (1990), in one of the most comprehensive studies, suggested that market orientation comprises three behavioural components: consumer

orientation, competitor orientation and inter functional co-ordination, and two decision criteria: long-term focus and profitability.

- Consumer orientation indicates that an organisation has an adequate understanding of its target purchasers which allows it to provide for the consumer's needs. This comes about through increasing the benefits to the purchaser in relation to the buyer's costs or by decreasing the buyer's costs in relation to the purchaser's benefits. Consumer orientation means that the organisation understands value to the consumer, not only as it is today but, also, as it will change over time.
- Competitor orientation is defined as an organisation's understanding of the short-term strengths and weaknesses and long-term capabilities and strategies of potential competitors.
- Inter-functional orientation refers to the approach in which an organisation utilises its resources in creating superior value for target consumers. This means that the organisation draws upon, and integrates, its human and physical resources efficiently and adapts them to meet the consumer's needs and wants.

4.5.2 Understanding Service Consumer Behaviour

The main objective of service producers and marketers is identical to that of all marketers: to develop and provide offerings that satisfy consumer needs and expectations, thus ensuring their economic endurance. Further explanation will be presented in section 5.9.

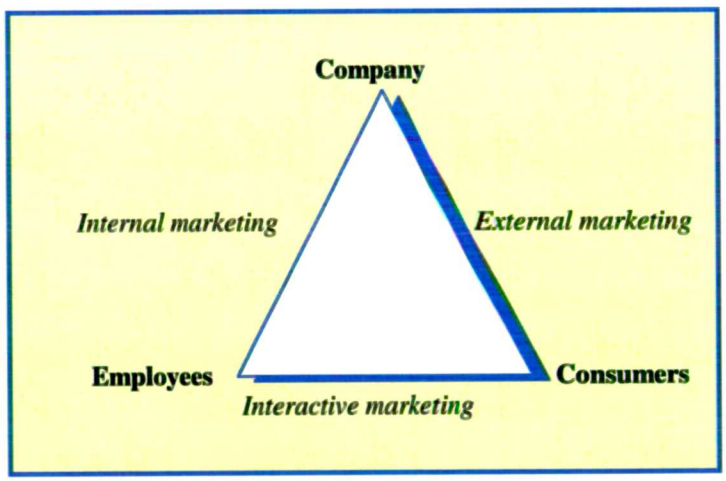
4.5.3 The Services Marketing Triangle

The triangle suggests that there are three kinds of marketing that must be successfully carried out for a service organization to be successful and that all of them revolve

around making and keeping promises to consumers. Figure 4.8 shows the marketing services triangle.

External marketing efforts which the firm engages in to set up its consumers' expectation and make promises to consumers considering what is to be delivered are shown on the right of the triangle. Anything that communicates to the consumer before service delivery can be considered an element of this external marketing function.

Figure 4.8 The Marketing Services Triangle



Source: Kotler, 1999, p. 655.

Interactive marketing is shown on the bottom of the triangle. It means that perceived service quality depends on the quality of the employees' and consumers' interaction. Internal marketing applies to the activities the organisation must perform to train, motivate and reward its employees (Zeithaml and Bitner, 1996). In the triangle all three sides are crucial to successful service marketing and management. Without one of the three sides the total marketing effort cannot be supported.

4.5.4 Market Segmentation

Service marketers try to offer different services to different groups of people. To do this efficiently they need to operate market segmentation and targeting. Market segmentation has become one of the most significant features in marketing, whether on the academic or practical level. Haley (1968) and Wind (1973) proposed the segmentation of markets on the basis of benefits sought by identifiable groups of consumers. Thus, it is essential to understand the main dimensions of this concept. Market segmentation is the subdividing of the heterogeneous market into homogeneous segments (White 1992; Kara and Kaynak 1997) and choosing the most suitable segment(s), i.e. target segment(s), for the organisation to serve (Cahill, 1997).

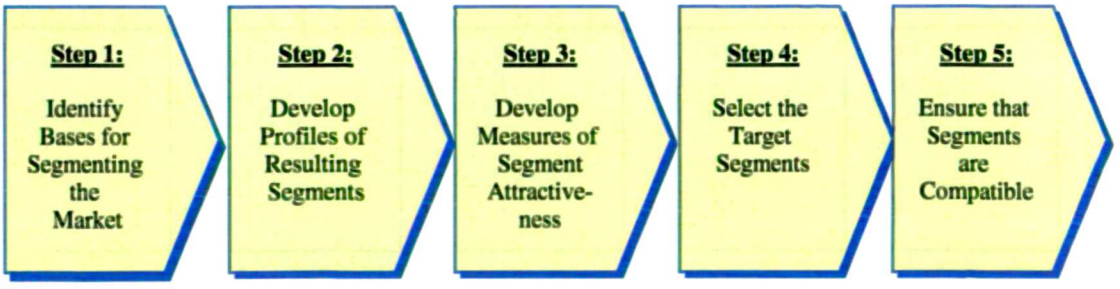
This concept is based on the following assumptions.

- People are dissimilar and do things for different reasons (Plummer, 1974). They differ in their consumption behaviour or buying preferences for services (Lovelock, 1996). Therefore, markters needs to identify the differences and group people in such a approach to get a better understanding of them (El-Adly, 1997).
- The dissimilarities in buying preferences are not totally unique, i.e. the members of a subgroup of the population are more probable to be alike, while actually differing from members of other subgroups or segments (Stanley et al., 1987).
- Preference differences or heterogeneity for goods/services can be linked to situational variables (example buying for oneself versus a gift for someone else) and their interactions or personal variables (such as demographic characteristics, psychographic characteristics, attitudes) (Green and Krieger, 1991).
- In each segment there is a high possibility that its members will respond to the marketing strategy in the same way (O'Shaughnessy, 1995).

- The concept is based on the belief that one product can only rarely meet the needs and wants of all consumers (Kotler et al. 1996b). Thus, a tourism organisations should know the needs and wants of different segments to be satisfied.

Many aspects of segmentation and targeting for services are the same as those for manufactured goods, but there are distinctions; Zeithaml and Bitner (1996) identified two distinctions. The most powerful distinction implicates the need for compatibility in the market segment. As other consumers are typically present when a service is delivered, service providers should identify the need to decide compatible segments or to make sure that incompatible segments do not receive a service at an identical time. The other distinction between goods and services is that service providers have a far greater capability to customise service offering than manufacturing companies.
There are several steps involved in segmenting and targeting services, as illustrated in Figure 4.9.

Figure 4.9 Steps in Market Segmentation and Targeting for Services.



Source: Zeithaml and Bitner, 1996, p. 183.

Step1 Identify bases for segmenting the market. A segment is composed of a group of present and potential consumers who share common characteristic needs, purchasing

behaviour or consumption patterns which are somehow meaningful to the design, delivery, pricing or promoting of the service. Common segmentation bases for consumer markets are demographic segmentation, geographic segmentation, psychographic segmentation, behavioural segmentation and life style. Segments might be identified on the basis of one of these characteristics or a combination (multi-segment approach) of them.

Demographic segmentation comprises dividing the market into groups based on variables, such as age, gender, family size, family life cycle, occupation, education, income, nationality and race. According to Kotler (1999) demographic factors are the most popular basis for segmentation of consumer groups.

In geographic segmentation variables include nations, countries and regions, whilst psychographic segmentation divides consumers into groups based on social class, lifestyle or personality features. People in the same demographic group could have very dissimilar psychographic make-ups, while behavioural segmentation divides consumers into groups based on their knowledge, attitudes, uses or response to services. Kotler (1999) mentioned that many marketers believe that behaviour variables are the best basis for building market segments.

Recently, date of birth has been proposed as a means of gaining psychological insights from demographic data that is interpreted through an astrology framework (Mitchell, 1995) and recent empirical evidence suggests that date of birth can influence purchase behaviour (Mitchell and Haggett, 1997).

Step 2 Develop profiles of resulting segments. After identifying the segments it is critical to develop profiles of them. In consumer markets these profiles generally entail demographic characterisations or psychographic or usage segments. The most important part of this stage obviously signifies whether the segments differ from each other in terms of their profiles. If they are not different from others then the benefits that are determined from segmentation will not be realised.

Step 3 Develop measures of segment attractiveness. Segments should be evaluated in terms of their attractiveness that comprise current and potential competitors, substitute products and services, relative power of buyers and relative power of suppliers. The size and buying power of the segment should be measurable so that the firm could decide if the segments are worth the investment in marketing and link costs associated with the group.

Step 4 Select the target segments. In this step the service firm should make a decision if the segment is large enough and moving towards growth. Also, market size will be estimated and demand forecast completed to decide whether the segment gives strong potential.

Step 5 Ensure that target segments are compatible. This step is arguably more critical for service companies than for goods companies. Because services are often performed in the presence of the consumer, the services marketers must be sure that the consumers are compatible with each other.

4.5.5 Services Marketing Mix

The marketing mix is a collection of tools available to an organisation to form the nature of its offer to consumers. Marketing mix is defined by Kotler (1984a, p. 68) as "*the mixture of controllable marketing variables that the firm uses to pursue the sought level of sales in target market*". Zeithaml and Bitner (1996, p. 23) defined the marketing mix as "*the elements an organisation controls that can be used to satisfy or communicate with consumers*".

There is a rising agreement in the services marketing literature that services marketing is different from physical goods marketing because of the nature of services. That is, because of their inherent intangibility, perishability, heterogeneity and inseparability (Shostack 1977; Lovelock 1979; Berry 1984), services need a different type of marketing and a different marketing mix (Booms and Bitner 1981; Zeithaml and Bitner 1996). The original marketing mix, as developed by Borden (1964), it is argued, does not integrate the characteristics of services as it was derived from research on manufacturing companies (Shostack, 1977; Cowell 1984) and it is also argued that there is evidence that 4Ps formulation is insufficient for services marketing (Shostack 1977, 1979; Goldsmith, 1999).

Initially McCarthy (1964) offered the "*marketing mix*", often referred to as the '4 Ps', as a means of translating marketing planning into practice. The traditional marketing mix for goods is product, price, promotion and place. Robins (1991) offers an alternative mnemonic to the good marketing mix in the '4 Cs'. These are defined as consumers (who buy goods and/or services in the market place), competitors (who provide the choice of alternative sources of supply), capabilities and company (both of which refer to the organization which has the capability to satisfy consumer needs).

Booms and Bitner (1981) and Magrath (1986) suggested that the service business should consider adding three more Ps: personal, physical facilities and process management. These are the elements of services marketing mix.

- Product means the totality of goods and services that the firm offers to satisfy consumer needs. Services represent intangible products, including activities, benefits or satisfaction, that are not embodied in physical products, such as holidays and financial services. Quality becomes a key element defining a service product as the product mix, such as brand image, design and reliability.
- Price is the value that is placed on something. From the consumer's perspective, price symbolises the value they attach to whatever is being exchanged. Usually the marketer makes a promise to the potential consumer about what this product is and what the product can do for that consumer. The consumer is going to weigh up these promises in relation to the price and decide whether it is worth paying (Zeithaml, 1988).
- Place decisions refer to the ease of access which potential consumers have to a service. According to Cowell (1984), services are often supplied direct from the provider to the consumer since production and consumption are simultaneous. Direct supply allows the provider to control what is going on, to distinguish through personal service and to get direct feedback and communication from the consumer. Place is not just important for delivering the service, but also covers access to reservation and information systems.
- Promotion is the traditional mix which comprises various methods of communicating the benefits of a service to the potential consumers. The promotion of services frequently needs to place specific emphasis on increasing the apparent tangibility of a service.

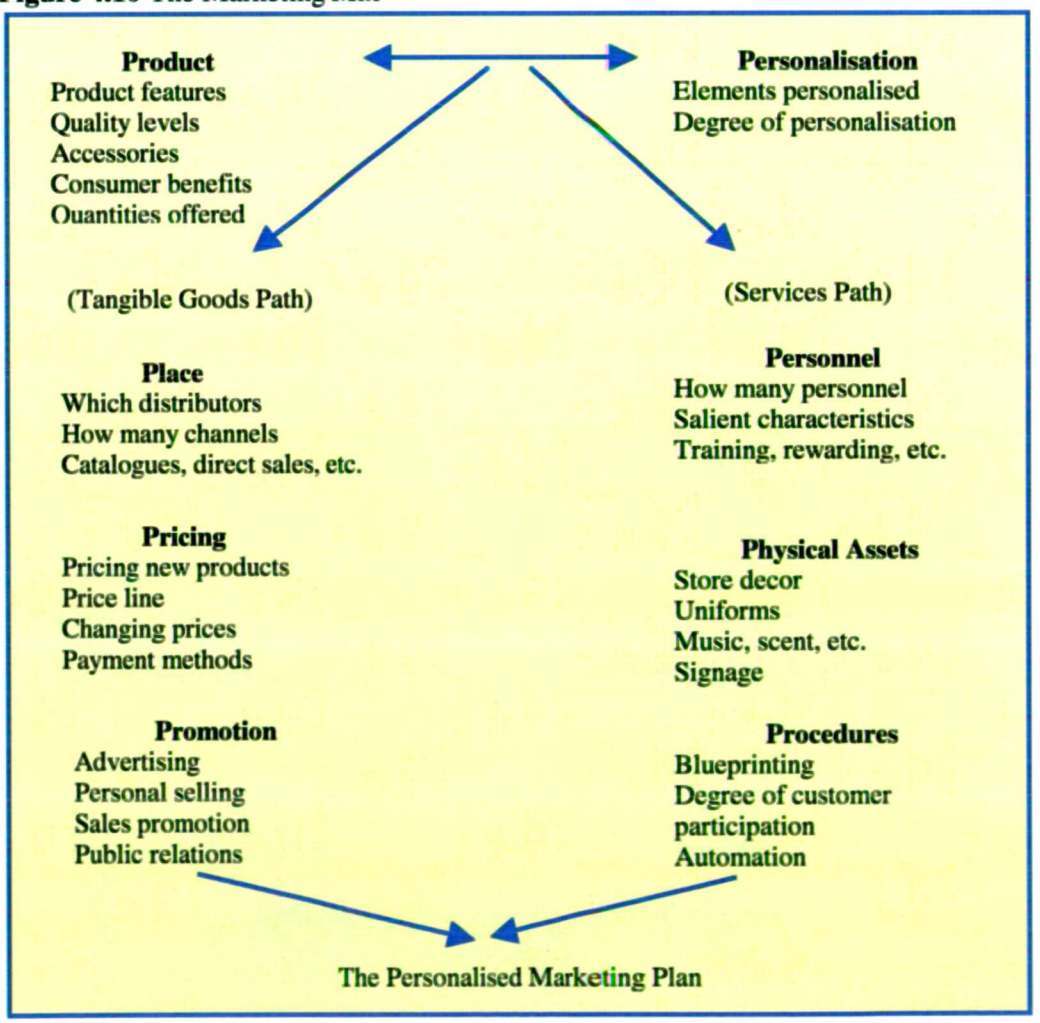
- People (personnel or participant) - services rely on people and interaction between people including the service provider's staff, the consumer and other consumers. In services there is a high level of contact between staff and consumers, so it is necessary that services organisations clearly specify what is expected from personnel in their interaction with consumers. The ability of staff to deal with consumers to deliver the service reliably to the specific standard requires methods of training, recruiting, motivating and rewarding staff.
- Physical evidence is the intangible nature of a service which indicates that potential consumers are incapable of judging a service before it is consumed which increases the riskiness inherent in a buy decision. A fundamental element of marketing planning is to decrease the level of risk by offering tangible evidence of the nature of the service. Shostack (1977) differentiates between essential evidence and peripheral evidence. Essential evidence is central to the service and is an important contributor to the consumer's buy decisions. Peripheral evidence is less central to the service delivery and is likely to contain items that the consumer can have to keep or utilize.
- A process assures service availability and consistent quality in the face of simultaneous consumption and production of the service offered. Without process management, balancing service demand with service supply is extremely difficult.

Recently, Goldsmith (1999) suggested a new presentation of the marketing management mix which he called the 8Ps. Goldsmith stated that personalisation should become a standard element of the marketing mix, consequently, forming the 8P paradigm, as shown in Figure 4.10., Goldsmith (1999) mentioned that, when

managers make the decisions and create strategies regarding product, price, promotion, and place, they should routinely consider the elements of

- the personnel involved in delivery of the product
- the physical assets that accompany and surround the product
- the procedures by which buyers acquire and use the product
- personalise the product, making it unique for each individual buyer.

Figure 4.10 The Marketing Mix



Source: Goldsmith, 1999, P. 180.

4.6 Tourism Marketing

Marketing's contribution to travel and tourism has been undervalued by both policy makers and practitioners, leading to a misunderstanding of the nature and value of marketing discipline for the travel and tourism industry (March, 1994). Marketing is an "*analytical orientation which involves knowing what questions need to be asked and answered to determine the business potential of a tourism enterprise in relation to: its past, present and predicted consumer; the business environment in which it exists; the social and social environment in which the business must operate*" (Seaton and Bennett, 2000, p. 6).

4.6.1 Definition of Tourism Marketing

Coltman (1989) defines tourism marketing in a holistic manner as a management tool. In his opinion "*tourism marketing is a management philosophy that, in the light of tourist demand, makes it possible through research, forecasting and selection to place tourism products on the market most in line with the organisation's purpose for greatest benefit*" (Coltman, 1989, p. 11).

Recently, from a social and environment aspect, Lumsdon (1997, p. 25) defined tourism marketing as "*the managerial process of anticipating and satisfying existing and potential visitor wants more effectively than competitive suppliers or destinations*". The management of interchange is prompted by profit, community gain, or both; either way, long-term accomplishment depends on a satisfactory interaction between consumer and supplier. In addition, it expresses ensuring environmental and societal needs and main consumer satisfaction. From the marketing

perspective tourism products can be designed and marketed as solutions to the consumers' needs.

Seaton and Bennett (2000) identified five essential features of tourism marketing:

- a philosophy of consumer orientation;
- analytical procedures and concepts;
- data-gathering techniques;
- organisational structure;
- strategic decision areas and planning function.

4.6.2 How Tourism Differs from Other Services

In section 4.3 the characteristics of services have been discussed. Service tourism manifests differences from other services. Seaton and Bennett (2000) recognise these differences in the following way, as shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Differences in Service Tourism from Other Services

• Tourism is more supply-led than other services.
• The tourism product is often a multiple one involving cooperation between several suppliers.
• Tourism is a complex, extended product experience with no predictable critical evaluation point.
• Tourism is a high-involvement, high-risk product to its consumers.
• Tourism is a product partly constituted by the dreams and fantasies of its consumers.
• Tourism is a fragile industry susceptible to external forces beyond the control of its suppliers.

Source: Seaton and Bennett, 2000, pp. 23-25.

- Tourism is more supply-led than other services. Classically, marketing begins with a bottom-up progression of planning that begins with a detailed investigation of the consumer, the market and the environment and, only then, does marketing planning start. Tourism tends to be supply-side more than demand-side led. While

products in other service divisions, such as finance and communications, might be designed after intensive research into consumer needs, tourism marketing is often a case of taking an existing place product and then determining who might be interested in buying it.

- The tourism product is often a multiple one involving cooperation between several suppliers. The supplier sectors, according to Middleton (1994), are the accommodation, attractions, transport, travel organiser's and destination organisation's sectors. Tourism is frequently a mixture product which needs the deliberate or non-deliberate cooperation of several different parties in providing the tourism product(s).
- Tourism is a complex, extended product experience with no predictable critical evaluation point. Tourism experiences could expand over numerous weeks and implicate long phases of pre-trip anticipation and post-trip retrospective reflection.
- Tourism is a high-involvement, high-risk product to its consumers. People's holiday decisions are very significant to them and they are fraught with a number of perceived risks. The degree of perceived risk involved in holiday decisions means that an important element of tourism marketing is about reassurance and security building.
- Tourism is a product partly constituted by the dreams and fantasies of its consumers. Tourism is regularly bound up with fantasies of self-realisation, personal transformation, exotic escape, romantic sublimation and other transcendental yearnings. Tourism organisers need to understand these types of motivations and mirror them in the dream content of their promotional endeavour.
- Tourism is a fragile industry susceptible to external forces beyond the control of its suppliers. All service organisations are influenced to some level by external

forces but tourism tends to do so more than any. A hurricane, a terrorist outbreak, Gulf war, or a sharp dip in the economy in a tourist-originating country can gravely destroy the tourism industry overnight. The consequence is that those tourism organisations must react quickly to crises in the form of product redesign, price reductions or promotional damage limitation to resist unexpected adverse trading circumstances.

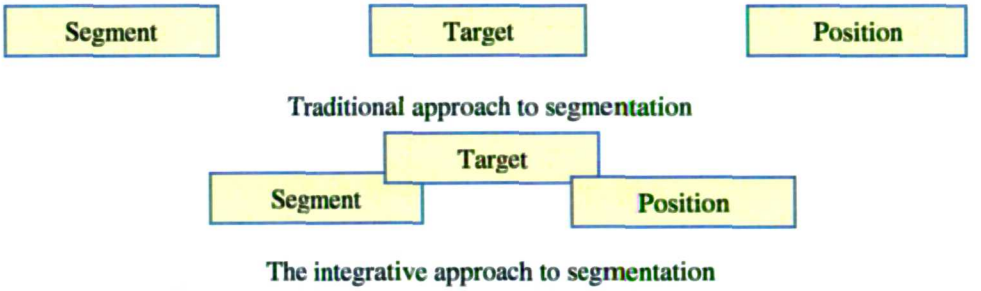
4.6.3 The Analysis of Tourism Demand: Market Segmentation

Tourism is a phenomenon of great significance and, also, a highly competitive industry. As a recent development of the tourism and marketing activity, matching the characteristics of tourists and the characteristics of destination or tourism products in terms of needs and wants of the tourists and their satisfactions have become important factors in the marketers' attention for analysing tourism demand, i.e. market segmentation. The powerful segmentation instrument can be increasingly capitalised on by targeting tourism marketing strategies of these segments where there is likely to be optimum correlation between tourist characteristics and tourism products benefits, Thus, a better understanding of market segmentation can lead to an effective marketing strategy in the competitive tourism industry.

Market segmentation should provide the link between corporate strategy, tourism market structure and tourists' behaviour to accomplish a unique competitive advantage. According to Kotler et al. (1999, p. 379), market segmentation can be defined as "*dividing a market into distinct groups of buyers with different needs, characteristics or behaviour, who might require separate products or marketing mixes*". The overall objective of using market segmentation is to improve competitive position and better serve the needs of consumers.

Kotler et al. (1999) recognise that segmentation involves a three-step process. The first step is market segmentation: dividing a market into different groups of buyers who may need separate products and or/ marketing mix. The second step is market targeting: assessing each segment's attractiveness and choosing one or more of the market segments. The third step is market positioning: developing a competitive positioning for the product and an appropriate marketing mix. Bowen (1998) mentioned that the segmentation process is no longer a sequential process but an integrative process. Figure 4.11 shows the traditional market segmentation versus the integrative approach.

Figure 4.11 The Traditional Market Segmentation Versus the Integrative Approach.



Source: Bowen, 1998, p. 294.

4.6.4 Kinds of Market Segmentation

There are several different ways of segmenting tourism markets (Holloway and Robinson 1995; Seaton and Bennett 2000). According to Morrison (1989, p. 145), tourism marketers should be aware of three types of segment approaches with the variables:

a. single-stage segmentation by which only one category of segmentation variable is used;
b. two-stage segmentation which uses a second category to subdivide the market after choosing the most important (primary) segmentation variable;

c. multi-stage segmentation where two or more categories are used after a primary segmentation variable.

Within the literature five broad generic kinds of market segmentation have been recognized (Horner and Swarbrooke, 1996):

1. demographic: age, sex, family size, family life cycle
2. socio-economic: income, occupation, education and class
3. geographical: countries, regions, travel distance, city size
4. psychographic: life style, personality, attitude, motivations
5. behaviouristic: purchase occasions, benefits sought, attitude to product, user status.

Earlier, Smith (1989) had grouped them into two broad categories:

1. segmentation based on trip descriptors;
2. segmentation based on tourist descriptors.

1. Trip descriptors

This category of segmentation divides the total tourism market into various kinds of trip. It concentrates not only on describing the person but the type of trip taken. According to Seaton and Bennett (2000), several tourism studies divide trips into three fundamental types.

a) Recreational/pleasure trips are the core of tourism and the travel industry. Pleasure travel is seen as either independently arranged or arranged through a travel agent and is likely to have a greater regional spread with more varied destinations. Recreational trips could be subdivided into a number of further descriptors that contain the following types:

- trip duration: day trip, long stay, short break;
- destination: domestic, international, local;
- package type: mass or specialist;
- how booked: through travel agent or direct;
- package cost: premium, cheap;
- timing: time of day, season, month, week, day;
- travelling distance;
- accommodation used: catering, hotel, bed and breakfast.

b) Business trips can be defined as "*including attending meetings and conferences, training and sales missions and general promotional and professional contact work*" (Gee and Fayos-Solá 1997, p. 139). The number of people taking business trips is smaller and the trips are generally shorter than recreational trips; the daily expenditure per head is higher. One of the important expansions in business travel is the increase of what might be called hybrid travel which it is defined as mixing various travel purposes in one trip.

c) Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) travellers, whose trips are focused on their wish to be with friends and relatives, are important because their visits will probably be repeated.

2. Tourist descriptors

The second type of segmentation concentrates on the tourists who seek particular benefits from their tourism purchase. Tourists, in general, have different personalities, expectations and motivational reasons for taking tourism activities. Murphy (1985) groups the tourist typologies into two general categories: a) inter-actional types which stress the manner between tourist characteristics and destination areas, b) cognitive-normative models accent the motivations and cause for travel. Table 4.4 illustrates the development of tourist typologies over time.

Table 4.4 Development of Tourist Typologies, over Time and Classified by Typology Precepts and Originating Organisation

Author	Classification	Produced by Academic Commercial Official organisation	Precepts of classification: Interactional Cognitive	Impacts on destination area
UN (1963)	• Visitors • Excursionists	O	I	Unclear due to ambiguity
Cohen (1972)	• Drifter • Explorer • Individual mass tourist • Organised mass tourist	A	I	- Little because of small numbers - Local facilities sufficient & contact with residents high - Growth commercialisation as numbers increase - Reduced local control, as development become more commercialised & internationally owned
Plog (1972)	• Allocentric • Mid-centric • Psychocentric	A & C	C	- Small in number – impacts low on culture and economic. But could be high on natural environment - Increased commercialisation as host visitor interaction increases - Westernisation of services & increased development, decrease in ownership by local community
Smith (1977)	• Explorers • Elite • Off-beat • Unusual • Incipient mass • Mass • Charter	A	I	- Easy to accommodate, due to small numbers & acceptance of local culture - Minor as willing to accept basic accommodation & service - Main base of stay needs to have full range of services, while short-stay destination can be basic - Impacts increasing as numbers increase - Little interaction with local people excepts foe commercial reasons - All local services are westernised, ownership by local people is often developed to foreign interest
Cohen (1979)	• Existential • Experimental • Experiential • Diversionary • Recreational	A	C	- Little impact on local life as the numbers are small - Assimilated well into community as numbers are still small - Beginnings of commercialisation of culture & social values as developments take place to show case local idiosyncrasies - Mass tourism development as tourists are seeking escape and relaxation. Increased leisure facilities, high environmental impacts - Major impacts on local environmental & life styles as fantasy pleasure environment is created

Pearce and Caltabiano (1983)	Tourists defined by needs which differ over time: ▪ Relaxation ▪ Stimulation ▪ Relationships ▪ Self-esteem and development ▪ Fulfilment	A	C	Similar to previous classifications developed by Cohen (1979) but level of impacts depend on whether tourists are inner or outer directed in the fulfilment of their needs
American Express (1989)	▪ Adventure ▪ Worriers ▪ Dreamers ▪ Economists ▪ Indulgers	C	C	- Independent travellers, affluent and better educated, limited impact - Older: less educated limited soico- cultural impact due to mainly domestic holidaymakers - Modest income, stick to main tourist areas, can be managed but larger number means increased impacts - Average income mainly go to established destinations high impacts - Generally stay in large internationally owned hotels and resort complexes, high environmental and socio-cultural impacts
Muller (1991)	Need driven tourists Outer directed tourists	A & C	C	Impacts similar to Pearce and Cohen (1979) classifications
Yiannakis & Gibson (1992)	▪ Sun lover ▪ Action seeker ▪ Anthropologist ▪ Archaeologist ▪ Organised mass tourist ▪ Thrill seekers ▪ Explorer ▪ Jet setter ▪ Seeker ▪ Independent mass tourist ▪ High class tourist ▪ Drifter ▪ Escapist ▪ Sport lover			- Socio-cultural impacts high environmental impacts confined to coastal development areas - High low socio-cultural impacts - Depredating on numbers low socio-cultural impacts, but as numbers increase so do levels of impacts - At first high environmental impacts, as developments are put in place to service numbers, overtime increasing socio-cultural impacts -High environmental impacts - Degree of impacts depends on number of visitors; - Low socio-cultural impacts as do not mix with host community - Low impact - High economic impact, low environmental impacts if development is established - Similar to American Express indulgers - low impact - low impact - high when facilities are at first

				developed
Krippendorf (1991) and Poon (1998)	• Old Tourists • New Tourists	A	I & C	- Impacts are high in terms of environmental and socio-cultural as tend to behave as mass tourists and want Westernised services and facilities, little understanding of local idiosyncrasies - Impacts tend to be lower, as tourists are better educated and more understanding of tourism's impacts, economic impacts tend to be high, while environmental and socio-cultural impacts are lower

Sources: Murphy (1985); Lowyck et al. (1990); Shaw and Williams (1994); Ryan (1997) and Rachel (1999).

The previous table demonstrates some of the ways that have been taken to develop tourist typologies. General conclusions can be drawn about the previous tourist typologies.

- These ways have been developed over the past thirty two years.
- It can be realised that the development in philosophy among researchers stemmed from the original research philosophy such as investigations into the interactive tourists' activities or cognitive demands of the tourists.
- Most of the research has been produced by the academic and commercial organisations.

Many of the typologies are based around recognising the significant traits of tourists and their demand as consumers. Cohen (1972) was the first sociologist to suggest different types of tourists based upon sociological theory. Cohen's starting point was to relate tourist behaviour to the tourism destination environment.

Smith (1977) developed a similar typology to Cohen's, by applying empirical research based upon the behaviour of tourists. Smith links kinds of tourists to their numbers, with implications about their influence on the host environment.

Yiannakis and Gibson (1992) developed the categorization of Cohen and Smith. They identified many types of tourists by using the three dimensional scaling analysis. Using these three dimensions they are able to make distinctions not made by prior researchers (Ryan, 1997).

In contrast, other research has concentrated on studying the motivation that causes tourists to travel which is termed as "cognitive-normative models". These approaches are often associated with work for commercial organisations and marketing categorization purposes.

Plog (1974) recognised a range of tourist types based on personality. This classification was created from a survey of the American population that sought to identify the influence of personality types on travel patterns. Plog's range included three distinct personality types (psychocentrics, midcentrics and allocentrics) which were each found to have different travel behaviours, preferring to travel to various destinations. The structure of Plog topology is valuable in that it enables the marketer to segment according to behavioural features. Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) used Maslow's hierarchy of needs as a framework to infer travel motivations from travellers' experience. He identified five tourists' needs (Table 4.4).

Pearce (1988) and Poon (1998) illustrate that tourists can be developed in type over time. The development in interpreting tourist typologies has many suggestions for the

marketing and tourism behaviour. It can be concluded (from Table 4.4) that tourist typologies are not static in their partisanship to a particular tourist group.

Determining the approaches of tourist typologies is vital to plan the tourism products consistent with the tourist patterns and newly rising situations. Consequently, tourism marketers must deal with the products with minor alterations while they could concentrate deeply on the greater alterations in marketing strategy.

Middleton (1990) used six main methods of dividing markets for segmentation:

1. purpose of travel
2. buyer needs, motivation and benefits sought
3. buyer or user characteristics
4. demographic, economic and geographic characteristics
5. psychographics characteristics
6. price.

Thus, traditional market segmentations are limited and a more integrated approach is more valuable. However, Gee and Fayos-Solá (1997) argued, that in the area of leisure travel, a significant and growing number of people, particularly those who travel frequently, now approach tourism with diverse expectations. Rather than simply going on sightseeing tours and relaxing at poolside, these tourists search for more meaningful or intense experiences. As tourism has grown and matured, it has become increasingly sophisticated and creative in the variety of products and services it offers. So, tourism suppliers are continually innovating methods to distinguish themselves from other suppliers and show up in the market. The following are special segments of the leisure tourism market.

Ecotourism

There is an agreement that, in ecotourism, the physical environment is the centre of the touristic activity. Ecotourism activities usually concentrate on giving access to remote, rare and/or spectacular natural settings. Tours that focus on wildlife viewing are another major form of ecotourism.

Cultural Tourism

Cultural tourism relates to a segment of the industry that places special stress on cultural attraction. These attractions are varied and comprise museums, performances and displays. So, tourists may travel to specific sites to see a famous museum.

Rural Tourism

The principal tourism-generating markets are highly developed and urbanized regions. Many of the residents of these regions want to escape from their modern urban and suburban environments and go to simpler, less developed regions.

Adventure Tourism

Several tourists wish to participate in activities that offer them a challenge, thrill or intense experience. Some of those tourists want to test their physical skills in novel or uncommon approaches with activities such as hiking, kayaking and climbing mountains. Some want to challenge nature without the modern facilities that make their lives safe and comfortable. Generally, adventure tourism relies on natural environmental features, such as rivers, forests and mountains.

Health Tourism

Health tourism relates to travel to facilities and destinations for getting health-care services or health connected benefits. Health tourism includes several different kinds of activities that have, in common, a stress on the health of the tourist. The three major types of health tourism are medical care, fitness and wellness, rehabilitation and recuperation.

New Age Tourism

An increasing number of tour operators are offering programmes that concentrate on metaphysics and spirituality planned for travellers in search of life's deeper meanings and hoping to get away from the excessive materialism of the world. New age tourism includes elements of cultural tourism, health tourism and ecotourism.

Educational Tourism

The term 'educational tourism' refers to travel in which learning occurs within a structured formal programme. A common and popular type of educational tourism is the "study abroad" programme, where students attend schools or programmes (generally for a semester or academic year) in a different place, frequently in a foreign country.

4.6.5 The Tourism Marketing Mix

Several tourism writers argue that, in tourism, there are more than 4Ps that have to be managed (Middleton 1990; Lumsdon 1997; Goeldner et al., 2000). Table 4.5 shows how Morrison (1989), Middleton (1990), Burke and Resnick (1991) have extended the marketing mix for tourism to 8Ps, 7Ps, 8Ps, respectively.

Both Morrison and Middleton include people as the fifth element of the marketing mix in recognition that tourism provision crucially depends upon personal service. Consumer- service is now a focal issue in tourism marketing.

Table 4.5 The Extended Marketing Mix for Tourism

Basic Mix	Morrison (1989)	Middleton (1990)	Burke and Resnick (1991)
Product	Product	Product	Product
Price	Price	Price	Price
Place	Place	Place	Process of delivery
Promotion	Promotion	Promotion	Promotion
	People	People	Physical environment
	Packaging	Physical evidence	Purchasing process
	Programming	Process	Packaging
	Partnership		Participation

Morrison's further Ps contain packaging and programming (the manner in which a number of products might be put together as a conceptual entity - an inclusive tour offer, for example- and arranged for the consumer into a programmed sequence of delivery) and partnership that draws attention to the truth that tourism marketing often implicates cooperation and collaboration between some organisations (such as airlines, hotels, travel agents, tourist boards). Middleton's further Ps includes physical evidence which comprises tangible characteristics of a tourism organisation (furnishings, colour, lighting, noise) and process that relates to interactions which occur in service provision (consumer involvement, procedures in service delivery).

4.7 Tourism Behaviour

Market segmentation is principally an attempt to categorize population into broad behavioural groupings, derived essentially from quantitative surveys. Tourism

research attempts to monitor the social, psychological and cultural bases for consumer behaviour through quantitative and qualitative research.

Calantone and Mazanec (1991) outline the value of consumer behaviour for the marketing management process in tourism. An understanding of consumer needs, attitudes and decision processes will allow the marketing manager to forecast behaviour in the future and, therefore, avoid over-optimism or underestimation of consumer demand. Chapter five focuses on consumer behaviour in more detail.

4.8 Summary

This chapter has discussed services marketing and tourism marketing since the current research studies tourist motivation in Saudi Arabia. Services are becoming an increasingly significant element of many economies. Services' fundamental characteristics are intangible, inseparable, heterogeneous, perishable and ownership. A variety of classification schemes in this chapter concentrate on different kinds of service processes. Some services need direct physical contact with consumers; others focus on contact with people's minds. Some entail processing of information; others the process of physical objects.

Because services are unique they are marketed differently than physical products. The main objective of service producers and marketers is identical to that of all marketers: to develop and provide offerings that satisfy consumer needs and expectations, thus ensuring their economic endurance.

Service marketers try to offer different services to different groups of people. To do this efficiently they need to operate market segmentation and targeting. Common segmentation bases for consumer markets are demographic segmentation, geographic segmentation, psychographic segmentation, behavioural segmentation and life style. Additionally, there are seven elements of the service marketing mix, rather than four. They are product, price, place, promotion as well as personal, physical facilities and process management that are added to the traditional marketing mix.

Different types of segmentation can be applied when segmenting the tourism market. Tourism marketers should evaluate various segmentation variables with their combination possibilities according to their segmentation strategies in order to reach the best segmentation prospects. Tourism marketing mix extended to 8Ps or 7Ps. Five differences distinguish service tourism from other services. Chapter five focuses on consumer behaviour in more detail.

Domestic tourism marketing in Saudi Arabia is still at a very low level. The increase in international competition requires, from domestic tourism marketers, more reliance on the use of marketing. Marketers in Saudi Arabia must understand tourist needs and then design tourism products that can be marketed as solutions to consumers' needs.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

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CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

5.1 Introduction

The study of consumer behaviour field is a cornerstone of the determination of marketing activity that is carried out to develop, promote and sell the tourism product. Marketers have identified the significance of understanding how and why consumers buy since, only by understanding how value is achieved, can goods and services be designed and offered in such a way to attract consumers (Sheth et al., 1999, Solomon, 1999). Therefore, it is important to develop an understanding of consumer behaviour concepts.

In the first part of this chapter the definition of consumer behaviour is discussed. The consumer research five perspectives: the cognitive perspective, the behavioural perspective, the trait perspective, the interpretive perspective and the postmodern perspective are summarised.

Decision making, which comprises the levels of decision making, individual consumer decision making processes, household consumer decision making and family decision making steps, is discussed. Also, understanding the service consumer behaviour and travel decision are summarised.

Then, the factors that influence traveller behaviour comprising cultural factors (subculture, social class), social factors (reference groups, family, roles and statue), personal factors (the consumer's age and life-cycle stage, occupation, economic circumstance lifestyle and personality and self-concept) and, finally, psychological

factors (perception, learning, belief and attitudes) are discussed.

5.2 Definition

The field of consumer research, developed as an extension of the field of marketing research, focuses almost exclusively on consumer behaviour rather than on other aspects of the marketing process. Wilkie (1994, p. 14) defines consumer behaviour as "*the mental, emotional and physical activities that people engage in when selecting, purchasing, using and disposing of products and services so as to satisfy needs and desires*".

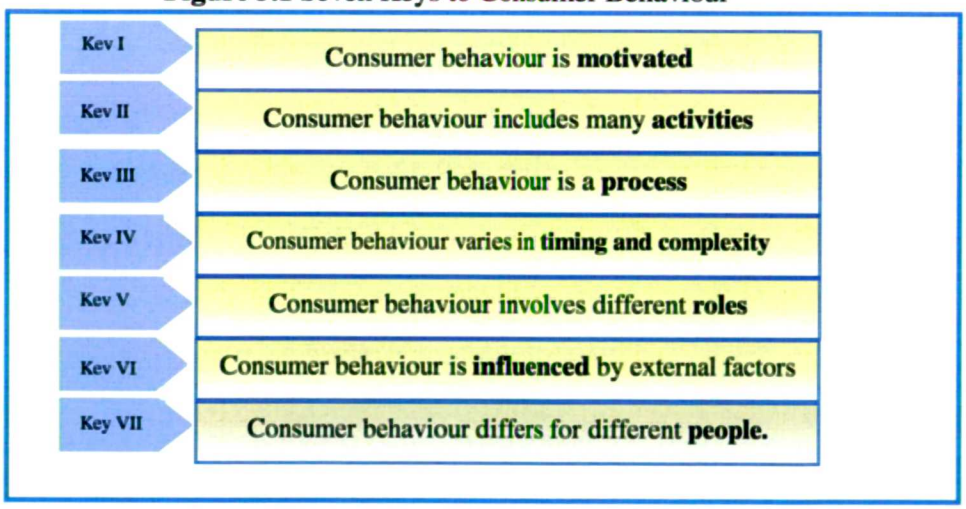
Engel et al. (1995, p, 4) define consumer behaviour as "*those activities directly involved in obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services, including the decision processes that precede and follow this action*". According to Gabbott and Hogg (1998, p. 10), "*consumer behaviour defines a wide range of activities and behaviours, the processes involved when individuals or group select, purchase, use or dispose of products, services, ideas or experience*". Peter et al, (1999, p. 7) define consumer behaviour as "*the dynamic interaction of affect and cognition, behaviour and environmental events by which human beings conduct the exchange aspects of their lives*". This definition mentioned three ideas: consumer behaviour is dynamic; it involves interaction between affect and cognition, behaviour and environmental events; it involves exchange. Most recently the definition of consumer behaviour, that added ideas and experience, by Solomon, (1999, p. 5) is "*the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use or dispose of products, services, ideas or experience to satisfy needs or desires*".

General conclusions can be drawn from previous consumer behaviour definitions.

- The consumer is a person or an organisation that plays a role in the consumption of goods or services.
- All definitions comprise mental and physical activities.
- Consumer behaviour is a process that involves exchange between two parties that involves a series of step.

However, Wilkie (1994), in his earlier work, relates the "*Seven Keys*" to consumer behaviour which explain and examine the most basic characteristics of consumer behaviour that outlines consumer behaviour definitions. Figure 5.1 reviews the "Seven Keys". The study of consumer behaviour is concerned not only with what consumers buy, but also with why they buy it, when and where and how they buy it, and how often they buy it.

Figure 5.1 Seven Keys to Consumer Behaviour



Source: Wilkie, 1994, p. 14.

Consumer behaviour, as a discipline, is based on concepts and theories about people that have been developed by social scientists in such diverse disciplines as psychology, sociology, anthropology and economics (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994).

Many different perspectives influence consumer behaviour. Certainly, it is difficult to think of a field which is more interdisciplinary (Solomon et al., 1999).

Figure 5.2 shows a number of disciplines in the field and various disciplines that contribute to consumer behaviour method research issues. At the micro level the focus is on the reaction of the individual consumer whilst, at the macro level, consumer behaviour involves study of the influence of the economic and social situation within society upon consumption.

Figure 5.2 The Pyramid of Consumer Behaviour



Source: Solomon et al., 1999, p. 22.

Mowen (1995) classifies consumer research in three research perspectives: the decision-making perspective, the experiential perspective and the behavioural influence perspective. On the other hand Marsden and Littler (1998) categorise consumer research in five perspectives; these are cognitive, behavioural, trait, interpretive and postmodern perspectives. Another method to categorise consumer research is in terms of the basic assumption that researchers make about what they are studying and how to study it. This method of thinking is identified as a paradigm

(Solomon et al., 1999). Accordingly, consumer research is categorised in two basic paradigms: positivism and interpretivism.

In this section the major theories that are connected with the five inclusive perspectives of consumer behaviour: cognitive, behavioural, trait, interpretive and postmodern perspectives are reviewed.

5.3 Cognitive Perspective

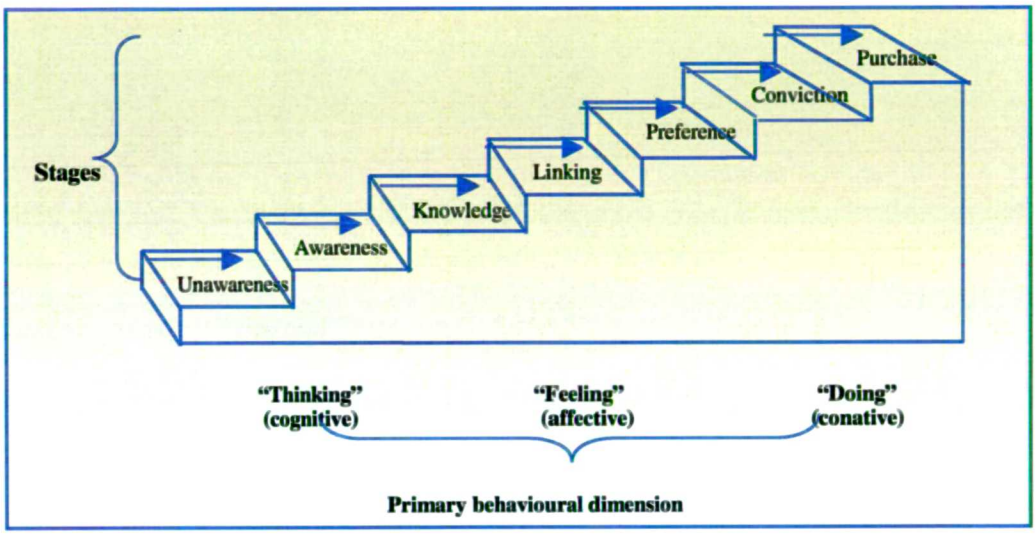
The cognitive approach is defined as "*an approach which explains human behaviour by intake, interpretation, storage and use of information from the environment*" (Peter et al., 1999, p. 501). The cognitive perspective emerged in psychology in the 1960s, on which the central paradigm for academic consumer research (Foxall, 1997) shapes the foundation of the different magnificent "*utopians*" (Marsden and Littler, 1998, p.6), the hierarchy of effect and information processing theories of consumer behaviour.

The literature of the hierarchy of effects deals with the way in which target audiences process and, ultimately, use advertising information to influence product and brand choices and is considered a top priority research area for contemporary marketing and advertising research (Schmalensee, 1983). The first published suggestion that a hierarchy of effects was operative in marketing communications emerged in 1898 and researchers and practitioners still contend the hierarchy notion today (Barry and Howard, 1990). Early work by Lavidge and Steiner (1961) believed the most often quoted hierarchy model to describe the steps consumers complete before they buy a product.

Lavidge and Steiner (1961) maintained that advertising was an instalment in a long-term process that transferred consumers over time via a diversity of stair-step stages. The aim of the model was to realise how consumers use advertising in their purchase processes.

The hierarchy of effects outlined seven stages which consumers use in the purchase process in a fixed order: unawareness, awareness, knowledge, liking, preference, conviction, and purchase. Figure 5.3 illustrates the hierarchy of effect model.

Figure 5.3 Diagrams the Hierarchy of Effect Model.



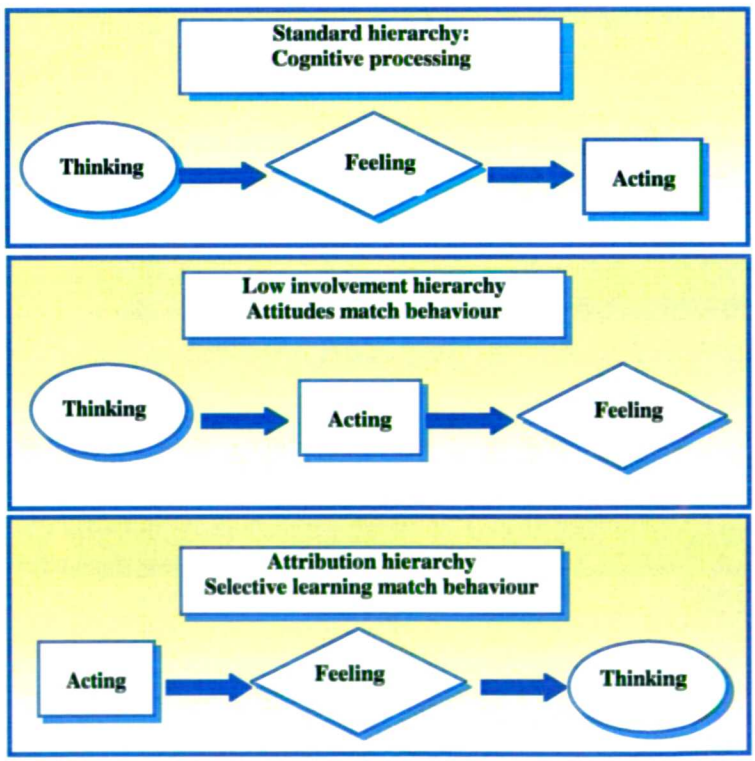
Source: Lavidge and Steiner, 1961, p. 60.

These steps can be grouped into three major dimensions. Firstly, the cognitive or thinking component which refers to rational elements involved with mental thought. Secondly, the affective or feeling component which refers to the emotional or feeling condition. Thirdly, the conative or action component which involves the tendency to action or behaviour on the consumer's part.

According to Lavidge and Steiner (1961), all consumers go through the steps in the same sequence, but the swiftness with which they achieve the stages may vary from one person to another. The model allows for individual differences in that various people can be at different stages.

The hierarchy of effects has been criticised by some researchers for the supposition that consumers move in a linear way from thinking to feeling to action (Barry and Howard, 1990; Wells and Prensky, 1996). There has been essential disagreement regarding the order of the three stages (Krugman 1966; Bem 1972; Kelley 1973; Zajonc, 1980a, 1980b, 1986). In response, researchers have developed another model of the consumer buying process that builds on the same stages but organises them in a different order, as illustrated in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4 Alternative Hierarchies of Effects



Source: Wells and Prensky, 1996, p. 434.

5.3.1 Models of Consumer Behaviour in Tourism

According to Hyde (2000), research on consumer behaviour in tourism has adopted a consumer as problem-solver perspective (cognitive perspective) and neglected the affective characteristics of consumer behaviour in tourism. This perspective considers people as problem solvers who actively use information from the world around them to master their environment. The cognitive perspective concentrates on information processing: how consumers mentally process, store, retrieve and use marketing information in the decision making process. From the cognitive perspective the study of consumer behaviour becomes the investigation of consumer information processing mechanisms.

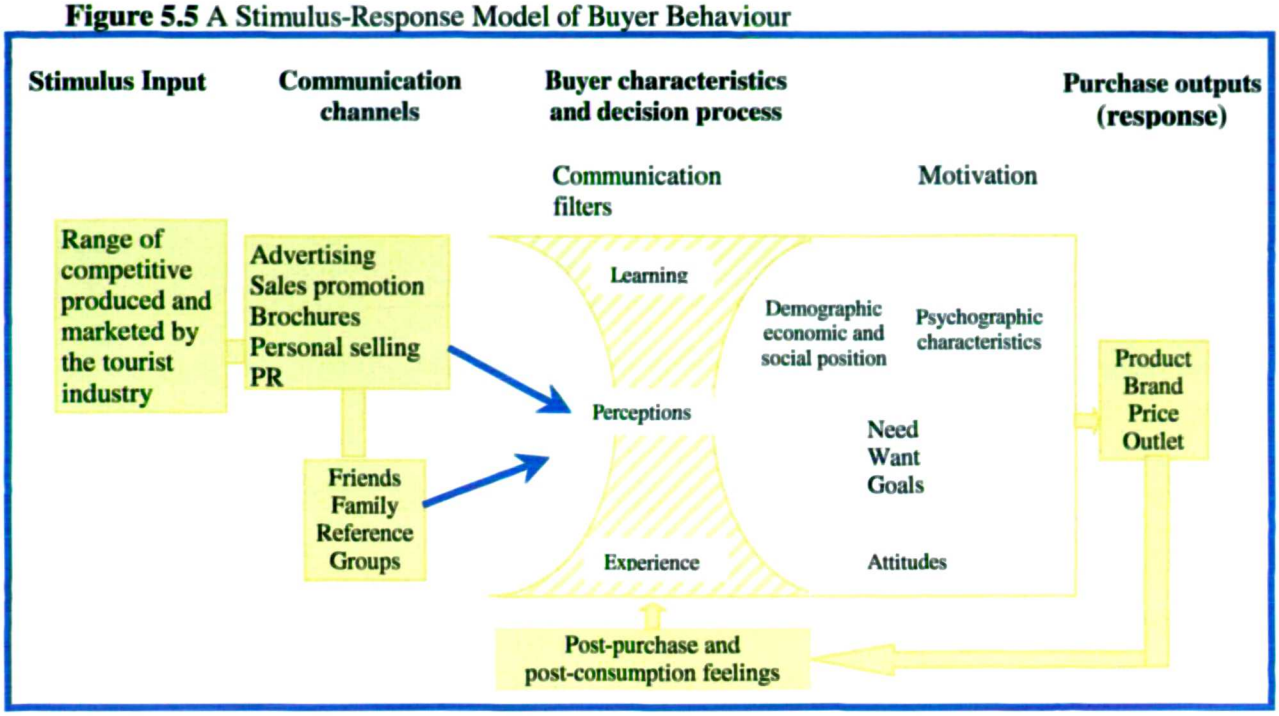
A number of models of consumer behaviour in tourism have been proposed. The models by Middleton (1994), Fodness and Murray (1999) and Moutinho (2000) have focused on the consumer's pre-holiday choice of tourism destination, while neglecting consumer behaviours which occur during the holiday.

a) The Middleton Buyer Behaviour Model for Travel and Tourism

Middleton (1994) presented a stimulus-response model of buyer behaviour of tourism which was adapted from the grand model of consumer behaviour. The model is shown in Figure 5.5. The model has four interactive components with the central components that are recognised as 'buyer characteristics and decision process'.

This model separates motivators and determinants in consumer buying behaviour and, in addition, stresses the valuable effects that an organisation can have on the consumer buying process by the use of the communication channel (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999).

Figure 5.5 A Stimulus-Response Model of Buyer Behaviour



Source: Middleton, 1994, p. 49.

b) The Fodness and Murray Tourist Information Model

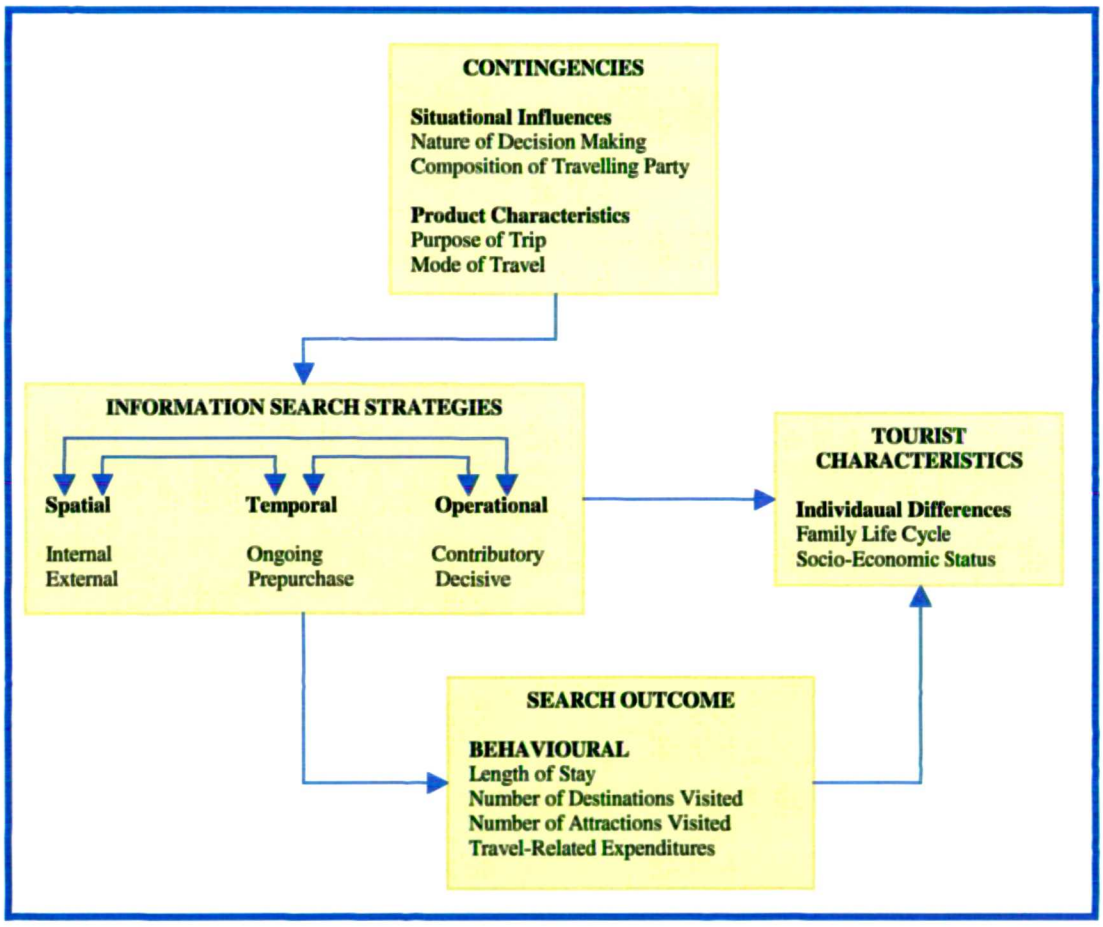
Fodness and Murray (1999) proposed a model of tourist information search strategy from the consumer and tourist information search literature. The model incorporated three forces driving individual tourists to develop a unique information search strategy: *contingencies, tourist characteristics and outcome of search.* Figure 5.6 illustrates a model of the tourist information search strategy process.

1. Information search strategies

According to Fodness and Murray (1998) there are at least three distinct strategies for information search in any given purchase situation: spatial, temporal and operational. The spatial dimension of information search strategy reflects the locus of search activity: internal (accessing the contents of memory) or external (acquiring information from the environment). The temporal dimension represents the timing of search activity. Search could be either ongoing, building up a knowledge base for

unspecified future purchase decision, or prepurchase, in response to a current purchase problem. The operational dimension reflects the conduct of search and focuses on particular sources used and their relative effectiveness of problem solving and decision making.

Figure 5.6 Model of the Tourist Information Search Strategy Process



Source: Fodness and Murray, 1999, p. 221.

2. *Information search strategies and contingencies*

The model suggests two general contingencies affecting choice of situation: spatial, temporal and operational search strategies that are situational influences, and product characteristics. According to Belk (1974), situational influences are defined as those

arising from factors that are particular to a specific time and place and that are relatively independent of consumer and product characteristics. Fodness and Murray mentioned that there is some conjecture but little hard evidence of the situational variables on information search. Two exceptions are the type of purchase decision making and the composition of the travelling party.

The nature of decision making and selection of information search strategy varies as a function of decision making involving routine, limited or extended problem solving.

Firstly, for routine problem solving, strategies will tend to emphasise ongoing rather than prepurchase sources, internal rather than external sources and decisive rather than contributory sources.

Secondly, for limited problem solving, strategies will reflect a greater use of prepurchase than ongoing sources and both internal decisive and external contributory sources.

Thirdly, in extended problem solving, strategies will be prepurchased and characterised by a number of contributory sources used to supplement external, decisive sources.

The selection of information search strategy will differ as a function of the travelling party composition: families travelling with children, a younger couple travelling without children and retired couples travelling without children. For families travelling with children search strategies will tend to stress prepurchase rather than ongoing sources, external rather than internal sources and a mixture of both decisive and numerous contributory sources. For younger couples travelling without children in travelling parties strategies will reflect a greater use of prepurchase rather than

ongoing sources and decisive rather than contributory sources. For retired couples strategies will be characterised by ongoing, internal decisive sources.

3. Information search strategies and product characteristics

Features of the product clearly affect the information search. For instance, a consumer search differs between goods and services. The Fodness and Murray model incorporates two important factors that characterise the holiday product: purpose of the trip and mode of travel. Purpose of the trip is perhaps the greatest influence on the traveller's behaviour. Selection of information search strategy will differ as a function of the purpose of the trip: holiday or to visit friends and relatives.

Firstly, when the purpose of the trip is holiday, strategies will tend to emphasise prepurchase rather than ongoing sources, external rather than internal sources and a mixture of both decisive and numerous contributory sources.

Secondly, when the purpose of the trip is to visit friends and relatives, search strategies will reflect a greater use of ongoing rather than prebuy sources, external rather than internal sources (specifically friends or relatives) and decisive rather than contributory sources. Selection of information search strategy will differ as a function of the mode of travel: cars, recreational vehicle (RV) or trucks/vans. For those travelling by personal automobile strategies will tend to emphasise prebuy rather than personal sources but, for RV travellers, strategies will be likely to reflect ongoing rather than prebuy sources, internal rather than external sources and decisive rather than contributory sources. For those who travel by truck or van strategies will tend to emphasise prebuy, external sources and a heavy use of contributory sources to supplement decisive sources.

4. Information search strategies and tourist characteristics

The model suggests that information search strategies both affect, and are affected by, characteristics of the tourist, including family life cycle and socio-economic status. The model for family life cycle suggests that the selection of information search strategy will differ according to the stage of the family life cycle: household with children, younger household without children and retired household. Socio-economic status where travellers at lower income levels might be expected to engage in more searches so that they offset their relatively greater perceived risk. Higher income levels have been found to be positively associated with greater levels of information search including the use of destination specific sources.

5. Information search strategies and search outcomes

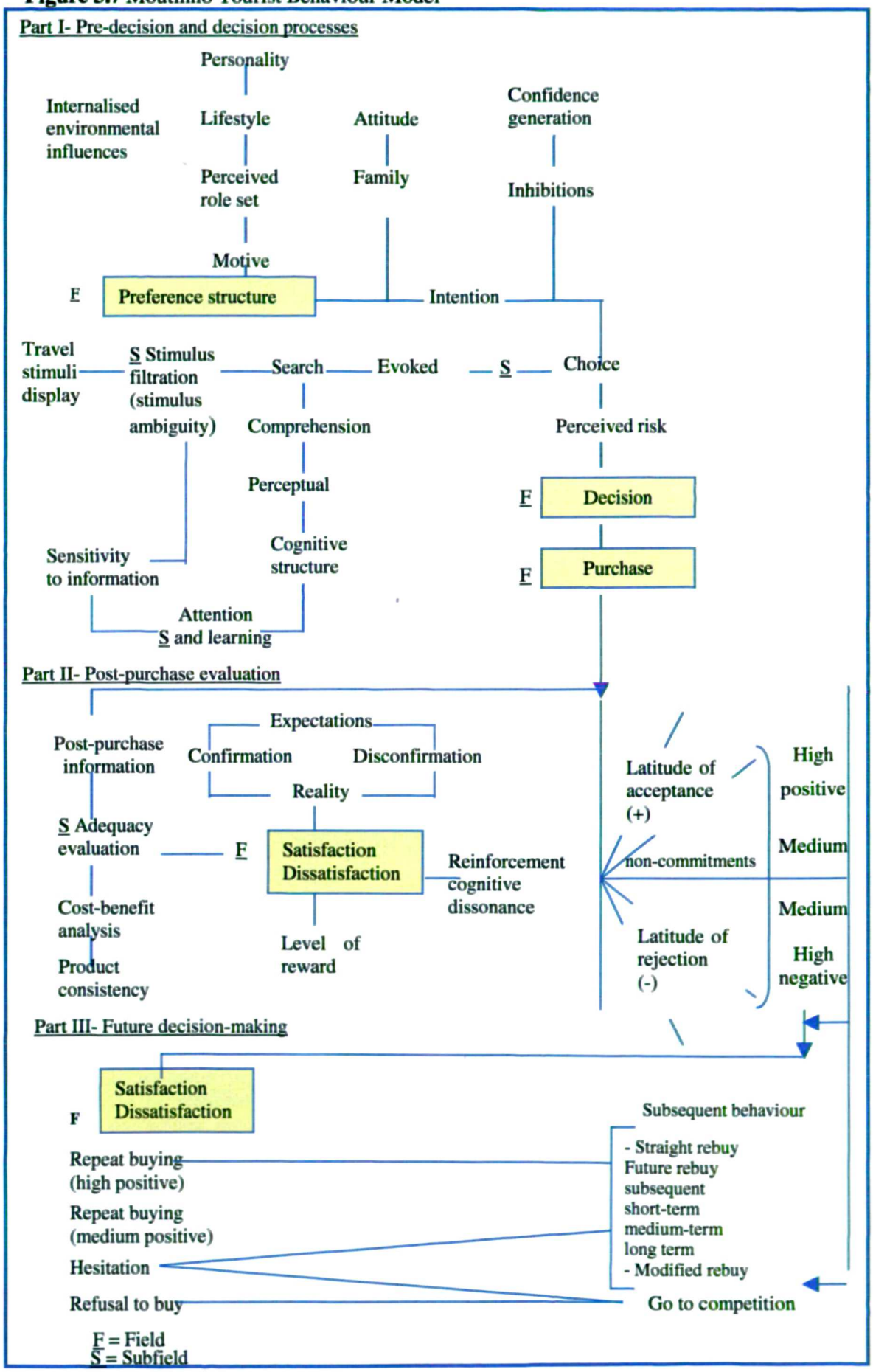
Selection of information search strategy is related to length of stay, number of destinations visited, number of attractions visited and travel-related expenditure.

Fodness and Murray (1998) believed that tourist information search strategies are the result of a dynamic process in which travellers use a variety of types and amount of information sources to respond to internal and external contingencies in holiday planning.

c) The Moutinho Tourist Behaviour Model

Moutinho (2000) built a model for tourist behaviour that comprises a flow-chart with three parts. Each part is composed of fields and subfields that are correlated by other concepts related to the tourist's behaviour processes. The model is presented in Figure 5.7.

Figure 5.7 Moutinho Tourist Behaviour Model



Source: Moutinho, 2000, p. 74.

1) Pre-decision and decision processes are involved with the flow of proceedings from the tourist stimuli to buying decision. The fields comprised are: preference structure, decision and purchase. The tourist's preference structure for a specific destination is derived from a set of factors and other objective information. Among those factors are the internalised environmental influence that contains cultural norms and values, family and reference groups, financial status and social class and consequently, tourist evaluation will influence. Individual determinants of preference structure compose conception as personality, learning, life style and motives.

The decision process field is determined by the tourist background knowledge that composes formation of image and beliefs and images, the evaluation of holiday ideas and the travel decision. Purchase is the outcome of psychological processes taking place more or less consciously.

2) Post-purchase evaluation has three main purposes. First, it adds to the tourist's store of experience. Second, it provides a check on market-related decisions. Finally, it provides feedback to serve as a basis for adjusting further purchase behaviour.

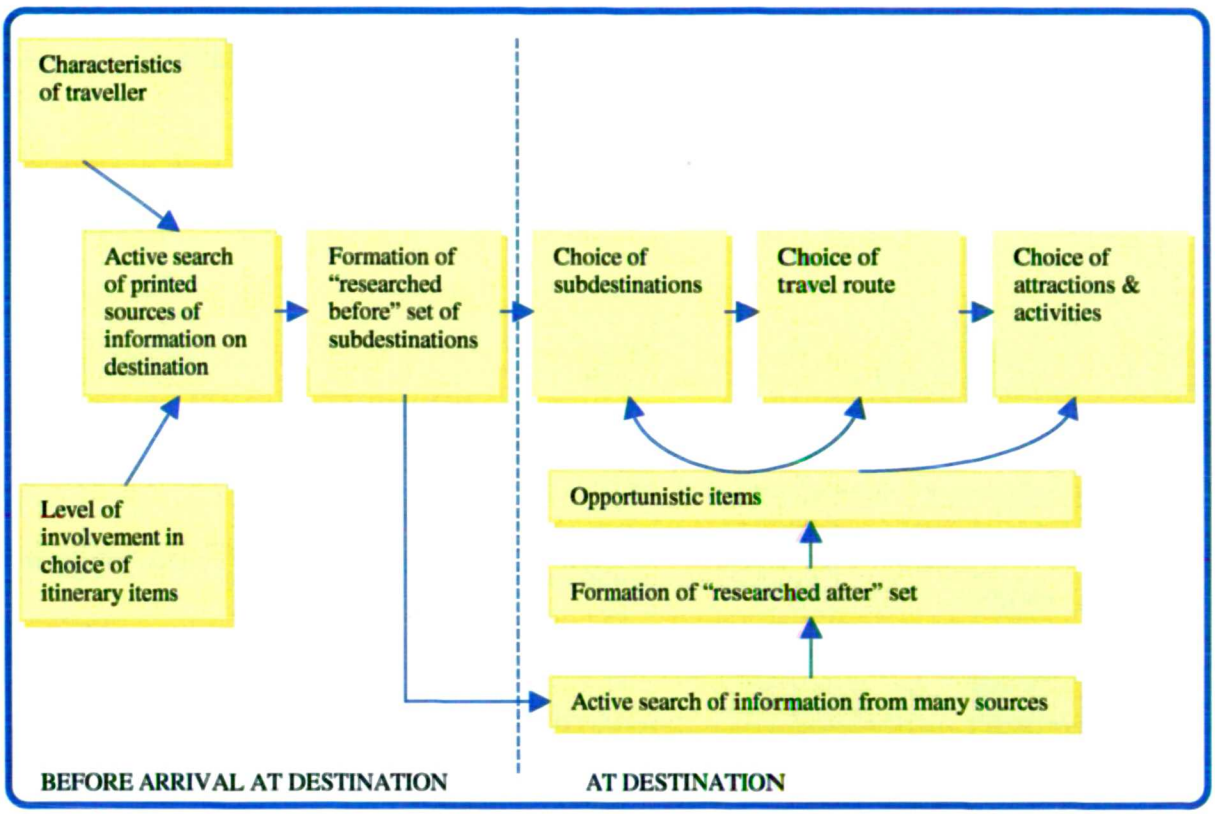
3) Further decision-making is generally connected to the study of the consequent behaviour of the tourist by analysing various possibilities for repeat purchasing of a specific destination.

It can be concluded from the previous discussion about consumer behaviour in tourism models that these models present some insights into the consumer behaviour process implicated during the purchase and post-purchase decision stages. The problem is that little empirical research has been conducted to test these models against actual consumer behaviour (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999).

d) The Hyde Model of Independent Travellers

Hyde (2000) developed a model of independent travellers' decision processes for choice of holiday itinerary, as shown in Figure 5.8. The model, built after empirical research, considered the consumer behaviour which occurs during the holiday.

Figure 5.8 Hyde Model of Independent Travellers' Decision Processes



Source: Hyde, 2000, p.186.

The model developed three features. Firstly, it recognised which travel subdecisions take priority in influence over the others. Secondly, it pointed out which processes occur prior to the consumer's arrival at their destination and which occur after arriving. Thirdly, it described which explicit information sources are most influential at various steps of the holiday.

From the cognitive perspective the subject of consumer behaviour essentially becomes the exploration of consumers' information processing mechanisms and how consumers mentally process, store, retrieve and utilise marketing information in the decision making process (Tybout and Artz, 1994).

The major difficulty with cognitive consumer research has been the incapability of the models in question to predict consumer behaviour. A criticism of the cognitive perspective in consumer research is that it supposes consumers are complex, rational decision makers. It, nonetheless, portrays consumers to be reactive, responding to the push and pull of past impressed force and current situational stimuli (Foxall, 1997).

5.4 Behavioural Perspective

The behavioural perspective stresses the direct link between features of the environment and behaviour (Peter et al., 1999). The most used and intuitive perspective is the traditional stimulus-reps, or "black box", behavioural perceptive. According to this perspective, learning is defined as the association between a stimulus, an external event or object the individual perceives and a response, an act of behaviour the individual exhibits in reaction to the event. Psychologists who agree with this viewpoint do not focus on internal thought processes. Instead, they approach the mind as "black box" and stress the external stimulus and the individual's observable response, as illustrated in Figure 5.9.

Figure 5.9 The Consumer as "Black Box": a Behavioural Perceptive to Learning.



Source: Solomon, et al., 1999, p. 66.

The most widely known behavioural learning theorists are Ivan Pavlov and B.F. Skinner. According to Rescorla (1988), the Russian scientist Ivan Pavlov pioneered the classical conditioning phenomenon. Classical conditioning occurs when an individual learns to associate an unrelated stimulus with a particular behavioural response that was previously elicited by a related stimulus. Pavlov did much of his work with dogs and the pattern of classical conditioning is with dogs. In his well-known experiments Pavlov rang a bell every time the dogs were exposed to meat powder. Ultimately, he found that the dogs began salivating when they heard the bell.

According to Pavlov, the food was an unconditioned stimulus and the salivating response to the food was an unconditioned response. Classical conditioning shows that a consumer's choice of goals that can satisfy a need, such as hunger, thirst, fear, or social acceptance, can be affected by linking them to external stimuli. The classical conditioning model explains why consumers learn to associate certain beliefs and feelings with certain brands and many consumers' preferences are learned this way.

Skinner (1953), an American psychologist, developed much of the theory which forms the foundation of instrumental, or operant, conditioning. Operant conditioning, also called instrumental conditioning, occurs as the individual learns to perform those behaviours that produce positive outcomes and to avoid those that yield negative outcomes. Instrumental conditioning is a theory developed to clarify learning that is goal directed. The term "instrumental" refers to the fact that the appropriate behaviour is viewed as an instrument by which the individual can attain his goal.

Skinner (1953) distinguished between two kinds of reinforcement (or reward) which influence the chances that a response will be repeated: positive reinforcement, which

consists of events that strengthen the likelihood of a specific response; negative reinforcement which occurs when the behavioural response which is strengthened operates on the environment to remove or avoid a consequence. Negative reinforcement should not be confused with punishment that is created to discourage behaviour.

In the last decade some particularly strong challenges have been made to behavioural perspective (Lawson, 1995). For example, Foxall (1990) proposed a radical approach to viewing consumer behaviour by drawing on alternative paradigms from behaviour psychology. The behavioural perspective model presents an explanation of consumer choice based on behaviour analysis, which explicates purchase and consumption responses with the behaviour in question, its stimulus experience and its reinforcing and punishing consequences.

Criticism of the behavioural perspective is that it was formerly developed from experiments with animals rather than human beings and that it may only be helpful for low involvement purchasing behaviour (Mowen, 1988). Also, the behavioural perspective supposes that consumers are fundamentally irrational (Marsden and Littler, 1998).

However, Peter et al. (1999) believe that both the behavioural and the cognitive approaches complement each other; it is useful to identify that they build on different fundamental assumptions, both on the nature of human behaviour and on the method human behaviour to be researched. Table 5.1 summarises some major differences in assumptions about the nature of human behaviour.

Table 5.1 A Comparison of Positions and Assumptions

Positions and Assumptions	Behavioural Approach	Cognitive Approach
Emphasis in explanation	Observable behaviour, manifest determinants	Mental constructs
Role of the environment	Predominant controlling variable	One influence among others
Role of cognitive factors	Merely mediators	Predominant controlling variable
View of freedom	All behaviour is controlled by environment factors	Humans are autonomous independent centres of action

Source: Peter et al., 1999, p. 175.

One main difference is the outlook on the ultimate causes of behaviour. From the behavioural perspective Peter et al. (1999) assume that the environment is the ultimate cause of human behaviour. Also, in the cognitive perspective the environment affects behaviour but the human individual has some levels of freedom on how that occurs.

5.5 Trait Perspective

A trait is defined by Guilford (1956, p. 6) as "*any distinguishing, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another*". Accordingly, trait theories are concerned with the construction of personality tests (or inventories) that pinpoint individual variance in terms of special traits. Psychologist Carl Jung (1923) proposed one of the most fundamental trait theory schemes; he believed that individuals could be classified in relation to their level of introversion and extroversion. Psychologist Karen Horney (1945) grouped people into three categories: compliant, aggressive and detached. An additional set of personality traits is the Edwards Personality Preference Schedule (EPPS), which contains 15 traits (Edwards, 1970).

Schiffman and Kanuk (1994) mentioned that personality related to specific attributes of product choices. Consumer personality was one of the first topics to receive

attention in the burst of quantitative marketing research. It is used to identify psychographic lifestyle market segments and for investigating consumer decision making approaches and strategies.

Helen et al's. (1995) implicit trait model of consumer behaviour proposes that consumers can be positioned on eight standardised trait dimensions: assertive, energetic, extroverted, warm, affilliative, subdued, cool and introverted. According to Bates and Mitchell (1995), most research frameworks have been developed for exploring consumers' decision making styles and strategies, including a stereotyped battery of trait dimensions.

According to Hoyer and MacInnis (1997), much of the consumer-related personality research has been directed by the trait approach and has focused on pinpointing particular personality traits that explicate dissimilarity in the purchasing, using and disposition behaviour of consumers. Therefore, it can be used to classify consumers into personality type. A criticism of the trait perspective is that standardised research structures ignore person differentiation (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993; Steenkamp et al. 1994). Also, Marsden and Littler (1998) criticised the trait perspective for its inherent reductionism and claims of objectivity in term of its fundamental assumption of human nature.

5.6 Interpretive Perspective

This perspective emerged in the early 1980s in response to the growing dissatisfaction with the traditional psychological models of consumer behaviour (Kerin, 1996). The interpretive perspective is concerned with understanding consumer behaviour at the

individual level within the realm of the consumers' subjective consciousness and meaning systems. The interpretive perspective stresses the experiential side of consumer behaviour of "fantasies, feeling and fun" (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). The interpretive perspectives chiefly identified with the use of naturalistic qualitative methodologies in order to observe the relationship between a consumer's subjective meaning system and the "*symbolic, hedonic and aethetic nature of consumption*" (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982, p. 132).

Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) identify that some products have symbolic characteristics and that the consumption of them might depends more on their social and psychological conception than on their functional utility. For instance, the sports shoe market is dominated by main brand names, such as Nike, Adidas and Reebok, and it is hard to find an obvious differentiation in these shoes except in brand tagging. If these brand names mean nothing to consumers then their buying will be based on product attributes such as styles and materials.

Interpretive studies are also called ethnographic studies. Ethnographic interpretation is synthesised from two major data sources: observation of behaviour and verbal reports. The "consumer odyssey" project is the most widely known example of interpretive consumer research. The Consumer Behaviour Odyssey was a qualitative research project involving personal visits by a marketing team of academic consumer researchers to mix with consumers in a variety of natural settings (Belk et al., 1989).

Arnould and Wallendorf (1994) identified that ethnography is not just a type of data collection; it endeavours to make clear the way culture (or microculture)

simultaneously forms, and is shaped by, people's behaviour and experiences. There are four particular pieces of ethnography research.

1. Ethnography gives priority to systematic data collection and recording of human action in natural settings.
2. Ethnographic research implicates expanded, experiential participation by the researcher in a particular cultural environment, referred to as participant observation.
3. Ethnography demonstrates interpretation of behaviours that the people studied and the intended audience found believable.
4. A fourth feature of ethnography involves integrating multiple sources of data; a research strategy long advocated in other social science traditions.

Interpretivists are interested in semiotics, which study the correlation between signs and symbols and their role in the assignment of sense (Mick, 1986). From a semiotic perspective each marketing message has three fundamental elements: an object, a sign or symbol and an interpretant. Consumer researchers operate semiotics to find out the meaning of a variety of consumption behaviours and rituals (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994).

Interpretive methods are actually quite similar to traditional positivist-based approaches to consumer research because they assume that the (truth) about consumers' world views can be rationally known and accurately represented "*through careful use of appropriate naturalistic, interpretive and ethnographic research methods*" Brown (1995a, p. 32). The main aim of interpretive perspectives is to recognise the meaning that consumers connect to their consumption experience (Marsden and Littler, 1998).

Brown (1995b) argued that the interpretive perspectives could be differentiated from the post-modern perspectives in certain important respects in consumer research in terms of some of its essential assumptions of human nature, especially those concerning consumers' rationality and methods of knowing.

According to Shankar and Goulding (2001), interpretive research approachs are prone to be criticised because they uphold variations of a relativistic ontology of multiple, individually constructed but socially and culturally constrained realities.

5.7 Postmodern Perspective

Postmodernity, as a phenomenon, is most relevant to the cultural history of Western Europe and North America (Firat et al., 1994). The postmodern perspective emerged in the late 1980s and, along with the interpretive paradigm, is the predominant form of critical academic thought in marketing (Kassarjian, 1994). Postmodernism is a perspective that questions the search for universal truths and values and the existence of objective knowledge (Thompson, 1993).

There have been different efforts to sum up the features of postmodernism and their implication for marketing and consumer behaviour. Firat and Venkatesh (1993) propose five conditions of postmodern culture: hyperreality, fragmentation, reversal of consumption and production, decentering of the subject and paradoxical juxtapositions (of opposites), as shown in Table 5.2.

Brown (1995c) implied that postmodernism could be outlined by six key features: fragmentation, de-differentiation, hyperreality, chronology, pastiche and anti-foundationalism.

Table 5.2 Postmodern Conditions and their Main Themes

Hyperreality	Fragmentation	Reversal of Production and Consumption	Decentred Subject	Juxtaposition of Opposites
Reality as part of symbolic world and constructed rather than given Signifier/signified (structure) replaced by the nation of endless signifiers The emergence of symbolic and the spectacle as the basis of reality The idea that marketing is constantly involved in the creation of more real than real The blurring of the distinction between real and nonreal	Consumption experiences are multiple, disjointed Human subject has a divided self Terms such as 'authentic self' and 'centered' connections are questionable Lack of commitment to any (central) theme Abandonment of history, origin, and context Marketing is an activity that fragments consumption sign and environments and reconfigures them through style and fashion Fragmentation as the basis for creation of body culture	Postmodernism is basically a culture of consumption, while odernism represents a culture of production Abandonment of the notion that production creates value while consumption destroys it Sign value replaces exchange value as basis of consumption Consumer paradox: consumers are active producers of symbols and signs of consumption, as marketers are Consumers are also objects in the marketing process, while products become active agents	The following modernist notions of the subject are called into question: Human subject as self-knowing independent agent Human subject as cognitive subject Human subject as unified subject Postmodernist notions of human subject: Human subject is historically and culturally constructed Language, not cognition, is the the basis for subjectivity Instead of cognitive subject, we have a communicative subject Authentic self is displaced by made-up self Rejection of modernist subject as a male subject	Pastiche as the underlying principle of juxtaposition Consumption experiences are not meant to reconcile differences and paradoxes but to allow them to exist freely Acknowledges that fragmentation, rather than unification, is the basis of consumption

Source: Firat and Venkatesh, 1995, p. 252.

The postmodern perspective stresses the creativity, autonomy and power of consumers to identify and alter themselves and the world in which they live through diverse patterns of utilisation and lifestyles (Brown, 1995b). According to Marsden

and Littler (1998, p. 18) the postmodern perspective rejects "*all such grand narrative and rational attempts to understand consumer experience*".

Parker (1995, p. 553) criticizes postmodernism by arguing that this perspective "*is a dangerous and potentially disabling set of ideas for critical organisation theory to adopt*" because he proposed that the "*key problem with the postmodernists is the impossibility of having certain knowledge about the others (person, organisation, culture, society)*".

Eariler Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994 compared the positivist and interpretivist perspectives, as shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Comparisons Between Positivism and Interpretivism

Purpose	
Positivism	Prediction of consumer actions
Interpretivism:	Understanding consumption practice
Assumptions	
Positivism:	▪ Rationality: consumers make decisions after weighing alternative ▪ The causes and effects of behaviour can be identified and isolated ▪ Individuals are problem solvers who engage in information processing ▪ A single reality exists ▪ Cause of behaviour can be identified; by manipulating causes (i. e. inputs) the marketer can influence behaviour (i. e., outcome) ▪ Findings can be generalised to large population
Interpretivism:	▪ There is no single, objective, truth ▪ Reality is subjective ▪ Cause and effect cannot be isolated ▪ Each consumption experience is unique ▪ Researcher/respondent interactions effect research findings ▪ Findings are often not generalised to larger population

Source: Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994, p. 27.

5.8 Consumer Decision Making

The term consumer decision "*produces an image of an individual carefully evaluating the attributes of a set of products, brands or services and rationally selecting the one that solves a clearly recognised need for the least cost*" (Hawkins et al., 2001, p. 504).

A consumer decision is the choosing of an action from two or more option choices. From the previous discussion about different perspectives of consumer behaviour, three perspectives for decision making can be identified (Mowen and Minor, 1998). Table 5.4 shows these perspectives.

Table 5.4 Three Perspectives on Decision Making

I. Traditional Decision-Making Perspectives				
A. High-Involvement Decisions				
Problem recognition →	Extensive search →	Extended alternative evaluation →	Complex choice →	Acquisition evaluation
B. Low-Involvement Decisions				
Problem recognition →	Limited search →	Minimal alternative evaluation →	Simple choice processes →	Acquisition evaluation
II. Experiential Perspectives				
Problem recognition (affect driven) →	Search for affect-based solutions →	Alternative evaluation (comparison of affect) →	Choice (affect-based) →	Acquisition evaluation
III. Behaviour Influence Perspectives				
Problem recognition (results from discriminative stimulus) →	Search (learned response) →	Choice (behaviour results from reinforcers) →	Acquisition evaluation (self-perception process)	

Source: Mowen and Minor, 1998, p. 352.

The decision-making perspective stresses the rational, information-processing approach to consumer buying behaviour. The traditional decision-making perspective developed into the attention to two routes to making decisions: the high-involvement and the low-involvement routs (Mowen and Minor, 1998).

The experiential perspective identifies consumers as feelers as well as thinkers. This perspective supposes people consume many kinds of products for the sensations, feelings, images and emotions that these products generate (Mowen and Minor, 1998). According to Mowen and Minor (1998), from the behavioural influence perspective, researchers focus on consumers' behaviour and the environmental contingencies which influence that behaviour.

5.8.1 Level of Decision Making

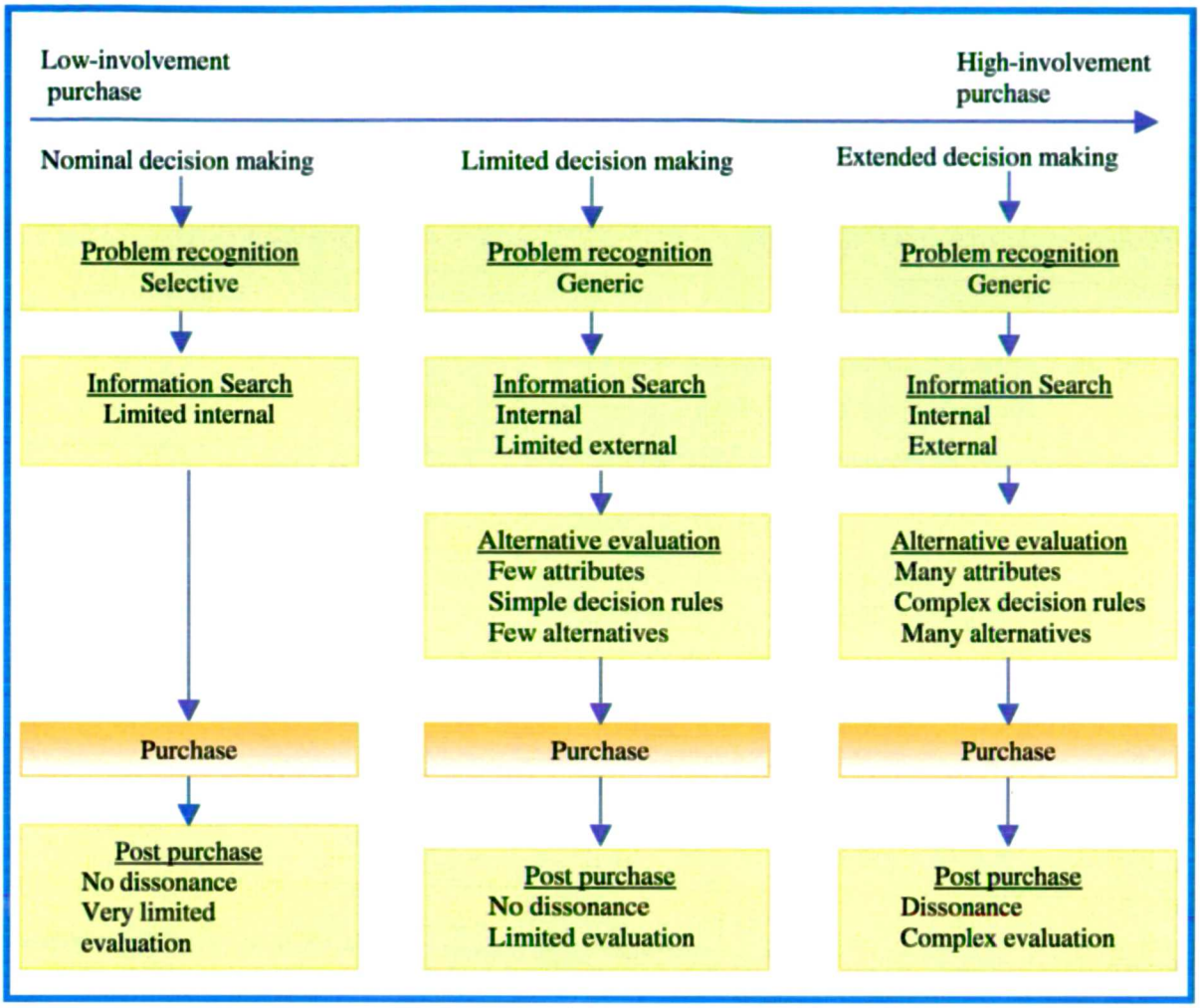
Howard and Sheth (1969) classify consumer decision making by the level of endeavour dedicated to making a product choice. The level of effort could be seen as a constant that is particularly attributed to:

1. habitual (routine) decision-making where choices are performed with lowest effort,
2. limited decision making is generally simple and consumers are not as motivated to search for information or to evaluate every alternative carefully,
3. extended (extensive) decision making which involves collecting a great quantity of information, evaluating it, labouring and establishing an elaborate pattern.

5.8.2 Individual Consumer Decision Making Process

From the level of decision making it can be indicated that there are various types of consumer decision processes (Bettman et al, 1998). As the consumer moves from a very low level of involvement with the buy situation to a high level of involvement the decision making becomes gradually more complex. Therefore, the general descriptions of the types of processes of the decision making can be termed as nominal, limited and extended, as shown in Figure 5.10.

Figure 5.10 Involvement and the Types of Decision Making

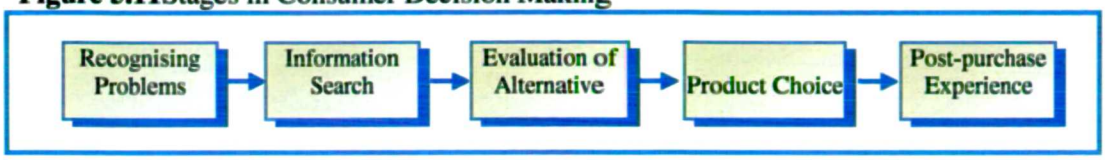


Source: Hawkins et al., 2001, p. 505.

The figure shows that the nominal decision making (habitual decision making) involves a limited internal information search and does not even include consideration of the alternative, while the limited decision making involves internal and limited external search, few alternatives, simple decision rules on a few of attributes and littlie postpurchase evaluation. The extended decision making involves an extensive internal and external information search followed by a complex evaluation of multiple alternatives.

The generic decision making process can be recognised as five steps, as shown in Figure 5.11.

Figure 5.11 Stages in Consumer Decision Making



Source: Sheth et al., 1999, p. 520.

1. Recognising consumer consumption problems or 'need recognition' is the initial stage in any decision making process. Need or problem recognition can appear through the interaction of individual differences as values, needs and environmental effects, particularly social interaction. Need or problem recognition can occur due to internal stimulus that perceives states of discomfort, physical or psychological, or an external stimulus, which is marketplace information, things that influence the consumer to discern the need.

2. Searching for information comes after the needs have been recognised, when consumers search for information about diverse alternative ways of solving the problem. Sources of information depend on the level of decision making, habitual (routine), limited or extended decision making, because decision making choices in habitual (routine) is achieved with the lowest effort in which no new information need be collected. In the extended decision making consumers need to gather information before buying to avoid high risks of incorrect choice. Sources of information may be classified marketers or non-marketers. Marketing sources are those methods from the marketer of the product or service itself, which comprise salespersons, product/service literature, brochures and advertising.

Non-marketer sources are those which are independent of the marketer's authority. They comprise personal sources, such as friends and past purchasing experience, and independent sources, commonly, publications and organisations with appropriate qualifications.

3. Evaluation of alternatives are when consumers evaluating possible alternatives. They can use two types of information: a list of brands from which they plan to make their choice (the evoked set) and the criteria which would be used to evaluate each brand. According to Bettman (1979), there are two primary categories of choice models: compensatory and non-compensatory. The terms compensatory and non-compensatory refer to whether high ratings on an attribute can balance for rating on a further attribute.

In the compensatory model the brand which has the highest whole preference is chosen. In the non-compensatory models, also called hierarchical models of choice, the consumers take into consideration each attribute individually in restraining a product choice. The most common non-compensatory models are (Einhorn, 1970) conjunctive, disjunctive, lexicographic and elimination by aspects.

In a conjunctive model the consumer starts by setting the minimum cut-off level on all prominent attributes. Each alternative is investigated on each attribute and any alternative which meets the minimum cut-off level on all attributes may possibly be selected. The conjunctive model can be applied by both household and business consumers but it is more significant in business-to-business markets.

In the disjunctive model a cut-off point is set for every attribute and keeps any alternatives that exceed the cut-off on any of the attributes. Occasionally the consumer is ready to trade off one characteristic for another.

In a lexicographic model the attributes of alternatives are rank-ordered in term of

importance. The consumer selects one attribute as the more important and then picks the alternative that ranked highest on that attribute.

In the elimination by aspects model the consumer rates the attributes in order of importance and, furthermore, defines a cut-off value. Consumers' choices are strongly affected by the sort of decision process in which they are engrossed. The choice process is different if consumers operate a high-involvement approach compared to a low-involvement approach.

4. Product Choice (Purchase) occurs after consumers have evaluated the alternatives and they make the product choice.

5. Outcomes (Post-Purchase Experience) show that the consumer's decision making process does not finish with the buying. The experience of buying and using the product contributes information that the consumer will utilise in future decision making.

5.8.3 Household Consumer Decision Making

The household buying decision is studied because households are the fundamental element of buying and consumption in a society. Also, buying decisions of individuals could be influenced by other members of the family. For two reasons the family decision making differs from individual decisions. First, the financier, buyer and user roles are distributed through family members. Second, various family members share these roles. An instance of distributed roles is when the father may pay for a car used by the son.

Davis and Rigaux (1974) conducted a significant Belgium study in recognising the relative influence of family members on household decisions. Decisions were

classified into dimensions:

1. **husband-dominated decision** where the husband plays a largely autonomous role in deciding what to purchase,
2. **wife-dominated decision** where the wife plays a largely autonomous role in deciding what to purchase,
3. **syncratic decision** where the husband and wife share the decisions together,
4. **autonomous decision** is probably made by either the husband or wife, but not both.

Household buying decisions could be made by one, some, or all members of the family. Researchers (Davis 1972; Menasco and Curry 1989; Lackman and Lanasa 1993) recognised that two fundamental types of decisions are made by families.

1. A consensual buying decision is one in which the group reaches agreement on the desired buying. The family will possibly engage in problem solving and consider alternatives until the medium for satisfying the group's objective is reached.

2. An accommodative buying decision is one in which the group members have various favourites or priorities and cannot be in agreement on a purchase that will satisfy the minimum requirements of all concerned.

Abu-Roukba et al. (1985) explained the role of the Saudi family and each of its members participating in the buying goods decisions from determining needs to usage of these products, as shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 The Role of the Family Members in Buying Decisions

Product type	**Need determiners**	**Decision makers**	**Buyers**	**Products users**
Children's clothing	Wife	Wife-husband	Wife & husband	Children
Children's shoes	Wife-children	Wife-husband-children	Wife-husband-children	Children
Toys	Wife	Wife- husband	Husband-wife	Children
Make-up	Wife	Wife	Wife	Wife
Medication	Husband-family	Husband	Husband	Family
Furniture	Family-husband	Husband-family	Husband-family	Family
Sweets	Wife-family	Husband-wife	Wife	Family
Elect. appliance	Family-husband	Husband-family	Husband-family	Family
Cookery items	Wife	Wife	Wife	Wife
Tools	Husband	Husband	Husband	Husband-family
Jewellery	Wife	Wife	Wife	Wife
Grocery	Wife	Husband-wife	Husband-family	Family
Meat	Husband	Husband	Husband	Family
Vegetables	Wife	Husband-wife	Husband	Family
Fruits & juices	Wife	Husband-wife	Wife	Family

Source: Abu-Roukba et al., 1985.

Recently, Yavas et al. (1994) studied the family purchasing roles in Saudi Arabia. The mean percentages across the six product categories (cars, women's clothing, groceries, furniture, TV/Video and major appliances) and three decision situations (when to buy, where to buy and how much to pay) indicated that about 44% of the decision were made by the husband, 26% by the wife and 30% jointly. Results are shown in Table 5.6. The study indicated that, in the Saudi society, the husbands dominate most purchase decisions. In addition, the results demonstrate a significant positive relation between wives' employment and educational status and distribution of purchase decision roles.

Table 5.6 Distributions of Family Purchasing Decision Roles in Saudi Arabia

Product Category	Decision-Maker	When to Buy? (%)	How Much to Spend? (%)	Where to Buy? (%)
Grocery	Husband	18	39	36
	Wife	50	28	33
	Joint	32	33	31
Furniture	Husband	23	47	34
	Wife	23	11	19
	Joint	54	42	47
Major appliances	Husband	34	53	49
	Wife	30	11	15
	Joint	36	36	36
Automobile	Husband	81	82	90
	Wife	2	1	0
	Joint	17	17	10
TV/Video	Husband	47	67	67
	Wife	12	6	8
	Joint	41	27	25
Women's clothing	Husband	8	16	7
	Wife	78	68	76
	Joint	14	16	17

Source: Yaves et al., 1994, p. 80.

5.8.4 Family Decision Making Steps

There are different family decision making steps in a decision to purchase a product or service because there are different buying roles in the family. Husbands, wives and children play different roles in making decisions. The amount of influence exercised by the husband, wife and children may vary depending on the steps of the decision process. Roles may also vary depending on culture. The family purchasing process contains the following steps (Sheth, 1974, pp. 17-33):

- initiation of the purchase decision,
- gathering and sharing of information,
- evaluating and deciding,
- shopping and buying,
- conflict management.

The first four steps follow the explanation of the individual decision making process

given in the previous discussion. The conflict occurs because husbands and wives usually try influencing each other to reach what they feel to be the best outcome when they make purchase decisions. Qualls (1987, 1988) and Kirchler (1990) recognised six influencing strategies for solving husband/wife consumption conflicts.

- Expertise: a spouse tries to utilise his or her information about decision choices to effect the other spouse.
- Legitimacy: one spouse tries to effect the other spouse on the basis of position in the household.
- Bargaining: one spouse tries to secure an effect now that will be interchanged along with the other spouse at some future date.
- Reward: one spouse tries to effect the behaviour of the other spouse by offering a prize.
- Emotion: one spouse tries to use an emotion-laden interaction to effect the other spouse's behaviour.
- Impression: one spouse tries convincing the other spouse to effect the behaviour of the other.

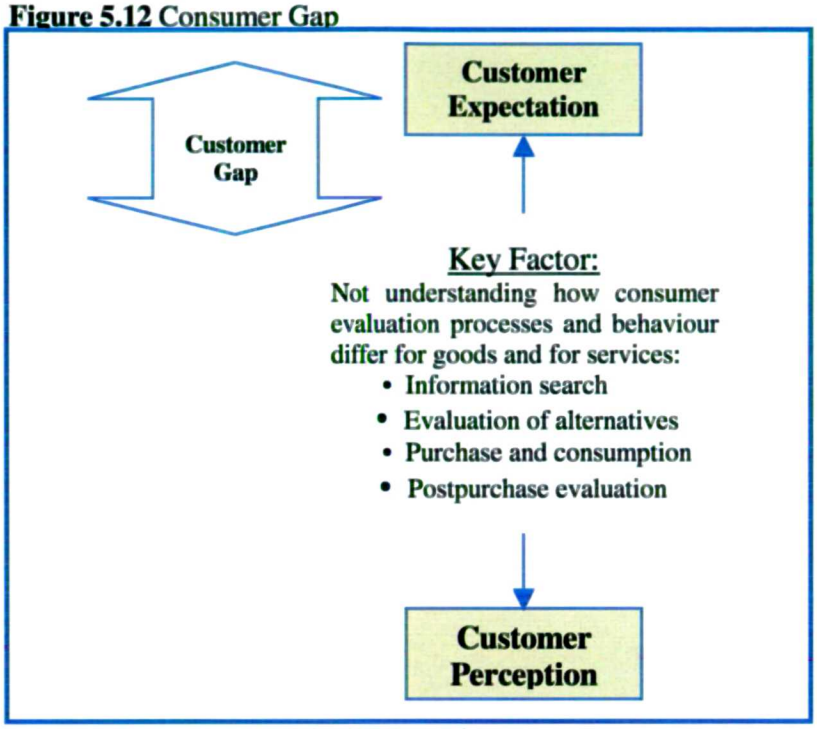
These influences tend to be applied by either husbands or wives when they find themselves in discrepancy or in conflict with each other concerning a particular consumer decision.

5.9 Understanding Service Consumer Behaviour

To market services effectively, marketing managers need to understand the thought procedures applied by consumers throughout each of the three stages of purchase, the pre-purchase choice between alternatives, the consumers' reactions during consumption and post purchase evaluation of satisfaction (Bateson, 1995).

According to Zeithaml and Bitner (1996, p. 56), "*service marketers need to be able to close the consumer gap between expectations and perceptions*", as shown in Figure 5.12.

Figure 5.12 Consumer Gap



Source: Zeithaml and Bitner, 1996, p. 56.

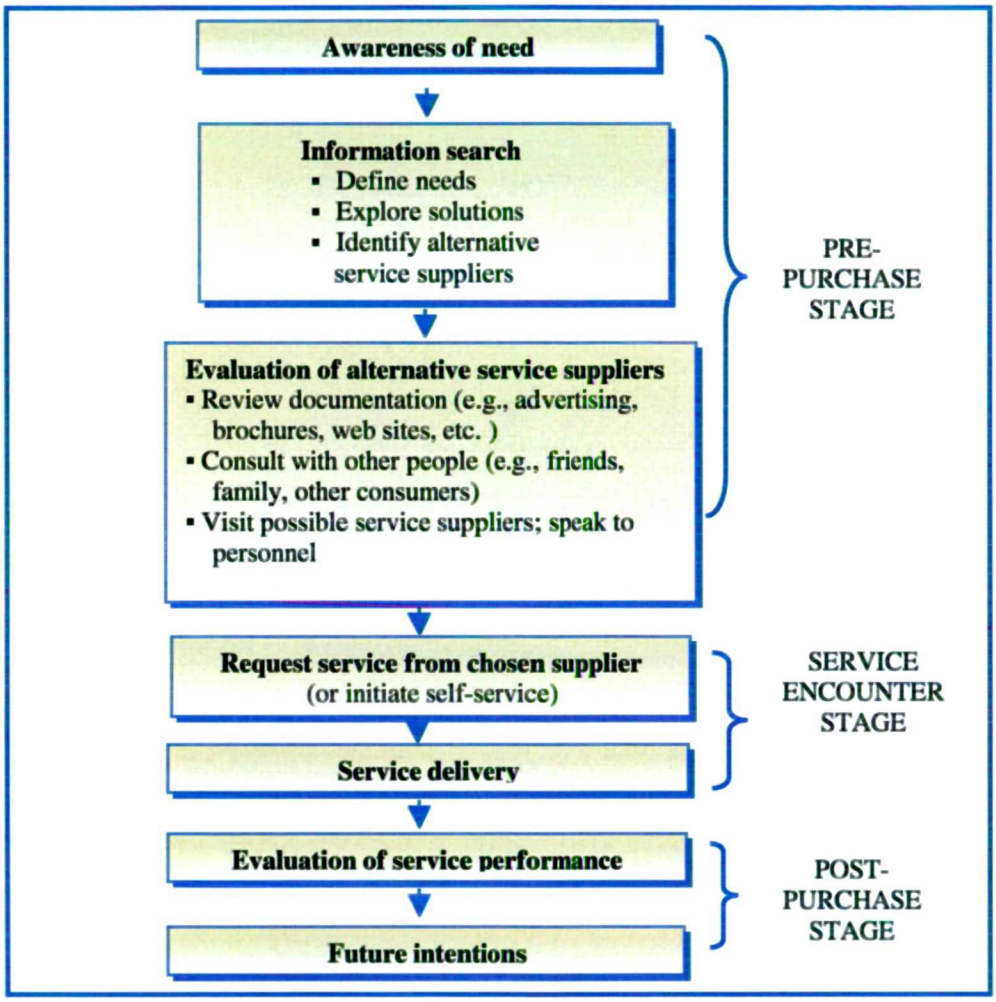
5.9.1 Buying Process of Services

The buying process of services can be described in three stages. Figure 5.13 shows the three stages.

1. The pre-purchase stage. The decision to buy or use a service is made in the pre-purchase stage. The pre-purchase stage refers to all consumer activities happening prior to the acquisition of the service. This stage is initiated when a person recognises a need or problem. The realisation of a problem demands a solution from a person and it generally involves a potential purchase. A person then searches for relevant information from both external (non-personal sources, e.g., mass or selective media)

and internal (personal sources, e.g., friends or exports) sources, comes to a set of solutions to the identified problem and then decides on the alternative that is considered the most satisfactory.

Figure 5.13 The Purchase Process for Services



Source: Lovelock et al., 1999, p. 132.

2. Service encounter stage. At the stage of the decision to buy a specific brand of the service category, consumers experience one or more encounters with their selected service provider. These service encounters often start with submitting an application, requesting a reservation, or placing an order.

The decision is accompanied by a set of expectations about the performance of the product. This is the stage where the service encounter or interactive consumption takes place. The consumer and service providers interact with each other and the consumer participates in a certain way in the servuction process. Eiglier and Langeard (1987) have developed the concept of the "servuction process" which treats service operations in the context of marketing. The "servuction process" is a combination of services and production, indicating the simultaneous production and consumption of services. In this stage it becomes clear whether the consumer really gets the benefits that he/she was hoping for, or expecting. According to Bateson (1995), the benefits bought by a consumer comprise the experience that is delivered through an interactive process.

3. Post-purchase stage. During this stage the consumer continues a process in the service encounter stage – evaluating service quality and their satisfaction or disaffection with the service experience. Consumers evaluate service quality by contrasting what they expect with what they perceive. If consumers' expectations are encountered or exceeded, they consider they have received high-quality services. The expectation concept has been used in many studies about consumer behaviour (Bateson 1995; Zeithaml and Bitner 1996; Kasper et al., 1999). Consumers' expectations about what comprises good service are likely to vary from situation to situation. People make particular demands on particular services that are based on their own norms, values, wishes and needs. Also, expectations are not only determined by people themselves but, also, by reference groups, external situations, norms, values, time and the service provider.

Zeithaml et al. (1996) discuss consumer expectations that involve several different

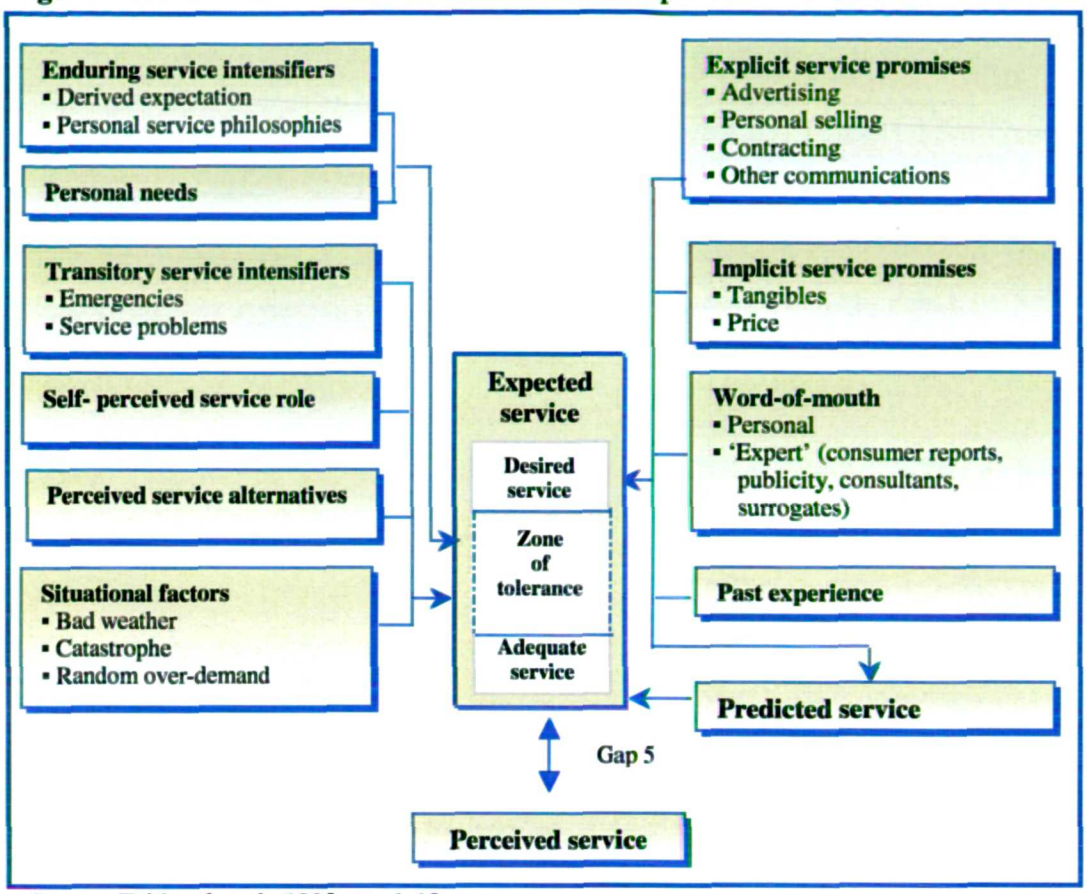
elements: desired service, adequate service, predicted service and the zone of tolerance that falls between the desired and adequate service level.

Desired service is defined as *"the level of service the consumer hopes to receive-the "wished for" level of performance. Desired service is a blend of what the consumer believes "can be" and "should be"* (Zeithaml and Bitner, 1996, p. 77). Adequate service is defined as the minimum level of service consumers will accept without being dissatisfied. Johnson and Mathews (1997) mentioned that the levels of both desired and adequate expectations may reflect both the explicit and implicit service promise made by the provider, what the consumer has heard through word of mouth and past experience (if any) with this organisation.

Predicted service means the level of service consumers actually anticipate receiving from the service provider during a particular service encounter. Predicted service directly affects how consumers define 'adequate service' in that situation. If good service is predicted, the adequate level would be higher than if poorer service is predicted. Figure 5.14 illustrates how expectations for desired service and adequate service are shaped.

The zone of tolerance is the difference between the desired service level and the adequate service level. That is, the extent to which consumers identify and are ready to accept heterogeneity (Zeithaml et al., 1993). The zone of tolerance can increase or decrease for individual consumers, conditional on factors comprising price, competition or the significance of specific service attributes. These factors most often affect adequate service levels that go up and down as a result of situational factors, whereas, desired service levels tend to go up very gradually in reaction to accumulated consumer experience.

Figure 5.14 Nature and Determinants of Consumer Expectations of Services



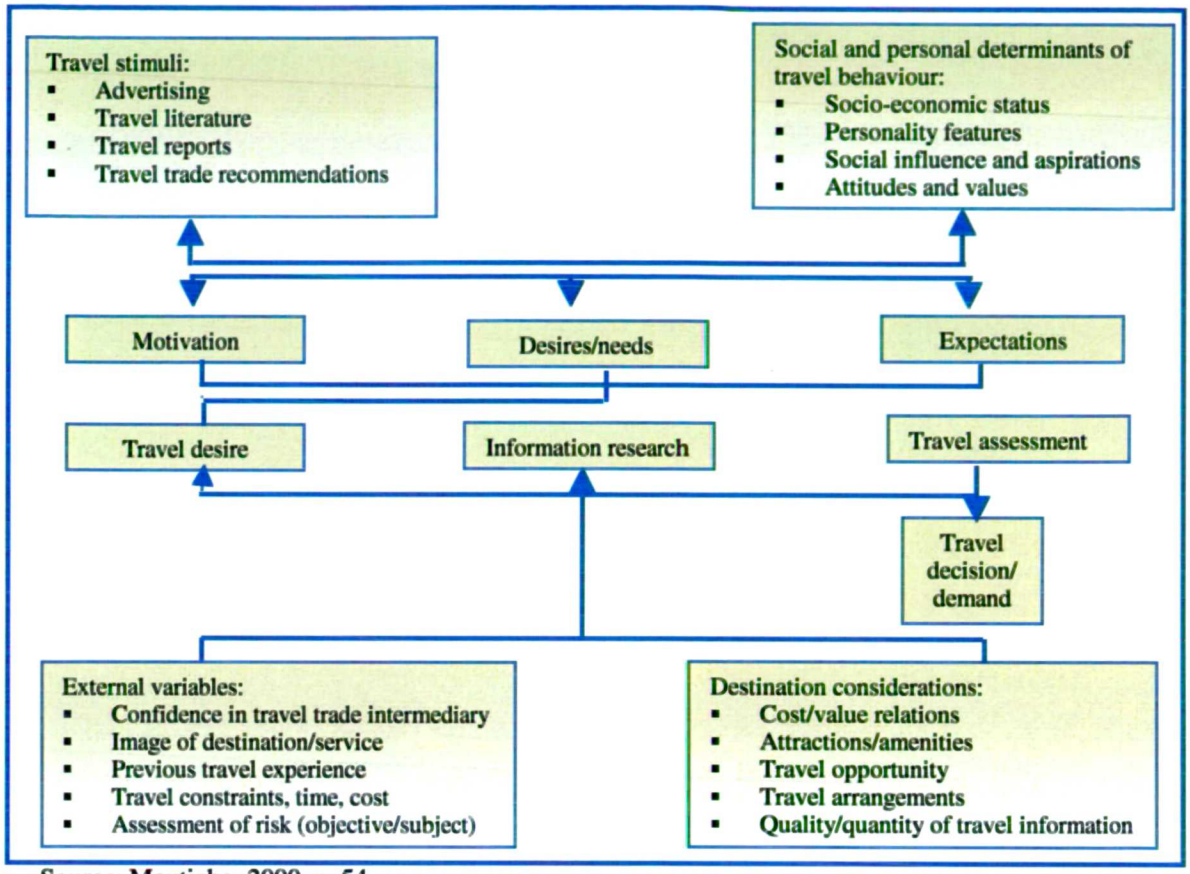
Source: Zeithaml et al., 1993, pp. 1-12.

5.10 Travel Decision

Tourists' decision-making processes relating to choice of destination is an expanding research area (e. g. Goodall 1991; Hanefors and Mossberg 1998). A number of models have been developed to clarify how potential tourists gather and evaluate information about various destinations to be able to make a decision (e.g. Wahab et al. 1976; Mathieson and Wall 1982; Gilbert 1991; Moutinho, 2000; Weaver and Oppermann 2000).

Decision-process models illustrate how information is obtained and related in order to make the decision. Moutinho (2000) has given us a model for the framework within which consumer decisions are made. This is shown in Figure 5.15.

Figure 5.15 Travel Decisions Model

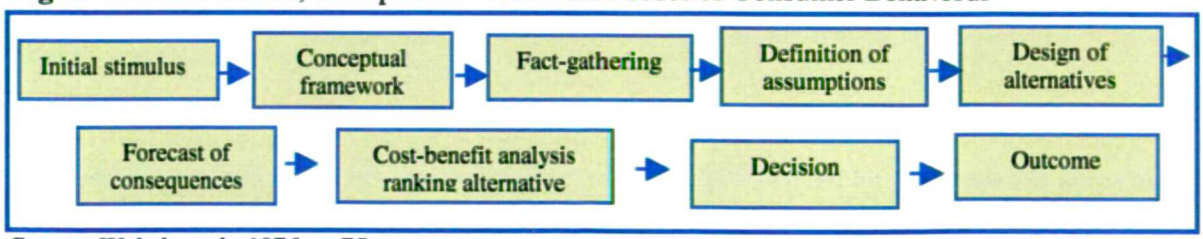


Source: Moutinho, 2000, p. 54.

Moutinho's model identified the impact of motivators and determinants on the purchase decision. Some motivators and determinants might be so forceful that they completely direct the purchase decision, to the exclusion the all of other factors (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999).

Earlier, Wahab et al. (1976) put forward a linear model of the decision making process, as illustrated in Figure 5.16.

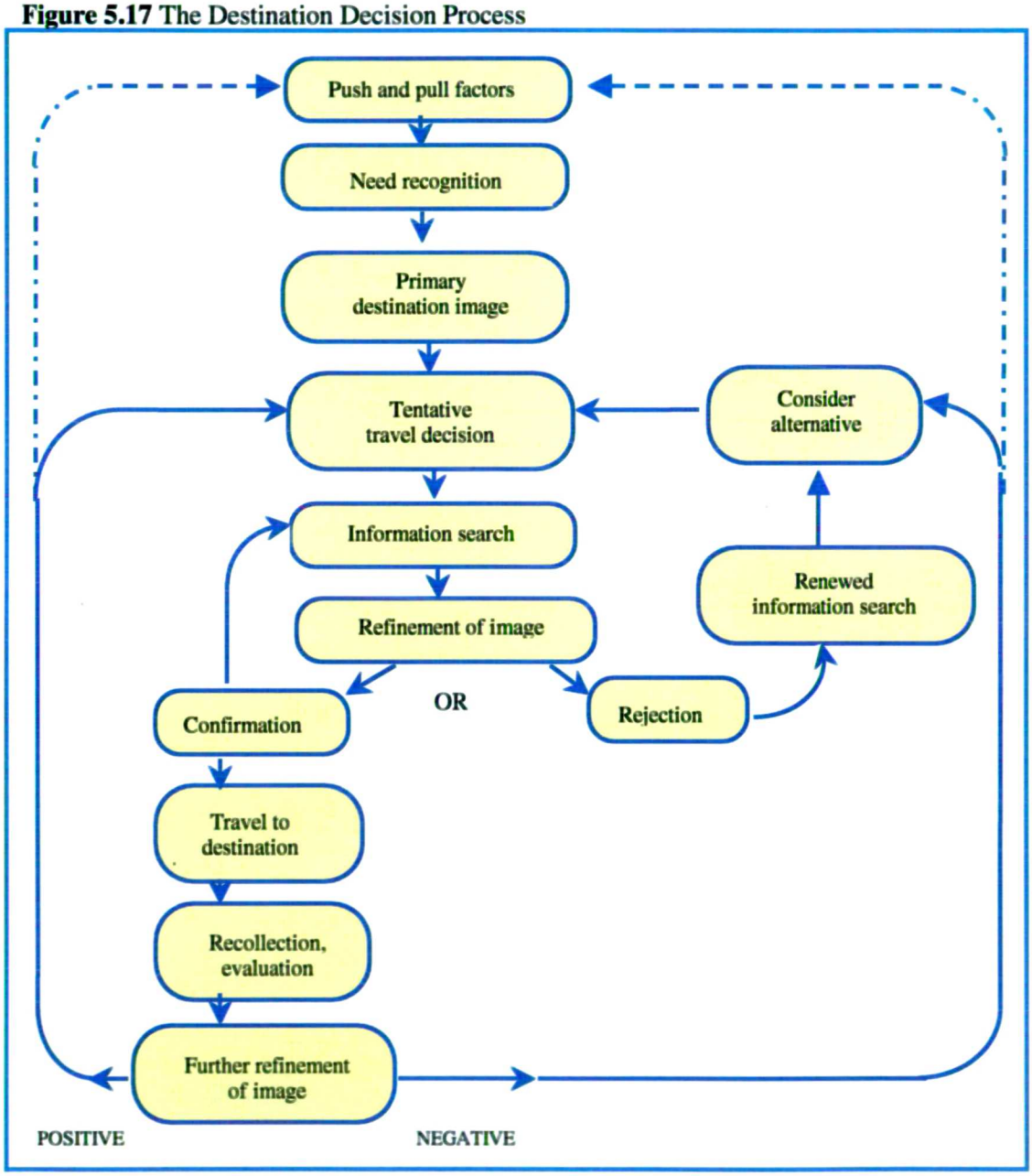
Figure 5.16 The Wahab, Crampton and Rothfield Model of Consumer Behaviour



Source: Wahab et al., 1976, p. 75.

Weaver and Oppermann (2000) argued that the decision making process is not a simple linear progression, but usually involves several feedback loops that can result in return to earlier steps. Figure 5.17 shows the destination decision process developed by Weaver and Oppermann.

Figure 5.17 The Destination Decision Process



Source: Weaver and Oppermann, 2000, p. 179.

In this model push and pull factors provide the consumer with the motivation or

tendency to travel, thereby, forming his/her need recognition. The following information search starts with the construction of primary destination image that leads to tentative travel decision. Through further information searches and other processes the refinements of these images have occurred. That, in turn, could lead to confirmation of the original tentative decision or to search for alternatives that are afterwards matter to similar procedures. Sometime after the decision has been made, further information searches might still promote changes in plans, or simply assist to confirm the original decision.

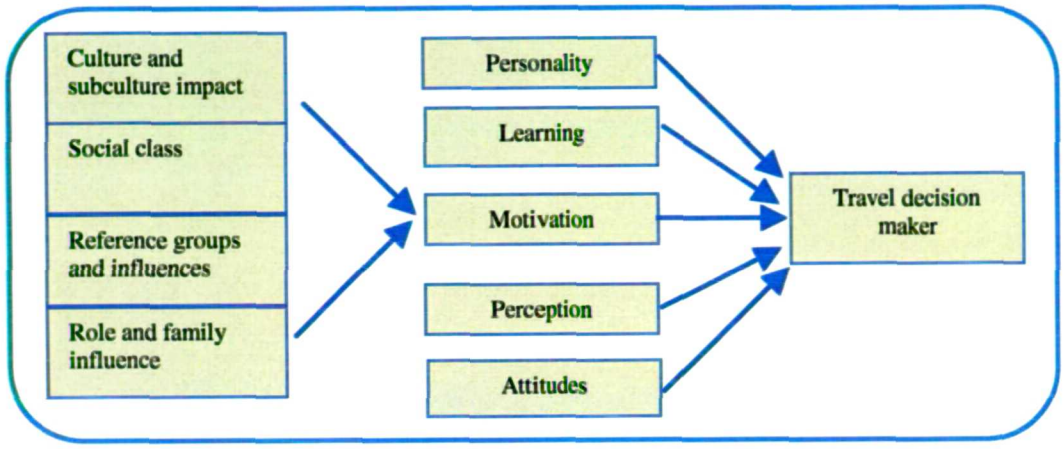
The post-purchase step comprises the recall of the experience and the assessment of its positive and negative features. These stages lead to the alteration of the destination image that feeds back into the evaluation of an alternative step that is the start for the next tourism experience. A tentative decision to visit the very same destination might be the result of a positive experience. Sometimes the experience might help to alter the original set of push and pull factors that influence the need to travel.

It can be concluded that a traveller's holiday decision making process is a complex process involving, among other factors, an individual's perception, pervious experience, motivation, information search, attitudes and intention. However, holiday travel can be considered as a high-risk purchase because travellers can neither directly observe what is being bought, nor try it out inexpensively before purchase (Goodall and Ashworth, 1988). According to Al-Askar and Al-Hmod (2000), the travel decision for Saudi families is determined as firstly, husband desire, then wife desire, finally and finally children desire.

Travel decisions are influenced by forces outside the person, counting the affects of

other people. The forces that other people exert are called social influences. Figure 5.18 shows the social influences grouped into four major areas: (1) role and family influences, (2) reference groups; (3) social classes; and (4) culture and subculture.

Figure 5.18 Major Influences on Individual Travel Behaviour



Source: Moutinho, 2000, p. 42.

5.11 Factors Influencing Holiday Decision Making

Holiday decision making is influenced by several factors: cultural, social, personal and psychological.

5.11.1 Cultural Factors

Cultural factors exert the broadest and the deepest effect on consumer behaviour. The relationship between consumer behaviour and culture is a two-way phenomenon (Solomon et al., 1999, p379). A consumer's culture influences the success or failure of a particular product or service. A product or service that meets the requirements of one society at any time has a good chance of succeeding in the market. First, the term culture is defined and the components of culture defined. Then, subculture factors and the social class factors are discussed.

a) Culture

Schiffman and Kanuk (1994, p. 409) defined culture as "*the sum total of learned beliefs, values and customs that serve to direct the consumer behaviour of members of a particular society*". According to Moutinho (2000), culture is the multifaceted abstracts and material components formed by a society. The components (or elements) of culture are:

- value, as the fundamental beliefs of a society about propitious ways to live,
- language, the tool the members of a culture operate to connect with one another,
- myths (narratives) are stories that express some kind of value for society,
- customs, culturally acceptable behaviour pattern, which regularly takes place in a particular situation,
- ritual, a set of symbolic behaviour, which happens in a fixed order and tends to be replicated regularly.

Religion, being a feature of culture, has a significant affect on people's values, habits and attitudes and it completely influences lifestyles that, in sequence, influence consumer behaviour decision (Delener, 1994). Eid Al-fitr (Lesser Bairam) is a type of cultural ritual for Moslems related to consumer behaviour. On this occasion Moslems need to wear new clothes according to Sunna of Prophet Mohammed.

The culture concept has six characteristics (Sheth et al., 1999).

Firstly, culture is learned. Culture is not inherent in consumers. They learn from family and friends in regard to what is acceptable and unacceptable. Consumers read, watch television and experience the form of their culture continuously.

Secondly, culture regulates society by proffering a standard of behaviour and by consenting diversions from that behaviour.

Thirdly, culture makes living more effective, since culture is participating, then people do not have to learn things anew as they meet new people and new situations within the same culture. For example, if a person has learned the Saudi culture he/she can use the same etiquette in interacting with all Saudi consumers.

Fourthly, culture is adaptive, culture is a human reaction to the environment and, as the environment alters and develops, culture is likely to adapt itself to the new environmental demands.

Fifthly, culture is the social environment that embraces all living people alike and at all times.

Finally, multiple cultures are nested hierarchically; the culture of the larger community restricts and structures the culture of the smaller group inside it. Cultural change occurs continuously reflecting society at any time and marketers attempt to participate in this change process, also.

b) Subculture

According to Clark (1974), every society has a subculture: groups of consumers that share values but exhibit them in different ways. Subculture "*is the culture of a group within the larger society*" (Sheth et al., 1999, p. 150). The group can be based on any mutual characteristics recognised by the group as discrete from other groups or from society at large. Subculture is a term used by marketers to refer to a broad diversity of status. For example, group recognition can be based on characteristics, such as:

- nationality of origin - Italian, Korean
- race - Arabian, Asian, Indian
- region - Eastern, Middle Eastern, Western
- religion - Moslem, Christian
- gender - male and female

- age - elderly, youth, middle aged
- social class - upper- class, middle - class, lower class
- profession - engineer, plumber.

c) Social class

Social class is defined as the "*division of members of a society into hierarchy of distinct status classes, so that members of each class have relatively the same status and members of all other classes have either more or less status*" (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994, p. 377). Sociologists have proposed varied measures of social class; some researchers divided them into five-class (Blackburn and Bloom, 1985) or six-class (Martineau, 1957). Other researchers have identified nine-class, four-class and three-class (Mowen, 1995). Table 5.7 illustrates the number and diversity of social-class schemas.

Table 5.7 Variations in the Number and Types of Social-Class Categories

Two-category social-class schemas
• Blue collar, white collar
• Lower, upper
• Lower, middle
Three-category social-class schemas
• Blue collar, grey collar, white collar
• Lower, middle, upper
Four-category social-class schemas
• Lower, lower-middle, upper-middle, upper
Five-category social-class schemas
• Lower, working-class, lower-middle, upper-middle, upper
• Lower, lower-middle, middle, upper-middle, upper
Six-category social-class schemas
• Lower-lower, upper-lower, lower-middle, upper- middle, lower-upper, upper-upper
Seven-category social-class schemas
• Real lower-lower, a lower group of people but not the lowest, working class, middle class, upper-middle, lower-upper, upper-upper
Nine-category social-class schemas
• Lower-lower, middle-lower, upper-lower, lower-middle, middle-middle, upper-middle, lower-upper, middle-upper, upper-upper

Source: Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994, p. 380.

For marketers the most significant components of social class are generally considered to be occupation, personal performance, interactions, possessions, value orientations and class consciousness. Analysing social-class helps marketers to realise the need recognition of consumers, search processes and information processing, evaluating criteria and purchasing patterns of actual and aspiring social classes.

5.11.2 Social Factors

Consumer traveller behaviour is affected by social factors, such as the consumer's groups, family and social roles, and status. Since these social factors influence consumer response, marketers need to take these effects into account when designing their marketing strategies.

a) Reference groups

A group is defined as "*two or more people who interact to accomplish either individual or mutual goals*" (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994, p. 325). Reference groups are "*persons, groups and institutions whom one looks up to for guidance for one's own behaviour and value, and whose opinion about oneself one cares for*" (Sheth et al., 1999, p. 161). According to Solomon et al., (1999, p. 269), a reference group is "*an actual or imaginary individual or group conceived of having significant relevance upon an individual's evaluation, aspiration, or behaviour*". Table 5.8 lists several types of reference group and their key distinguishing characteristics.

Primary versus secondary and membership versus symbolic group

A membership group is simply any group that someone belongs to or qualifies for membership (Statt, 1997). The greatest effect and impact is usually exerted by

primary groups defined as "*the one that a person interacts with frequently (not necessarily face-to-face) and considers their opinion or norms important to follow*" (Sheth et al., 1999, p. 161). The family is an example of an effective influential primary group. In secondary groups a person interacts uncommonly with others, or their opinion is not considered principally important. Examples of secondary group occupational group are engineers and doctors. An additional way to differentiate between groups is whether the membership is real or symbolic. In contrast, in the symbolic groups an individual is not likely to obtain membership, despite behaving like a member, by adapting to the group values, attitudes and behaviour.

Table 5.8 Types of Reference Group

Types of Reference Group	Key Distinctions and characteristics
Formal/informal	Formal reference groups have a clearly specified structure: informal groups do not.
Primary/secondary	Primary reference groups involve direct, face-to-face interactions: secondary groups do not.
Membership	People become formal members of membership reference groups.
Aspirational	People aspire to join or emulate aspirational reference groups.
Dissociative	People seek to avoid or reject dissociative reference groups.

Source: Peter et al., 1999, p. 308.

Formal versus informal and ascribed versus choice group

Formal and informal groups differ in terms of the degree of structure and organisation they have. In the formal groups a person's conduct and behaviour tends to be highly codified. In contrast, in informal groups a person has few clear rules about group behaviour.

According to Park and Lessig (1977), there are three reference group influences on consumer choice.

Firstly, informational influence occurs when a consumer seeks and accepts advice from someone else where the latter's expertise on the performance attribute of the product or service is being bought.

Secondly, utilitarian influence occurs when a consumer allows his or her decision to be influenced by his or her desire to satisfy the expectation of someone else.

Thirdly, value-expressive influence occurs when a consumer buys something because it helps him or her to be like someone else. Marketers attempt to identify the reference group of their target market. The significance of the group influence differs over products and brands (Bearden and Etzel, 1982).

b) The family as a reference group

Possibly the most effective reference group for an individual consumer is that person's family. The phrase 'family' is a subset of further universal categorisation of the household. The phrase 'household' is used to portray all people related and unrelated, who form a housing unit (Mowen and Minor, 1998). The family in Islam societies is a "*human social group whose members are bound together by the bound of blood ties and/or marital relationships*" (Abdul-Ati, 1998, p. 110). As can be clearly seen in the previous definition, the fundamentals of the family are blood ties and/or marital commitments. A family in Western societies is a group of two or more persons connected by blood, marriage, or adoption, who live together.

A number of diverse forms of families exist. Three types of families dominate: the married couple, the nuclear family which includes a husband and wife and one or more children. This type of family is still the cornerstone of family life. The extended family includes the nuclear family plus other relatives, such as the parents of the wife

or husband. The type of family can vary from culture to culture. A family's needs and expenditures are influenced by such components as the number of people in the family and their ages. Marketers are interested in understanding families and household systems, not only the similarities, but also differences.

c) Family role

A person's family or household has a very significant effect on his or her consumer behaviour. A family is constituted of individual members who buy products for themselves and for other members of the family. According to Kotler (1984b) there are many specific roles in the family decision- making process:

- initiator (stimulator): the person who first raises the idea of purchasing a particular product or service,
- influencers: the members whose opinions have either direct or indirect influences on the purchasing decision,
- decider: the family member with the authority or power to make the purchasing decision by herself or himself,
- buyer: the person who actually makes the purchase by calling suppliers, visiting the store, or by mail,
- user: the person who consumes or uses a product or service.

d) Roles and status

An individual belongs to several groups: family, clubs and organisations. The individual's situation in a specific group can be defined in both role and status. A role can be defined as a "*set of accepted rules for appropriate behaviours in a particular situation*" (Wilkie, 1994, p. 367). A significant role in consumer behaviour is that of

the decider. This individual makes the last decision concerning which brand to select. Every role accomplishes a status reflecting the common respect given to it by society. In an Arabian family gender and age play extensive roles in setting responsibilities. The father is ordinarily the head of the family and the provider for its needs, whilst the mother plays the main role in raising children and taking care of the house. This construction is not forever the standard; in recent years, together, the father and the mother provide the family needs, whilst household everyday jobs are taken care of by helpers. In the past, major decisions were made by the father (autonomous decision), but, recently, several of these decisions are made jointly by the father and mother (syncratic decision). All Saudi consumers are Arab Muslims. These two factors contribute to the continuance of a strong family role in most Saudi purchasing decisions (Khizindar, 1992).

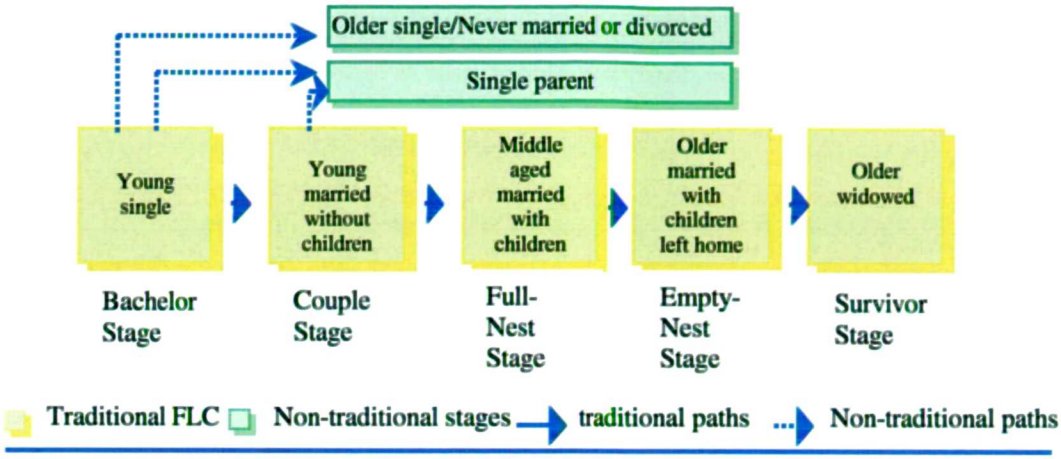
5.11.3 Personal Factors

A consumer travel decision is also affected by personal factors, such as the consumer's age and life-cycle stage, occupation and economic circumstances and lifestyle.

a) Age and life-cycle stage

Consumption patterns for goods and services change as consumers move through their life cycle. The term 'family life cycle' "*refers to the different stages a family goes through-starting from the time a person is young and single to the time he or she becomes a single, solitary survivor*" (Sheth et al., 1999, p. 569). Figure 5.19 indicates that the basic life cycle combines five stages: bachelor, couple, full nest, empty nest and survivor. The term of a traditional family life cycle has been criticised because, in several cases, individuals can have more than one type of cycle.

Figure 5.19 A Simplified Family Life Cycle



Source: Sheth et al., 1999, p. 569.

b) Occupation

Marketers try to recognise the occupational groups that have above-average percentage in their product or services. A corporation is capable of specialising in creating products that are needed by occupational groups, such as doctors and engineers. Occupation is strongly connected with education (which to some level causes occupation) and income (which to some level causes occupation) (Hawkins et al, 2001). The kind of work one does and the kinds of individuals one works with over time directly influence one's values, life style and all features of the consumption process. In addition, changes in occupational status directly affect purchasing power (Assael, 1998). According to Schiffman and Kanuk (1997) occupation is a widely accepted and possibly the best recognised measure of social class because it implies occupational status.

c) Economic circumstances

An individual's economic circumstances may influence his or her choice when buying products or services. Essentially, people who have more money spend more money. The issue of consumer income is, in that way, fundamental to most purchasing. The

apportionment of wealth is of great interest to social scientists and marketers because it determines which groups possess the highest buying power and market capability. An individual's income is the sum of monetary earnings that the individual obtains periodically on a more or less ordinary basis (Sheth et al., 1999). The general income level of a society has a forceful trend for what will be produced and consumed by it. Marketers of income-sensitive goods and services closely observe the direction in individual income, savings and interest rates, so that marketers can adjust according to the economic indicators.

d) Lifestyle

The lifestyle concept helps to perceive consumers' everyday needs and wants and is an instrument to permit a product or service to be located. Lifestyle refers to the kind of consumption reflecting a person's choices of how he or she spends time and money but, in many cases, also to the attitudes and values connected to these behavioural patterns (Solomon et al., 1999). Lifestyle is influenced by a consumer's personal features, such as race, gender, genetics, age and personality; his or her individual context, such as culture, personal worth and reference group; his or her needs and emotions.

The technique of measuring lifestyle is known as psychographics. Psychographics provide quantitative measures and could be utilised with the large samples needed for the definition of market segments. Psychographics is the term frequently applied interchangeably with AIO measures or statements to depict the activities, interests, and views of consumers (Engel et al., 1993). Psychographics may also be defined as "*the quantitative investigation of consumers' lifestyle and the personality*

characteristics" (Mowen, 1995, p. 259). Lifestyle helps the marketer to understand changing consumer values and how to influence purchasing behaviour.

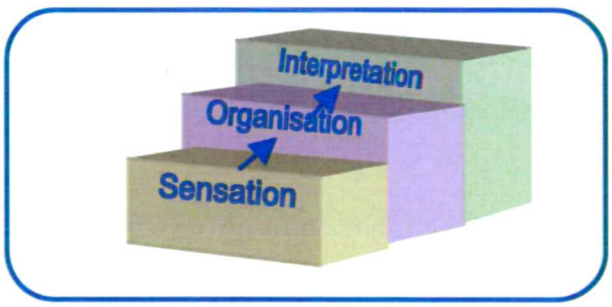
5.11.4 Psychological Factors

An individual's purchasing or travelling choices are further influenced by psychological factors: perception, learning, belief, attitudes and motivation. Motivation is discussed in the next chapter.

a) Perception

Marketers of goods and services want to understand the derivation of consumer perceptions and to affect them. Perception is defined as " *the process by which an individual selects stimuli from his or her environment, organises information about those stimul, and interprets the information to form a coherent, meaningful view of the world*" (Wells and Prensky, 1996, p. 257). The perceptual process in consumer behaviour has three steps, as illustrated in Figure 5.20.

Figure 5.20 Stages in Consumer Perception



Source: Sheth et al., 1999, p. 299.

Sensation is the direct and immediate response of a person's sensory receptors which are one or more of the five senses: touching, seeing, smelling, tasting and hearing to

stimuli in the environment.

Organisation is classifying by matching the sensed stimulus with similar object classification in one's memory.

Interpretation is attaching meaning to the stimulus, formatting a " *ruling" as to whether it is an objective you like, and what value it would be to you, the perceiver*" (Sheth et al., 1999, p. 298).

People can form diverse perceptions of the same stimulus because consumers employ three selective processes (Solomon et al., 1999). First, selective exposure in which consumers seek certain advertisements, salespersons, or other sources of information, avoiding others, depending on their needs and interests. Second, selective attention where an individual's attention is impelled by the stimulus of distinction and vividness. Third, selective interpretations in which consumers interpret the satisfaction and message of marketing communications, selectively. In view of selective exposure, attention and interpretation marketers have to work hard to get their message through across these processes.

b) Learning

Learning is conceptually related to perception. Firstly, learning and perception embrace the individual consumer's responses to environmental and psychosocial stimuli. Secondly, both can be explicated theoretically in terms of either a stimulus-response or a cognitive paradigm. Thirdly, both processes are intrinsically linked with, and formed by, a person's attitudes, personality and motives. Finally, both perceptions and learning are substantial in describing various features of consumer behaviour (Foxall et al, 1998).

The concept of learning, as discussed in section (5.3), has been defined in different perspectives. These distinct perspectives could be confusing if they are not discriminated from various approaches. The essential differentiation in learning theory is between the cognitive and behaviourist perspective.

From a marketing perspective consumer learning is (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994, p. 201) "*the process by which individuals acquire the purchase and consumption knowledge and experience they apply to future behaviour*". The useful importance of learning theories for marketers is that they will be able to create a demand for a product by combining it with effective drives, utilisation motivating cues and providing positive reinforcement.

c) Beliefs and Attitudes

People obtain the beliefs and attitudes which influence their purchasing behaviour from acting and learning. A belief is an attributive opinion that an individual has about something. These beliefs can be based on actual knowledge, opinion or faith and may, or may not, imply an emotional charge. Marketers are inquiring about the beliefs that people form about specific products and services, since these beliefs make up product, service and brand images which influence purchasing behaviour. Every individual consumer has a vast number of attitudes towards products, services, advertisements and retailers (Mowen, 1995).

Attitudes model a significant part of consumer theory and marketing practice because they are felt to be the crucial connection between what consumers think about products and what they buy in the marketplace. An attitude is "*a learned*

predisposition to act in a consistent way toward an object based on feelings and opinions that result from an evaluation of knowledge about the object" (Wells and Prensky, 1996, p. 313).

The function of attitudes

The functional theory of attitudes was primarily explicated by psychologist Daniel Katz (1960) to demonstrate how attitudes facilitate social behaviour. The function can assist marketers to realise why people hold the attitudes they have to psychological objects.

- The utilitarian or adjustment function is connected to the concept that people express feelings to increase rewards and reduce punishments. For marketers, affecting a consumer's utilitarian attitudes may be as easy as affording information in relation to how their product or service will offer the utilitarian benefits which satisfy consumers' needs better than existing choices.
- The ego-defensive or self-esteem maintenance function is the attitude formed to preserve the individual either from the rough actualities of the exterior threats or interior feelings. These ego-defensive attitudes are long lasting, deep rooted and hard to change because they go right to the heart of an individual's self-concept.
- The value-expressive or the social identify function expresses the consumer's main values to others. The expression of attitudes might even serve to assist an individual to identify his or her self-concept to others. Thus, consumers take on particular attitudes in an attempt to interpret their values into something more tangible and simply expressed. In consumer settings the value-expressive function can be seen in instances in which people express positive views about different products, brands and services to make a statement about themselves (Lutz, 1991).

- The knowledge function is one in which some attitudes are shaped as the conclusion of need for order, structure or meaning. This need regularly appears while an individual is in unclear circumstances or is challenged with new products or services.

Formation of consumer attitudes

The formation of consumer attitudes is strongly influenced by personal experience, group associations and the influence of others (Chisnall 1995; Wells and Prensky 1996).

Personal experiences. Individuals come into content with objects in their daily environment. A few are ordinary, while others are novel. Individuals assess the novel and reassess the old and this assessment procedure helps in developing attitudes toward objects. Individual direct experiences, together with sales representatives, services, products and stores, assist in producing their attitudes towards those market objects. Several factors influence how individuals will assess such direct contact.

Needs. Since needs differ and vary over time, individuals might build up various attitudes towards a similar objective at various stages in their life.

Selective perception. Individuals operate on their explanation of actuality so the way in which individuals explain information on products, stores influences their attitudes toward them.

Personality. How introverted-extroverted and aggressive-passive individuals will influence the attitudes they shape.

Attitude models

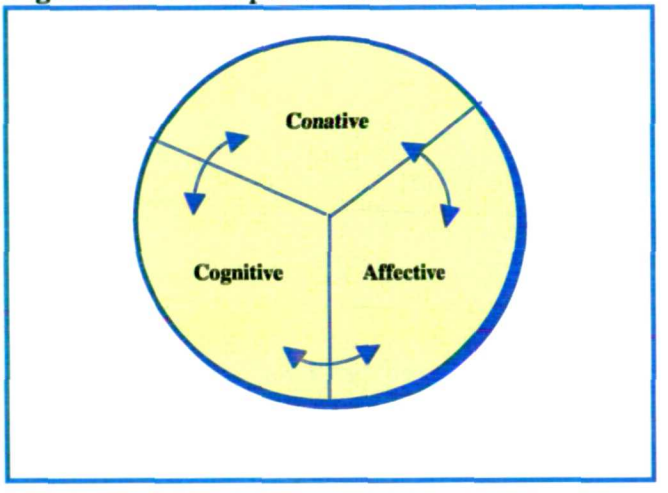
There are several important attitude models: the tricomponent attitude model, the

multiattribute model, the trying-to-consumer model and the attitude-toward-the-ad model. Each form of model looks at various components of an attitude and organises them in various approaches in an attempt to explain how attitudes develop.

a. Tricomponent attitude model

The tricomponent attitude model considers three components of an attitude: affect, behaviour and cognition. These are illustrated in Figure 5.21.

Figure 5.21 Tricomponent Attitude Model



Source: Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994, p.242.

The *cognitive component* (sometimes called belief or knowledge) consists of the beliefs and opinions derived from some evidence that an individual holds about something (a place, an experience, another person). The *affective component* is essentially concerned with a consumer's feelings and emotions for the destination or service and implies judgement on the basis of emotion (Moutinho, 2000). The *conative component* is essentially concerned with a consumer's likely behaviour relative to the product or service.

b. Multiattribute models

Multiattribute models concentrate on an object's multiple attributes and propose that the individual's attitude in the direction of the object is the consequence of the gathering of his or her evaluation of each one. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) developed the multiattribute models.

The attitude-toward-object model. According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), the model recognises three main factors that are predictive of attitudes.

Firstly, the model recognises the salient beliefs that an individual has about an object. (Salient beliefs are those attribute-object beliefs activated while an individual assesses an attitudinal object.)

Secondly, is the strength of the belief that an object has a specific attribute in question. The strength of the object-attribute link is generally measured by asking an individual, "How likely is it that object 'x' possesses attribute 'y'? For example, assume the researcher wants to determine the strength of the consumer's belief that the Philip Charriol wristwatch is high in price. Then the consumer will be asked to answer the following question.

How likely is it that the Philip Charriol wristwatch is high in price?

Extremely unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely likely

Thirdly, is the evaluation of each of the salient attributes. The evaluation rating represents a measurement of the goodness/badness of salient attributes. For instance, in the Philip Charriol wristwatch, consumers would be asked to rate the following question.

How bad/good is it for the Philip Charriol wristwatch to be a high in price?

Very bad -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 Very good

Fishbein's attitude model can be expressed in equation form as

$$A_o = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i e_i$$

where A_o = the overall attitude toward the object

b_i = the strength of the belief of whether or not object o has some specific attribute i

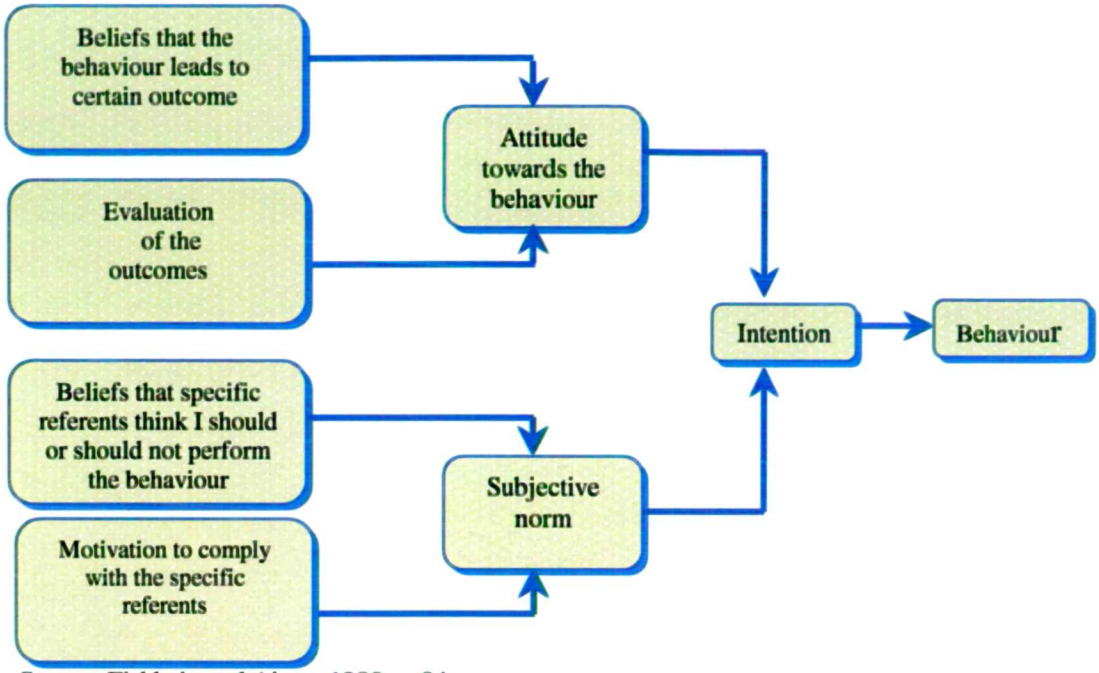
e_i = the evaluation of the goodness or badness of attribute i

n = the number of beliefs

Theory-of-reasoned-action model. The theory developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) explicitly studies the influence of (a) beliefs and attitudes regarding particular instances of behaviour and (b) the subjective standard that exists in the particular social context. Figure 5.22 illustrates the theory reasoned action which shows that an individual's behaviour is a function of his intention to behave in a particular situation and other intervening factors. This implies that the intention to behave cannot be expected to be an ideal forecaster of behaviour.

Two factors are seen to effect the individual's intention to act in particular situations: his attitude toward acting in that situation and subjective norms that introduce the powerful effects of reference groups on behaviour. Attitude is the first determinant of behavioural intention. It is the degree to which the person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour in question. Subjective norms are realised by the consumer's beliefs concerning the reactions of others regarding his intended behaviour and his motivation to meet with their criteria for behaviour.

Figure: 5.22 Theory of Reasoned Action Model



Source: Fishbein and Ajzen, 1980, p. 84.

Measuring attitudes

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (1994) and Solomon et al. (1999) researchers have developed three common methods of measuring attitudes.

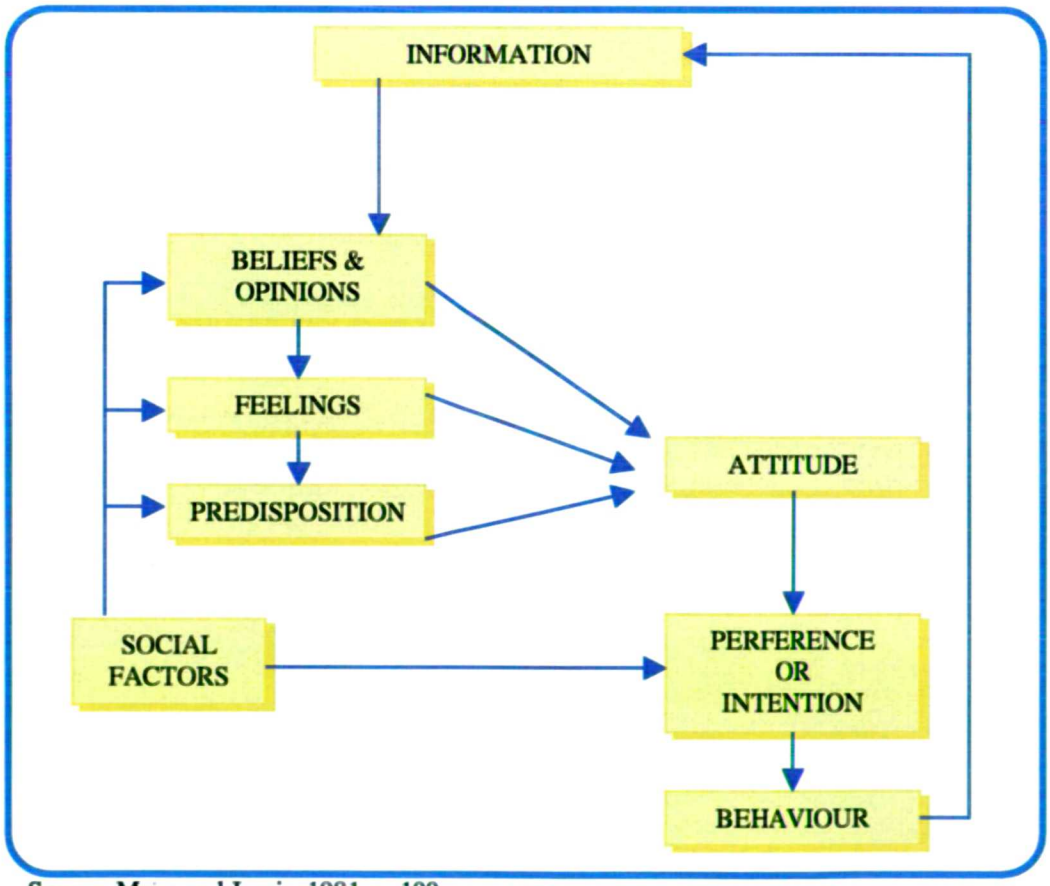
1. Observation of behaviour leaves researchers to deduce attitudes from behaviour.
2. Qualitative investigations include three methods. Firstly, the focus group is a small group of consumers (commonly between 6 and 12 participants) who argue a collection of questions about brand, market, or product, with the assistance of a moderator. Secondly, in-depth interviews are individual interviews directed one-on-one with a consumer and a trained interviewer; it frequently lasts for several hours. Thirdly, a psychological test applies projective techniques that are disguised assignments that permit the investigator a glance past the person's psychological defences to the motivation process itself.
3. Attitude scales-consumer survey questionnaires have been used by researchers to

measure attitudes on quantitative scales. The most common scale is the Likert scale which makes a statement followed by the stage of agreement. Also, semantic differential scales, which are made-up of opposite adjectives at each extreme, could be applied to measure attitudes. Marketers could use attitudes to predict consumer behaviour.

Tourist attitude

Attitudes can affect the travel decision making that travellers make. Figure 5.23 summarises the relationship between attitude formation and the travel decision-making process.

Figure 5.23 Attitudes and the Travel Decision-Making Process



Source: Mayo and Jarvis, 1981, p. 190.

The conceptual model of relationship between attitude and behaviour illustrates that an attitude comprises beliefs and opinions, feeling and predisposition to act. The attitude, once formed, leads to either preference or an intention to act in a particular way. Social factors of one kind or another can now have a significant influence on whether this preference or intention actually leads to particular behaviour (Mayo and Jarvis, 1981).

Marketers can influence travel behaviour through attitude change by:

- modifying the features of the tourist product (real positioning);
- changing beliefs about the product (psychological positioning);
- changing beliefs about competitive products (competitive depositioning);
- altering the relevant weights of the product attributes;
- inducing attention to certain attributes;
- modifying the tourist' ideals levels for certain attributes (Moutinho, 2000).

5.12 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to discuss the five perspectives of consumer behaviour: cognitive perspective, behaviour perspective, trait perspective, interpretive and postmodern perspective. From discussion of different perspectives for consumer behaviour, it can be identified that there are three perspectives for decision making: the traditional decision-making perspectives, experiential perspectives and the behaviour influence perspectives. The analysis of consumer decision-making involves determining how people choose between two or more alternatives. The generic consumer decision-making consists of five stages: problem recognition, information search and evaluation, purchasing processes and postpurchase experience. While the

buying process of services can be described in three stages: the pre-purchase stage, service encounter stage and post-purchase stage.

There are several ways of looking at travel decision-making and behaviour processes. Wahab et al and Moutinho models are based on rationality and cognitive information processing. Weaver and Oppermann argued that the destination selection process is more elaborate than the simple linear progression, in part, because each stage is influenced by many different factors and, also, because decisions are not always based on purely rational considerations.

Travel decisions, as well as different consumer decisions, are influenced by cultural, social, personal and psychological factors. Culture is a way of life; it is one of the most basic factors influencing the behaviour of the consumer. The major aspects of culture have had significant effects on consumer behaviour: ethnic and religious variations. Various social classes have diverse values, attitudes and behaviour: personal factors, such as the consumer's age and life cycle stage, occupation, economic circumstance lifestyle and personality and self-concept; psychological factors that consist of: perception, learning belief, attitude and motivation. The next chapter will discuss motivation in detail.

It can be concluded that understanding the Saudi tourist's needs and buying process is the foundation of successful marketing and development of domestic tourism. By understanding how buyers proceed through the decision-making process and the various participants in the buying procedure together with the major influencing factors on buying behaviour including cultural, social, personal and psychological aspects, then Saudi marketers can offer tourism services to meet buyer needs.

CHAPTER SIX

MOTIVATION

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6.1 Introduction

Marketers try to satisfy consumer needs, but the reasons any product or service is purchased can vary widely. The identification of consumer motives is an important step towards ensuring that the appropriate needs will be met by a product or service. Motivation is the cause of an individual's behaviour or the reason that an individual carries out some activity. Motivation is the starting point for all consumer behaviour, that driving force of a person, which pushes them to action, since the investigation of motivation is central to understanding the acquisition, consumption and disposition of goods, services and ideas.

In this chapter the definitions of motivation are presented. The motivational theories which are relevant to marketers, Murray's psychogenic needs, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Dichter's consumption needs, McClIelland's theory of learned needs and a selection of marketing scholars' lists of customer needs and goals are summarised. The literature classifying motives according to simplified schemes and a comprehensive scheme are explained. The motivational theories, drive theory, expectancy value theory and opponent-process theory, are discussed. Major areas of motivational research, value and emotion are reviewed. Involvement, type of involvement and factors affecting involvement are reviewed. The motivational studies of tourism (Plog 1974; Crompton 1979; Hudman 1980; Dann 1981; Iso-Ahola 1982; Beard and Ragheb 1983; Pearce and Caltabiano 1983; Mansfeld 1992; Fodness 1994; Uysal and Jurowski 1994) are explained in more detail.

6.2 Motivation

Motivation is a basic concept in human behaviour. Several basic concepts are integrated to an understanding of human motivation. The idea that motivation arises from an inconsistency between a desired and an existing condition in an old one. Motivation is the outcome of the interaction of anyone and the circumstances. According to Atkinson (1964, p. 1) "*the study of motivation has to do with analysis of the various factors which incite and direct an individual's action*". Motivation is described as "*the forces acting on or within an organism to initiate and direct behaviour, also the motivation concept use to explain differences in the intensity*" (Petri, 1991, p. 3).

Motivation can be described (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994, p. 94) "*as the driving force within individuals that impels to action*". Geen (1995, p. 14) defined the words motive and motivation as " *a connotation of intensity, activation and expenditure of force that results in either the initiation of behaviour or the switch from one ongoing activity to another*".

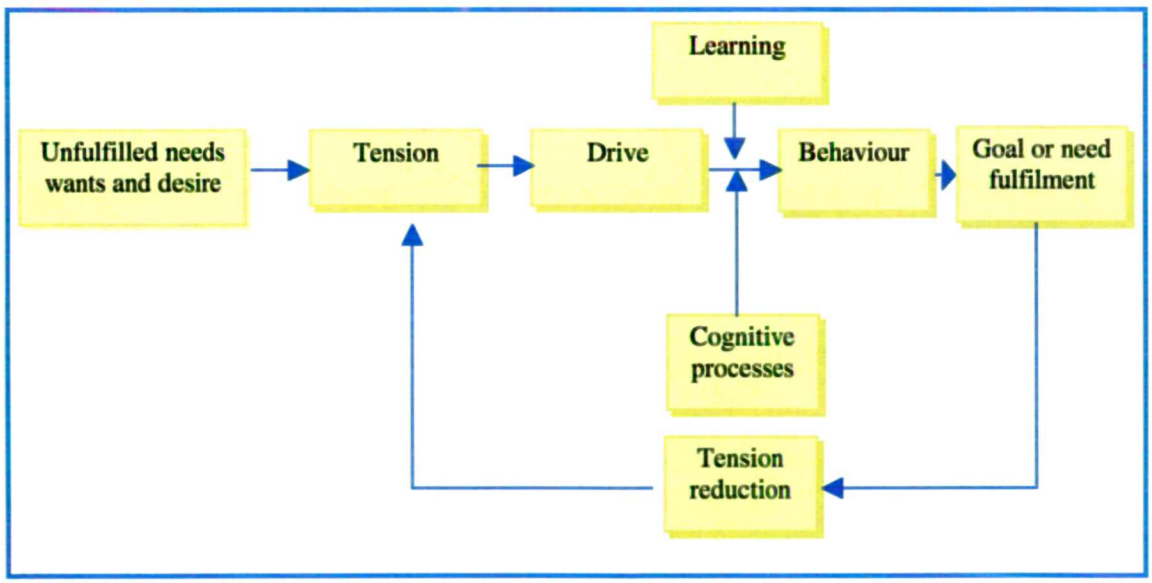
Wells and Prensky (1996, p. 227) define motivation as "*the process by which an individual recognises a need and takes action to satisfy it*". Statt (1997, p. 95) defines motivation as a "*general term for any part of the hypothetical psychological process which involves the experiencing of needs and drives and the behaviour that leads to the goal which satisfies them*".

Motivation can be defined as " *the state of drive or arousal that impels behaviour toward a goal-object. As a result motivation has two components (a) drive or*

arousal, which is an internal situation of tension that causes actions purported to decrease that tension, and (b) goal-object, that is something in the external world whose attainment will decrease the tension" (Sheth et al., 1999, p. 342).

The concept of motivation helps to explain why behaviour occurs in one situation but not in others. Marketing attempts to understand the primary motivation which influences consumers to plan strategies that together activate and satisfy felt needs. The marketing concept says that marketers should try to create products and services that best meet the wants and needs of consumers. This means that marketers must find out what needs consumers have and what motivates them to buy. Figure 6.1 shows a model of the motivation process.

Figure 6.1 Model of the Motivation Process



Source: Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994, P.94.

Pearce (1995) represented a summary of some major theories in psychology which have been concerned, in part, with the topic of motivation but does not consider travel motivation directly when formulating these approaches. Table 6.1 represents human motives and needs in psychology theory and research.

Table 6.1 Human Motives and Needs in Psychology Theory and Research

Theorist/Researcher	Theoretical Approach	Motives or Needs Emphasised
Sigmund Freud	Psychoanalytic theory	Need for aggression; need for sex; emphasis on unconscious needs
Carl Jung	Psychoanalytic approach	Need for arousal, need to create and to self-actualise
Alfred Adler	Modified psychoanalytic	Need for competence, need for mastery to overcome incompetence
Harry Stack Sullivan	Modified psychoanalytic	Need for acceptance and love
Karen Horney	Modified psychoanalytic	Need to control anxiety; need for love and security
Clark Hull	Learning theory	Need to reduce tension
Gordon Allport	Trait theory	Need to repeat intrinsically satisfying behaviours
Albert Bambera	Social learning theory	Need for self-efficacy or personal mastery
David McClelland, John Atkinson	Social approaches	Need for achievement
Carl Rogers	Humanistic	Need for self-development
Abraham Maslow	Humanistic	Hierarchy of needs, from physiological needs to safety needs to love and relationship needs to self-actualisation
David Berlyne	Cognitive approaches	Need to satisfy curiosity; need to seek mental stimulation
Ron Harre	Ethogenic (social and philosophical)	Need to earn respect and avoid contempt of others
Stephen Cohen, Laurie Taylor	Sociological theory	Need to escape; need for excitement and meaning
George Kelly	Personal construct theory	Need to predict and explain the world
Mikhail Csikszentmihali	Humanistic approach	Need for peak experiences

Source: Pearce, 1995, p.171.

6.2.1 Consumers' Needs

Need is a central variable in motivation. A need is an "*unsatisfactory condition of the customer that leads him or her to an action that will make that condition better*" (Sheth et al., 1999, p. 41). Need is a drive to eliminate the discrepancy between one's current state and some ideal state.

Needs have numerous characteristics. They are dynamic, which means that needs are never completely satisfied; satisfaction is transitory. When one need is satisfied another need appears. Needs also exist in hierarchy, which means that needs could be grouped at different levels. In addition, needs could be aroused by internal or external prompts. Needs may also be in conflict with one another. Three common types of

conflict can occur: approach-approach, approach-avoidance and avoidance-avoidance (Lewin, 1935).

Approach-approach conflict occurs when an individual is presented with two needs, each of which motivates an attractive goal that cannot be satisfied at the same time.

Approach-avoidance conflict occurs when a known behaviour is seen as both desirable and undesirable because it satisfies several needs but fails to satisfy others.

Avoidance-avoidance conflict occurs when a person has to choose between two unattractive goals that will satisfy a need. For marketers the customers' needs are the initial point from which all other business activities should be designed.

Bayton (1958) believes that it is difficult to develop a fundamental list of human needs. Psychologists and consumer researchers have recommended various categories of needs. Amongst those mainly relevant to marketers are Murray's psychogenic needs, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Dichter's consumption needs, McCllelland's theory of learned needs and a variety of marketing scholars' lists of customer needs (Mowen and Minor 1998; Hawkins et al. 2001).

a) Murray's List of Psychogenic Needs

Murray (1938) believed that the motivational process outcome from personal needs could best be observed in natural settings or clinical conditions. Murray supposed that many human beings' needs are nonconscious. Murray identified need as a recurrent concern for a goal state and believed that a need comprises two elements.

The first element is directional in nature and contains the objective which will satisfy the need. The second element contains the energy which drives the behaviour and can be considered as the intensity of the need. Murray, and his colleagues at Harvard, proposed a list of 28 psychogenic human needs. Murray believed that every person

has a similar fundamental set of needs and that people are dissimilar in their preference for ranking these needs.

Murray's basic needs include many motives that are assumed to play an important role in consumer behaviour, such as acquisition, achievement and exhibition. Murray (1936) developed the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) which is a series of pictures of human beings in conditions that are not clearly meaningful. Individuals who take the TAT are asked to depict the scenes exhibited in the pictures by creating stories. As a result of the vagueness of the scenes, it is supposed that the content of a story is based principally on the fantasies and need-related ideas in the individual's mind at the time. Table 6.2 shows Murray's list of psychogenic needs.

Table 6.2 Murray's List of Psychogenic Needs

Needs Associated with Inanimate Objects
Acquisition
Conservancy
Order
Retention
Construction
Needs That Reflect Ambition, Power, Accomplishment and Prestige
Superiority
Achievement
Recognition
Exhibition
Inviolacy (inviolate attitude)
Infavoidance (to avoid shame, failure, humiliation, ridicule
Defendance (defensive attitude)
Contrarience (to act differently from others)
Sado-Masochistic Needs
Aggression
Abasement
Needs Concerned with Affection between People
Affiliation
Rejection
Nurturance
Succorance
Play
Needs Concerned with Social Intercourse (the Needs to Ask and Tell)
Cognisance
Exposition

Source: Murray, 1955, pp. 63-66.

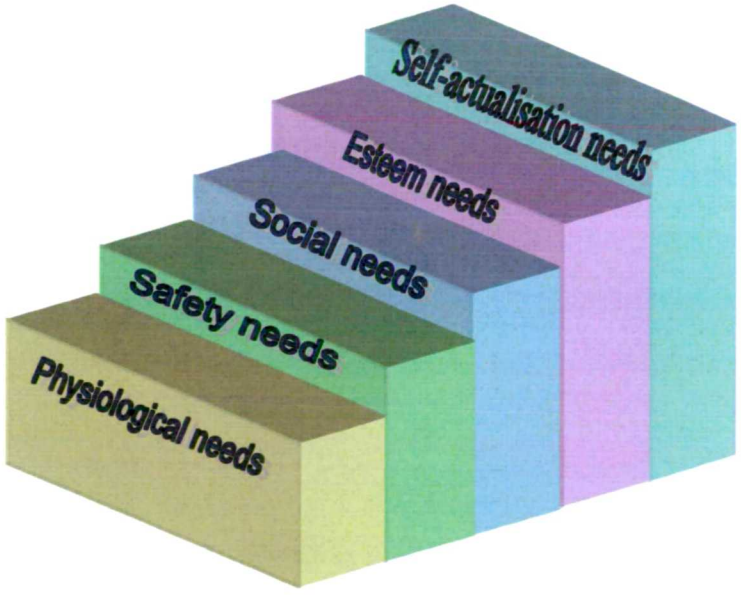
b) Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

According to Maslow (1945), people's needs and wants can be categorised or levelled into five basic sets, as shown in Figure 6.2.

1. Physiological needs: the first and most essential level of needs. These needs are required to maintain biological life, such as hunger, thirst or sex.

2. Safety and security needs: after the first level of needs have been satisfied safety and security needs become the driving strength behind a person's behaviour, such as needs for protection against danger and threat.

Figure 6.2 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Source: Maslow, 1945.

3. Social needs: the third level of Maslow's hierarchy. These are needs for belonging, for association, acceptance and love.

4. Esteem and ego needs: when the social needs are more or less satisfied the fourth level of Maslow's hierarchy becomes active. These are self-esteem: needs for accomplishment, for independence and esteem from others, such as needs for recognition and appreciation.
5. Self-actualisation needs: needs for realising one's potential.

These needs are arranged in a hierarchy in which the lower-level ones must be satisfied before the higher-level ones become energised. Maslow does not differentiate between needs and wants, however, most up-to-date books on marketing do. Consistent with this difference, only the first two needs in Maslow's hierarchy would be 'needs', while the final three are 'wants'.

Criticisms of Maslow's theory. Heylighen (1992), Schiffman and Kanuk, (1994) and Solomon et al. (1999) criticised Maslow's concepts by saying that they are too general. In addition, they mentioned that the main problem with the philosophy is that it cannot be tested empirically; there is no approach to rate accurately how satisfied one need has to be prior to the next higher need becoming operative.

In addition, Wells and Prensky (1996) and Hawkins et al. (2001) criticise Maslow's theory by pointing out that the theory fails to acknowledge the strong influence of psychological and social factors on the goals people choose to satisfy their physiological need. Also, Maslow's theory fails to address whether the similar needs subsist in all cultures or are equal for all people in one culture (Wells and Prensky 1996; Solomon et at. 1999).

c) McClelland's Theory of Learned Needs

McClelland adjusted the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) technique first used by Murray (1936). McClelland and his associates (1949) realised that it could also be applied to determine a person's motives. McClelland developed a significant stream of research focus on three needs: need for achievement, need for power and need for affiliation.

Achievement motivated people thrive on pursuing and attaining goals. They like to be able to control the situations in which they are involved. They take moderate risks. They like to get immediate feedback on how they have done. Power motivated individuals see almost every situation as an opportunity to seize control or dominate others. They seek to influence others. They like to change situations whether or not it is needed. They are willing to assert themselves when a decision needs to be made. Affiliation motivated people are usually friendly and like to socialize with others. This may distract them from their performance requirements. They will usually respond to an appeal for cooperation.

McClelland appeared to consider the need for affiliation in an approach similar to Maslow's belongingness need (Mowen and Minor, 1998). The need for affiliation is what motiveate people to make friends, to become members of groups and to associate with others. The need for power turns to the desire to obtain and practice control over others. The objective is to affect, direct and, possibly, dominate other people.

Peter (1985) criticised McClelland's research finding by pointing out that McClelland relied too much on psychological factors and ignored social, political and historical influence that did not suit his theory.

d) Dichter's Consumption Motives

One of the most famous motivational researchers was Ernest Dichter (1964) who applied Freud's psychoanalytical techniques to uncover the hidden motivations of consumers. By the late 1950s his research methodology had come to be known as motivational research. Dichter believed that unconscious motives play an important role in people's consumption decisions. He recognised a set of motives/needs which causes a person's consumption of various products. Table 6.3 illustrates Dichter's list of consumption motives. Dichter's school stressed the psychological and symbolic aspects of consumption.

Table 6.3 Dichter's List of Consumption Motives

Motive	Examples of Consumption Decisions
Master over environment	Kitchen appliances, power tools.
Status	Scotch; owning a car in third world economics.
Rewards	Candies, gifts to oneself.
Individuality	Gourmet foods; foreign cars; tattoos.
Social acceptance	Companionship: sharing tea drinking.
Love and affection	Giving children toys.
Security	Full drawer of ironed shirts.
Masculinity	Toy guns; heavy shoes.
Femininity	Decorating (products with heavy tactile component)
Eroticism	Sweets (to lick); gloves (to be removed by women by as a form of undressing).
Disalienation (a desire to feel connected)	Listening to and calling in talk shows.
Moral purity/cleanliness	White bread; bathing; cotton fabrics.
Magic-mystery	Belief in UFOs; religious rituals; crystals (having healing power); visiting Elvis Presley museum and buying related products.

Source: Sheth et al., 1999, p. 350.

Motivational research had some drawback. Firstly, many consumer researchers thought the research lacked adequate rigour and validity because interpretations were subjective and indirect (Kassarjian 1971; Solomon et al. 1999). Because research conclusions are based on the analyst's own judgment and are derived from

conversations with small number of people, several researchers are dubious as to the level to which these results can be generalized to a large market (Schiffman and Kanuk 1997; Mowen and Minor 1998; Solomon et al. 1999).

e) Needs Identified by Marketing Scholars

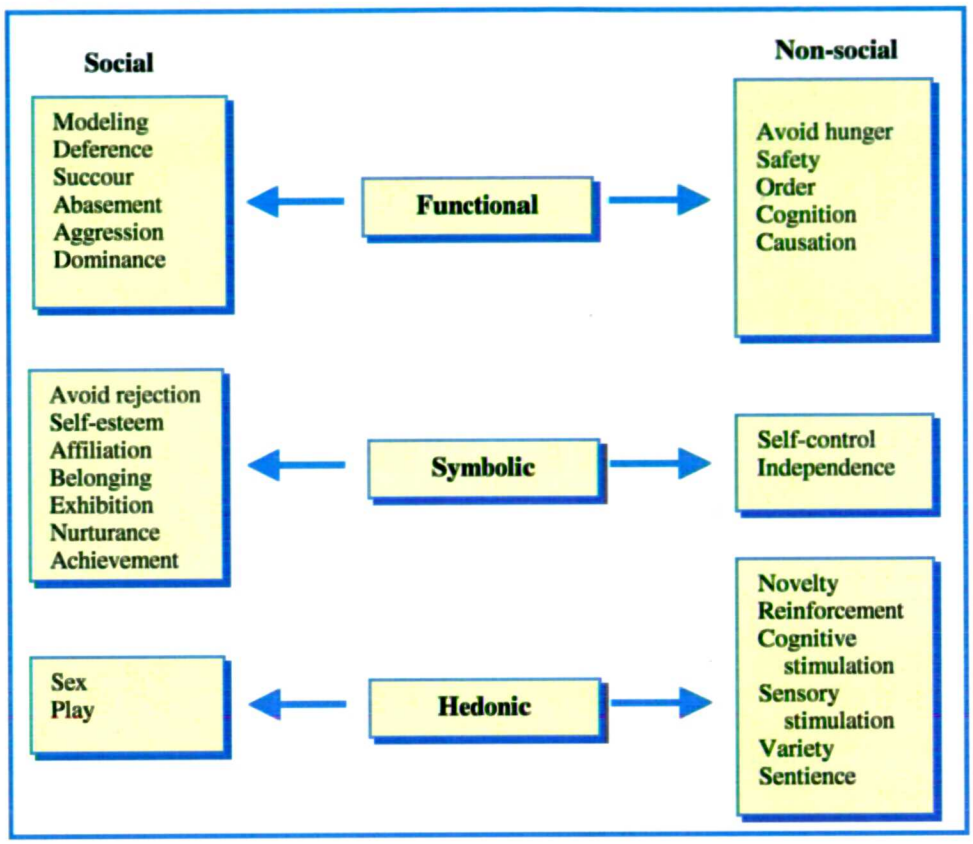
Several marketing scholars have recognised and suggested their own categorisation of needs in the marketplace (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982; Sheth et al. 1991; Hoyer and MacInnis 1997). Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) argued the hedonic consumption motive, differentiating it from the other utilitarian consumption. Hedonic consumption refers to the needs of consumers to use products and services to create fantasies, to get feeling via the senses and to get emotional arousal. The significant point made by Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) is that emotional desires sometimes control utilitarian motives in selecting products.

Sheth et al., (1991) suggested that person selection behaviour is based on five needs.

1. Functional - a product or service which satisfies its physical or functional use.
2. Social - a product or service that satisfies the social need within its combination with selected socio-economic, demographic or cultural-ethnic segments of society.
3. Emotional - the product or service satisfies this need by generating the suitable feelings and emotion.
4. Epistemic - the product or service satisfies the human needs to identify or learn something new.
5. Situational- a particular product or service satisfies needs that are situational or dependent upon the place and time.

Hoyer and MacInnis (1997) classify needs by social and non-social needs and functional, symbolic and hedonic needs, Figure 6.3 illustrates these needs.

Figure 6.3 Types of Needs



Source: Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997, p. 40.

Blackwell et al. (2001) classified needs as: physiological needs, safety and health needs, the needs for love and companionship, the need for financial resources and security, social image needs, the need to posses, the need to give, the need for information and the need for variety, while Solomon (2002) categorised needs as: biogenic needs, pschogenic needs, utilitarian needs and hedonic needs.

6.2.2 Goals

Goals are the sought-after results of motivated behaviour. As an element of the motivation procedure, customers recognise a goal which they believe will satisfy their

needs. A goal is a "*wished-for end that is considered to be attainable*" (Geen, 1995, p. 23). A goal is "*the ideal state that an individual thinks will satisfy a need; a product is a tool that provides the benefits consumers will use to achieve their goals*" (Wells and Prensky, 1996, p. 229). Goals are the sought-after results of motivation behaviour for any given need. There are many different and appropriate goals. Those selected by individuals depend on their personal experience, physical capacity, prevailing cultural norms and values, and the goal's accessibility in a physical and social environment.

6.3 Classifying Motives

According to Loudon and Della Bitta (1993) a number of categorisation methods are simplified so that they classify motives based on one unique feature of interest. There are a number of particular studies relevant to understanding consumers.

6.3.1 Simplified Schemes

1. Physiological or biological and psychogenic motives should satisfy a person's biological need in order to stay alive, such as thirst and hunger. Psychogenic motives are the social and psychological motives that arise as a consequence of a person's psychological state and his or her connections in the company of others.
2. Conscious or unconscious motives are those in addition, and different, to level in which they reach consumers' awareness. Conscious motives are those of which customers are relatively aware, while unconscious motives are those which consumers are not aware of their effect.
3. Motivation may be positive or negative in direction; a person might touch a driving force in the direction of some object or situation or a driving force aside from some object or situation.

6.3.2 Comprehensive Schemes

McGuire (1976) suggested comprehensive techniques using four two-pole motive tendencies. Table 6.4 shows that the relevant distinctions are cognitive/affective (mental deliberation versus emotional reactions), preservation/growth (maintenance of equilibrium versus self-development), active/passive (self-initiated action versus reactive tendencies) and internal/external (achievement of new internal state versus new relationships with the environment).

Table 6.4 A Comprehensive Classification of Major Motive Influence

		Active				Passive			
		Internal		External		Internal		External	
Cognitive	**Preservation**	1	Consistency	2	Attribution	3	Categorisation	4	Objectification
	Growth	5	Autonomy	6	Exploration	7	Matching	8	Utilitarian
Affective	**Preservation**	9	Tension reduction	10	Expressive	11	Ego-defensive	12	Reinforcement
	Growth	13	Assertion	14	Affiliation	15	Identification	16	Modelling

Source: McGuire, 1976, p. 302-319.

These four means of categorisation are not meant to be reciprocally exclusive. Indeed, when used together they afford an interesting foundation for appreciating main motivational influences on consumer behaviour.

6.4 Theories of Motivation

Theories of motivation have played an important role in the development of psychology as a unique area of enquiry.

6.4.1 Drive Theory

Drive theory was recognised as the primary motivational concept. The drive concept, first presented by Woodworth (1918), proposed that motivated behaviour should be in

response to altering bodily needs that were performed upon by finding those items in the environment that would decrease the drive.

According to Geen (1995) the most elaborate and influential drive theory of motivation was that of Hull. Drive is defined in Hull's theory (1943) as a direct response to either deprivation of some necessary commodity (such as food or water) or strong stimulation (such as a painful stimulus). Drive theory concentrates on biological needs which create unpleasant situations of arousal. People are motivated to reduce the tension caused by this arousal. Tension reduction has been proposed as a fundamental mechanism leading human being behaviour. Drive theory has run into problems when it attempts to explain several aspects of human behaviour which occur counter to its predictions. Human beings frequently do things that increase a drive situation rather than decrease it.

6.4.2 Expectancy Theory

Victor Vroom (1964) studied the motivational decision-making processes and developed what has come to be known as expectancy theory This approach attempts to measure the degree of desire to perform behaviour rather than the need to perform behaviour. Motivation strength is calculated by multiplying the perceived value of the result of performing behaviour by the perceived probability that the result will materialize. The idea that consumers are driven by complex internal processes of motivation is sometimes known as expectancy theory.

Using the expectancy theory of motivation helps to understand how individuals make decisions regarding various behavioural alternatives. This model deals with the

direction aspect of motivation, that is, once behaviour is energized, the behavioural alternatives individuals are likely to pursue.

Expectancy theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual. The theory focuses on three relationships: effort-performance relationship, performance-reward relationship and rewards-personal goal relationship.

In the marketing context, people tend to perceive services and service attributes according to their own expectations. Creating proper expectations is significant for the service provider to avoid customers having expectations that cannot be met. Understanding what consumers expect from a service organisation is necessary for service managers because expectations provide a standard of contrast against which consumers judge an origination's performance.

Gnoth (1997) developed a model of tourism motivation and expectation which helps categorising attitudes towards destinations, attractions, activities, event and situations. Further explanation for this will be given in section 6.9.11.

In tourism, according to Swarbrooke and Horner (1999), tourist expectations have risen over time in response to two influences:

1. improvement in their everyday standard of living and housing facilities that cause them continually to demand something further when they are on holiday;
2. product innovation by organisations that are then copied by competitors and turn out to be the norm.

6.4.3 Opponent-Process Theory

The opponent-process theory of Solomon (1980) tries to justify such phenomena as why people feel exhilarated after doing something frightening, such as parachute jumping, or bad after doing something exhilarating, such as taking drugs. Solomon supposes that both pleasant and aversive hedonic states are opposed by the central nervous system process that reduces their intensity. The process reduces these major hedonic feelings by creating a hedonic state that is opposite in quality to that of the initial stimulus. Thus, stimuli that provide an increase to pleasurable feelings will be opposed by aversive feelings created by the process.

Conversely, stimuli that initially give rise to aversive feelings will be opposed by pleasant feelings created by the process. According to Mowen (1995) the opponent-process theory is quite simple because it has broad explicatory powers and it could be applied to a diversity of consumer behaviour.

6.5 Value

Values are "*enduring beliefs that a given behaviour or outcome is desirable or good*" (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5). Rokeach conceptualised two kinds of values: instrumental values and terminal values. Instrumental values represented common beliefs in relation to desirable styles of conduct, while terminal values represented enduring beliefs relating to desirable end-states of existence. Ravald and Grönroos (1996, p. 21) "*found that value is constantly used in a context meaning values of consumers*".

Values have been represented to be theoretically significant for studying consumer behaviour (Vinson and Lamont, 1977). Values are useful in explaining consumer

behaviour since they affect consumer behaviour pertaining to their selection with regard to product classes, brands and store outlets (Scott and Lamont, 1977).

Several ways have been proposed to measure values. The Rokeach value survey is a self-administered inventory to measure two kinds of values: terminal values that represent the goals and objectives consumers seek and instrumental values which measure the ways in which consumers can achieve the objectives they seek. Kahle et al. (1985) developed a shorter list of values (LOV) which are intended to reflect more closely consumers' actual behaviour. The list of values (LOV) are: a sense of belonging, being well respected, excitement, fun and enjoyment, security, self-fulfilment, self-respect, sense of accomplishment and warm relationships with others.

Value can assisting explaining the distinctions in behaviour between people from diverse cultures (McCort and Malhotra, 1993). Since the Saudi Arabian culture is strongly influenced by Islamic teaching and by the nomadic roots of that teaching (Arastas et al., 1980), Saudi values are based principally on the country's Islamic and nomadic heritage (At-Awarjri, 1989).

6.6 Emotion

Needs and emotions are strongly related. Like needs, emotions are able to stimulate the individual toward relevant goal-objects. Emotion can be conceptualised in several ways from physiological changes to cognitive appraisals to innate fundamental facial expression. Every approach has something to offer and the lack of commonly agreeable definition of emotion possibly results from the fact that emotion is multifaceted (Petri, 1991).

Emotion is consciousness of the occurrence of some physiological arousal followed by a behavioural response along with the appraised meaning of both. This definition implies that emotions have three components: physiological, behaviour and cognitive. A number of attempts have been made to distinguish the different emotions that people experience. Early work by Izard (1977, 1979) developed ten fundamental emotions: interest-excitement, joy, surprise, distress-anguish, anger, disgust, contempt, fear, shame and guilt.

Consumer researchers MacInnis and Westbrook (1978) developed an initial attempt to illustrate emotional responses that people can experience when viewing advertisements. These emotional responses in advertising are fascination, surprise, excitement, fun/playfulness, joy, bliss, belonging, pride, affectionate love, compassion, romantic love, gratitude, sexual desire, sentimentality, sadness, distress/anxiety, fear, disgust, contempt, shame, anger and guilt.

Holbrook and Batra (1987) have suggested three basic dimensions of emotions, pleasure, arousal and dominance (PAD). Specific emotions reflect a variety of emotions or emotional types associated with each dimension. Batra and Holbrook (1990) have developed the three basic dimensions to 12-emotion typology as shown in Table 6.5.

According to Mowen and Miner (1998) consumer researchers try to identified whether consumers feel strong positive or negative emotion. The evidence suggests that even weak feelings have an impact on behaviour and cognition.

Table 6.5 Batra and Holbrook's Emotions and Indicators

Emotion	Indicator
Activation	Arousal, active, excited
Skepticism	Skeptical, suspicious
Anger	Angry, enraged, mad
Restful	Restful, serene
Bored	Bored, uninvolved, unimpressed, unexcited
Fear	Fearful, afraid
Desire	Desirous, wishful, full of craving
Social affection	Loving, affectionate, pure
Gratitude	Grateful, thankful, benefited
Sadness	Sad, remorseful, sorrowful
Irritation	Disgusted, irritated, annoyed
Surgency	Playful, entertained

Batra and Holbrook , 1990, p.22

6.7 Involvement

A final outcome of motivation is that it evokes a psychological state in consumers called involvement. The concept of consumer involvement is a theoretical construct that draws on the cognitive styles of consumers when seeking to explain consumer behaviour (McCarthy et al, 2001). It is a significant concept in consumer marketing in that it provides a basis for a motivational force which can describe different behavioural outcomes of consumers, such as number and type of choice criteria, extensiveness of information search, length of decision-making process, variety-seeking behaviour and brand switching (Beharrell and Denison, 1995).

In earlier work Day (1970, p. 45) defined involvement as " *the general level of interest in the object, or the centrality of the object to the person's ego-structure*". Whilst Bowen and Charfee (1974, p. 613) defined involvement as "*the relationship between consumer and product*". Similarly, Bloch (1982, p. 413) defined product involvement as a unique interrelationship between consumer and product: "*an*

unobservable state reflecting the amount of interest, arousal or emotional attachment evoked by the product in a particular individual".

Celsi and Olson (1988) have applied the term 'felt involvement' to emphasise that involvement is a psychological state which is experienced by customers only at particular times and occasions. Mittal (1989) has characterised involvement as "a *motivational state that has been activated by stimulus, situation, or a decision task*".

More recently Martin (1998, p. 9) defined involvement as "*the degree of psychological identification and affective, emotional ties the consumer has with stimulus or stimuli (stimuli being the product category or specific brand)*". According to Solomon et al., (1999, p. 100) "*it seems that involvement is a fuzzy concept, because it overlaps with other things and means different things to different people*".

6.7.1 Types of Involvement

Researchers have recognised several kinds of involvement: situational, enduring and response involvement (Rothschild 1975, 1979a, 1979b; Houston and Rothschild 1978).

1. Situational involvement is the degree of involvement evoked by a specific situation, such as a purchase occasion, and is affected by product attributes.
2. Enduring involvement is the progressing concern with a product that the individual brings into the purchase situation.
3. Response involvement represents the complexity or extensiveness of consumer decision making and, thus, refers to the consequences of the inner state of being involved.

6.7.2 Factors Influencing Degree of Involvement

Several factors exist that determine the degree of involvement of consumers in decision-making. These factors that affect apeople's involvement and determine its range are:

a) Personal factors of the customer making the purchase, the degree of involvement tends to be higher when the decision affects the persons directly (Blackwell et al. 2001). Personal factors include culture and value demographics, personality, lifestyle and psychographics.

b) Product factors, the product involvement is defined as "*an internal state variable that indicates the amount of arousal, interest or drive evoked by a product class*" (Dholakia, 2001, p. 1341). Marketers recognize that product factors carry a multitude of meanings. Meanings may be objective or symbolic, shared or personal, or evoke a high or low emotional response (Fournier, 1991).

c) Situational factors involvement is fundamentally different in origin and refers to the raised level of interest arising from a specific situation, typically a purchase occasion. Bloch and Richins (1983, p. 72) define situational involvement as "*a temporary perception of product importance based on the consumer's desire to obtain particular extrinsic goals that may derive from the purchase and/or usage of the product*". Situational involvement may result in the detailed evaluation of objective stimuli, such as cost or performance characteristics of the product and/or the social and psychological environment surrounding its purchase and consumption.

6.8 Tourism Motivation

The field of tourism motivation research continues to attract increasing attention from researchers (Holden, 1999), though it has gained importance particularly over the last

decade. According to Wahab (1975) the whole area of travel motivation is so fundamental and indispensable a subject in tourism studies that ignoring it, or passing lightly over it, would defeat the complete reason behind any tourism development plans. Murphy (1985) argues that motivation is essential for the development of tourism, because, without interest or the need to travel, the tourism industry could not exist.

Gilbert (1991) argued that an understanding of motivation is important since it forms the main influence of tourism demand patterns. In addition, it is one of the most complex areas of tourism research (Sharpley, 1999). One of the earlier reasons for emphasising the significance of tourist motivation came from marketers and promoters of tourism (Howells, 2000). There have been several motivational studies of tourism (Cohen 1972; Plog 1974; Crompton 1979; Hudman, 1980; Dann 1981; Iso-Ahola 1982; Beard and Ragheb 1983; Pearce and Caltabiano 1983; Mansfeld 1992; Fodness 1994; Uysal and Jurowski 1994). The studies of tourism motivation are derived from a variety of disciplinary subjects that have led to a variety of approaches.

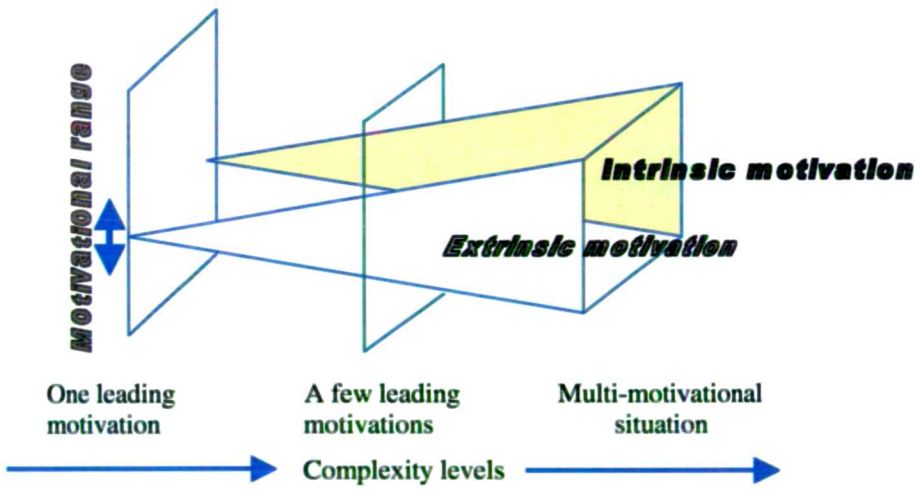
The key to realising tourist motivation is to see holiday travel as a satisfier of needs and wants. Tourists take holidays in the desire and belief that these holidays will satisfy, either wholly or partly, a diversity of needs and wants. Motivation arises when a person wants to satisfy a need. When a person travels he or she is looking to satisfy a group of needs which might be effected by physiological or psychological motives (Uysal and Hagan, 1993).

Physiological motives are the outcome of biological and physical needs, such as food, safety, health, culture, climate and education. The psychological motives are affected

by the person's needs which are formed by his or her environment. Leisure travel reflects inner needs that are difficult for people to recognise and explain. Van Doren (1983) proposed that the drive to travel for pleasure relies on a person's motivation and cultural circumstances. Iso-Ahola (1982) stated that motivation is one of the most significant determinants of recreation travel.

Mansfeld (1992) explains that, the larger the number of motivators influencing travel behaviour, the more complex it becomes to differentiate each separate motivation, to assess its relative significance as a trip generator and to forecast any potential travel behaviour on its base. Figure 6.4 shows the complexity levels in travel motivation.

Figure 6.4 Complexity Levels in Travel Motivation



Source: Mansfeld, 1992, p. 404.

The term 'motive' has been applied to refer to internal forces, external goals and incentives that guide, direct and integrate a person's behaviour, for future, potential satisfaction (Iso-Ahola 1982; Uysal and Hagan 1993).

In summary, motives drive people to act in a definite way. These can be differentiated as 'positive' driving forces which energise persons to travel to specific destinations, or

'negative' forces, such as fears or aversions, which lead people not to travel to destinations (Gilbert and Terrata, 2001).

6.8.1 Cohen Motives

Cohen (1972) was the first sociologist to propose a theory of different types of tourists. Cohen categorised tourists by their relationship to both the tourist business establishment and the host country. This categorisation described the former two classifications of tourists as either institutionalised and non-institutionalised.

Institutionalised

Key features of the institutionalised tourist contain their preference for home comforts and security. This tourist conforms most closely to the stereotypical image of the tourist. For the institutionalised tourist, the tourism experience is safe, planned, controlled and provided by the mass tourism industry.

According to Cohen (1972), there are two types of institutionalised tourists.

1. The organised mass tourist buys a package holiday to a popular destination, prefers hotels that reflect the home environment and has little contact with the local population or hosts.
2. The individual mass tourist arranges their holiday and books through an operator, therefore they can exercise a certain degree of personal choice and control. However, they still tend to stay on the beaten track and rely on the formal tourist industry.

Non-institutionalised

In contrast, the non-institutionalised tourists require little contact with the tourism establishment and are often pathfinders for the mass tourism industry.

Cohen (1972) proposes two types of non-institutionalised tourists:

1. The explorer makes their own travel arrangements and sets out, consciously, to avoid contact with other tourists. They tries to associate themselves with local people, but they will except a certain level of comfort and safety.
2. The drifter tries to become accepted, albeit temporarily, as part of the local community by living and working with locals. Their contact with the familiar is minimal. They have no planned itinerary and choose their destinations and accommodation on a whim.

Sharpley (1994) criticises Cohen's (1972) typology on the grounds that the institutionalised and non-institutionalised kinds are not totally different from each others. Also, Sharpley mentioned that even explorers make use of specialist guidebooks to select their routes and accommodation.

Cohen, in 1979, suggested a five group classification of tourists, based on the type of experience they were seeking.

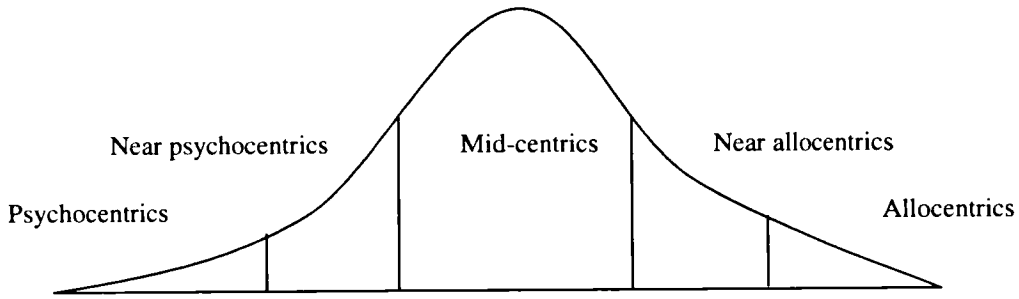
1. The recreational tourist has no interest in learning about other cultures. The trip is purely for entertainment and relaxation to restore physical and mental powers.
2. The diversionary tourist seeks ways of forgetting their everyday life at home.
3. The experiential tourist looks for authentic experience and looks for meaning in the lives of others.
4. The experimental tourist has the major desire to be in contact with local people.
5. The existential tourist wants to immerse themselves totally in the foreign culture for spiritual sustenance on their holiday destination.

Sharpley (1994) noted that this classification was not based on any empirical research.

6.8.2 Plog Travel Motivation Theory

Plog (1974a) developed a travel motivation theory which classified the United States population as a series of interrelated psychographic types. Figure 6.5 shows the psychographic type of population distribution.

Figure 6.5 US Population Distribution by Psychographic Type



Source: Plog, 1974a, pp. 55-58.

These can be classified by a number of psychographic types:

1. allocentrics, representing those looking for diversity, self-confident, friendly adventuresome and individual exploration;
2. midecentrics, representing people travelling to areas with facilities and growing reputation;
3. pychocentrics, representing those who organise package holidays to popular destinations.

Plog, moreover, found that those who were at the lower end of income level were more likely to be psychocentric types, while, in the upper income group, there was a higher probability of being allocentric. Plog later found (1990) that the psychocentric types demonstrated a shared set of characteristics: territory boundness, generalised anxieties and a sense of powerlessness.

Cooper et al. (1998) mentioned that Plog's theory is a helpful technique of thinking in relation to tourists but it is not easy to use for two reasons. Firstly, tourists will travel with various motivations on various events. Secondly, second holiday or a short-break weekend might be close to psychocentric destination, while the main holiday could be in an allocentric destination. Also, McCabe (2000) notes that Plog's theory was not grounded in the nation of homoeostasis theory; the analysis was heavily interpretive.

Smith (1990) tested Plog's model, using evidence from seven different nations. He concluded that his own results failed to support Plog's original model of an association between personality types and destination preferences. Smith observed that the model cannot be used in any country except the United States.

Plog (1990) challenged Smith about the validity of the variables of measurement and the sample used by Smith. Plog alleged that the researcher had fallen into unnecessary 'potholes'. Cooper et al., (1998) required additional controlled empirical studies to ensure that Plog's theory could be validated as a central stake in tourism theory.

6.8.3 Cromptons' Motivation Study

Crompton (1979) empirically identified nine motives influencing the choice of the type of pleasure holiday and destination that is based on the concept of pull and push factors. Pull factors are those that attract the potential traveller to a particular destination when the decision to travel has been made. By contrast, push factors have been deemed to be those socio-psychological motives that predispose individuals to travel. According to Ateljevic (2000, p. 196) "*the push factors have been always related to the inter/personal consumer world', and pull factors to the stimuli of*

destination". Recently, Crompton and McKay (1997) argued that push-pull conceptualisation should be refined by integrating with Iso-Ahola's (1982) escape-seeking dichotomy. Accordingly, it is possible to interpret the pull force in terms of intrinsic benefits: they divide the seeking and escape forces into personal and interpersonal dimensions. Table 6.6 illustrates Crompton's motives.

Table 6.6 Motive that Influence Selection of Type of Pleasure Holiday and Destination

Socio-psychological motives	Culture motives
Escape from a perceived mundane environment Exploration and evaluation of self; relaxation Prestige; regression Enhancement of kinship relationships Facilitation of social interaction	Novelty Education

Source: Crompton, 1979, p. 408-424.

6.8.4 Dann Motivations

Dann (1977) used survey data on visitor's attitudes towards Barbados to recognise two essential motivations: anomie and ego-enhancement. Dann states that anomie represented the desire to exceed the feeling of isolation inherent in everyday life. Ego-enhancement is derived from the need for recognition which is obtained through the status awarded by travel.

Dann (1981, p. 205) defined tourist motivation as "*a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision*". This definition was criticised by Iso-Ahola in 1982. According to Iso-Ahola the first part of the definition which is "a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel", can serve as a starting-point for examining and expanding

the review. The other part of the definition, which is a "meaningful state of mind subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision", has nothing to do with the process of motivation and so is disregarded in Iso-Ahola's investigation.

Dann (1981) has indicated seven approaches toward motivation in term of people and their cultural conditioning.

1. *Travel as a response to what is lacking yet desired.* This approach indicates that tourists are motivated by the desire to practice phenomena that are unlike those obtainable in their home setting.

2. *Destination pull in response to motivational push.* This approach investigates the motivation of individual tourists in rank of the level of desire (push) and pull of the destination or attraction.

3. *Motivation as fantasy.* This is a subset of the first two approaches and proposes that tourists travel in order to assume behaviour that could be culturally sanctioned in their home setting.

4. *Motivation as classified purpose.* This approach is an extensive type that evokes the major purpose of a journey as a motivator for travel. The purpose could comprise enjoying leisure activities, visiting families and friends, or study.

5. *Motivational typologies.* This approach assumes two forms of typologies. First the behavioural typologies which are represented by Gray (1970) as the motivator's "sunlust" that looks a better situation than is obtainable at home and "wanderlust", it is curiosity to practice the unfamiliar and strange. Other typologies focus on the various dimensions of tourist role.

6. *Motivation and tourist experience.* This approach is characterised by discussions concerning the authenticity of tourist experiences which depend upon beliefs in relation to the category of tourist experience.

7. *Motivation as auto-definition and meaning.* This approach proposes that the manner in which tourists describe their conditions will offer a better realisation of tourist motivation than will be observed in their behaviour in simple terms.

Within these seven perspectives, Sharpley (1999) mentioned that there are two distinct approaches that can be applied as a foundation for an examination of tourist behaviour. The first is the extrinsic motivational factors that consider ways in which motivation results from influences external to the tourist. The second is the intrinsic motivational factors that consider the personal needs of tourists themselves.

6.8.5 Hudman Push Factors of Travel

Maslow's hierarchy of needs has been suggested by Hudman (1980) as a basis for push factors of travel. The six levels of needs that are related to push factors of travel motivation are presented in Figure 6.6.

Push factors are deemed to be those sociopsychological constructs of the tourist and their environments which incline the person to travel and help explain the desire to travel. They are origin-related factors that motivate or produce a desire to travel.

Smith (1983) states that destination attributes might be either tangible resources or the perceptions and expectations of the traveller. The majority of the push factors are

intangible desires of the individual traveller. The pull factors are destination attributes which react to, and support, push factor motivation (Lundberg, 1990).

Figure 6.6 Push and Pull Factors of Recreational Travel Motivation



Source: Hudman, 1980, 35-60.

A tourist motivation grounded on the concepts of push and pull factors has been generally accepted (Crompton 1979; Hudman 1980; Dann 1981; Pearce and Caltabiano 1983; Uysal and Jurowski 1994; Chul Oh, Uysal and Weaver 1995; Baloglu and Uysal 1996; Kim and Lee 2002). This concept involves the theory that people travel because they are pushed and pulled by 'forces'. These forces, or motivational factors, explain how people are pushed by motivational variables into making travel decisions and how they are pulled or attracted by the destination area. Uysal and Jurowski (1994) examined the nature and extents of the relationship between push and pull factors for pleasure tourism. They found that there is a correlation between the push and pull factors.

Baloglu and Uysal (1996) studied the relationship between push and pull motivation to recognise product bundles in order to structure market segments and provide a marketing implication. Their results propose that there is a significant relationship between destination attributes 'pull' and motives 'push'. The simultaneous test of push and pull motivations would be further helpful in segmenting markets, designing promotional programmes and packages and decision making about destination improvement.

According to Galloway (1998) any complete account of motivation should take account of not only 'push' factors, but also external environmental causes of behaviour, 'pull' factors incentives.

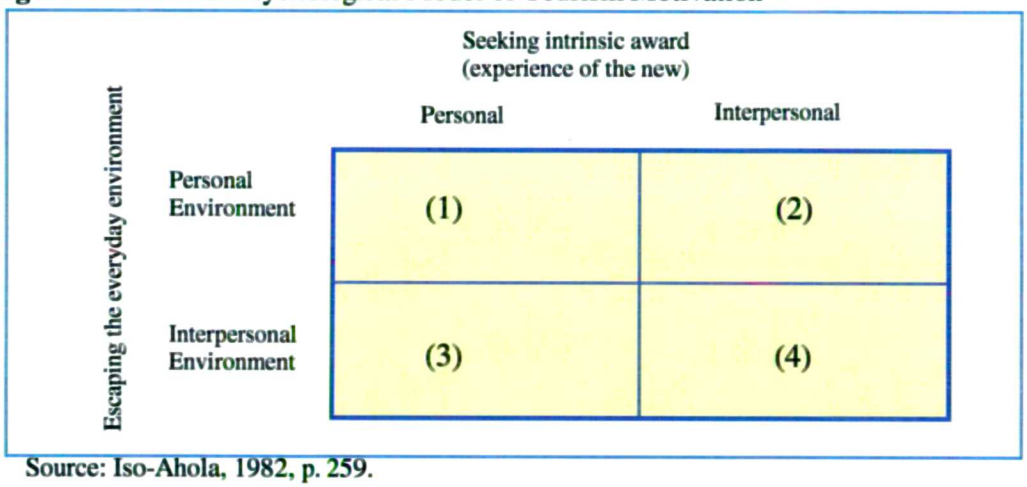
Recently, Kim and Lee (2002) replicated Uysal and Jurowski (1994) who examined the nature and extent of the reciprocal relationship between push and pull factors for pleasure tourism. A principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation was undertaken to validate the push and pull scales. To find if there is correlation between the push and pull factors the regression analysis was used in the study. The results of their study confirm the relationship between push and pull factors.

6.8.6 Iso-Ahola Travel Motivational Theory

Iso-Ahola (1982) has developed a travel motivational theory which is based on physiological and psychological motivators. Iso-Ahola (1982) stated that motives are aroused when people imagine certain activities that are possibly satisfaction producing. Satisfaction, which people expect to derive from involvement in a leisure activity, is linked to two motivational forces: approach (seeking) and avoidance

(escape). Iso-Ahola (1982) classified motivational forces for tourist activities: the desire to leave the everyday environment behind oneself and the desire to obtain psychological (intrinsic) rewards through travel in a contrasting (new or old) environment. People, when determining the relative significance of the two forces, decide personal and/or interpersonal dimensions. Iso-Ahola mentions in his theory that it is probable that a given tourist could be placed in one of four cells under given circumstances at a given time. Figure 6.7 illustrates the Iso-Ahola social psychological model of tourism motivation.

Figure 6.7 A Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation



Source: Iso-Ahola, 1982, p. 259.

According to Iso-Ahola (1982) the model emphasises the dialectical character of tourism motivation and demonstrates that it is futile to attempt to separate reasons from benefits categorically, because reasons (e.g., exploring new places) can be benefits and benefits (e.g., escape from routine) can be reasons of tourism behaviour.

6.8.7 Beard and Ragheb Leisure Motivation Scale

Beard and Ragheb (1983) developed a model called the Leisure Motivation Scale that sought to clarify motivators into four types as derived from the work of Maslow.

1. *The intellectual component* of the leisure motivation assesses the extent to which individuals are motivated to engage in leisure activities which involve substantial mental activities, such as learning, exploring, discovering, creating, or imagining.
2. *The social component assesses* the extent to which individuals engage in leisure activities for social reasons. This component includes two basic needs. The first is the need for relationships and interpersonal relationships, whilst the second is the need for esteem of others.
3. *The competence-mastery component* assesses the extent to which individuals engage in leisure activities in order to achieve, master, challenge and compete. The activities are usually physical in nature.
4. *The stimulus-avoidance component* of leisure motivation assesses the drive to escape and get away from overstimulating life situations. It is the need for some individuals to avoid social contacts, to seek solitude and calm conditions. For others it is to seek rest and to unwind themselves.

Lounsbury and Franz (1990) adapted Beard and Ragheb's Leisure Motivation Scale to the study of holiday. The results recorded two additional motivator factors, which were termed 'work-advantages' (sample item: 'think about a project at work') and 'thrill-seeking' (e.g., 'take risks' and 'be-adventurous'). According to Lounsbury and Franz (1990) the thrill-seeking was not the inverse of stimulus avoidance but may well reflect what Zuckerman and Link (1968) have termed 'sensation-seeking' behaviour.

Ryan and Glendon (1998) applied a shorter version of the Beard and Ragheb Leisure Motivation to holidaytaking. They stated that it is possible to construct a Holiday

Motivation Scale using 14 items drawn from the scale which maintain the integrity of the original four factors and which are adequate to create statistically significantly diverse clusters of holidaymakers. These clusters have been seen to have significantly different ratings of a given list of destination attributes.

6.8.8 Pearce Travel Career Ladder

Pearce (1982, pp. 53-54) viewed the accomplishment of psychology in examining travel motivation as being very restricted for a number of reasons.

1. The study of travel motivation centred mainly on those motivations which were detectable through traditional, common research methods only.
2. Some of the motivations were detected by observing tourists' behaviour rather than by asking the tourist about it in a direct manner.
3. There were attempts to categorise motivation on the basis of either the type of motivation (i.e. physical, cultural, personal prestige and status as detected by Thomas 1964) or according to its control period (i.e. short-term or long-term motivational control as indicated by De Charms and Muir 1978 and Pearce 1982).

Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) used Maslow's hierarchy of needs as a framework to infer travel motivations from travellers' experiences. The findings match exactly Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

The "travel career ladder" (TCL) developed by Pearce (1995) and colleagues (Caltabiano and Moscardo) is concerned more explicitly with tourists and their motivation, rather than leisure which is the focus of Iso-Ahola's work. The travel career ladder by Pearce (1995) argued that people have a life cycle in their tourist behaviour that reflects a ladder of travel motives. Similar to a career at work, people might start at a different level; they are likely to change their level during their life

cycle and they can be inhibited in their travel needs by money, health and other people.

Pearce (1995) included a very inclusive and rich list of psychological needs and motives noted from previous studies by using and expanding a variety of particular needs at each ladder level that fit with Maslow's authentic form. Pearce postulates the existence of a travel career ladder where tourists develop varying motivations:

a) relaxation;
b) stimulation;
c) relationship;
d) self-esteem and development;
e) fulfilment.

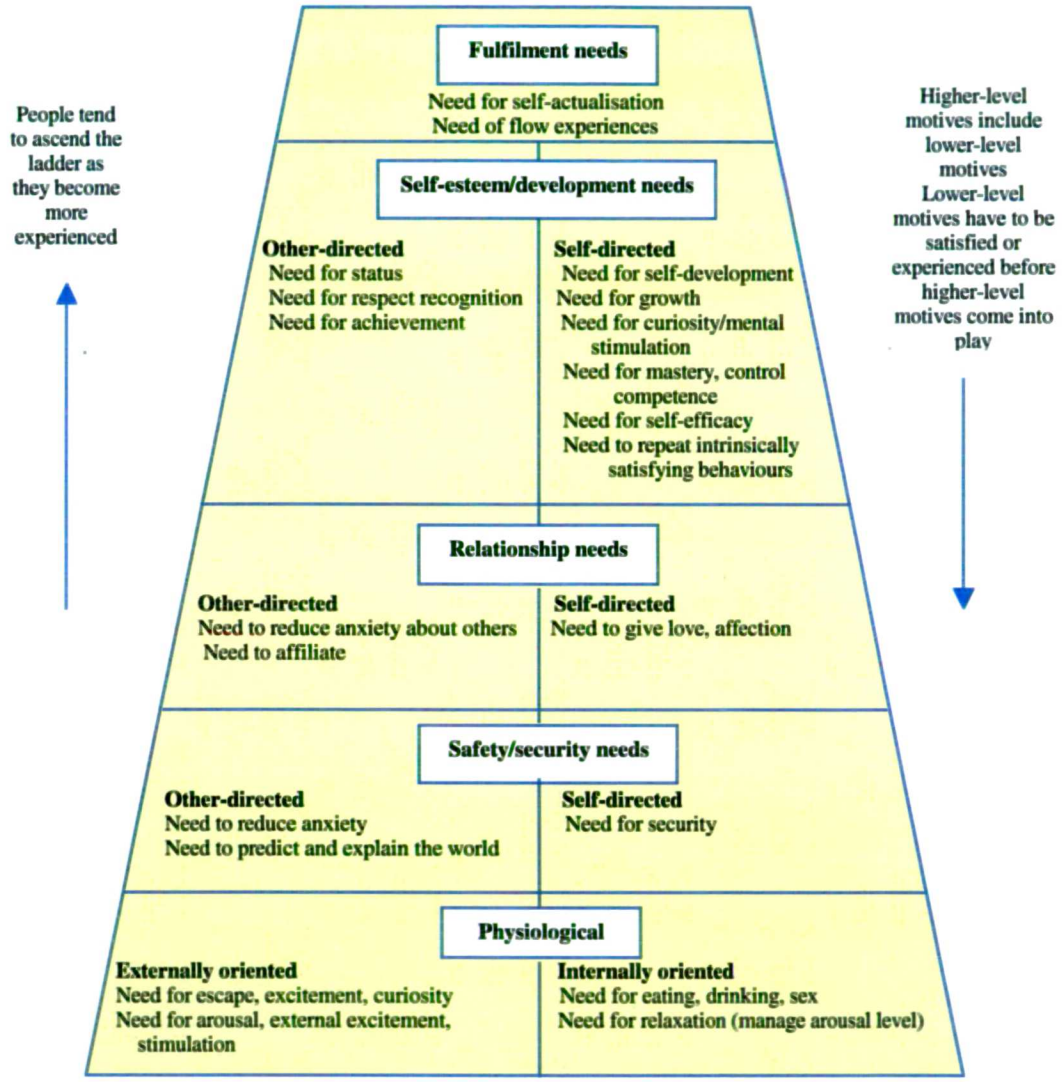
These motivations can be divided into two categories. The needs may be self-centred or directed at others, as shown in Figure 6.8 The travel needs ladder maintains Maslow's beliefs that lower levels on the ladder need to be satisfied before moving to higher levels of the ladder.

In the travel needs pattern destinations are seen as places where widely varying holiday experiences are possible. Thus, tourists' motives effect what they seek from a destination and destinations will differ in their capacity to supply a variety of holiday experiences.

Fodness (1994) believes that the work of Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) is certainly a step in the right direction; the motivational theory upon which they focus, Maslow's

hierarchy of needs, has thus far proven resistant to valid and reliable operationalisation.

Figure 6.8 The Travel Career Ladder



Source: Pearce, 1995, p. 176.

Kim (1997) used the travel career ladder in his study of Korean visitors to Australia and inferred that it was shown that this model was used effectively to describe travel motivation and cross-cultural understanding of international tourists. Ryan (1998) tested the model of a travel career ladder. He stated that there are empirical and

nonempirical reasons for believing that the description presented by Pearce's TCL concept is simplistic.

Holden (1999) uses Pearce's travel career ladder to understand skiers' motivation. The research supports the use of Pearce's travel career ladder concept to explain the significance of the changing needs in market segments. The research illustrates that Pearce's concept has the capability to demonstrate changing need priorities through time and to add a dynamic element to motivational assessment.

6.8.9 McIntosh and Goeldner Travel Motivation

McIntosh and Goeldner (1984) classified travel motivation into four basic types.

1. The physical motivators' categories are connected to refreshment of body and mind, health reasons, sport and pleasure. This collection of motivators is seen to be correlated to those activities that will decrease tension.
2. Cultural motivation is linked to the need for wanting to get out more, in particular, cultures, environments, societies and, generally, the desire to satisfy curiosity.
3. Interpersonal motivation includes a desire to reinforce relationships, meet new people, visit relatives and friends, seek new and different experiences and escape.
4. Status and prestige motivations contain a desire for the continuance of hobbies and education and are understood to be concerned with the desire for recognition and notice from others.

6.8.10 Mill and Morrison

Mill and Morrison (1985) identified the relationship between needs, motives and references from the tourism literature that point out that travel motivations can fit into

Maslow's hierarchy of needs model. Table 6.7 shows Maslow's needs and motivation listed in travel literature.

Table 6.7 Maslow's Needs and Motivation Listed in Travel Literature

Need	Motive	Tourism Literature References
Physiological	Relaxation	Escape
		Relaxation
		Relief of tension
		Sunlust
		Physical
		Mental relaxation of tension
Safety	Security	Health
		Recreation
		Keep oneself active and healthy for the future
Belonging	Love	Family togetherness
		Enhancement of kinship relationships
		Companionship
		Facilitation of social interaction
		Maintenance of personal ties
		Interpersonal relations
		Roots
		Ethnic
		Show one's affection for family members
		Maintain social contacts
Esteem	Achievement	Convince oneself of one's achievements
	Status	Show one's importance to others
		Prestige
		Social recognition
		Ego-enhancement
		Professional/business
		Personal development
		Status and prestige
Self-actualisation	Be true to one's own nature	Exploration and evaluation of self
		Self-discovery
		Satisfaction for inner desires
To know and understand	Knowledge	Cultural
		Education
		Wanderlust
Aesthetics	Appreciation of beauty	Interest in foreign areas
		Environmental
		Scenery

Source: Mill and Morrison, 1985, p. 7.

6.8.11 Fodness Self-report Scale of Tourist Motivation

Fodness (1994) stated that effective tourism marketing is not possible without understanding the consumer's motivation. According to Fodness, motivation is one of

the least researched areas in tourism, both conceptually and empirically. As a result Fodness (1994) developed an easy-to-administer self-report scale of tourist motivation which connects leisure travel to the functional models of Katz (1960) and Smith et al., (1956). The five reasons for travel could be explained in terms of the functional approach holds for understanding, predicting and influencing the relationship among tourist motivation and behaviour.

The functional approach posits that the reason persons hold specific attitudes are that these attitudes serve particular functions or psychological needs. Katz proposed four such functions: *utilitarian, ego defence, value expressive and knowledge.*

- *The utilitarian function* (the need to escape and pleasure seeking) is served by attitudes related to whether the object serves some purpose.
- *The ego defence function* is served by attitudes which people hold to protect themselves from unflattering or threatening behaviour.
- *A value expressive function* (social prestige) is served by attitudes that enable a person to express an important value to others.
- *The knowledge function* (cultural and educational motive) is served by attitudes held to assist people to structure what they identify and to help them understand the world.
- *The social-adjustive function* is suggested by Smith et al., (1956) to be served by attitudes which help the person maintain important interpersonal relationships.

Fodness stated (1994) that the self-report scale will help the researcher to measure tourist motivation easily and more accurately, so that they can identify types of tourists and subdivide or segment those travelling for pleasure, so that their travel patterns can be better understood and systematically analysed. The results of

Fodness's research lend tentative support to a functional explanation of tourist motivation.

From Fodness's viewpoint the significance of a functional approach to tourist motivation is, first, that it has an intuitive attraction which makes sense to recognise why tourists behave as they do, in addition to what they do. Second, a functional approach has significant inclusions for not only understanding but also for influencing consumer behaviour.

6.8.12 Gnoth Model of Tourism Motivation and Expectation

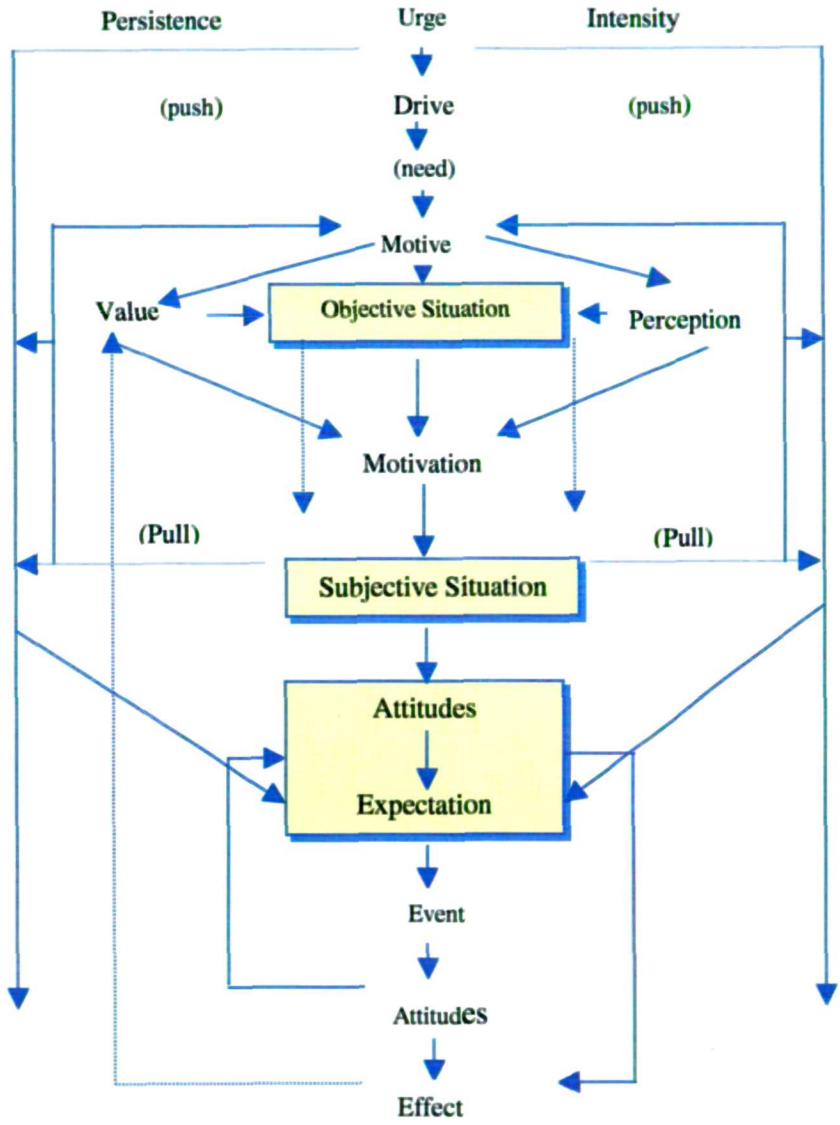
Gnoth (1997) developed a model of tourism motivation and expectation which helps with categorising attitudes towards destinations, attractions, activities, events and situations. Figure 6.9 illustrates a summary of the motivation and expectation formation process. Felt needs or motives turn into motivation when attached to both situations and tourists' value system.

The push factors are internally generated drives causing the tourist to search for signs in the objectives, situations and events that include the promise of decreasing dominant drives. The pull factors are generated by knowledge about aim attributes. The reaction between these components affects a tourist's perception of an objective so that the perception reacts to the tourist's mindset. Tourists felt that needs and value systems determined the expectations and attitudes towards the object.

Those attitudes and expectations that are emotion-dominant include inner or self-directed drives. Gnoth mentioned that the variety of potential combinations of motives, values and situations explicate the array of differentiation in tourists'

motivations and perceptions. These differences allow cultural, social and situational influences to come to bear on the motivational process.

Figure 6.9 The Process of Motivation and Expectation Formation



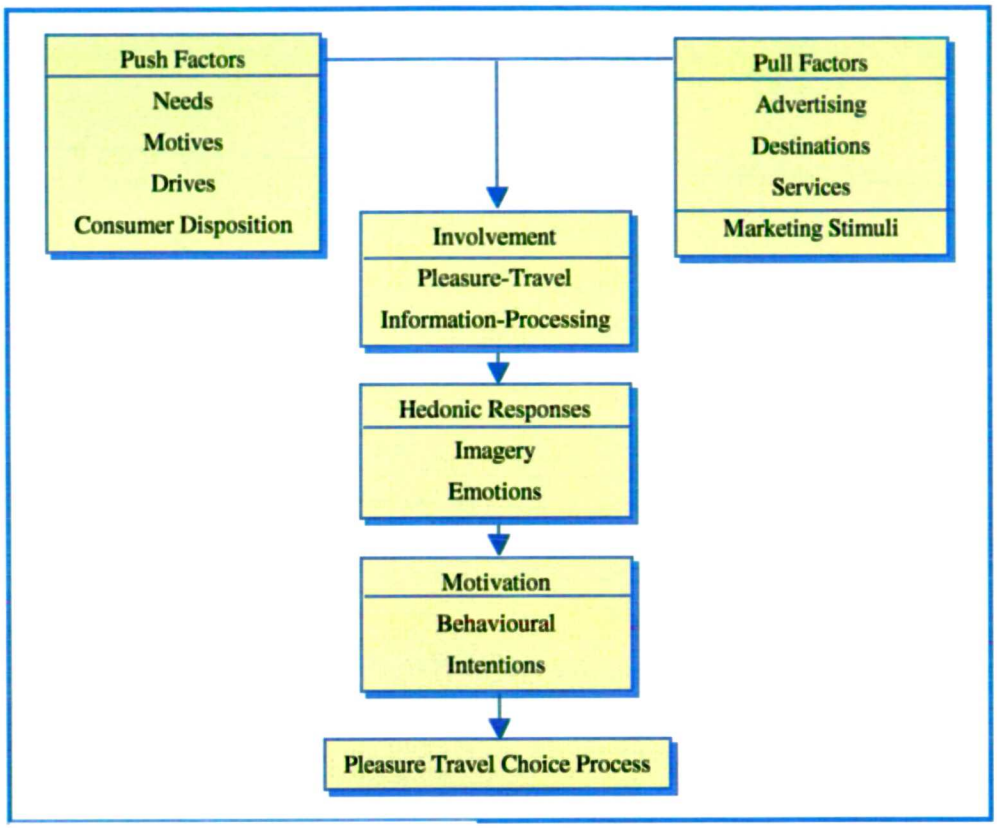
Source: Gnoth, 1997, p. 297.

6.8.13 Goossens Hedonic Tourism Motivational Model

Goossens (2000) developed a hedonic tourism motivational model, illustrated in Figure 6.10. The model presented the relationship between push and pull motives,

involvement, information processing, mental imagery, emotion and behavioural intention. The left side of the model shows the consumer's needs and motives (dispositions or push factors).

Figure 6.10 Hedonic Tourism Motivation Model



Source: Goossense, 2000, p. 304

The right side of the model shows some variables confronting the consumer as the marketing mix afforded by producers, comprising the supply of tourism services, sites destination, advertising, brand and symbols.

Goossens' study emphasises the use of experiential information in promotional stimuli by the marketer. Both feelings of pleasure, excitement, relaxation (push factors) and tourist attractions, such as friendly people and culture (pull factors) are

significant sources of tourist information. Involvement plays a main role in integrating the push and pull factors. Goossens (2000, p. 306) defines involvement as "*a psychological state of motivation at one point in time characterised by perception of self-relevance and emotional benefits of stimuli*".

The experiential responses appear within the consumption and information gathering and processing step when tourists are involved with promotional information material (marketing stimuli). The hedonic responses are the consumers' mental imagery and emotions. These variables reflect the response of individuals when push and pull factors interact with each other.

6.9 Summary

Since the research aims to study the motivation for domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia the focus for the chapter has been motivation. The motivation concept helps to explain why behaviour occurs in one situation but not in the others. The marketing challenges are to recognise the primary motivating effects and to plan strategies that, at the same time, activate and satisfy felt needs. The marketing concept says that marketers should try to create product and services that best meet the wants and needs of consumers. This suggests that marketers should realise what needs consumers have and what motivates them to buy.

Many kinds of needs have been suggested by psychologists and consumer researchers. Those chiefly relevant to marketers are Maslow's need hierarchy, Murray's psychogenic needs, Dichter's consumption needs, McCllelland's theory of learned needs and a variety of marketing scholars' lists of customer needs.

Tourists take holidays in the desire and belief that these holidays will satisfy, either wholly or partly, a diversity of needs and wants. As leisure travel reflects inner needs that are hard for the persons to recognise and explain, the drive to travel for pleasure relies on person motivation and cultural circumstance. Tourists will travel with various motivations on various events. Motivation is one of the most significant determinants of recreational travel.

Plog's travel motivation theory classified the population in psychographic types which range from pychocentrics, or allocentrics, to mide-centrics. Crompton identified nine motives that influence the choice of the type of pleasure holiday and destination that is based on the concept of pull and push factors. Dann recognised two essential motivations: anomie and ego-enhancement. Maslow's hierarchy of needs has been suggested by Hudman as a basis for push factors of travel that contained six levels of needs which are related to push factors of travel motivation. Iso-Ahola developed a travel motivational theory which is based on physiological and psychological motivators. Beach and Rageb developed a model called the leisure motivation scale that sought to divided motivators into four types, as derived from the work of Maslow. The travel career ladder developed by Pearce and colleagues is concerned more explicitly with tourists and their motivation.

Fodness evolved a self-report measure of tourist motivation which connects leisure travel to the functional models of Katz and Smith et al. More recently, Gnoth developed a model of tourism motivation and expectation which helps categorise attitudes towards destinations, attractions, activities, events and situations. Goossens developed a hedonic tourism motivational model that presented the relationship

between push and pull motives, involvement, information processing, mental imagery, emotion and behavioural intention.

There are numerous approaches to measuring motivation, the major contribution have been reviewed in the chapter. Selection of an approach to the study motivating factor relating to domestic tourism in Saudi has proved difficult. For the purpose of this study the tourist motivations which are based on the concept of 'push' and 'pull' factors will be used in the Islamic culture. This concept implicates the theory that people travel as they are pushed and pulled to do so by 'forces'. These forces (motivational factors) describe how individuals are pushed by motivational variables into making a travel decision and how they are pulled (attracted) by the destination area.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

7.1 Introduction

The aims of this chapter are to discuss the research methodology.

1. The research philosophies are summarised.
2. The research strategy which comprises the research problem, the research objective, the formulation of the hypotheses, research design and methods of data collection, study difficulties, designing the questionnaires, the translating of the questionnaires, the pilot study, the choosing sample techniques and the data analysis procedure are discussed.
3. The data analysis techniques are reviewed.

7.2 Research Philosophies

There are two main research philosophies or paradigms which can be categorised as the **positivist** and the **phenomenological (interpretivist)** also identified as **quantitative** and **qualitative** (Creswell 1994; Hussey and Hussey 1997). The different assumptions of the two paradigms quantitative and qualitative which are drawn by Creswell (1994) are shown in Appendix C.

Positivism "*is a theory of the nature, omnicompetence and unity of science as understood in physical the world*" (Remenyi et al., 1998, p. 287). According to Robson (2002) positivists look for the existence of a constant relationship between events, or between two variables.

Robson (1993) lists five sequential stages through which positivist research will go.

1. Deducing a hypothesis (a testable proposition about the relationship between two or more events or concept) from the theory.
2. Expressing the hypothesis in operational terms (i.e. ones indicating exactly how the variables are to be measured) which propose a relationship between two specific variables.
3. Testing this operational hypothesis. This will involve an experiment or some other form of empirical inquiry.
4. Examining the specific outcome of the inquiry. It will either tend to confirm the theory or indicate the need for its modification.
5. If necessary, modifying the theory in the light of the findings. An attempt is then made to verify the revised theory by going back to the first step and repeating the whole cycle.

The **phenomenological** approach to research is so called because it is live. Phenomenology is the science of phenomena. A phenomenon is "*a fact or occurrence that appears or is perceived, especially one of which the cause is in question*" (Allen, 1990, p. 893).

7.3 Choice of Methodology

Deciding the research philosophy is to be adopted will influence the methodology that is to be applied.

The positivistic and the phenomenological paradigms are two extremes. Table 7.1 shows the main features of the two main paradigms.

Table 7.1 The Features of the Two Main Paradigms

Positivistic paradigm	**Phenomenological paradigm**
Tends to produce quantitative data	Tends to produce qualitative data
Uses large sample	Uses small sample
Concerned with hypothesis testing	Concerned with generating theories
Data is highly specific and precise	Data is rich and subjective
The location is artificial	The location is natural
Reliability is high	Reliability is low
Validity is low	Validity is high
Generalises from sample to population	Generalises from one setting to another

Source: Hussey and Hussey, 1997, p. 54.

It can be identified from the Table 7.1 that the positivistic research tends to create precise and highly specific quantitative data while the phenomenological research creates rich qualitative data. For the requirement to perform statistical analysis, positivistic research often exploits a large sample, while the goal of phenomenological research is to understand depth, so it has potential to be conducted using very small samples.

The normal process of positivistic research is the study of literature to establish a suitable theory and construct hypothesis. A hypothesis is an idea or proposition that is tested by using statistical analysis. In phenomenological research the researcher might carry out an investigation to construct a new theory to clarify the phenomena. Hypotheses may develop to be tested. In positivistic research the location is artificial, for example a laboratory, while under phenomenological research the research is usually conducted in the natural location.

Walle (1997) argued the two approaches that could be used in tourism research. Science/etics in tourism research is characterised by placing a high priority upon methodological exactness and tendency to quantify. Art/emic research provides a more viable alternative. Table 7.2 provides the science and art compared.

Table 7.2 Science and Art Compared

Tourism Term:	Scientific Method	Qualitative Research
Anthropology Term Characteristics:	Etic (Science) Formality Rigor emphasised Mathematical tools prominent	Emic (Art) Insight/intuition employed Qualitative data employed
Especially Useful when:	Appropriate data can be gathered Questions can be attacked via the scientific method Many informants needed Adequate time for research available	Formal/ scientific methods will not result in needed data Formal models are not useful Few informants are available Time pressures do not permit formal research
Net Result of Tradeoffs:	A sacrifice of possible important data and/or abandoning certain research topics is accepted in order that research is placed upon a firm scientific foundation	Rigor is sacrificed for the sake of attacking questions which formal methods cannot easily pursue Insights/intuition of skilled researchers are allowed a free need Possible time savings

Source Walle, 1997, p. 531.

According to Walle (1997, p. 535) "*the choice of emics/art or etics/science must be determined by the situation in which research takes place, not be some misguided search for rigor simply for its own sake*".

Table 7.3 summarises the key advantages and disadvantages of the main approaches to research design.

Table 7.3 Key Advantages and Disadvantages of the Main Approaches to Research Design

	Positivism	**Phenomenology**
Advantages	• Economical collection of large amounts of data • Clear theoretical focus for the research at the outset • Greater opportunity for researcher to retain control of research process • Easily comparable data	• Facilitates understanding of how and why • Enables researcher to be alive to changes which occur during the research process • Good at understanding social processes
Disadvantages	• Inflexible-direction often cannot be changed once data collection has started • Weak at understanding social processes • Often doesn't discover the meanings people attach to social phenomena	• Data collection can be time consuming • Data analysis is difficult • Researcher has to live with the uncertainty that clear patterns may not emerge • Generally perceived as less credible by 'non-researchers'

Source: Saunders et al., 1997, p. 74.

The issues of reliability, validity and generalisability should be considered at this stage of the research because it is important in the development of the methodology. Easterby-Smith et al. (1991) summarise some of the differences between validity, reliability and generalisability from positivist and phenomenological viewpoints. Table 7.4 illustrates the questions of validity, reliability and generalisability.

Table 7.4 Questions of Validity, Reliability and Generalisability

	Positivist viewpoint	**Phenomenological viewpoint**
Validity	Does an instrument measure what it is supposed to measure?	Has the researcher gained full access to the knowledge and meanings of informants?
Reliability	Will the measure yield the same results on different occasions (assuming no real change in what is to be measured)?	Will similar observations be made by different researchers on different occasions?
Generalisability	What is the probability that patterns observed in a sample will also be present in the wider population from which the sample is drawn?	How likely is it that ideas and theories generated in one setting will also apply in other settings?

Source: Easterby-Smith et al., 1991, p. 41.

7.3.1 Reliability

The reliability of a "*measure indicates the stability and consistency with which the instrument is measuring the concept and helps to assess the "goodness" of a measure*" (Sekaran, 1992, p. 173). Reliability refers "*to the extent to which instrument scores are free from measurement error*" (Leong and Austin, 1996, p. 78).

Tull and Hawkins (1993) summarise the major operational approaches to reliability, as shown in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5 Approaches to Assessing Reliability

1. *Test-retest reliability:* applying the same measure to the same objects a second time.
2. *Alternative-forms reliability:* measuring the same objects by two instruments that are designed to be as nearly alike as possible.
3. *Internal-comparison reliability:* comparing the responses among various items on a multiple-item index designed to measure a homogeneous concept.
4. *Scorer reliability:* comparing the scores assigned the same qualitative materiel by two or more judges.

Source: Tull and Hawkins, 1993, p. 315.

Repeating a research study to test the reliability of the results is identified as replication and is very important in positivistic studies where reliability is generally high. Under a phenomenological paradigm the criterion of reliability might not be given much state or it might be interpreted in several approaches.

7.3.2 Validity

According to Leong and Austin (1996) validity is the most important consideration in choosing an instrument for research. Validity is "*concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about*" (Saunders et al., 1997, p. 82). Validity is "*the degree to which what is observed or measured is the same as what was purported to be observed or measured*" (Remenyi et al, 1998, p. 291).

Earlier, Emory and Cooper (1991) recognised two major forms of validity, external and internal. The external validity of research findings refers to the ability to be generalised across people, settings and times. The internal validity of a research instrument is the ability to measure what it is purported to measure.

A positivistic paradigm concentrates on the precision of measurement and the capability to be able to repeat the experiment reliably; there is always a danger that validity will be very low. This means that the measure does not reflect the phenomena the researcher asserts to be examined. Conversely, a phenomenological paradigm is aimed at capturing the basis of the phenomena and extracting data that is rich in its clarification and analysis. The researcher's aim is to gain full access to the knowledge and meaning of those involved in the phenomenon and consequently validity is high under such a paradigm.

There are a number of methods in which the validity of research can be checked. The more universal is *face validity,* which simply involves assuring that the tests or measurements adopted by the researcher do actually measure or represent what they are assumed to measure or represent.

Another form of validity that is important in business research is *construct validity.* Construct validity entails demonstrating the power of such a construct to explicate a network of research findings and to predict additional relationships. This is connected to the problem that there are a number of phenomena that are not directly observable, such as motivation, satisfaction, ambition and anxiety. These are *hypothetical constructs* which are believed to be factors which explicate observable phenomena.

7.3.4 Generalisability

The basic concern is the suitability of theories that were generated in one setting or another. Generalisablity is "*the characteristic of research findings that allow them to be applied to other situations and other populations*" (Remenyi et al., 1998, p. 283). The accepted meaning of generalisable derives from hypothesis-testing research.

For wider generalisablility, the research sampling design has to be logically developed and a number of other scrupulous details in data collection methods require to be pursued. Gummesson (1991) argues that applying statistics to generalise from a sample to population is just one kind of generalisation; in a phenomenological study the researcher might be able to generalise from one setting to another.

There are a number of styles of research methodology, some of which lend themselves more to one paradigm than the other. Some methodologies could be applied under either a positivistic or a phenomenological paradigm, depending on the assumption of the researcher. Hussey and Hussey (1997) grouped the key methodologies together under the two main paradigms. Table 7.6 illustrates the methodological assumption of the main paradigms.

Table 7.6 The Methodological Assumption of the Two Main Paradigms

Positivistic	Approach to social science	**Phenomenological**
Associated methodologies		Associated methodologies
Cross-sectional studies		Action research
Experimental studies		Case study
Longitudinal studies		
Ethnography		
Surveys		Feminist perspective
		Grounded theory
		Hermeneutics

Source: Hussey and Hussey, 1997, p. 59.

In addition to the positivist and the phenomenological paradigms there are several other different techniques for describing research and approaches. Galliers (1992) presents a list of approach tactics, a division of which has been reproduced in alphabetical sequence in Appendix C Table 2.

7.4 Research Philosophy Employed

Subsequent to the contemplation of both the positivist and phenomenological research philosophies, it was deemed that a positivist paradigm would be suitable for this study. As Morgan and Smircich (1980) observe, the appropriateness of a research approach "*derives from the nature of the social phenomena to be explored*" (p. 491). The study needs to understand the push and pull motivation factors that lead to travel decisions and consumption behaviour.

The whole area of motivation and demand has been one of the least researched areas of tourism to date (Pearce, 1988). According to Lundberg (1990) there is limited empirical research that exposes the explanations of why people travel and take holidays.

Fodness (1994, p. 556) stated that "*research into why individuals travel has been hampered by the lack of a universally agreed-upon conceptualisation of the tourist motivation. Researchers trying to define tourist motivation typically develop a list of the reasons for travel. While there are similarities between the lists and every list has theoretical strengths and weaknesses, most lack a means of operational and empirical support. A limited amount of empirical research on motivation does, however, exist*".

The earlier works of Plog (1974), Dann (1977), Crompton (1979), Iso-Ahola (1982), Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) and Beard and Ragheb (1983) are typical of the few empirical studies reported in the tourist motivation literature.

Leisure travel reflects inner needs that are often not easy for the person and researcher to recognise and depict (Uysal and Hagan, 1993). Mayo and Jarvis (1981) and Van

Doren (1983) mentioned that the drive to travel for pleasure relies on personal motivation and cultural circumstance. According to Al-Ghamidi (1996) tourist motivation in the Saudi regions is different from one region to another. Al-Ghamidi concluded that the leisure motive is the top of the all motives in all Saudi regions. The second motive was the social motive in Al-Baha and the western region while cultural motive was the second in the Asir region. The third motive was the cultural motive in Al-Baha but, in Asir, the social motive was the third motive, while the shopping motive was the third in Jeddah and the western region.

Al-Torkistani (1999) studied 40 items that could affect Saudi tourists toward domestic tourism which influence tourists' decisions making. He concluded that there were six grouping factors, economical, entertaining, social, natural and geographical, cultural and family. He found that the natural and geographical factors were the most important ones for Saudi tourists, followed by economical factors, then leisure factors, then the families factors, followed by cultural factors and lastly, the social factors.

This study tries to understand the tourist motivations in an Islamic culture based on the concept of "push" and "pull" factors of tourist behaviour which are "*two-sides of the same motivational coin*" (Goossens, 2000, p. 302). The concept of push and pull factors has been generally accepted (Dann 1977; Crompton 1979; Hudman 1980; Pearce and Caltabiano 1983; Chul Oh, Uysal and Weaver 1995; Baloglu and Uysal 1996; Kim and Lee 2002). Hudman (1980) asserts that the push and pull factors in recreational travel help account for travel patterns in the world today on the local, national and international levels.

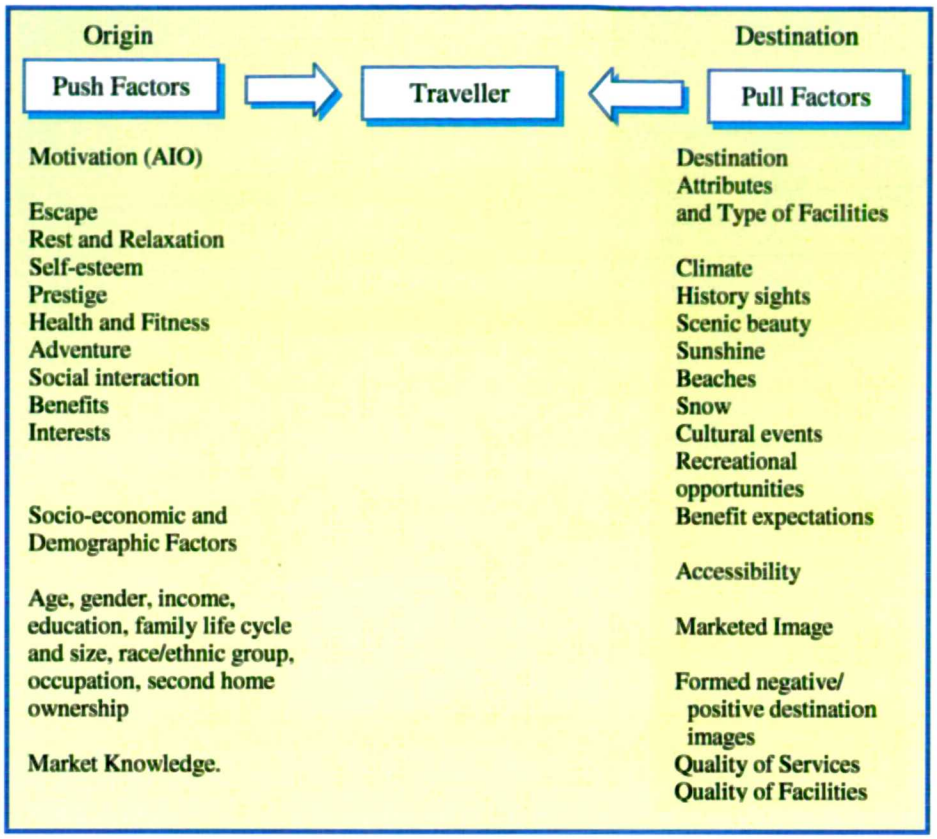
According to Baloglu and Uysal (1996) this concept implicates the theory that people travel as they are pushed and pulled to do so by "forces". These forces (motivational factors) describe how individuals are pushed by motivational variables into making a travel decision and how they are pulled (attracted) by the destination area (Uysal and Hagan, 1993). The push motivation has been thought helpful for explaining the desire to travel whilst the pull motivation has been thought helpful for explaining the choice of actual destination (Crompton 1979; Christensen 1983).

Uysal and Hagan (1993) argue that most push factors which are origin-related are intangible or intrinsic desires of the individual travellers, for instance, the desire for rest and relaxation, escape, health and fitness, adventure, prestige and social interaction. Pull factors are those that appear as a consequence of the attractiveness of a destination as it is perceived by the traveller. They contain tangible resources, such as recreation facilities, historic resources, beaches, scenic beauty and snow, as well as travellers' perception and expectation, such as novelty, benefit expectation and marketed image of the destination. Figure 7.1 illustrates the push and pull model of tourism motivation.

From the literature review it is recognised that motivation is multidimensional (Mannel and Iao-Ahola 1987; Uysal and Hagan, 1993; Chul Oh, Uysal and Weaver 1995; Baloglu and Uysal 1996).

The current study measures pull and push domestic tourist motivation in Saudi Arabia and examines the nature and usefulness of the relationship between push and pull factors of motivation.

Figure 7.1 Push and Pull Model of Tourism Motivation. Factors are Examples, not an Exhaustive List.



Source: Uysal and Hagan, 1993, p. 802.

7.5 Research Problem

The research problem arises from the fact that there is "*almost no information existing on leisure travel within Saudi Arabia*" (Al-Thagafy, 1991, p. 1). In addition, he concluded that Saudi people have become more educated and wealthier and they demand more from tourism. Also, he found that levels of satisfaction with facilities tend to be lower among those better educated and wealthier respondents which means that policy makers need to find out the type of holiday these people need. Paul and Rimmawi (1992) recommended that more research needs to be done on the wants,

needs and other demand characteristics of the tourist (in Saudi Arabia). The purpose of this study is to assess the domestic tourism motivation in Saudi Arabia.

7.6 Research Objectives

The aim of this study is to explore motivation for domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia using the quantitative data to generate and test hypotheses on the lines of the classic hypothetico-deductive model and to use the quantitative data to explain the findings and processes.

In sequence, to achieve these research goals, the objectives are:

- to assess the motivation 'push' and 'pull' factors of tourist behaviour towards domestic tourism
- to examine the nature and usefulness of the relationship between push and pull motivation factors and to examine if there is any significant correlation between tourist motivations factors and social demographic variables: educational level, income level, age and gender
- to test if there is any significant correlation between motivation items and the demographic variables: educational level, income level, age and gender in Jeddah and Abha
- to examine the correlation between the educational level, income level, gender and age of the consumers and the location
- to test the correlation between the educational level, income levels, age, length of staying, family number and the kind of accommodation.

7.7 Formulation of Research Hypotheses

Sekaran defined (1992, p. 79) a hypothesis as "*a logically conjectured relationship between two or more variables expressed in the form of testable statements. These*

relationships are conjectured on the basis of the network of associations established in the theoretical framework formulated for the research study". A hypothesis is defined by Silverman (1993, p.1) as a "*testable proposition*". A hypothesis is "*a specific statement of prediction*" according to Trochim (1999). To formulate the research hypotheses, the researcher was directed by two major approaches.

A deductive method was applied in connection with the tourism motivation. Deductive inference starts with a hypothesis and progresses from common to particular. Since all tourism motivation is written about western culture a general hypothesis relating to motivation for domestic tourism was made.

In the consumer survey the inductive, in addition to the deductive, method, where the hypotheses and conclusion are represented after the data analysis, was also applied.

The following are the research hypotheses:

H_1 ▪ there is no motivation towards domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia

H_2 ▪ the attitude of consumers towards domestic tourism is negative

H_3 ▪ there is no correlation between push and pull motivation factors

H_4 ▪ there is no significant correlation between tourists motivations factors and the social demographic variables: educational level, income level, age and gender in Jeddah and Abha

H_5 ▪ there is no significant correlation between tourist motivation items and social demographic variables: educational level, income level, age and gender

H_6 ▪ location is not correlated with demographic variables: age, educational level, income level and gender

H_7 ▪ kind of accommodation does not correlate with the educational level, income levels, age, length of staying and family number.

7.8 Research Design and Methods of Data Collection

Research designs are "*about organising research activity, including the collection of data in ways that are most likely to achieve research aims*" (Easterby-Smith et al. 1991, p. 33). Alternatively research design is the "*science (and art) of planning procedures for conducting studies so as to get the most valid findings*" (Vogt, 1993, p. 196).

Much earlier, Hollander and Hunt (1971) suggested that there have been three different stages in finding knowledge about social behaviour. The first, social philosophy, can be characterised by speculation, conjecture and rationalisation on the one hand and by the absence of systematic collection of factual information on the other. The next stage, social empiricism, aims at describing behaviour and the systematic data gathering which is the differentiating criterion of this state. The third stage, social analysis, looks below the surface searching why people behave as they do. Social analysis "*is best represented by studies that are directed to verification of underlying relationships between variables. In so doing, this type of research strives to test and revise existing theories*" (Iso-Ahola, 1980, p. 47).

Sekaran (1992) categorised the purpose of the study into three major groups: exploratory, descriptive and hypothesis testing (analytical or predictive). Robson (1993) lists the three traditional research strategies as experiment, survey and case study. Hussey and Hussey (1997) categorised types of research as:

- the purpose of the research: the reason why researchers are conducting it
- the process of the research: the way in which researchers collect and analyse their data

- the logic of the research: whether researchers are moving from the general to the specific, or vice versa
- the outcome of the research: whether researchers are attempting to solve a particular problem or create a general contribution to knowledge.

Table 3 in Appendix C shows the classification of the main types of research according to the previous criteria.

Easterby-Smith et al. (1991) suggested five choices to make when developing a research design. Table 7.7 summarises the five choices.

Table 7.7 Key Choices of Research Design

Researcher is independent	vs	Researcher is involved
Large sample	vs	Small numbers
Testing theories	vs	Generating theories
Experimental design	vs	Fieldwork methods
Verification	vs	Falsification

Source: Easterby-Smith et al., 1991, p. 33.

This study is mainly quantitative (positivism) since the survey approach was used. In addition, this study is analytical research which aims to understand phenomena by discovering and measuring causal relations among them (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Two main research methods were employed.

Firstly, documentary research was carried out at the preliminary stage to obtain relevant information on consumer behaviour, motivation and tourism motivation to generate an understanding of the various tourism motivation concepts and theories. The task was completed through published (journals, textbooks, annual tourism

reports) and other sources. In addition, some of those who have written on tourism in Saudi Arabia were contacted to gather additional information (secondary data).

Secondly, self-administrated questionnaires were used to evaluate consumers' motivation towards domestic tourism (primary data).

Analytical research is usually based on theories, concepts and measurement. There is no established research of the Saudi consumers motivation and attitude towards domestic tourism.

7.9 Study Difficulties

A variety of difficulties were confronted during the administrations of this study in Saudi Arabia.

1. The lack of reliable information about the research topic.
2. Sampling difficulties, since there is no listing that can serve as sampling frames for representative samples. Although telephone ownership is extensive, telephone directories tend to be incomplete. Moreover, accurate maps of population centres are not obtainable. Urbanisation is taking place at such a fast pace that maps drawn by the municipalities became outdated and unreliable very quickly. (Tuncalp, 1988).
3. Responses to questionnaire items are strongly influenced by the culture of the respondent, with consequential problems of translation from one culture to another (Bulmer and Warwick, 1993).

7.10 Designing the Questionnaire

There are two major types of survey. A *descriptive* survey is concerned with recognising and counting the frequency of a particular population, either at one point

in time or at different times, for comparison. The other major type of survey is the *analytical survey* where the purpose is to determine whether there is any relationship between various variables. Cochran (1963) defines an analytical survey as one where "*comparisons are made between different subgroups of the population in order to discover whether differences exist among them and to form or to verify hypotheses about the reasons for these differences*" (p. 4).

The most generally applied forms of surveys are questionnaires, interviews and telephone surveys. Questionnaires are very broadly applied in large scale investigations of political opinions and consumer preferences. Questionnaires are written surveys including items that address the aims of the project. Questionnaires can be self-administered or administered to groups of people by a trained administrator who clarifies the reason of the survey, answers questions about the survey items and administrative procedures and ensures that the right survey procedures are followed. A limitation of questionnaires is that the questions are presented and the respondent cannot wholly express their opinions. This study used an analytical survey with self-administered questionnaires to collect data.

The researcher explored with colleagues acquaintance why individuals travel within Saudi Arabia. Questions were derived initially from a thorough review of the travel and tourism literature (Uysal and Hagan 1993; Fodness 1994; Chul Oh, Uysal and Weaver 1995; Baloglu and Uysal 1996) along with the statements that have been explored by discussion.

Conducting a survey in Saudi Arabia would not be easy since the population is not familiar with such surveys. Saudi Arabia is a developing country. Al-Adashi (1976)

has mentioned that, in many instances, it is difficult for the researcher to enter the household. Casely and Lury (1987) have added that the special difficulties of conducting a survey in developing countries derived from their socio-economic structure. These countries are in a period of rapid transition demographically, economically and culturally.

The final questionnaire (as seen in Appendix D (b) and (c) for the Arabic and English version) includes 21 questions that can be divided into the following categorises.

1. The first four questions are related to the way in which the tourist arrived at the destination, who arranged the accommodation services for them and in what kind of accommodation the respondent was staying.
2. The next two questions described from where the respondents got their information about the destination visited.
3. The third part, questions 7 to 10, related to the total length of their visit to the destination and the members and numbers of the family who accompanied the respondents on the trip (family life cycle).
4. The fourth part , questions 11 and 12, related to knowing the tourist's nationality and their originating regions.
5. Question 13 is concerned with knowing the tourist's opinion about the facilities in the destination.
6. The sixth part, questions 14 to 17, is concerned with respondent's sex, age, educational level and monthly income.
7. The seventh part of the questionnaire, that contains questions 18 and 19, is used to study push factors that are deemed to be the socio-psychological motivation which

persuades the individuals to travel. Push factors are intangible or intrinsic desires of the individual traveller. They are categorised as:

(a) general holiday items: concerned with answering the question "Why is your holiday important to you?".

(b) special holiday items: concerned with answering the question " Why is your domestic holiday important to you?". These themes relate to Saudi Arabian culture. For example, the theme about domestic travel is explicit to the Islamic and Saudis cultural values which are that domestic tourism will protect our children from non-Islamic values. Since the Islam Law has dominated the Saudi Arabian cultural, there are many Islamic values and families like to protect their children.

Questions 18 and 19 used the Likert 5-point scale ranging from 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 1 = strongly disagree.

8. Question 20 relates to the reasons why individuals choose a specific destination which is used to study pull factors. These emerged as a result of the attractiveness of a destination as it is perceived by the traveller. They include tangible resources, such as religious resources, historic resources, recreation facilities and beaches. The question used the Likert 5-point scale ranging from 5 = very important, 4 = important, 3 = neither important or unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 1 = very unimportant.

The questions for the survey are essentially of the closed type since there are differences in the educational level. In closed type questions the respondent's answer is selected from a number of predetermined alternatives. Closed questions are very

suitable for collecting factual data and are generally easy to analyse. At the end of the questionnaire the respondent was asked to write down any comments and problems with domestic tourism.

7.11 Translating the Questionnaire

The Arabic version of the questionnaire is shown in Appendix D (b). The English version of the questionnaire is shown in Appendix D (c). The questionnaire was designed in English and then translated into Arabic since that was the required language. To obtain an equivalent translation in Arabic, a process of "back translation" suggested by Brislin (1970) and Hui and Triandis (1985) was followed. First, two bilinguals were employed to translate from English to Arabic. Then, two bilinguals were employed to translate from the Arabic into English. This allowed for the comparison of the two versions.

After that, the final version of the questionnaire was examined by staff members in the College of Economic and Business Administration at King Abdul Aziz University who corrected it and stated the following points.

a) The equivalent and suitability of the translation meaning of motivation into Arabic.
b) The appropriateness of the questionnaires to the Saudi culture.
c) The accuracy of the questionnaires in the Arabic language.

7.12 The Pilot Study

The first version of the questionnaire was administered by the researcher in the resort of Jeddah City in the summer of 1999. The researcher changed the first version to

another one after collecting ideas by open-ended questions and some of the statements were excluded which were not suitable for Saudi Arabian society. Then the questionnaires were administered again after a change had been made to the first version. At the same time the researcher met three of her colleagues. Good ideas were recognised at this stage. Collecting the questionnaires was not easy because it sometimes required returning to the same places many times.

7.13 Choosing Sample Techniques

A "*sample is a subset of a population and should represent the main interest of the study. A population is any precisely defined set of people or collection of items which is under consideration*" (Hussey and Hussey, 1997, p. 55). Sampling techniques fall into two broad groups, namely, non-probability samples and probability samples. Probability sampling is used by the positivistic researcher. Examples of main techniques which can be used to select probability samples include simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling and multistage sampling. Non-probability samples are the domain of the phenomenologist. Examples of non-probability samples are convenience sample, quota sample, purposive sample, snowball sample, judgement sample and self-selection sample.

The convenience sample was used to collect data since, as mentioned previously, there were many difficulties in choosing another kind of sample. Non-probability samples that are unrestricted are called convenience sample. A convenience sample "*is one in which the only criterion for selecting the sampling units is the convenience of the sampler*" (Tull and Hawkina, 1993, p. 544). A convenience sample involves

choosing the nearest and most convenient persons to act as respondents. The process is continued until the required sample size has been reached.

The application of a convenience sample was necessitated by the problems of sampling being prevalent in the Saudi environment. Such problems have been extensively documented in the literature (Tuncalp 1988, 1999; Yavas et al. 1987; Al-Meer 1989; Abdul-Muhmin 1998; Abdul-Muhmin and Alzame, 2001). Convenience samples have been illustrated as a 'necessary evil' when doing research in Saudi Arabia (Tuncalp, 1988) because of the unavailability of complete and reliable sampling frames from which to draw probability samples. Even if there have been some changes in the Saudi environment since Tuncalp's (1988) explanation 13 years ago - in the sense that the kingdom now has a population census and the chambers of commerce now have directories of manufacturing establishments - it is still virtually impossible to draw probability samples from the majority of studies. Consequently, most studies conducted in the Saudi environment have usually had to rely on convenience samples (Tuncalp 1990; Yavas et al. 1994b; Abdul-Muhmin 1998; Abdul-Muhmin and Alzame 2001). Therefore, this research used the convenience samples.

The two cities, Jeddah and Abha, were chosen since they are considered to be the two most attractive tourism cities in Saudi Arabia. Jeddah is a coastal city and there are many entertainment activities. Abha city is one of the summer resort cities of Saudi Arabia where the weather is pleasant during the summer period compared to the majority of Saudi Arabia due to the location and altitude.

7.14 Data Gathering Procedure

A questionnaire was used to obtain the primary data of this study. The questionnaire is self-completion which mean that respondents fill in the answers by themselves. Self-completion questionnaires allow anonymity which encourages frankness especially when a sensitive areas involved. In addition, the respondent can complete the questionnaire at their own convenience. The questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter. The covering letter explained the purpose of the study, to remind the respondents of their importance to participate in the study and to assert the confidentiality of the information offered and the anonymity of the respondent (the covering letter accompanied the Arabic and the English questionnaire as shown in Appendix D (b) and (c). The authorisation letter from the King Abdul Aziz University was presented to all distribution places to support distributed the questionnaire as shown in Appendix D (a). Of a total of 800 Arabic and 30 English questionnaires distributed, in different hotels, furnished units and entertainment places in the city of Jeddah, 392 Arabic and 3 English were returned. The total of usable Arabic was 290 questionnaires and a response rate of 74% in Jeddah. A total of 600 Arabic questionnaires were distributed in different hotels, furnished units and entertainment places in the city of Abha, 300 were returned, of which 215 were usable, giving a response rate of 72%.

7.15 Data Analysis Technique

In order to fulfil the research objectives, the data were coded, computed and analysed using SPSS 10.0 for Windows which uses the following statistical techniques:

- reliability analysis
- frequencies

- cross tabulation
- mean
- standard deviation
- Chi-square
- factor analysis
- Pearson correlation
- multiple regression
- one-way ANOVA.

7.15.1 The Reliability Analysis

The reliability of a measure refers to its consistency. A test must be reliable to be useful. One of the most commonly used reliability coefficients is Cronbach's alpha. Alpha is based on the internal consistency of a test, that is, it is based on the average correlation of items within a test (Norusis 1994; Coakes and Steed 2001).

In this research the use of the facility of SPSS 10.0 programme to apply Alpha test was employed. The following results exhibit the scale reliability of the attitudinal statements of tourists opinion about the facilities, push and pull factors. The closer alpha is to 1 the more reliable the results.

Facilities satisfaction (Alpha = 0.90)

Push motivational with 44 items (Alpha = .86)

Table 1 and 2 in Appendix E shows the reliability analysis-scale (A L P H A) for the 44 items. There is a correlation between each item and the total score from question 18 and 19. The items that do not correlate with the overall score from the scale are those with less value, as in question 18, a, b, g, i, j, n, m and t. So, these items were

deleted from the scale Table 3 and 4 in Appendix E shows the reliability analysis-scale (A L P H A) for the 36 items.

Push motivational with 36 items (Alpha = .89)

Pull motivation with 40 items (Alpha = 0.86)

7.15.2 The Frequencies

The idea of a frequency distribution is to tell the number of cases in each category (Bryman and Cramer, 2001). The frequencies procedure provides statistics and graphical displays that are useful for describing many types of variables. It displays a frequency table for a specified variable, showing the number and percentage of case for each value, normally applied to categorical variables; these are variables with a fixed number of discrete values (Norusis, 1994).

7.15.3 The Cross Tabulation

Cross tabulation describes two or more variables simultaneously, results in tables and reflects the joint distribution of two or more variables with a limited number of categories or distinct values (Malhotra, 1999). For example, cross tabulation is used for the relationship between location and each of educational level, gender, age and income level variables.

7.15.4 The Mean

The mean, or the average, is a measure of central tendency that offers a general picture of the data without unnecessarily inundating one with each of the observations in a dataset (Sekaran, 1992). The means procedure is applied to comparing averages (means) for different groups.

7.15.5 Standard Deviation

The standard deviation is a measure of how much the scores in the data sample vary around the mean. Each score in a sample will deviate from the mean by some amount (Dancey and Reidy, 2002).

7.15.6 Chi-square

Chi-square is a measure of how well the selected model fits the data. The Chi-square test uses the statistical significance the relationship between two classification systems (two-way classification). Chi-square is used to compare proportions or ratios. It facilitates the determination of whether the proportion of occurrences of some feature in one data sample is significantly greater than, or less than, the proportion of the same feature in a different data sample.

7.15.7 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis can be used to find latent variables or factors among observed variables. In other words, if the data contains many variables, factor analysis can be applied to reduce the number of variables. Factor analysis groups variables with similar characteristics together. With factor analysis a small number of factors from a large number of variables can be produce which is capable of explaining the observed variance in the larger number of variables. The reduced factors can also be used for further analysis. Factor analysis can also be viewed as a data reduction technique to identify a small number of factors that explain most of the variance observed in a much larger number of manifest variables (Green et al., 2000). This technique can be very useful in finding important underlying characteristics which might not

themselves be observed, but which might be found as manifestations of variables which are observed.

7.15.8 Pearson Correlation

The correlation coefficient is defined by a symmetric formula in two variables (Dodge and Rousson, 2001). The Pearson's correlation coefficient is a statistical procedure that allows an assessment of the strength and direction of the relationship between two phenomena to be assessed. Pearson's correlation reflects the degree of linear relationship between two variables. It ranges from +1 to -1. A correlation of +1 means that there is a perfect positive linear relationship between variables.

7.15.9 Multiple Regression

Multiple regression is an extension of linear regression. The general purpose of multiple regression is to learn more about the relationship between several independent or predictor variables and a dependent or criterion variable (Dancey and Reidy 2002; Slevents 2002).

7.15.10 One-way ANOVA

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a useful tool which helps the user to identify sources of variability from one or more potential sources. Analysis of variance, or ANOVA, is the standard technique for quantifying and partitioning sample variance. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used with one categorical independent variable and one continuous variable. The independent variable can consist of any number of groups (levels).

7.16 Summary

After a discussion of the positivist (quantitative) and the phenomenological (qualitative) research philosophies it was determined that the appropriate philosophy to be adapted for the purpose of the current study was positivist (quantitative) philosophy. The research strategy is comprised of the research problem, the research objective, the formulation of the hypotheses, research design and methods of data collection, study difficulties, designing the questionnaires, the translating of the questionnaires, the pilot study, the choosing sample techniques and the data analysis procedure have been discussed.

CHAPTER EIGHT

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

CHAPTER EIGHT

Result and Discussion

8.1 Introduction

The main aim of this chapter is to analyse the data. The results are based upon the transformation of data from various computer outputs. As a starting point it is important to examine some of the sample characteristic variables, demographic, socio-economic, geographic and length of stay. Then the form of holiday is analysed which includes the main and the additional visiting reasons, kind of transportation used, kind of accommodation in which tourist stays and the correlation between the accommodation and the demographic variables and who arranges the tourist accommodation. In addition, different kinds of tourist information obtained before arriving and the tourist opinion about tourist facilities. Furthermore, factor grouping of push and pull motivational items and their correlation with the demographic variables are discussed. Tourists' attitude to push and pull motivational items and the correlation between tourists' attitude and the demographic variables are analysed. Finally, the relationship between push and pull factors are tested.

8.2 Research Objectives

The aim of this study is to explore motivation for domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia using the quantitative data to generate and test hypotheses on the lines of the classic hypothetico-deductive model and to use the quantitative data to explain the findings and processes.

In sequence, to achieve these research goals, the objectives are:

- to assess the motivation 'push' and 'pull' factors of tourist behaviour towards domestic tourism
- to examine the nature and usefulness of the relationship between push and pull motivation factors and to examine if there is any significant correlation between tourist motivations factors and social demographic variables, educational level, income level, age and gender
- to test if there is any significant correlation between motivation items and the demographic variables: educational level, income level, age and gender in Jeddah and Abha
- to examine the correlation between the educational level, income level, gender and age of the tourists and the location
- to test the correlation between the educational level, income levels, age, length of staying, family number and the kind of accommodation.

8.3 The Characteristics of the Sample

The following section introduces the basic tourist characteristics in Jeddah and Abha to find if there is any difference between the two cities:

- demographic variables, such as age, gender, family size and family life cycle
- socio-economic variables, which include educational level and income
- geographic variables, which contain nationality and regions of origin
- length of stay.

Similarities and differences in these results from the two cities are described. The relationship between the tourist characteristics and some other variables that might affect tourism behaviour are examined.

8.3.1 Demographic Variables of the Sample

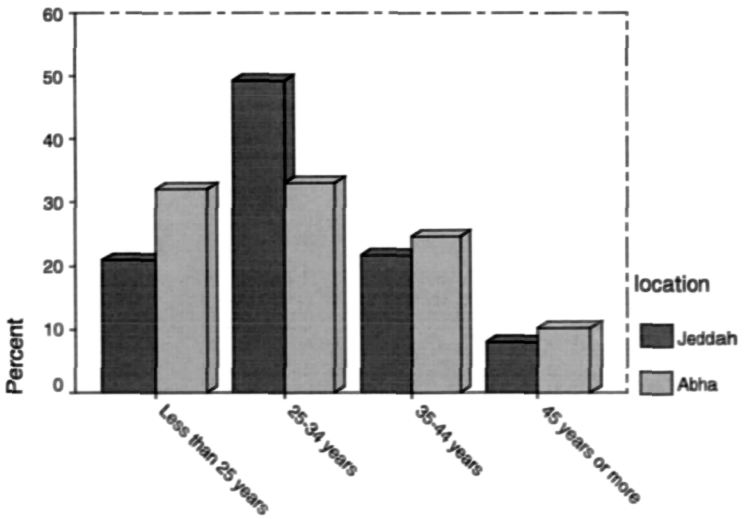
In demographic variables, age, gender, family size and family life cycle are discussed.

a) Age

Consumers change as they age. In addition, their behavioural processes and purchase decisions change. Marketers have found age to be a particularly useful demographic variable to distinguish segments because young adults have different needs from older age groups. People will choose different types of holiday at different ages.

From Figure 8.1 a breakdown of the ages of tourists can be seen with those in the 25-34 years group being the most common group, about 42.4%, followed by those in the next youngest group, about 25.7%, then those in the 34-44 years group, about 22%, while those in the group of 45 years or more are the lowest group, about 8.9% (as show in Table 5 in Appendix E).

Figure 8.1 Age of Tourist



Pearson Chi-Square = 14.788 D.F. = 3 Significance = .002 (as shown in Table 6 in Appendix E).

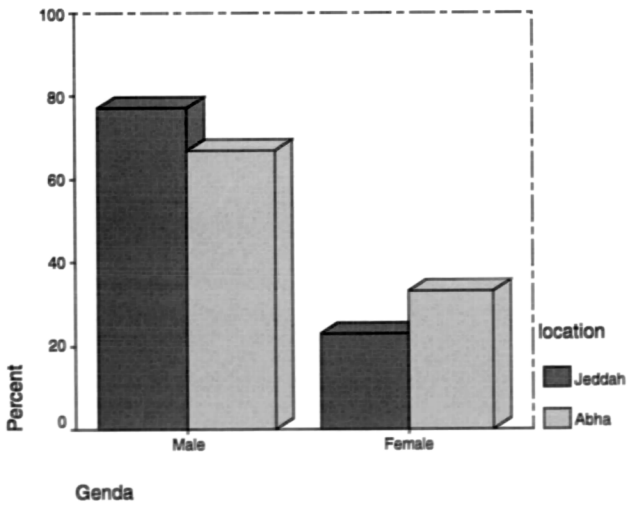
The results show a significant relationship between tourist age in the two locations, Jeddah and Abha.

b) Gender

There are a number of differences between the genders in their consumption behaviours. Gender is another factor that influences the marketing strategies since male needs are different from those of females.

According to the custom in Saudi society the father is usually the head of the family. It can be seen in Figure 8.2 that 72.7% of the sample was male (Table 7 in Appendix E).

Figure 8.2 Gender of Tourist



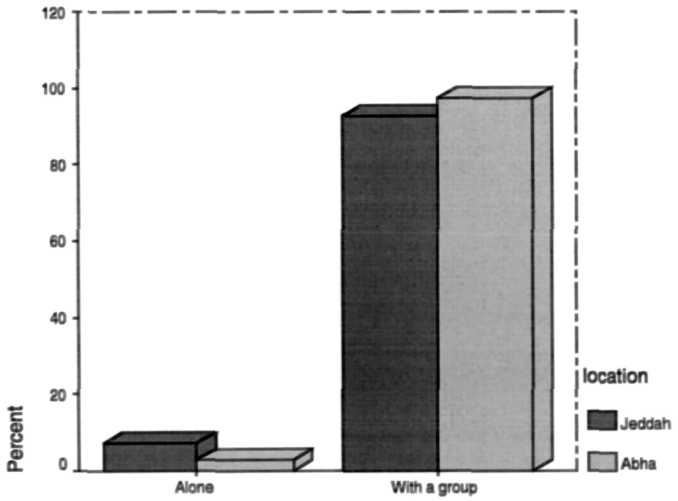
Pearson Chi-Square = 6.462 D.F. = 1 Significance = .011 (as shown in Table 8 in Appendix E).

There is a significant correlation between gender and location, as shown in the results.

c) Family Size

Marketers recognize that a family's makeup is a significant determinant of the products and services that the household buys. Family usually means the 'nuclear family' with two parents and between one and three children. The 'extended family' means a higher number of children and the inclusion of other relatives in the holiday party and/or their involvement in the purchase decision. Family size is another factor that influences marketing strategies because the small family has different needs to the large family. From Figure 8.3 it can be seen that 5.3 % of the sample were alone whilst 94.7% were travelling with a group (Table 9 in Appendix E).

Figure 8.3 Travelling Alone or with a Group



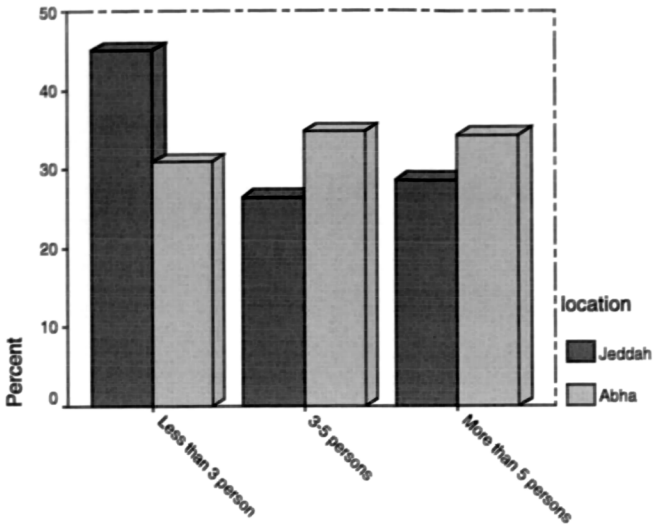
Pearson Chi-Square = 4.833 D.F. = 1 Significance = .028 (as shown in Table 10 in Appendix E)

The results show significant variation in the distribution between the two cities.

1. Adults

It can be shown from Figure 8.4 that, of the number of adults travelling in the study areas, less than 3 people was 38.7 %, while more than 5 people was 31 %. The total for more than 3 persons was 60.9% (Table 11 in Appendix E).

Figure 8.4 Percent of Adults Travelling



Pearson Chi-Square = 9.905 D.F. = 2 Significance = .007 (as shown in Table 12 in Appendix E)

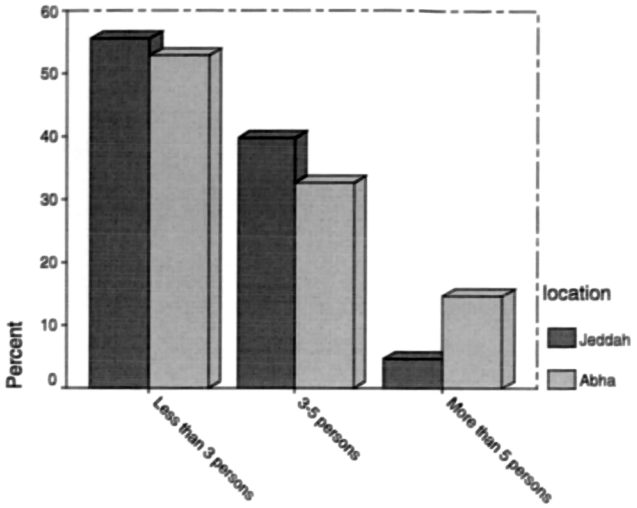
The results show significant variation in distribution of the numbers of adult in the between the two cities.

2. Children less than 11 years

Figure 8.5 shows the percentage of the children less than 11 years travelling with their family: less than 3 children was 54.3%, followed by 3-5 children that was 36.5%, while more than 5 children was 9.2%. The percentage of more than 5 children in Abha was 14.6% which was higher than Jeddah with only 4.7% (Table 13 in Appendix E).

There is significant variation in distribution of the number of children less than 11 years number between the two cities.

Figure 8.5 Percent of Children Less than 11 Years



Pearson Chi-Square = 9.529 D.F. = 2 Significance = .009 (as shown in Table 14 in Appendix E)

3. Children 11-16 years

It can be concluded from Table 8.1 that, of the children 11-16 years travelling with their family, the highest percentage was 64 % for less than 2 children, followed, by 23% for 3-5 children, while the lowest percentage was 13 % for more than 5 children.

Table 8.1 Percent of Children 11-16 Years Travelling

Number of children 11-16 years	**Jeddah** n = 90	**Abha** n = 71	**Total** n = 161
	%	%	%
Less than 3 children	70.0	55.3	64.0
3-5 children	18.9	28.2	23.0
More than 5 children	11.1	15.5	13.0
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Pearson Chi-Square = 3.230 D.F. = 2 Significance NS (as shown in Table 15 in Appendix E)

The results show no significant variation in distribution of the numbers of children 11-16 years between the two cities.

Table 8.2 summarises the previous result that shows the travelling group percentage: adults, children 11-16 years and children 11-16 years. Thirty one percent of the adult groups existed in the more than 5 persons category. Sixty four percent of the children between 11-16 years group was found in less than 3 person categories.

Table 8.2 Summary of the Travelling Group: Adults, Children Under 11 Years and Children 11-16 Years

Group	Less then 3 persons	3-5 persons	More than 5 persons
	%	%	%
Adults	38.7	29.9	31.0
Children under 11 years	54.3	36.5	9.2
Children 11- 16 years	64.0	23.0	13.0

d) Family Life Cycle

As is shown in Table 8.3 it may concluded that a family with children was the most common group with 66.9% in Jeddah and 72.7% in Abha, followed by the mothers' group in Jeddah with 17.5%, but, in Abha, followed the by brothers' and sisters' groups with 18%.

Table 8.3 Members of the Group Travelling

Members of the group	Jeddah n = 269	Abha n = 205
	%	%
Married partner without children	14.5	12.7
Family with children	66.9	72.7
Fathers	5.9	9.8
Mothers	17.5	13.2
Brothers	15	18.0
Sisters	16.4	18.0
Uncles (father's brothers)	1.5	4.4
Aunts (father's sisters)	1.5	3.9
Uncles (mother's brothers)	1.5	3.4
Aunts (mother's sisters)	5.6	5.4
Relatives	12.3	11.2
Friends	7.4	3.9
Non response	0	0.5

8.3.2 Socio-economic Variables

Educational level and household monthly income for tourists are examined in this section.

a) Educational level

Education is one of the key determinants of a person's occupation and, therefore, social class. Educational achievement is considered the most reliable determinant of consumers' income potential and spending patterns.

Table 8.4 shows the educational level of tourists which were grouped into five categories. About half of the respondents (55.4%) had university level of education, 30.3% had secondary level, 9.5% had post university level, 3.8% had intermediate level, while 1% had primary or less.

Table 8.4 Educational Level

Educational level	**Jeddah** n = 290	**Abha** n = 215	**Total** n = 505
	%	%	%
Primary or less	.7	1.4	1.0
Intermediate	5.2	1.9	3.8
Secondary	28.6	32.6	30.3
University	55.2	55.8	55.4
Post university	10.3	8.4	9.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Pearson Chi-Square = 5.367 D.F. = 4 Significance = NS (as shown in Table 16 in Appendix E).

Due to the small sample size the significance was checked using Monte Carlo methods. Monte Carlo methods provide a means for obtaining accurate results when the data failed to meet any of the underlying assumptions necessary for reliable results

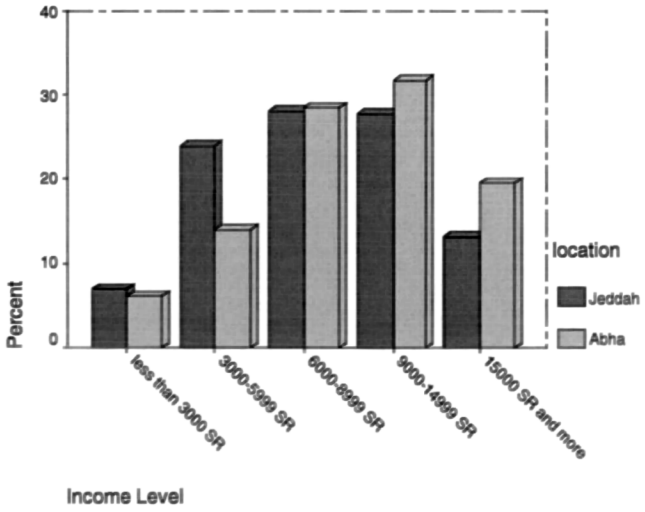
using the standard asymptotic method. The results of tourist educational level and location show no significant relation between them.

b) Household Monthly Income

Income can be a very useful way of dividing markets because it strongly influences people's product and service needs. It affects their ability to buy and their aspirations for a certain style of living and holidays.

As can be seen from Figure 8.6, the monthly income level of 9000-14999 SR was the highest with 29.3%, followed by the level of 6000-8999 SR with 28.1%. The level of 3000-5999 was 19.6%, followed by the level of 15000 SR and more with 15.8%, whilst the level of less than 3000 SR was the lowest percentage with 6.6%. These results indicate that monthly income level of less than 3000 SR was not a target for tourism markets (Table 17 in Appendix E).

Figure 8.6 Household Monthly Income of Tourist



Pearson Chi-Square = 10.151 D.F. = 4 Significance = .038 (as shown in Table 18 in Appendix E). The upper confidence intervals significance = .043 and lower confidence intervals of the significance = .033.

Due to the small sample size the significance was checked using Monte Carlo methods. The results show significant correlation between household monthly income and location.

8.3.3 Geographic Variables

The needs of consumers in different geographic locations may be affected by local climate, terrain, natural resources and population density. Markets can be divided into regions because one or more geographic variables might cause consumers' needs to vary from one region to another. Geographic variables determine the differences of nationality, regions and cities in the two cities.

a) Nationality

It can be seen from Table 8.5 that most of the respondents were of Saudi nationality. They formed 88.9% of the total respondents while the whole percentage of non-Saudi was just 11.1%. It can be seen that the percentage of Saudi tourists was higher in Jeddah than in Abha.

Table 8.5 Nationality of Tourists

Nationality	Jeddah n = 290	Abha n = 215	Total n = 505
	%	%	%
Saudi	90.3	87.4	88.7
Non Saudi	9.7	12.6	11.3
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 19 in Appendix E shows the tourists' nationality. All the non-Saudis were from Arab countries. About six percent were from the Gulf countries. The number of Kuwaiti nationality was 4%.

b) Regions

Table 8.6 illustrates the regions where the tourists come from. It can be concluded that the central region was the most common region, (37%); this was followed by the western region (28.4%), followed by the southern region (16.4%), the eastern region (13.9%) and the lowest region was the northern region (4.3%).

It can be observed that the central region was the highest (40.5%) and the lowest region was northern region (5.5%) in Jeddah. The highest region was the western region (35.4%) and the lowest region was the northern region with 2.2% in Abha.

Table 8.6 Regions of Saudi Tourists

Regions	**Jeddah** n = 262	**Abha** n = 188	**Total** n = 450
	%	%	%
Central region	40.8	30.3	36.4
Eastern region	14.1	12.2	13.3
Northern region	5.7	2.1	4.2
Western region	23.7	38.8	30.0
Southern region	15.6	16.5	16.0
	100.0	100.0	100.0

c) Originating Cities

The most common city where the Saudi tourists come from was Riyadh (20%) in both study areas. In visiting Abha, the percentage of Saudi tourists coming from Jeddah were 19.7% (Table 20 in Appendix E).

8.3.4 Length of Stay

Table 8.7 shows that the most popular length of stay was 2-6 days However, there was a substantial number in both centres who stayed for 29 days or more.

Table 8.7 Length of Tourist Stay

Length of tourist stay	Jeddah n = 290	Abha n = 215	Total n = 505
	%	%	%
One day	3.4	4.7	4.0
2-6 days	37.9	42.8	40.0
7-14 days	24.8	27.4	25.9
15-28 days	14.8	7.4	11.7
29 days or more	17.9	15.3	16.8
None response	1.0	2.3	1.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Pearson Chi-Square = 7.754 D.F. = 4 Significance NS (as shown in Table 21 in Appendix E).

The results show no significant variation in the distribution between the two cities.

8.3.5 Characteristics of Total Sampled Population

From Table 8.8 it may be concluded that 54.6% of those in the age group of less than 25 were university educated while only 3% were educated at intermediate level or below.

The percentage of tourists of 45 years and more with an intermediate educational level and less was 8.9% which was higher than the same level of education for the age less than 25 years group. This is not a surprising result considering the rapid development in the schooling system within Saudi Arabia

Table 8.8 Educational Level by Age of Tourists

Educational level	Age group				Total n = 505
	n = 130 < 25	n = 214 25-34	n = 116 35-45	n = 45 45 >	
	%	%	%	%	%
Primary or less	1.5	.5	.9	2.2	1.0
Intermediate	1.5	3.3	6.0	6.7	3.8
Secondary	40.8	27.6	27.6	20.0	30.3
University	54.6	61.7	48.3	46.7	55.4
Post University	1.5	7.0	17.2	24.4	9.5
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 8.9 presents data on respondents' household monthly income correlated to their education. Approximately sixty one percent of the secondary and less educational level had a household monthly income of less than 3000SR, while 75% at university and more educational level had a household monthly income between 9000-14999 SR.

Table 8.9 Educational Level by Household Monthly Income of Tourists

Educational level	**Income**					**Total** n = 505
	n = 33 < 3000	n = 99 3000-5999	n = 142 6000-8999	n = 148 9000-14999	n = 80 15000>	
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Primary or less	6.1	1.0	1.4	0	0	1.0
Intermediate	9.1	4.0	5.6	2.0	1.3	3.8
Secondary	45.5	37.4	33.1	23.0	25.0	30.5
University	39.4	54.5	53.5	61.5	55.0	55.4
Post University	0	3.0	6.3	13.5	18.8	9.4
	100	100	100	100	100	100.0

8.4 Holidays Forms

The following section discusses the holiday form in Jeddah and Abha to find if there is any difference between the two cities:

- main visiting reasons to the destination and the additional visiting reasons
- kind of transportation the tourist uses to reach the destination
- kind of accommodation in which the tourist stays and the correlation between this accommodation and the demographic variables and the person arranging the tourist accommodation
- any tourist information tourists get before arriving at their destination and from where
- tourist opinion about tourist facilities at the destination.

8.4.1 Main Visiting Reasons

It can be seen from Table 8.10 that, for 76.3% of the respondents in Abha, the main visiting reason was to spend their holidays. In Jeddah 10% of the respondents stated that their main visiting reason was for business (government, company or personal) because Jeddah is a commercial city. In those cases where holidaying was not the main purpose of the trip it was the secondary purpose.

Table 8.10 Main Visiting Reasons for the Tourists

Main visiting reasons	**Jeddah** n = 290	**Abha** n = 215	**Total** n = 505
	%	%	%
Holiday	71.0	76.3	73.3
Visit friends and relatives	10.7	14.0	12.1
Business (government, company or personal)	10.0	3.3	7.1
Other	6.9	6.5	6.7
None response	1.4	0	.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 8.11 shows that, for 49.7% of the respondents, holiday was their additional reason to visit the two study cities.

Table 8.11 Additional Visiting Reasons for the Tourist

Additional visiting reasons	**Jeddah** n = 108	**Abha** n = 51	**Total** n = 159
	%	%	%
Holiday	47.2	54.9	49.7
Visit friends and relatives	27.8	15.7	23.9
Business (government, company or personal)	14.8	5.9	11.9
Other	10.2	23.5	14.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

8.4.2 Kinds of Transportation Tourists Use to Reach their Destination

Table 8.12 shows that 55.6% of the respondents at the two cities used private cars to reach their destination, while 1.0% of the respondents used public transportation, such as taxis and buses. This means that Saudi tourists do not like to use public transportation because they like their privacy.

Table 8.12 Kind of Transportation Tourists Use to Reach their Destination

Kind of transportation	**Jeddah** n = 209	**Abha** n = 215	**Total** n = 505
	%	%	%
Airplane	41.4	40.0	40.8
Hire car	3.8	.9	2.6
Private car	53.8	58.1	55.6
Taxi	.3	0	.2
Bus	.7	.9	.8
	100.0	100.0	100.0

8.4.3 Kinds of Accommodation

According to Table 8.13 the most used accommodation was the furnished apartment with 61.7% at the two study areas. A percentage of respondents have their own in the cities. This result indicates that Saudi tourists prefer furnished apartments as accommodation rather than hotels.

Table 8.13 Kind of Accommodation Tourist Used

Kind of accommodation	**Jeddah** n = 289	**Abha** n = 215	**Total** n = 504
	%	%	%
Hotel	18.7	23.3	20.6
Furnished apartment	66.1	55.8	61.7
With relative	7.6	7.4	7.5
Own house	6.9	12.1	9.1
Other	.7	1.4	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tourist marketers need to gain an understanding of tourist characteristics because it has important uses in the marketing segmentation process. They can be employed either singly or in combination to describe various subcultures whose members share certain values, needs and behaviour. Thus, tourist characteristics help to identify subcultures the marketing manager can target with a particular marketing mix.

Table 8.14 shows that most of the tourists in Jeddah stayed in furnished apartments, their age level is from 25-34 years old, they are university educated, their monthly income ranges between 6000-14999 SR. They are accompanied by less than 3 adult persons, less than 3 children under 11 years old and less than 3 children from 11-16 years old, their staying ranges from 2-6 days and most of them are Saudi.

The tourists staying at hotels in Jeddah have an age level range from 25-34 years old, they are university educated, the monthly income level ranges between 9000-14999 SR, they are accompanied by less than 3 adult person, less than 3 children less than 11 years old and less than 3 children from 11-16 years old, their length of stay ranges from 2-6 days and most of them are Saudi.

In Abha it can be concluded that the tourists stay in furnished apartment, their age level is 35-44 years, they are university educated, their monthly income ranges from 9000-14999 SR, they are accompanied by 2-5 adult persons, less than 3 children less than 11 years and less than 3 children from 11-16 years, their stay is from 2-6 days and most of them are Saudi.

Table 8.14 Description of Tourist Characteristics with Type of Accommodation they Used

Tourist region		Jeddah				Abha			
Accommodation / Tourist characteristics		Hotel	Furnished apartment	With relative	Own house	Hotel	Furnished apartment	With relative	Own house
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Age	Less than 25 year	1.4	14.2	2.4	2.4	5.1	15.8	4.2	5.6
	25-34 year	10.4	31.5	3.1	4.2	10.7	15.8	2.3	4.2
	35-44 year	5.9	14.2	1.4	.3	4.2	17.7	.9	1.9
	45 year or more	1.0	6.2	.7	0	3.3	6.5	0	.5
Educational level	Prim or less	0	.7	0	0	.5	.5	0	.5
	Intermediate	0	3.8	.7	.3	0	1.4	0	.5
	Secondary	5.5	18.7	1.4	2.8	7.9	18.6	1.9	4.2
	University	10.7	36.7	4.8	2.8	13.0	29.8	5.1	6.5
	Post university	2.4	6.2	.7	1.0	1.9	5.6	.5	.5
Monthly income	Less than 3000 SR	.7	5.2	.3	.3	1.4	3.7	0	.9
	3000-5999 SR	4.2	16.0	2.1	1.7	2.3	8.9	1.9	.9
	6000-8999 SR	5.2	18.1	2.4	2.1	5.6	14.0	2.8	5.6
	9000-14999 SR	5.9	18.1	2.4	1.4	7.5	19.6	1.9	2.3
	15000 and more	2.8	8.4	.3	1.4	6.1	9.8	.9	2.3
Adult	Less than 3 person	11.9	29.7	1.9	1.1	10.6	14.5	1.9	3.4
	3-5 person	3.7	17.1	2.6	3.0	5.3	24.2	2.4	2.9
	More than 5 person	1.1	21.6	3.0	3.0	6.3	17.9	2.9	6.3
Children < 11	Less than 3 person	8.8	36.8	4.1	5.3	13.9	29.9	2.8	5.6
	3-5 person	2.9	32.7	1.8	2.3	3.5	21.5	3.5	4.2
	More than 5 person	0	3.5	1.2	0	.7	9.7	.7	2.8
Children 11-16	Less than 3 person	6.7	48.9	8.9	5.6	8.5	36.6	5.6	4.2
	3-5 person	1.1	15.6	1.1	1.1	8.5	12.7	2.8	4.2
	More than 5 person	1.1	7.8	2.2	0	1.4	5.6	1.4	5.6
Length of staying	One day	.3	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.9	0	1.9
	2-6 days	9.1	24.8	3.1	1.0	14.3	26.7	1.9	1.0
	7-14 days	3.8	17.8	2.4	.7	5.2	19.0	1.9	1.9
	15-28 days	3.1	11.5	0	.3	0	4.3	1.4	1.4
	29 days or more	2.4	10.8	1.0	3.8	2.9	4.3	1.9	5.7
Nationality	Saudi	15.2	60.9	6.6	6.9	19.1	47.9	7.4	11.6
	Non-Saudi	3.5	5.2	1.0	0	4.2	7.9	0	.5

Table 8.15 illustrates that, regardless of educational level, the majority of people stayed in furnished apartments (ranging from 73.7% to 60%).

Table 8.15 Kind of Accommodation by the Educational Level

Kind of accommodation	Educational Level					Total n = 504
	Primary or less n = 5	Intermediate n = 19	Secondary n = 152	University n = 280	Post University n = 48	
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Hotel	20.0	0	21.7	21.1	22.9	20.6
Furnished apartment	60.0	73.7	61.8	60.7	62.5	61.7
With relative	0	10.5	5.3	8.9	6.3	7.5
Own house	20.0	10.5	11.2	7.9	8.3	9.1
Other	0	5.3	0	1.4	0	1.0

Pearson Chi-Square = 15.103 D.F. = 16 Significance = NS (as shown in Table 22 in Appendix E).

Due to the small sample size the significance was checked using Monte Carlo methods. The results of kind of accommodation and the educational level show that there is no significant relationship between them.

Regardless of income level, as is shown in Table 8.16, the majority of people stayed in furnished apartments (ranging from 69.6% to 57%).

Table 8.16 Kind of Accommodation by the Income Level

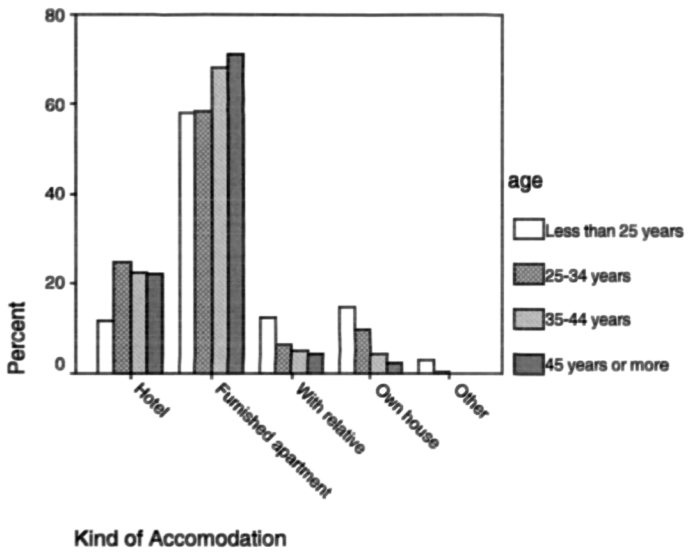
Kind of accommodation	Income					Total n = 501
	n = 33 < 3000	n = 99 3000-5999	n = 142 6000-8999	n = 148 9000-14999	n = 79 15000>	
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Hotel	15.2	17.2	19.0	22.3	26.6	20.6
Furnished apartment	69.7	65.7	57.7	63.5	57.0	61.7
With relative	3.0	10.1	9.2	7.4	3.8	7.6
Own house	9.1	7.1	12.7	6.1	11.4	9.2
Other	3.0	0	1.4	.7	1.3	1.0

Pearson Chi-Square = 14.961 D.F. = 16 Significance = NS (as show in Table 23 in Appendix E).

Due to the small sample size the significance was checked using Monte Carlo methods. The results of kind of accommodation and the income level show no significant relationship between them.

From Figure 8.7, despite age, the majority of people stayed in furnished apartments (ranging from 71.1% to 58.1%) (Table 24 in Appendix E).

Figure 8.7 Kind of Accommodation by Age



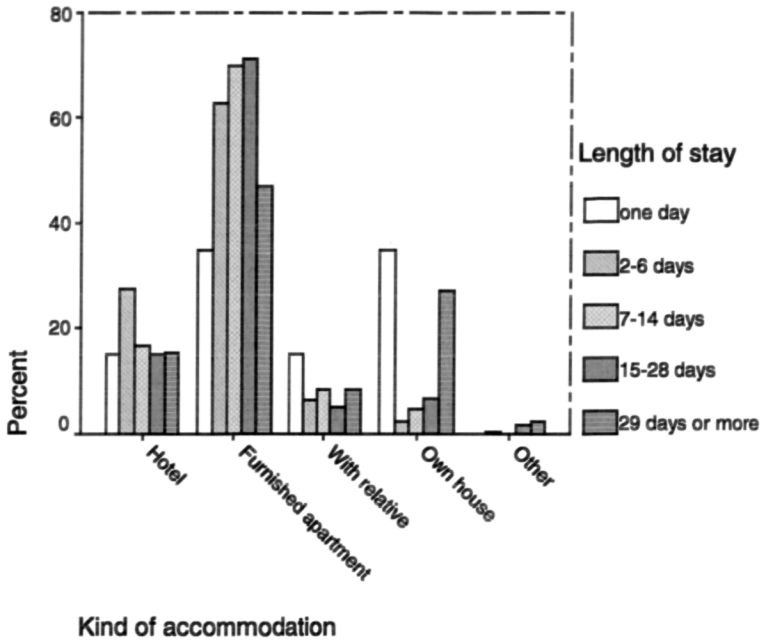
Pearson Chi-Square = 32.713 D.F. = 12 Significance = .001 (as shown in Table 25 in Appendix E). The upper confidence intervals significance = .003 and lower confidence intervals of the significance = .001.

Due to the small sample size the significance was checked using Monte Carlo methods. The results indicated that there is a significant relationship between kind of accommodation and age.

The kind of accommodation correlated to the length of stay is presented in Figure 8.8. It can be seen that 35 % of respondents staying from 7 days and above are staying in

furnished apartments. In periods of 29 days or more about a quarter of people used their own houses. Prior to this the longer the period the more used apartments (Table 26 in Appendix E).

Figure 8.8 Kind of Accommodation by the Length of Stay



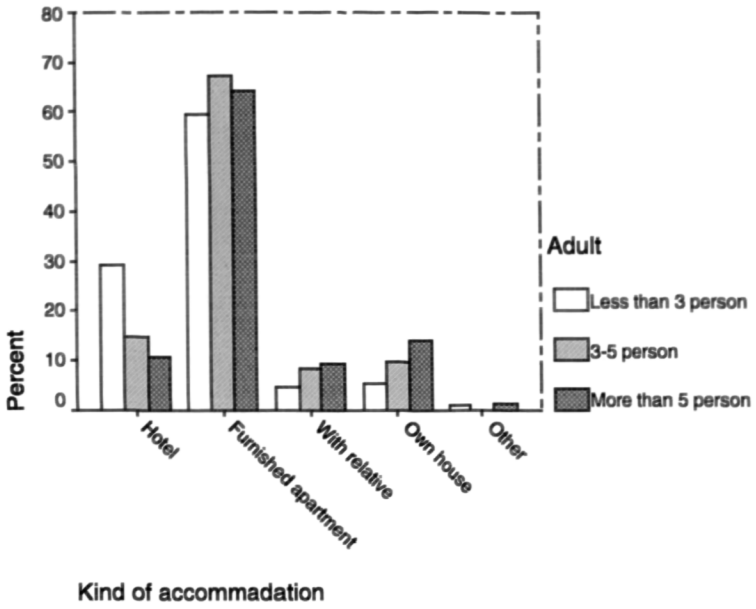
Pearson Chi-Square = 80. 691 D.F. = 16 Significance = .000 (as show in Table 27 in Appendix E). The upper confidence intervals significance = .000 and lower confidence intervals of the significance = .000.

Also, due to the small sample size the significance was checked using Monte Carlo methods. The results indicated that there is a significant relationship between the kind of accommodation and the length of stay.

From Figure 8.9, regardless of the number of adults, the majority of people stayed in furnished apartments (ranging from 67.1% to 59.5%) (Table 28 in Appendix E).

The result shows that there is a significant relationship between the kind of accommodation and the number of adults. This significant result was checked by using Monte Carlo methods due to the small sample size.

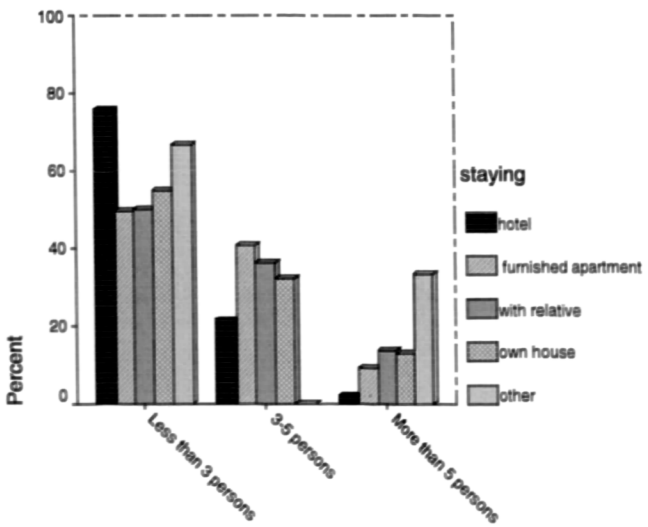
Figure 8.9 Kind of Accommodation by the Adult Group



Pearson Chi-Square = 28.594 D.F. = 8 Significance = .000 (as shown in Table 29 in Appendix E). The upper confidence intervals significance = .000 and lower confidence intervals of the significance = .000.

The correlation between the kind of accommodation and the number of children under 11 years group is shown in Figure 8.10. It can be concluded that approximately 68% of respondents staying at furnished apartments are accompanied by children in the under 11 years group (Table 30 in Appendix E).

Figure 8.10 Kind of Accommodation by the Children Under 11 Years Group



Pearson Chi-Square = 15.390 D.F. = 8 Significance = .052 (as shown in Table 31 in Appendix E). The upper confidence intervals significance = .061 and lower confidence intervals of the significance = .050.

This result indicates that there is significant relation between the kind of accommodation and the number of children under 11.

According to Table 8.17, regardless of the correlation between the kind of accommodation and the number of children between 11-16 years, it can be concluded that the majority of respondents stayed in furnished apartment accompanied by children between 11-16 years (ranging from 68% to 52.4%).

Table 8.17 Kind of Accommodation by the Children 11-16 Years Group

Kind of accommodation	**Number of Children 11-16 years**			**Total** n = 161
	> 3 persons n = 103	3-5 persons n = 37	< 5 persons n = 21	
	%	%	%	%
Hotel	11.7	18.9	9.5	13.0
Furnished apartment	68.0	62.2	52.4	64.6
With relative	11.7	8.1	14.3	11.2
Own house	7.8	10.8	19.0	9.9
Other	1.0	0	4.8	1.2

Pearson Chi-Square = 7.431 D.F. = 8 Significance = NS (as shown in Table 32 in Appendix E).

This result shows that there is no significant relation between the kind of accommodation and the number of children aged 11-16 years.

Table 8.18 shows that 75% of the respondents arranged their accommodation themselves, while 4% arranged their accommodation through a travel agency. Accommodation arranged by travel agency in Abha was 5.1% while in Jeddah 3.1%.

Table 8.18 Who Arranged the Tourist Accommodation

Who arranged accommodation	**Jeddah** n = 290	**Abha** n = 215	**Total** n = 505
	%	%	%
Travel agency	3.1	5.1	4.0
Relative or friend	18.3	16.7	17.6
Myself	76.2	73.5	75.0
Other	2.4	4.7	3.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

8.4.4 Tourist Information

Table 8.19 gives data on the information tourists get before arriving at their destination. The majority of the respondents (75.6%) get information before they reach their destination.

Table 8.19 Tourist Information

Getting information	**Jeddah** n = 290	**Abha** n = 215	**Total** n = 505
	%	%	%
Yes	72.1	80.5	75.6
No	27.9	19.5	24.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

It can be seen from Table 8.20 that past experience as a form of tourist information was most common in Abha with 59% and Jeddah with 54.4% which explains that more than half of the respondents have visited the destination before. That was followed by friends or relatives sources in the two study areas which illustrated that word-of-mouth influenced Saudi tourists. An implication is that if people are satisfied with a destination they may be more likely to come back and to tell others about their favourable and even unfavourable experiences related to the destination.

Table 8.20 Sources of Tourist Information

Sources of tourist information	Jeddah n = 209	Abha n = 173
	%	%
Travel agency	3.4	5.8
Friends or relative	31.1	39.3
Commercial guide books	5.3	2.9
Magazines	4.3	5.2
Newspaper	18.7	12.1
Past experience	54.4	59
Other	6.7	6.9

8.4.5 Tourists Opinion about Tourist Facilities at the Destination

Table 8.21 illustrates the mean value that indicated the total of tourists' attitude about tourist facilities and the deviation from the highest 30 value (6 x 5) and the lowest level 6 value (6 x 1). It can be seen that the total of tourists' attitude about tourist facilities tends to be in the highest level which indicates that there is a positive attitude toward tourist facilities.

Table 8.21 Mean Value Indicated the Total of Tourists' Attitude About Tourist Facilities

City	Mean	Range of the value	
		Lowest score	Highest score
Jeddah	23.67	6.33	17.67
Abha	23.13	6.87	17.13

The mean was used to verify the tourist attitude towards each tourist facility. If the mean value became close to the highest mean value (5) that indicates that there is very positive attitude towards a service facility and if the mean value came close to the lowest mean value (1) that indicates that there is a negative attitude towards a service facility. Table 8.22 illustrates the mean value for each facility.

1. The tourists' attitude in Jeddah concerning tourists' facilities tend to be positive. The mean value for tourist information (3.25) tends to be less than all other facilities.
2. The tourists' attitude in Abha related to tourists' facilities tends to be positive. The two tourist facilities which tend to be lower than others were restaurant services and tourist information. The mean value for restaurant services was (3.47) and the mean value for tourist information was (3.49).

Table 8.22 Mean Value Indicated the Tourists' Attitude about Tourist Facilities

Facilities	Mean value	
	Jeddah	Abha
Accommodation services	4.07	4.09
Location of the accommodation	4.26	4.28
Accessibility to reach this area	4.26	3.96
Restaurant services	3.98	3.47
Tourist information	3.25	3.49
Entertainment	3.85	3.84

Figure 8.11 and Figure 8.12 illustrates the mean results for Jeddah and Abha.

Figure 8.11 The Mean Results for Jeddah

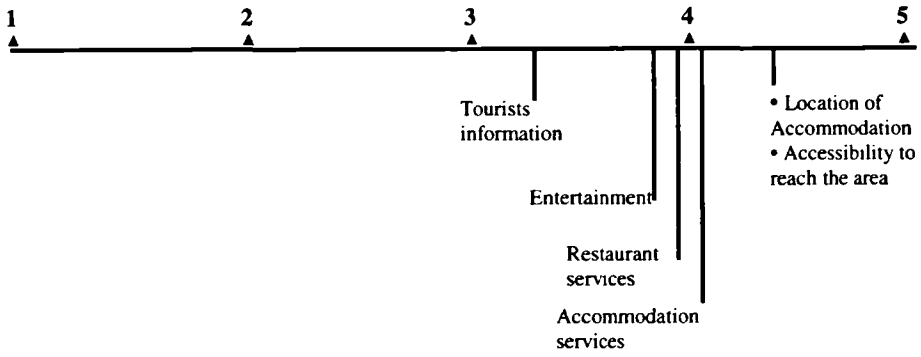
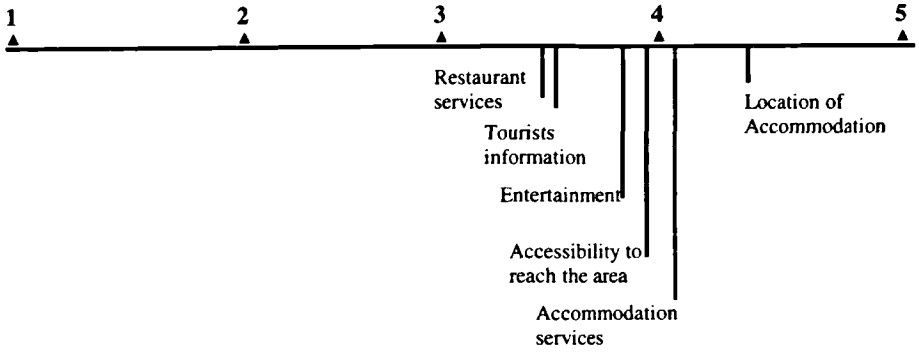


Figure 8.12 The Mean Results for Abha



From Table 8.23 it can be concluded that the total Saudi and non-Saudi attitudes towards tourist facilities tends to be positive in both study areas. It can be realized that the mean for non-Saudi attitudes was higher than the mean for Saudi attitudes related to all tourists' facilities in Jeddah and Abha.

Table 8.23 Comparison Between Saudi Tourist and Non Saudi Tourist Related to Tourist Attitudes toward Tourist Facilities

Tourist facilities / Tourist Region / Nationality		Accommodation services	Location of the accommodation	Accessibility to reach this area	Restaurant services	Tourist information	Entertainment
		High level =5 Low level = 1	High level = 5 Low level = 1	High level = 5 Low level = 1	High level = 5 Low level = 1	High level = 5 Low level = 1	High level = 5 Low level = 1
		Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Jeddah	Saudi	4.06	4.25	4.23	3.94	3.20	3.86
	Non Saudi	4.18	4.37	4.44	4.37	3.67	3.74
Abha	Saudi	4.05	4.23	3.91	3.46	3.47	3.78
	Non Saudi	4.35	4.59	4.27	3.50	3.65	4.19

8.5 Motivational Items

Factor analysis was employed on the push motivational items and pull motivational items to reduce the dimensions of the data set. Factor analysis reveals the

interrelationships between a large number of variables and then explains these variables in terms of their common underlying dimensions (factors). It is an interdependence technique in which all variables are simultaneously considered (Dunteman 1989; Stevens 1996; Baloglu, Weaver and McCleary 1998). The variables analysed are usually assumed to be interval and the 1-5 scales used in this study were assumed to provide interval-level data.

As a general rule, there should be at least four or five times as many observations as there are variables to be analysed (Hair et al., 1987). In the current study, n = 505 and the push motivation scale analysed contains variables (5 X 36 =180) and the pull motivational scale analysed contains variables (5 X 40= 200) so the researcher is within the guidelines.

8.5.1 Push Motivation

Questions 18 and 19 were subjected to a principal component factor analysis with Varimax orthogonal rotation on the 36 items using SPSS factor analysis. Varimax rotation was used to refine the original factors matrix. Rotation of the initial solutions maximises variance loading within each factor. Rotating of the original matrix assists in the recognition of the variables that best define the factor. An orthogonal rotation was used for its simplicity, as suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). A factor loading of .30 was used as a cut-off for inclusion of any item among the various factors. The results of a principal-component factor analysis with Varimax rotation in the first step produced a solution of 10 factors with eigenvalues greater than unity.

These ten factors accounted for 59.9 per cent of the total explained variance (as shown in Table 33 in Appendix E). Hair et al (1998) consider any solution with over 60% of the explained variance (and in some instance even less) as satisfactory from a social sciences standpoint when information is often less precise. In the second step only the first 9 factors are included in this study which explained 57.1% from the total variance (as shown in Table 33 in Appendix E). Because of a low percentage of total variance accounted for, and a small number of significant loadings, the final factor was excluded from any further analysis. The first factor explains the highest proportion of observed variance in the dataset. The second factor accounts for the majority of variance not explained by factor 1, and so on. Factor loadings represent the degree of correlation between an individual variable and a given factor. The percentage of total variance accounted for by each factor were as follow: Factor 1, 24%; Factor 2, 6.9%; Factor 3, 4.8%; Factor 4, 4.3%; Factor 5, 4%, Factor 6, 3.5%; Factor 7, 3.4%; Factor 8, 3.1% and Factor 9, 3.0%. Table 8.24 presents the factor loading and corresponding push motivational items which emerged after varimax rotation.

Reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha) was calculated to test the reliability and internal consistency of each factor. The results showed that the alpha coefficients for the majority of factors ranged from 0.52 to 0.86. One factor, the relaxation factor, has slightly lower reliability (.48). The interest factor and convenience of facilities factors had a low reliability (.44 and .33 respectively). Overall the factor lodgings were reasonably high, representing a respectable correlation between items and the factor grouping they belonged to. Therefore, all 9 factors were included in the analysis; this is supported by the work of Baloglu, Weaver and McCleary (1998).

The results of the factor analysis for push motivation can be seen in Table 8.24. These were named motives of 'cultural value factor', 'utilitarian factor', 'knowledge factor', 'social factor', 'economical factor', 'family togetherness factor', 'interest factor', 'relaxation factor' and 'convenience of facilities factor'.

Table 8.24 Factor Loading for Push Motivation-Related Items

Push Motivational Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
Cultural Value Factor *(Alpha=0.86)* Preserve traditions and customs when holiday in Saudi.	0.78								
Domestic tourism will protect our children from non-Islamic values.	0.77								
Holidays within Saudi are more appropriate for families than foreign holidays.	0.77								
The social environment will help women to preserve the Islamic veil.	0.76								
Domestic tourism will help to protect our youth from such diseases as Aids.	0.73								
It is more convenient to perform Islamic rituals when holidaying in Saudi than when holidaying in non-Islamic country.	0.71								
Personal security is assured while on holiday in Saudi.	0.68								
To be with other people who are similar to me in their traditions and customs.	0.66								
Utilitarian Factor *(Alpha=0.60)* Spending a holiday within Saudi will help in obtaining new experiences.		0.71							
No need to change Arabic clothes.		0.68							
Because it is cheaper than overseas tourism.		0.439							
Knowledge Factor *(Alpha=0.58)* Knowing how other people in different regions live.			0.73						
Historical sites are very important to my holiday plans.			0.670						
Getting out into the country and rural areas.			0.62						
Just nature and me, that's my idea of perfect holiday.			0.53						

Social Factor *(Alpha=0.67)* There is friendly treatment and generosity towards tourists in Saudi.				0.73					
Cooler weather results in a more enjoyable holiday.				0.66					
There is a good selection of family entertainment places.				0.61					
Domestic holidays in Saudi Arabia represent good value for money.				0.34					
Economical Factor *(Alpha=0.61)* Because holiday places are near to my home there is no need to pay extra accommodation.					0.67				
To be near to holy Islamic places.					0.51				
Food availability according to Islamic Law (Sharia).					0.45				
Family togetherness Factor *(Alpha=0.52)* The perfect holiday would include all of our family.						0.67			
The yearly holiday is the time when the family can be together.						0.62			
Talking about the places I've visited and the things I've seen.						0.43			
A holiday in Saudi Arabia will help me rest and relax.						0.31			
Interest Factor *(Alpha=.44)* Doing a lot of activities, like shopping.							0.77		
A holiday among people is very enjoyable.							0.64		
Frequent short holidays offer opportunity to do more.							0.43		
Relaxation Factor *(Alpha=0.48)* No expenditure needed to get a visitor visa or to change currency.								0.57	
Just to curl up with a good book in the shade sounds like a wonderful holiday.								0.54	
Usually, we visit relatives or someone we know on our trip.								0.43	
Having fun, being innocently entertained that's what a holiday is all about.								0.35	
From the national economic point of view spending money within Saudi will be beneficial instead of spending it in another country.								0.35	
Convenience of Facilities Factor *(Alpha=. 33)* The kinds of accommodation you get are very important.									.72
Availability of good restaurants and good food is important in a holiday destination.									.69

Factor 1, Cultural value factor. This is the most important factor (Table 8.25) which contains eight items and explains 24% percent of the variance in the data with an eigenvalue of 8.7. The items associated with this factor deal with cultural values, including a 'preserve traditions and customs when holidaying in Saudi', 'domestic tourism will protect our children from non-Islamic values', 'holidays within Saudi are more appropriate for families than foreign holidays', 'the social environment will help women to preserve the Islamic veil', 'domestic tourism will help to protect our youth from such diseases as Aids', 'it is more convenient to perform Islamic rituals when holidaying in Saudi than when holidaying in non-Islamic country', 'personal security is assured while on holiday in Saudi' and 'to be with other people who are similar to me in their traditions and customs'.

Factor 2, Utilitarian factor. Accounting for 6.9% percent of the variance in the data with an eigenvalue of 2.5, this factor is loaded with three items in relation to the utilitarian function. The three items are 'spending a holiday within Saudi will help in obtaining new experiences', 'no need to change Arabic clothes' and 'because it is cheaper than overseas tourism'.

Factor 3, Knowledge factor. Loaded with four items, this factor accounts for 4.8 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.7. The four items are: 'knowing how other people in different regions live', 'historical sites are very important to my holiday plans', 'getting out into the country and rural areas' and 'just nature and me, that's my idea of perfect holiday'.

Factor 4, Social factor. With an eigenvalue of 1.5, this factor explains 4.3 percent of the variance. This factor contains four items dealing with the social function. The four items are: 'there is friendly treatment and generosity towards tourists in Saudi', 'cooler weather results in a more enjoyable holiday', 'there is a good selection of family entertainment places' and 'domestic holidays in Saudi Arabia represent good value for money'.

Factor 5, Economical factor. The three items employed to explain the economical factor are: 'because holiday places are near to my home there is no need to pay extra for accommodation', 'to be near to holy Islamic places' and 'food availability according to Islamic Law (Sharia)'. This factor explains 4 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.4.

Factor 6, Family togetherness factor. This factor explains 3.5 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.3. The four items are: 'the perfect holiday would include all of our family', 'the yearly holiday is the time when the family can be together', 'talking about the places I've visited and the things I've seen' and 'a holiday in Saudi Arabia will help me rest and relax'.

Factor 7, Interest factor. Containing three items, this factor explains 3.4 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.2. These items are 'doing a lot of activities, like shopping', 'a holiday among people is very enjoyable' and 'frequent short holidays offer opportunity to do more'.

Factor 8, Relaxation factor. This factor contains five items and explains 3.1 percent of the variance in the data with an eigenvalue of 1.1. The items associated with this

factor deal with relaxation, including 'no expenditure needed to get a visitor visa or to change currency', 'just to curl up with a good book in the shade sounds like a wonderful holiday', 'usually, we visit relatives or someone we know on our trip', 'having fun, being innocently entertained that's what a holiday is all about' and 'from the national economic point of view spending money within Saudi will be beneficial instead of spending it in another country'.

Factor 9, Convenience of facilities factor. This factor explains 3 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.1. The two items are: 'the kinds of accommodation you get are very important' and 'availability of good restaurants and good food is important in a holiday destination'.

The mean is calculated to find the importance for each push factor, as shown in Table 8.25. It can be seen that the cultural value factor is the most important push factor that perceived by Saudi tourists, the mean is (4.396), which means that the Saudi tourist likes to take their holidays preserving their cultural values. The least important factor is the utilitarian factor, the mean is (3.595)

Table 8.25 Importance Ranking of Push Motivation Factors

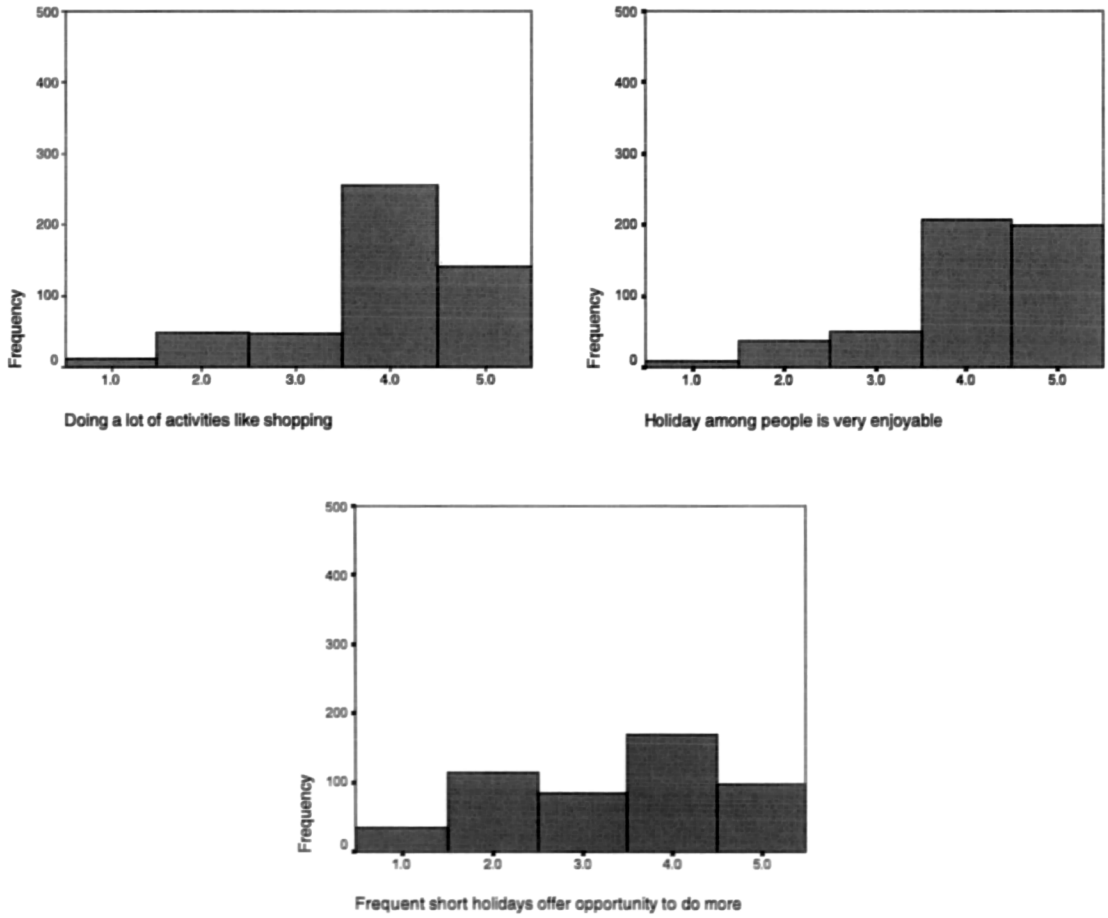
Push factors	Mean	Rank
Cultural value factor	4.396	1
Convenience of facilities factor	4.359	2
Family togetherness factor	4.164	3
Social factor	4.044	4
Knowledge factor	4.035	5
Economical factor	3.941	6
Interest factor	3.793	7
Relaxation factor	3.763	8
Utilitarian factor	3.595	9

In order to clarify why the reliability is low in interest factor, relaxation factor and convenience of facilities factor the frequencies and the histograms for these factors are compared.

Interest Factor

The alpha coefficient for the interest factor was .44. It can be seen from Figure 8.13 that the answers for the respondents vary for each item in the interest factor (frequencies can be seen in Tables 34, 35 and 36 in Appendix E).

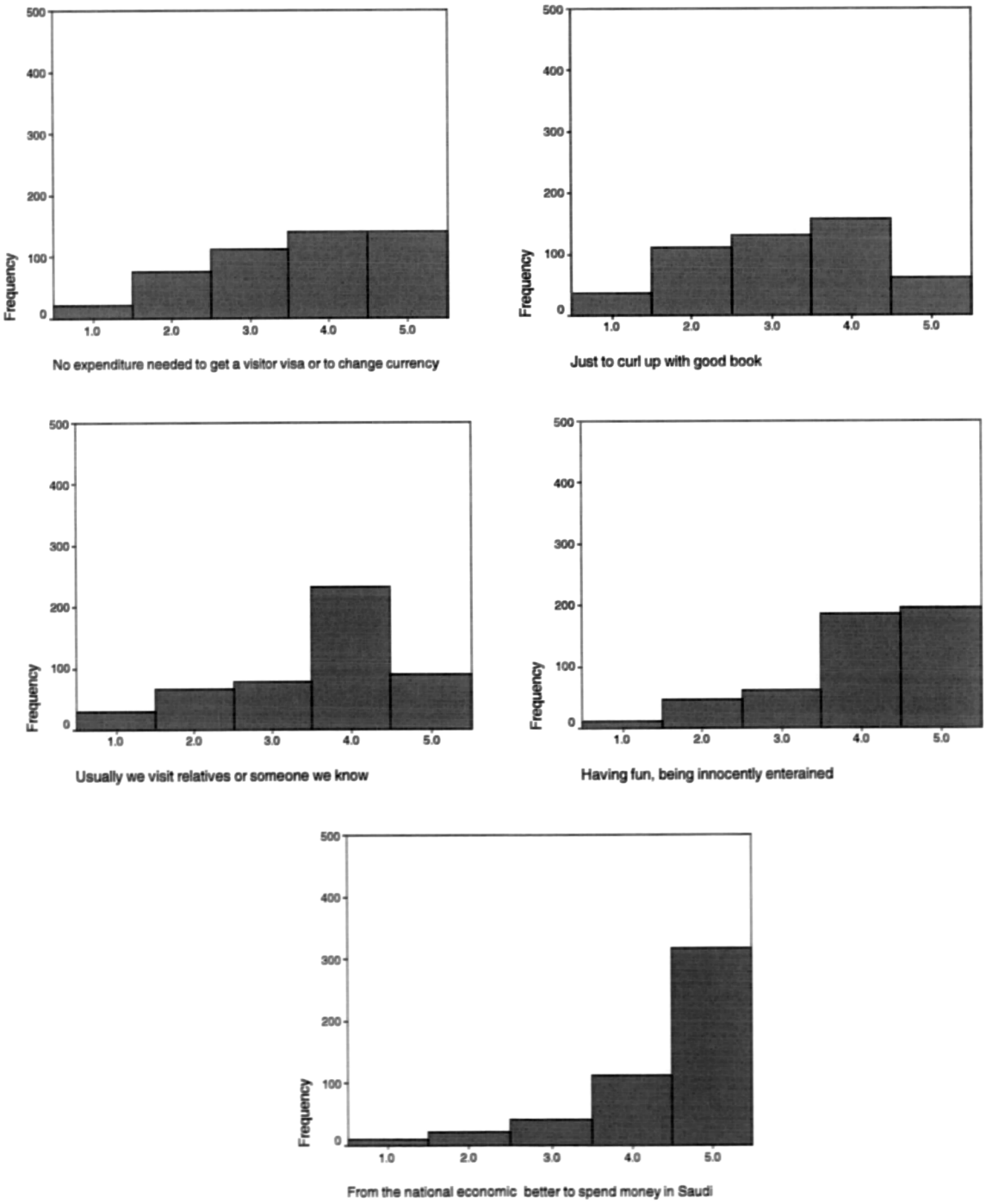
Figure 8.13 Histograms of the Component of Interest Factor



Relaxation Factor

The alpha coefficient for the relaxation factor was .48. Figure 8.14 shows that the answers for the respondents vary for each item in the relaxation factor (frequencies can be seen in Tables 37, 38, 39, 40 and 41 in Appendix E).

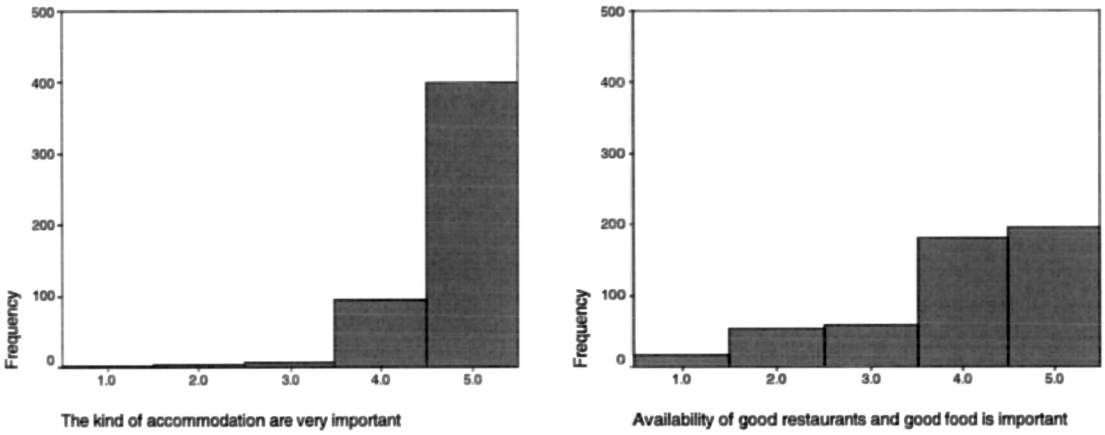
Figure 8.14 Histograms of the Component of Relaxation Factor



Convenience of Facilities Factor

In order to demonstrate why the alpha coefficient for the convenience of facilities factor is low (.33), Figure 8.15 illustrates that the answers for the respondents vary for each items in the convenience of facilities factor (frequencies can be seen in Tables 42 and 43 in Appendix E).

Figure 8.15 Histograms of the Component of Convenience of Facilities Factor



8.5.2 Pull Motivation

Question 20 was subjected to a principal component factor analysis with Varimax orthogonal rotation. Varimax rotation was used to refine the original factors matrix. Rotation of the initial solutions maximises variance loading within each factor. Rotating of the original matrix assists in the recognition of the variables that best define the factor. An orthogonal rotation was used for its simplicity, as suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Also, a factor loading of .30 was used as a cut-off for the inclusion of any item among the various factors. The results of a principal-component factor analysis with Varimax rotation in the first step produced a solution of 10 factors with eigenvalues greater than unity.

These ten factors accounted for 60.5 per cent of the total explained variance (as shown in Table 44 in Appendix E). Hair et al (1998) consider any solution with over 60% of the explained variance (and in some instance even less) as satisfactory from a social sciences standpoint when information is often less precise. In the second step only the first 9 factors are included in this study, which explained 57.8% from the total variance (as shown in Table 44 in Appendix E). Because of a low percentage of total variance accounted for, and a small number of significant loading, the final factor was excluded from any further analysis. The percentages of total variance accounted for by each factor were as follow: Factor 1, 16.8 %; Factor 2, 9.8%; Factor 3, 6.8%; Factor 4, 5.4%; Factor 5, 4.9%, Factor 6, 4%; Factor 7, 3.9%; Factor 8, 3.3% and Factor 9, 2.9%.

Table 8.26 presents the factor loading and corresponding pull motivational items which emerged after varimax rotation. These were named motives of 'safety factor', 'activity factor', 'beach sports/activities factor', 'nature/outdoor factor', 'historical/ cultural factor', 'religious factor', 'budget factor', 'leisure factor' and 'upscale factor'.

To test the reliability and internal consistency of each factor, Cronbach's alpha of each factor was determined. The results showed that the alpha coefficients for the nine factors ranged from 0.63 to 0.79. The results are considered more than reliable, since .50 is the minimum value for accepting the reliability test (Nunnally 1978).

Factor 1, the safety factor, is the most important factor (as shown in Table 8.27) which contained six items and explained 16.8% of variance in the data, with an eigenvalue of 6.7. This factor was associated with customer-safety attributes and

included the following attributes: 'to find high standards of hygiene/ cleanliness', 'to feel personally safe', 'to feel a warm welcome for tourists', 'to enjoy the cool weather', 'to find quality restaurants' and 'to be easily accessible for local attractions'.

Table 8.26 Factor Loading for 40 Pull Motivation-Related Items

Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
Safety Factor *(Alpha=0.79)* To find high standards of hygiene/ cleanliness.	0.75								
To feel personally safe.	0.73								
To feel a warm welcome for tourists.	0.63								
To enjoy the cool weather.	0.63								
To find quality restaurants.	0.56	0.34							
To be easily accessible for local attractions.	0.56								
Activity Factor *(Alpha=0.78)* To go to fast food restaurants.		0.77							
To go to restaurants.		0.76							
To enjoy nightlife.		0.67							
To go shopping		0.64							
To go to a big city.		0.61							
Beach Sports/Activities Factor *(Alpha=0.79)* To take part in water sports like diving and water-skiing.			0.72						
To find good beaches for swimming			0.69						
To enjoy pool activities.			0.65						
To go boating or to charter a boat.			0.65						
To go and stay at a beach cabin.		0.34	0.61						
To go fishing.			0.55		0.32				
To visit the beach.	0.32	0.36	0.52						
Nature/Outdoor Factor *(Alpha=0.77)* To participate in outdoor activities.				0.73					
To go to a wilderness areas.				0.72					
To visit mountainous areas.				0.68					
To get away from crowds.				0.65					
To see wildlife/birds.				0.61					
Historical/Cultural Factor *(Alpha=0.77)* To visit historical archaeological sites.					0.69				
To see local crafts/handwork.					0.68				
To meet interesting/friendly local people.					0.63				
To visit the historic old city.					0.62	0.31			
To visit interesting small towns/ villages.				0.36	0.57				
To see outstanding scenery.	0.42				0.46				

Religious Factor *(Alpha=0.86)* To visit the Kaaba.						0.87			
To visit the Prophetic Mosque.						0.87			
Budget Factor *(Alpha=0.61)* To find budget accommodation.	0.38						0.68		
To find value-for-money restaurants	0.36						0.62		
To find this trip value-for-money.							0.62		
To use public transportation.							0.48		
Leisure Factor *(Alpha=0.64)* To ride telpherage/cable car								0.74	
To visit theme park such as Asir National Park.								0.69	
To go to entertainment/ amusement places.								0.45	
Upscale Factor *(Alpha=0.63)* To stay in a first class hotel.									0.83
To stay in a high standard apartment/flat.									0.76

Factor 2, the activity factor, contained five items and accounted for 9.8% of variance, with an eigenvalue of 3.9. This factor included various activities practiced by tourists at the destination areas. The five items were as follows: 'to go to fast food restaurants', 'to go to restaurants', 'to enjoy nightlife', 'to go shopping' and 'to go to a big city'.

Factor 3, the beach sports/activities factor, consisted of seven items: 'to take part in water sports like diving and water-skiing', 'to find good beaches for swimming', 'to enjoy pool activities', 'to go boating or to charter a boat', 'to go and stay at a beach cabin', 'to go fishing' and 'to visit the beach' This factor contained 6.8% of the variance, with an eigenvalue of 2.7.

Factor 4, the nature/outdoor factor, explained 5.5% of the variance and recorded an eigenvalue of 2.2. This factor was associated with five items incorporating the nature/outdoor activities practise by the tourists. These five items were as follows: 'to

participate in outdoor activities', 'to go to a wilderness areas', 'to visit mountainous areas', 'to get away from crowds' and 'to see wildlife/birds'.

Factor 5, the historical/cultural factor, contained 4.9% of the variance in the data, with an eigenvalue of 2. This factor included six items that were related to the historic resources of a destination. These six items were as follows: 'to visit historical archaeological sites', 'to see local crafts/handwork', 'to meet interesting/friendly local people', 'to visit the historic old city', 'to visit interesting small towns/ villages' and 'to see outstanding scenery'.

Factor 6, the religious factor, was associated with visiting the two holy Moslem mosques. The two items integrated in this factor were as follows: 'to visit the Kaaba' and 'to visit the Prophetic Mosque'. This factor contained 4% of the variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.6.

Factor 7, the budget factor, explained 3.9% of the variance and recorded an eigenvalue of 1.6. The four items were as follows: 'to find budget accommodation', 'to find value-for-money restaurants', 'to find this trip value-for-money' and 'to use public transportation'.

Factor 8, the leisure factor, contained three items and accounted for 3.3% of variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.3. This factor included various activities practice by tourist at the destination areas. The three items were as follows: 'to ride telpherage/cable car', 'to visit theme parks such as Asir National Park', 'to enjoy nightlife' and 'to go to entertainment/ amusement places'.

Factor 9, the upscale factor, contained 2.9% of the variance in the data, with an eigenvalue of 1.2. This factor included two items that were related to the scale of accommodation needed. These two items were as follows: 'to stay in a first class hotel', 'to stay in a high standard apartment/flat'.

It can be recognised that some of the pull items appeared in more than one factors. 'To find quality restaurants' is found in factor 1 (safety factor) and factor 2 (activity factor) but the factor loading is higher in factor 1 than in factor 2. The item 'to go and stay at a beach cabin' is shown in both factor 2 (activity factor) and factor 3 (beach sports/activities factor), the factor loading for this item is higher in factor 3 than factor 2. The factor loading for 'to go fishing' item is higher in factor 3 than in factor 5. 'To visit the beach' item appeared in three factors 1 (safety factor), 2 (activity factor) and 3 (beach sports/activities factor), the highest factor loading is in factor 3. The factor loading, for the item 'to visit the historic old city' in factor 5 (historical/cultural factor) is double that in factor 6 (religious factor).

'To visit interesting small towns/ villages' item is found in factor 4 (nature/outdoor factor) and factor 5 (historical/cultural factor), with the factor loading higher in factor 5. The item 'to see outstanding scenery' is found in factor 1 (safety factor) and factor 4 (nature/outdoor factor), but the factor loading in factor 4 is higher than in factor 1. The factor loading for the two items 'to find budget accommodation and to find value-for-money restaurants' are higher in factor 7 (budget factor) than in factor 1 (safety factor).

In order to find the importance for each pull factor as shown in Table 8.27, the mean is calculated. It can be seen that the religious factor is the most important pull factor

perceived by Saudi tourists, the mean is (4.645), which means that the Holy Cities are the most attractiveness of a destination as it is perceived Saudi tourist. The least important factor is the nature/outdoor factor, the mean is (3.513)

Table 8.27 Importance Ranking of Pull Motivation Factors

Pull factors	Mean	Rank
Religious factor	4.645	1
Safety factor	4.542	2
Budget factor	3.892	3
Leisure factor	3.878	4
Upscale factor	3.717	5
Historical/cultural factor	3.667	6
Activity factor	3.551	7
Beach sports/activities factor	3.546	8
Nature/outdoor factor	3.513	9

The evidence from this factor analysis supports the push and pull motivations from pervious studies (Dann 1977; Crompton 1979; Figler, Weinstein, SollersIII and Devan, 1992; Uysal and Jurowski 1994; Baloglu and Uysal 1996; Hanqin and Lam 1999; Kim and Lee 2002), in which they recognise that there are many motivations which predispose the individuals to travel. However, the importance level of push and pull factors might be different for tourists from one country to another. In a mature market German tourists perceive 'escape' and 'active sports environment' as the most important push and pull factors (Jamrozy and Uysal, 1994). In addition, Australian tourists perceive the most important push and pull factors as 'knowledge/intellectual' and 'historical/cultural' (Chul Oh, Uysal and Weaver, 1995). For a developing market, Mainland Chinese tourists perceive 'knowledge' and 'high-tech image' as the most important push and pull factors (Hanqin and Lam, 1999).

The results confirm that in Saudi Arabia, as in the Western World (Krippendorf 1987; Parker 1983; Gnoth 1997), free time and holidays are linked to the concept of self-actualisation (self-realization), that is, to (either) redress the strains and stresses of a work-a-day routine life and (or) to develop mind and body to its full potential.

8.6 Tourists' Attitude to Push Motivational Items

Table 8.28 illustrates the mean value that indicated the total of tourists' attitude to push motivation items. The scale used in push motivation items is the Likert 5-point scale ranging from (5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 1 = strongly disagree). The standard deviation is a measure of how much the scores in the data sample vary around the mean. If the mean value became close to the highest possible mean value (5) that indicates that there is a very positive attitude towards the push motivational items and if the mean value became close to the lowest possible mean value (1) that indicates that there is a negative attitude towards motivational items.

Table 8.28 shows the mean value for each push motivation item. It can be noted that the lowest mean was in the item 'because holiday places are near to my home there is no need to pay for extra accommodation' in Jeddah (3.05) and Abha (2.99). The highest mean was (4.80) in the items 'just nature and me, that's my idea of perfect holiday' in Abha, but in Jeddah the highest mean was (4.75) in the item 'the kinds of accommodation you get are very important'.

Table 8.28 Mean Value Indicated the Tourists' Attitude to Push Motivational Items

	Jeddah		Abha	
	Mean	S. D.	Mean	S. D.
Historical sites are very important to my holiday plans.	3.6879	1.1637	3.8057	1.1319
Knowing how other people in different regions live.	3.7965	1.0315	3.8720	1.0725
Just nature and me, that's my idea of perfect holiday.	4.6702	.6022	4.8037	.5024
Getting out into the country and rural areas.	3.5493	1.1804	4.1402	.9733
Just to curl up with a good book in the shade sounds like a wonderful holiday.	3.155	1.142	3.246	1.128
Frequent short holidays offer opportunity to do more.	3.3741	1.2690	3.3364	1.1624
Doing a lot of activities, like shopping.	3.9723	.9750	3.8545	.9917
The yearly holiday is the time when the family can be together.	3.8893	1.0515	3.9767	1.1857
Usually, we visit relatives or someone we know on our trip.	3.5719	1.0841	3.5687	1.1542
A holiday among people is very enjoyable.	4.1394	.9320	4.0469	1.0036
The perfect holiday would include all of our family.	4.5245	.7239	4.6093	.6876
Talking about the places I've visited and the things I've seen.	4.1254	.8958	4.3915	.6692
Availability of good restaurants and good food is important in a holiday destination.	3.9273	1.1357	4.0047	1.0700
The kinds of accommodation you get are very important.	4.7543	.5450	4.7581	.5357
Spending a holiday within Saudi will help in obtaining new experiences.	3.7422	1.0950	3.9623	1.0434
No need to change Arabic clothes.	3.7649	1.2208	3.8857	1.2046
A holiday in Saudi Arabia will help me rest and relax.	3.8233	1.0572	4.0853	1.0011
From the national economic point of view spending money within Saudi will be beneficial instead of spending it in another country.	4.3958	.9312	4.4206	.9694
No expenditure needed to get a visitor visa or to change currency.	3.6079	1.1213	3.6321	1.2417
Having fun, being innocently entertained that's what a holiday is all about.	4.0174	1.0508	3.9907	1.0526
Because holiday places are near to my home there is no need to pay for extra accommodation.	3.05	1.23	2.99	1.27
Because it is cheaper than overseas tourism.	3.1080	1.4743	3.1972	1.3242
Personal security is assured while on holiday in Saudi.	4.3204	.9765	4.5023	.8829
Cooler weather results in a more enjoyable holiday.	4.3449	.9177	4.6000	.6022
There is friendly treatment and generosity towards tourists in Saudi.	3.9862	1.1055	4.1682	1.0390
There is a good selection of family entertainment places.	3.9386	1.0250	4.0900	.9291
Domestic tourism will protect our children from non-Islamic values.	4.4948	.8482	4.5924	.7589
Preserve traditions and customs when holiday in Saudi.	4.2396	1.0129	4.4512	.8626
Holidays within Saudi are more appropriate for families than foreign holidays.	4.1038	1.1440	4.4104	.9167
Domestic tourism will help to protect our youth from such diseases as Aids.	4.4286	.9935	4.5587	.8647
To be with other people who are similar to me in their traditions and customs.	4.0972	.9431	4.3458	.8732
The social environment will help women to preserve the Islamic veil.	4.3529	.9860	4.5211	.9193
It is more convenient to perform Islamic rituals when holidaying in Saudi than when holidaying in non-Islamic country.	4.4172	1.0095	4.6168	.7889
To be near to holy Islamic places.	4.4345	.7876	4.4292	.7664
Food availability according to Islamic Law (Sharia).	4.3264	.9245	4.4225	.7830
Domestic holidays in Saudi Arabia represent good value for money.	3.4655	1.3544	3.8726	1.2307

8.6.1 Correlation Between Push Motivation and Educational Level

One-way ANOVA is used to find the correlation between push motivation attitude and tourist education level. It can be concluded that there is no correlation between push motivation attitude and tourist educational level (df =4, F = 2.327, Sig. = NS) (Table 45 in Appendix E).

Table 8.29 reported the results of analysis of variance (ANOVA). The study found that there is no significant correlation between push motivation factors and the educational level except a significant correlation between the social factor and the educational level in Abha.

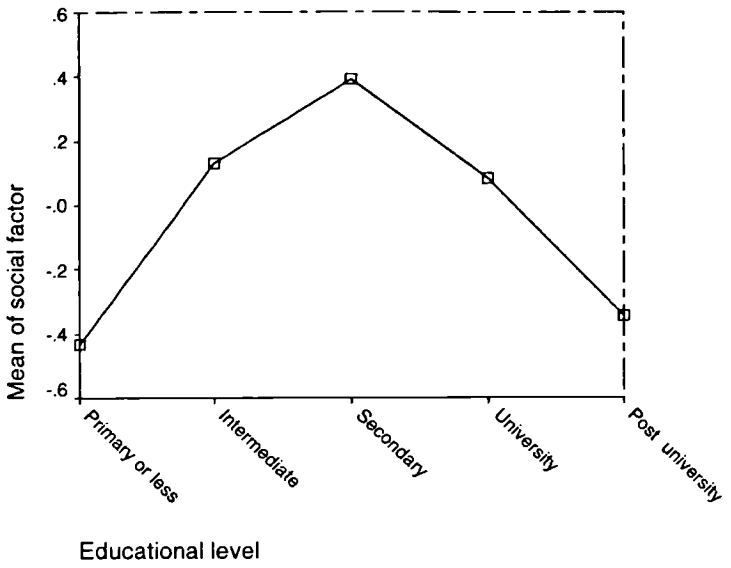
Table 8.29 ANOVA : Between Push Factors and Educational Level

Push Factor	**Jeddah**			**Abha**		
	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups
Cultural value	4	2.194	.071	4	.791	.532
Utilitarian	4	1.480	.210	4	2.004	.096
Knowledge	4	1.284	.277	4	.133	.970
Social	4	2.345	.056	4	5.170	.001*
Economical	4	2.138	.077	4	.369	.830
Family togetherness	4	.809	.521	4	2.108	.082
Interest	4	.233	.920	4	1.954	.104
Relaxation	4	1.108	.354	4	.470	.757
Convenience of facilities	4	.790	.533	4	.644	.632

* Significant at the 0.001 level

The social factor includes four items: 'there is friendly treatment and generosity towards tourists in Saudi', 'cooler weather results in a more enjoyable holiday', 'there is a good selection of family entertainment places' and 'domestic holidays in Saudi Arabia represent good value for money'. People who are educated to secondary level place greater agreement on social factor than others, as is shown in Figure 8.16.

Figure 8.16 Means Plot for the Social Factor in Abha



8.6.2 Correlation Between Push Motivation and Income Level

By using the previous technique the result indicate that there is no correlation between push motivation attitude and the tourist income level (df =4, F =1.078, Sig. = NS as show in Table 46 in Appendix E).

Table 8.30 presented the results of analysis of variance (ANOVA). The study found that there is no significant correlations between the push motivation factors and the income level except a significant correlation between the economical factor and the income level in Jeddah (sig. = .016), while there is a significant correlation between the knowledge factor (sig. = .045) and the income level in Abha exists.

Table 8.30 ANOVA : Between Push Factors and Income Level

Push Factor	Jeddah			Abha		
	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups
Cultural value	4	.348	.845	4	1.074	.371
Utilitarian	4	.841	.501	4	.266	.900
Knowledge	4	2.251	.065	4	2.501	.045*
Social	4	2.114	.080	4	1.013	.402
Economical	4	3.122	.016*	4	2.136	.079
Family togetherness	4	.107	.980	4	1.696	.154
Interest	4	1.176	.323	4	.648	.629
Relaxation	4	.395	.812	4	.235	.918
Convenience of facilities	4	.949	.437	4	.746	.562

* Significant at the 0.05 level

Respondents who have an income level between 3,000-5,999 SR placed greater agreement on economical factor than others in Jeddah, as is shown in Figure 8.17.On the other hand, as shown in Figure 8.18, in Abha greater agreement on the knowledge factor than others was placed by the respondents with an income level between 6,000-8,999 SR.

Figure 8.17 Means Plot for the Economical in Jeddah

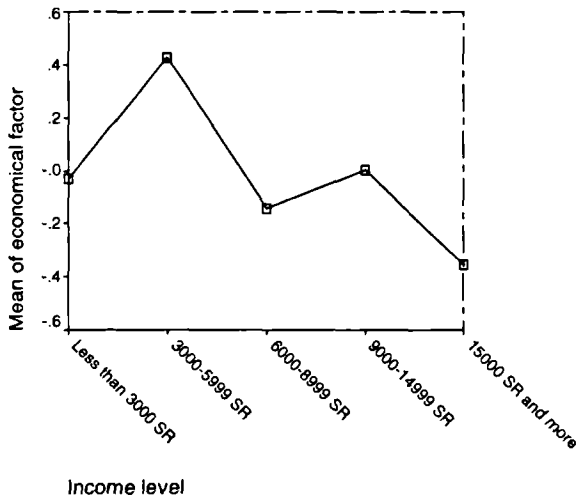
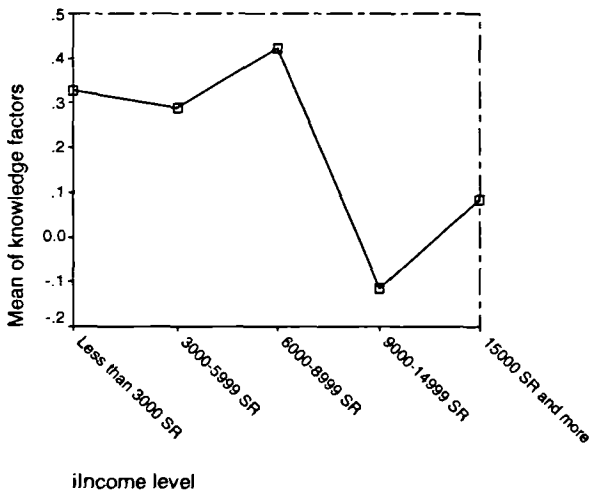


Figure 8.18 Means Plot for the Knowledge Factor in Abha



8.6.3 Correlation Between Push Motivation and Age

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique was used to find if age correlated with push motivation attitude. It can be inferred that there is no correlation between push motivation attitude and tourist ages (df = 3, F = .988, Sig. = NS) (Table 47 in Appendix E).

The results of analysis of variance (ANOVA) are shown in Table 8.31. The study found that there is no significant correlation between push motivation factors and age apart from a significant correlation between the cultural value factor and age in Jeddah (sig. = .025) and a significant correlation between the interest factor (sig. = .001) and the social factor (sig. = .048) and age in Abha.

Table 8.31 ANOVA : Between Push Factors and Age

Push Factor	**Jeddah**			**Abha**		
	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups
Cultural value	3	3.178	.025*	3	.408	.747
Utilitarian	3	.255	.858	3	1.769	.155
Knowledge	3	1.595	.192	3	.572	.634
Social	3	.669	.572	3	2.695	.048*
Economical	3	.436	.728	3	.916	.435
Family togetherness	3	.002	1.000	3	.264	.851
Interest	3	1.471	.224	3	6.541	.000**
Relaxation	3	1.502	.215	3	.426	.735
Convenience of facilities	3	.359	.783	3	1.482	.221

* Significant at the 0.05 level

** Significant at the 0.001 level

From Figure 8.19 it can be concluded that the respondents who are 45 years and more placed greater agreement on the cultural value factor than others in Jeddah. As shown in Figure 8.20 there is greater agreement on the interest factor by the respondents of less than 25 years in Abha. Those of less than 25 years in Abha have a significantly higher score for the social factor, as shown in Figure 8.21.

Figure 8.19 Means Plot for the Cultural Value Factor in Jeddah

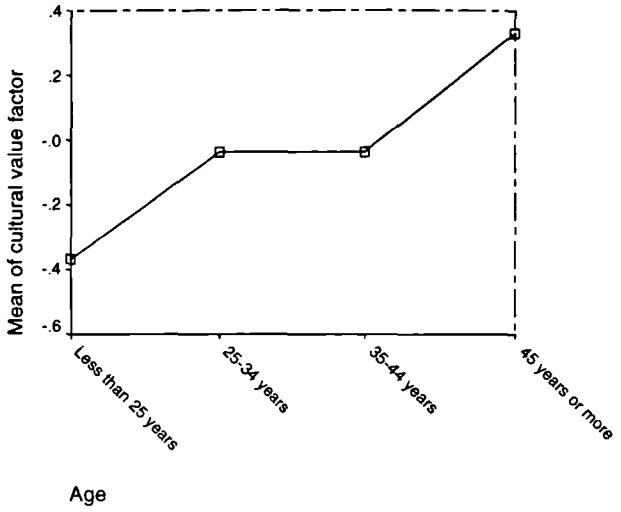


Figure 8.20 Means Plot for the Interest Factor in Abha

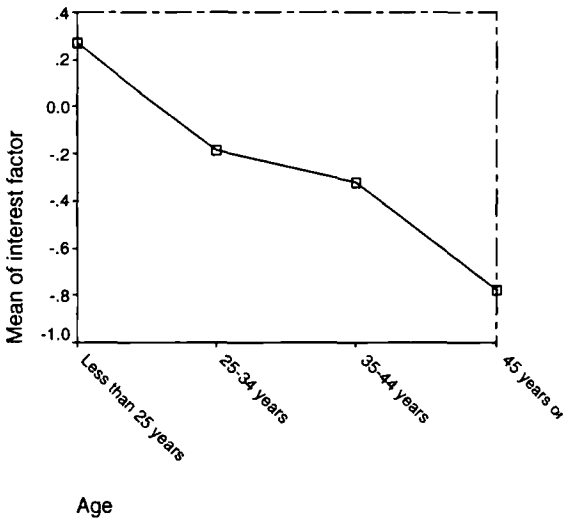
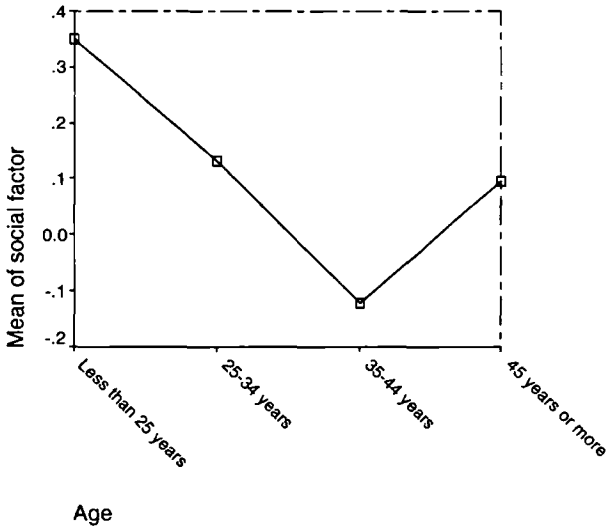


Figure 8.21 Means Plot for the Social Factor in Abha



8.6.4 Correlation Between Push Motivation and Gender

To find if gender correlates with push motivation attitude the analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique was used. It can be concluded that there is no correlation between push motivation attitude and tourists gender (df = 1, F = 3.535, Sig. = NS. as shown in Table 47 in Appendix E).

It may be inferred from Table 8.32 that there is significant correlation between push motivation factors and gender. A significant correlation is found between the interest factor (sig. = .001), social factor (sig. = .017) and gender in Jeddah. A significant correlation is found between the interest factor (sig. = .001), the cultural value (sig.= .019), the utilitarian factor (sig. = .048) and gender in Abha.

Table 8.32 ANOVA : Between Push Factors and Gender

Push Factor	**Jeddah**			**Abha**		
	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups
Cultural value	1	.130	.719	1	5.652	.019*
Utilitarian	1	.231	.632	1	3.981	.048*
Knowledge	1	.751	.387	1	.617	.433
Social	1	5.788	.017*	1	3.599	.059
Economical	1	.014	.907	1	1.227	.269
Family togetherness	1	.104	.747	1	.805	.371
Interest	1	20.101	.000**	1	11.830	.001**
Relaxation	1	.039	.843	1	.235	.629
Convenience of facilities	1	.116	.733	1	.120	.729

* Significant at the 0.05 level

** Significant at the 0.001 level

It can be concluded that the female respondents placed significantly greater agreement on the interest factor (Figure 8.22) and the social factor (Figure 8.23) than males in Jeddah. As is shown in Figure 8.24 greater agreement on the interest factor was placed by the females than others factors in Abha. But the males placed significantly greater agreement on the cultural value and knowledge factors than others, as illustrated in Figure 8.25 and Figure 8.26.

Figure 8.22 Means Plot for the Interest Factor in Jeddah

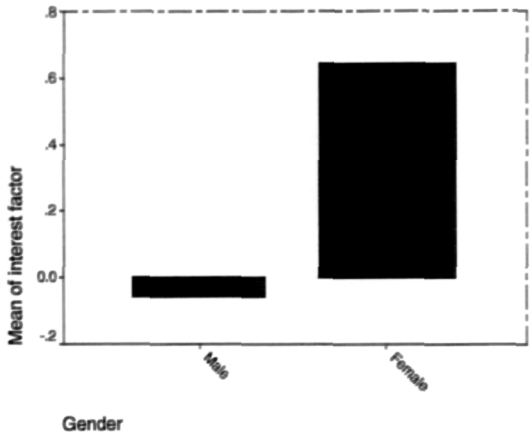


Figure 8.23 Means Plot for the Social Factor in Jeddah

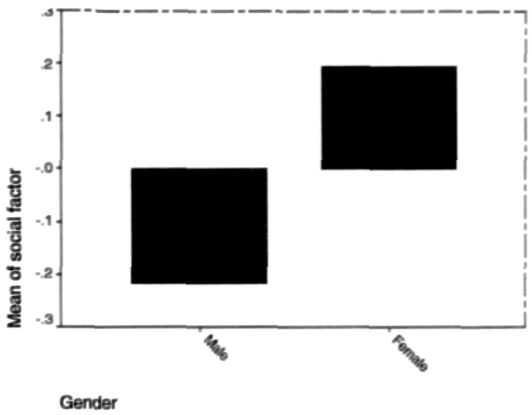


Figure 8.24 Means Plot for the Interest Factor in Abha

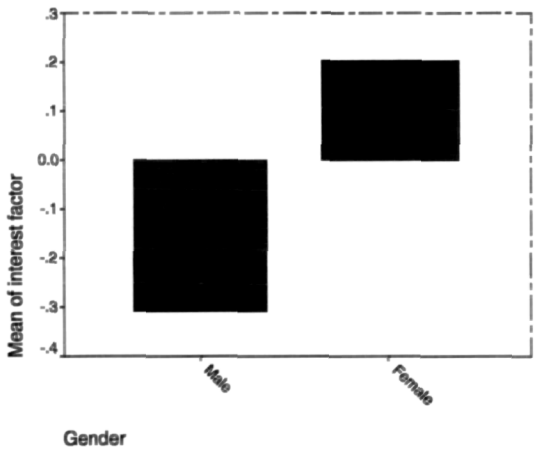


Figure 8.25 Means Plot for the Cultural Value Factor in Abha

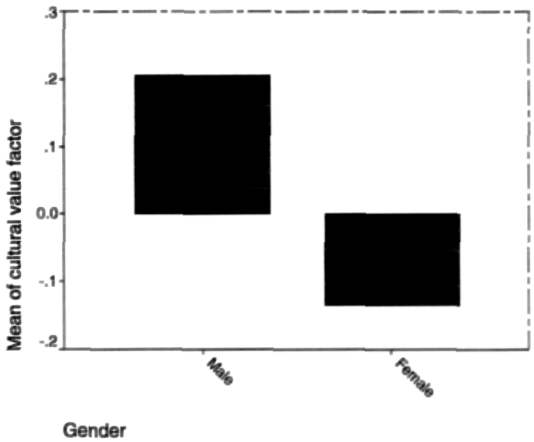
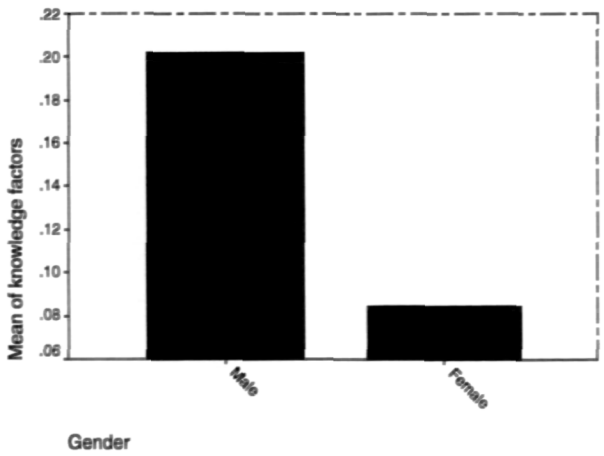


Figure 8.26 Means Plot for the Knowledge Factor in Abha



8.7 Tourists Attitude to Pull Motivational Items

The mean value that indicated the total of tourist attitude to pull motivation items is shown in Table 8.33. The standard deviation is a measure of how much the scores in the data sample vary around the mean.

Table 8.33 Mean Value Indicated the Tourists Attitude to Pull Motivational Items

	Jeddah		Abha	
	Mean	S. D.	Mean	S. D.
To visit the Kaaba.	4.7882	.5081	4.6415	.6910
To visit the Prophetic Mosque.	4.6272	.6614	4.4717	.7934
To visit the historic old city.	3.4739	1.1244	3.7358	1.0285
To visit historical archaeological sites.	3.6246	1.1209	3.8208	1.0331
To meet interesting/friendly local people.	3.3415	1.1308	3.4836	1.1598
To see outstanding scenery.	4.3275	.8262	4.5822	.6288
To see local crafts/handwork.	3.3614	1.1441	3.7393	1.0016
To visit interesting small towns/ villages.	3.1333	1.1211	3.6095	1.0626
To go and stay at a beach cabin.	3.6246	1.2231	3.3146	1.2737
To take part in water sports like diving and water-skiing.	3.2351	1.2380	3.0189	1.2390
To find good beaches for swimming.	4.0486	1.0937	3.6620	1.1809
To visit the beach.	4.4429	.7846	4.0000	1.0303
To go fishing.	2.7448	1.1056	2.7406	1.0681
To go boating or to charter a boat.	3.3614	1.1533	3.2048	1.1537
To enjoy pool activities.	3.6064	1.0458	3.5598	1.0731
To go to entertainment/ amusement places.	4.1972	.8715	4.1810	.8217
To ride telpherage.	3.4604	1.0998	3.8389	1.1266
To visit theme park such as Asir National Park.	3.6129	1.0898	4.0047	.9662
To enjoy nightlife.	3.4982	1.2963	3.1394	1.3883
To go to fast food restaurants.	3.1783	1.2225	3.0474	1.2296
To go to restaurants.	3.6113	1.0871	3.4366	1.1252
To go shopping	4.0458	.8825	3.6905	1.0646
To go to a big city.	3.9258	.9443	3.6411	1.0609
To find high standards of hygiene/ cleanliness.	4.6993	.5987	4.5802	.7142
To feel personally safe.	4.7273	.6004	4.7594	.5276
To feel a warm welcome for tourists.	4.4056	.7924	4.4623	.8049
To enjoy the cool weather.	4.5105	.7290	4.6682	.5805
To stay in a first class hotel.	3.4824	1.1962	3.3429	1.2704
To stay in a high standard apartment.	4.0634	1.0379	3.9437	1.1520
To find quality restaurants.	4.3671	.8175	4.4123	.8022
To be easily accessible for local attractions.	4.4526	.7330	4.4076	.7589
To go to a wilderness areas.	3.3088	1.1761	3.7500	1.0836
To get away from crowds.	3.7509	1.1279	3.8075	1.1183
To participate in outdoor activities.	3.0035	1.1041	3.2857	1.1384
To visit mountainous areas.	3.2943	1.1546	3.9763	.9126
To see wildlife/birds.	3.4000	1.1664	3.7311	1.0157
To find this trip value-for-money.	3.9293	1.0290	3.9333	1.0049
To find budget accommodation.	4.4091	.7749	4.4131	.8345
To find value-for-money restaurants.	4.3101	.8719	4.2227	1.0702
To use public transportation.	3.2727	1.2988	3.3286	1.3753

The scale used in pull motivation items is the Likert 5-point scale ranging from (5 = very important, 4 = important, 3 = neither important or unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 1 = very unimportant). The closer the value to 5 indicates that there is a very positive attitude towards pull motivational items and if the mean value is closer to 1 this indicates that there is a negative attitude towards pull motivational items. The results presented that the lowest mean was in the item 'to go fishing' in both, cities Jeddah and Abha. The highest mean was in the item 'to visit the Kaaba' in Jeddah, while in Abha the highest mean was in the item 'feel personally safe'. This is because Jeddah is nearer to Makkah than Abha.

8.7.1 Correlation Between Pull Motivation and the Educational Level

ANOVA was used to find if the educational level correlates with pull motivation attitude. There are no correlations between tourists pull motivation attitude and the tourist educational level (df = 4, F = .243, Sig. = NS) (Table 49 in Appendix E).

The results of analysis of variance (ANOVA) are shown in Table 8.34. There is no significance correlation between pull motivation factors and the educational level, except for a significant correlation between the upscale factor and the educational level in Jeddah (sig. = .031), and a significant correlation between activity factor and the educational level in Abha (sig. = .027).

Table 8.34 ANOVA : Between Pull Factors and Educational Level

Pull Factor	Jeddah			Abha		
	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups
Safety factor	4	1.536	.193	4	.283	.889
Activity factor	4	.541	.706	4	2.812	.027*
Beach sports/activities factor	4	.553	.697	4	1.521	.198
Nature/outdoor factor	4	.916	.456	4	.419	.795
Historical/cultural factor	4	.592	.669	4	1.232	.299
Religious factor	4	.264	.901	4	.388	.817
Budget factor	4	.480	.750	4	.166	.955
Leisure factor	4	.029	.998	4	1.278	.281
Upscale factor	4	2.716	.031*	4	.550	.699

* Significant at the 0.05 level

It can be seen that the intermediate educational level respondents placed greater importance on the upscale factor than other levels; this is closely followed by the post university level in Jeddah as shown in Figure 8.27. Figure 8.28 illustrates that secondary educational level people put significant greater importance on the activities factor than other levels in Abha; the university level follows closely.

Figure 8.27 Means Plot for the Upscale Factor in Jeddah

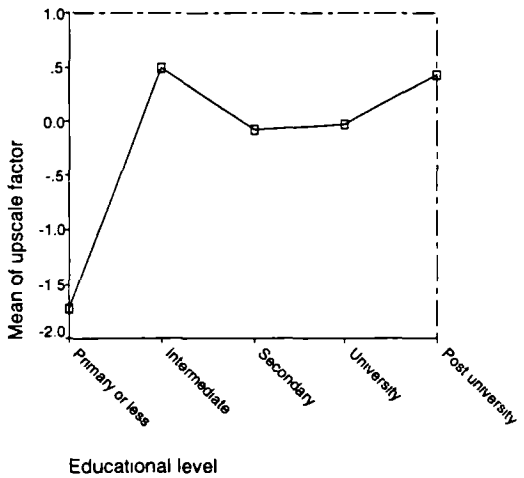
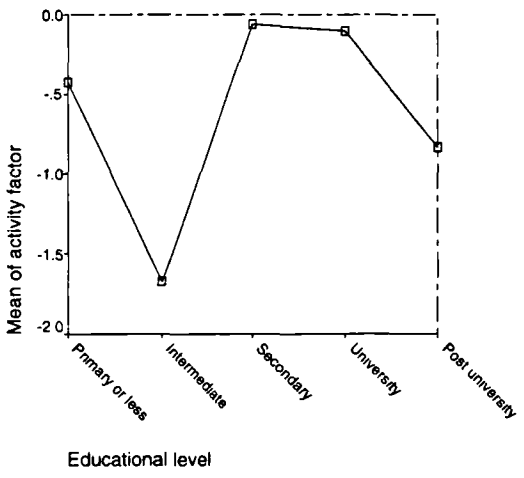


Figure 8.28 Means Plot for the Activity Factor in Abha



8.7.2 Correlation Between Pull Motivation and the Income Level

There is no correlation between pull motivation attitude and tourists income level. (df = 4, F = .772, Sig. = NS) (Table 50 in Appendix E)

The results of analysis of variance (ANOVA) are shown in Table 8.35. It may be inferred that a there is significance correlation between the upscale factor and the income level in Jeddah (Sig. = 005) and Abha (Sig. = 012), otherwise, there is no significance correlation between pull motivation factors and the income level.

Table 8.35 ANOVA : Between Pull and Income Level

Pull Factor	**Jeddah**			**Abha**		
	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups
Safety factor	4	1.352	.252	4	.157	.960
Activity factor	4	.657	.623	4	1.262	.287
Beach sports/activities factor	4	.340	.851	4	.580	.678
Nature/outdoor factor	4	.961	.430	4	1.313	.267
Historical/cultural factor	4	1.085	.365	4	.832	.506
Religious factor	4	1.641	.165	4	1.337	.258
Budget factor	4	1.721	.147	4	1.525	.197
Leisure factor	4	.902	.464	4	.554	.697
Upscale factor	4	3.819	.005*	4	3.334	.012**

* Significant at the 0.001 level
** Significant at the 0.05 level

It can be seen that the respondents with an income level of 15,000 SR and more placed significantly greater importance on the upscale factor than others in Jeddah, as shown in Figure 8.29. Figure 8.30 illustrates that the respondents with an income level of 9,000-14,999 SR placed significantly greater importance on the upscale factor than others in Abha.

Figure 8.29 Means Plot for the Upscale Factor in Jeddah

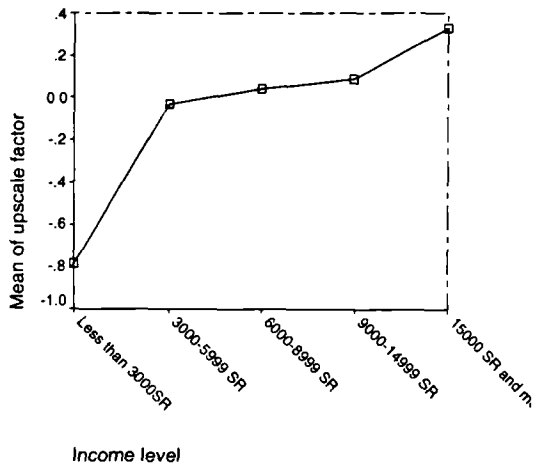
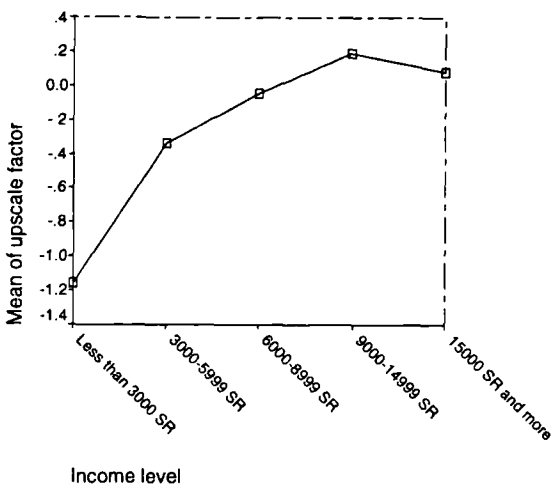


Figure 8.30 Means Plot for the Upscale Factor in Abha



8.7.3 Correlation Between Pull Motivation and Age

There is no correlation between pull motivation attitude and tourists age (df = 3, F = . 2.212, Sig. = NS) (Table 51 in Appendix E)

The result of analysis of variance (ANOVA) is shown in Table 8.36. There is no significant correlation between pull motivation factors and age in Jeddah. However, there is significant correlation between the activity factor (Sig. = .001), beach sports activities factor (Sig. = 001) and the upscale factor (Sig. =.013) and age in Abha. The rest of the pull motivation factors have no significant correlation between them and age in Abha.

Table 8.36 ANOVA : Between Pull Motivation Factors and Age

Pull Factor	Jeddah			Abha		
	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups
Safety factor	3	1.233	.299	3	.348	.790
Activity factor	3	1.557	.201	3	5.559	.001*
Beach sports/activities factor	3	1.891	.132	3	6.777	.000*
Nature/outdoor factor	3	.601	.615	3	.501	.682
Historical/cultural factor	3	.598	.617	3	.577	.631
Religious factor	3	1.808	.147	3	1.693	.171
Budget factor	3	.725	.538	3	2.381	.071
Leisure factor	3	.509	.677	3	1.319	.270
Upscale factor	3	.231	.875	3	3.725	.013**

* Significant at the 0.001 level

** Significant at the 0.05 level

Figure 8.31 and Figure 8.32 illustrates that the respondents aged less than 25 years put greater importance on the beach sports activities factor and activities factors than other age groups in Abha. For the upscale factor respondents of 45 years and more placed greater importance on this factor than others, as is shown in Figure 8.33. In fact importance increased with age.

Figure 8.31 Means Plot for the Beach Sports/ Activities Factor in Abha

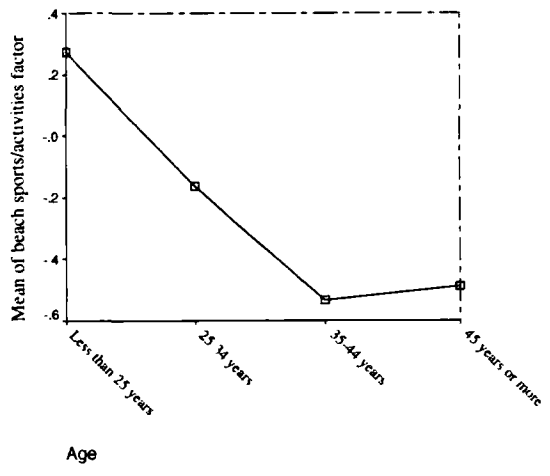


Figure 8.32 Means Plot for the Activity Factor in Abha

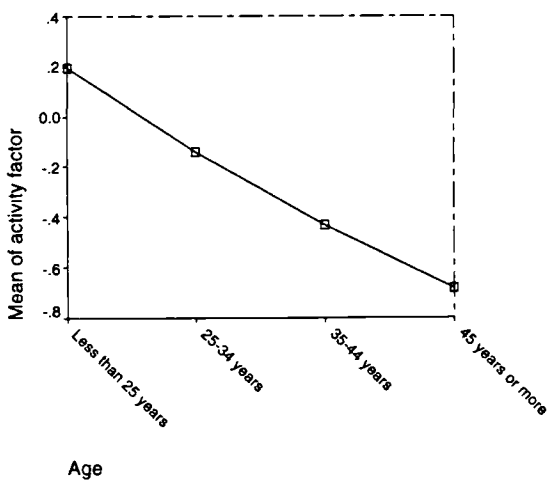
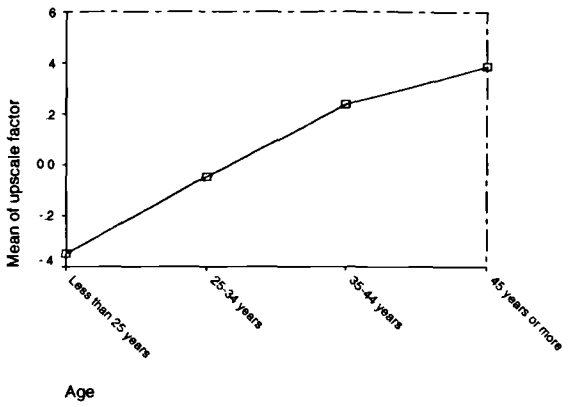


Figure 8.33 Means Plot for the Upscale Factor in Abha



8.7.4 Correlation Between Pull Motivation and Gender

From the results it can be concluded that there is correlation between pull motivation attitude and tourists gender (Table 52 in Appendix E) (df = 1, F = 6.060, Sig. = .014). The results of analysis of variance (ANOVA) are shown in Table 8.37. There is no significant correlation between pull motivation factors and gender in Jeddah, except the activity factor (Sig. = .001). In Abha there is significant correlation between nature/outdoor factor (Sig. =. 002), activity factor (Sig. =003) and safety factor (Sig. =. 029) and gender.

Table 8.37 ANOVA : Between Pull Factors and Gender

Pull Factor	**Jeddah**			**Abha**		
	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups	df	F	Sig. Correlation Between Groups
Safety factor	1	3.210	.075	1	4.856	.029**
Activity factor	1	15.734	.000*	1	9.109	.003*
Beach sports/activities factor	1	1.601	.207	1	.079	.778
Nature/outdoor factor	1	1.248	.265	1	9.583	.002*
Historical/cultural factor	1	.090	.765	1	1.124	.291
Religious factor	1	1.778	.184	1	.380	.538
Budget factor	1	.964	.327	1	.279	.598
Leisure factor	1	.090	.764	1	.510	.476
Upscale factor	1	1.990	.160	1	.243	.623

* Significant at the 0.001 level

** Significant at the 0.05 level

It can be seen from Figure 8.34 that the female respondents placed greater importance on the activity factor than males in Jeddah, while in Abha the male respondents put greater importance on the same factor as, illustrates in Figure 8.35. For the nature/outdoor factor the male respondents placed greater importance on this factor more than females as is shown in Figure 8.36 and the opposite occurred on safety factor where the females put more importance on this factor than males in Abha, as is shown in Figure 8.37.

Figure 8.34 Means Plot for the Activity Factor in Jeedah

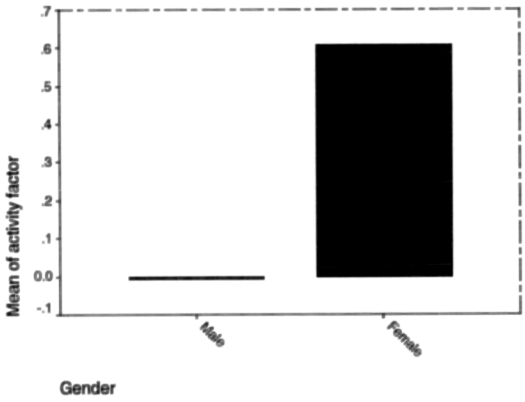


Figure 8.35 Means Plot for the Activity Factor in Abha

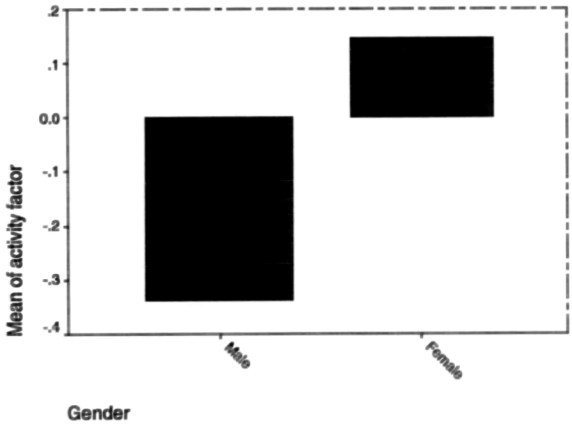


Figure 8.36 Means Plot for the Nature/ Outdoor Factor in Abha

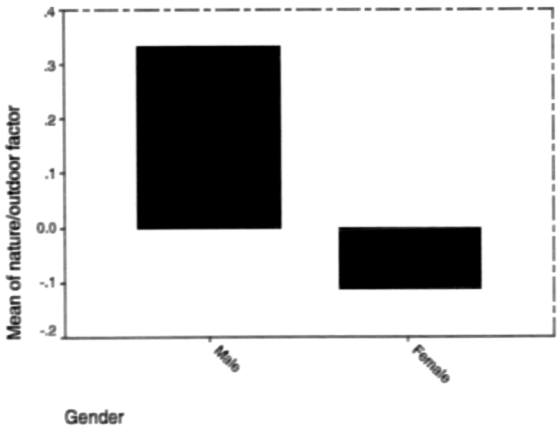
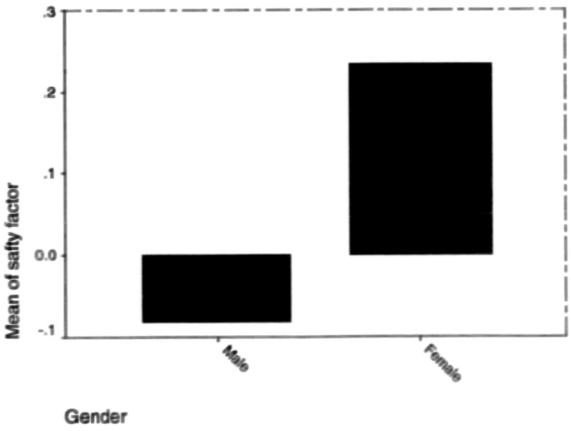


Figure 8.37 Means Plot for the Safety Factor in Abha



8.8 Push and Pull Relationship

To examine the nature of the relationship between push and pull factors for pleasure tourism the correlation and regression analysis was used.

8.8.1 Relationship Between Total Push Motives and Total Pull Motives

Multivariate regression "*investigates the relationship between two or more independent variables on a single dependent variable*" (Argyrous, 2000, p. 478). Generally, the relationship between any dependent variable and any (k) number of independent variables can be expressed in this way:

$$y = a + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + \ldots\ldots\ldots + b_k x_k + e$$

Where x_1, x_2 and x_k are the independent variables, a is intercept, b_1, b_2 and b_k are the regression coefficient for the independent variables and e is an error that points to the fact that a proportion of the variance in the dependent variables, y is unexplained by the regression equation (Bryman and Cramer 2001).

The first step is to find the correlation between the total push factors and the total pull factors. Table 8.38 shows the results of the correlation analysis between the total push factors and total pull factors derived from factor analysis and regression analysis. The results of the correlation analysis indicate that the relationship between the total push factors and the total pull factors was found to be positively and strongly related ($r = .52.$, $p = 0.000$). Thus, as the push factors change so do the pull factors.

Table 8.38 Result of Correlation and Regression Analysis of Push and Pull Factors

Total Push Factor	Total Pull Factor		
	Pearson Correlation	Adjusted R^2	Significance
	.520**	.268	.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

8.8.2 Relationship Between Each Push Factor and the Total Pull Factor

For the specific study the relationship can be represented based on the following models:

$Pull = a + b_1 (Push_1) + b_2 (Push_2)$.....

In a further analysis the second analysis step of the total pull factor was used as an dependent variable to predict the nine push factors. The multiple regressions between the nine push factors and the total pull factors were calculated. Table 8.39 shows the results of the correlation analysis between the nine push factors and the total pull factors factors which were derived from factor analyses.

Table 8.39 Result of Correlation and Regression Analysis of Nine Push Factors and the Total Pull Factors

Push Factor	Total Pull Factor			
	Pearson Correlation	Regression coefficient	Adjusted R^2	Significance
Cultural value factor	.202**	0.068	.038	.000
Utilitarian factor	.157**	0.052	.025	.005
Knowledge factor	.238**	0.080	.057	.000
Social factor	.183**	0.063	.034	.001
Economical factor	.208**	0.071	.043	.000
Family togetherness factor	.118*	0.041	.014	.037
Interest factor	.176**	0.058	.031	.002
Relaxation factor	.129*	0.044	.017	.021
Convenience of facilities factor	.135*	0.047	.018	.016

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results of the correlation analysis also indicate that relationships were found between the nine push factors and the total pull factors at the 0.05 or 0.01 level of significant.

8.8.3 Relationship Between Each Pull Factor and the Total Push Factors

The relationship can be represented based on the following model:

$Push = a + b_1 (Pull_1) + b_2 (Pull_2)$.....

In a further analysis the third step of the total push factor was used as a dependent variable to predict the nine pull factors. The multiple regressions were calculated between the nine pull factors and total push factors. Table 8.40 shows the results of the correlation analysis between the nine pull factors and total push factors which were derived from factor analysis.

Table 8.40 Result of Correlation and Regression Analysis of Nine Pull Factors and the Total Push Factors

Pull Factor	Total Push Factor			
	Pearson Correlation	Regression coefficient	Adjusted R^2	Significance
Safety factor	.221**	0.076	.046	.000
Activity factor	.251**	0.083	.060	.000
Beach sports/activities factor	.104	0.034	.008	.064
Nature/outdoor factor	.133*	0.043	.015	.018
Historical/cultural factor	.512**	0.165	.259	.000
Religious factor	.111*	0.036	.009	.049
Budget factor	.120*	0.038	.011	.033
Leisure factor	.189**	0.062	.033	.001
Upscale factor	-0.069	-0.0225	.002	.219

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

The results of the correlation analysis also indicate that relationships were found between seven pull factors and the total push factors at the 0.05 or 0.01 level of significance. The results also indicate that there is no significant relationship between the beach sports/activities factor, the upscale factor and the total push factors

8.8.4 Relationship Between Each Push Factor and Each Pull Factor

In further analysis, the fourth analysis step, each push factor was used as a dependent variables to predict each one of the pull factors. The multiple regressions were calculated between each push factor and each pull factor. The correlation analysis between each push factor and each pull factor which were derived from factor analyses are shown in Table 8.41. The range of the significant relationship found in this study is high, medium and low.

A regression model in which 'the cultural value' motivation was regressed on the nine pull factor revealed an adjusted $R^2 = .30$, indicating that the model explained 30% of the total variance. Four pull factors 'safety', 'nature/outdoor', 'historical/cultural', 'religious' and 'leisure' were found to be important contributors in predicating 'cultural value' motivations. A negative relationship between the push factor 'cultural value' and the three pull factors 'beach sports/activities', 'budget' and 'upscale' which illustrates that such tourists did not necessarily prefer those pull factors.

When 'utilitarian' is regressed on the nine pull factors ($R^2 = .10$), less variance is explained. The result of 'utilitarian' motivation indicates that a significant relationship is found between this factor and the two pull factors 'historical/ cultural' and 'leisure'.

Table 8.41 Result of Correlation and Regression Analysis of Each Push Factor and Each Pull Factor

Push Factor	Pull Factor								
	Regression coefficient								
	Safety Adj. R^2 =.18	Activity Adj. R^2 =.23	Beach Sports/ Activities Adj. R^2 =.08	Nature/ Outdoor Adj. R^2 =.12	Historical/ Cultural Adj. R^2 =.36	Religious Adj. R^2 =.06	Budget Adj. R^2 =.04	Leisure Adj. R^2 =.12	Upscale Adj. R^2 =.01
Cultural Value Adj. R^2 =.30	.28a	NS	-.22a	.15a	.21a	.22a	-.09b	.23a	-.11b
Utilitarian Adj. R^2 =.10	NS	NS	NS	NS	.22a	NS	NS	.19a	NS
Knowledge Adj. R^2 =.28	NS	-.12b	NS	.29a	.40a	NS	NS	NS	NS
Social Adj. R^2 =.11	.13b	.13b	NS	NS	.20a	NS	NS	.15a	NS
Economical Adj. R^2 = .15	-.12b	.13b	.09c	NS	. 21a	.14a	.17a	.09c	NS
Family togetherness Adj. R^2 =.04	NS	.10c	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Interest Adj. R^2 = .25	NS	.43a	.13b	-.16a	.10c	.09c	NS	NS	.10c
Relaxation Adj. R^2 = .08	NS	NS	.13b	NS	.12 b	NS	.16a	-.12 b	NS
Convenience of Facilities Adj. R^2 = .13	.29a	.15a	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	.10c

a Significant at the .001 level of significance
b Significant at the .05 level of significance..
c significant at the .01 level of significance

A regression equation to predicate 'knowledge' motivations showed an adjusted R^2 = .28, indicating that two pull factors 'nature/outdoor' and 'historical/cultural', were significant. A negative relationship between the push factor 'knowledge' and the pull factor 'activity' was found. This result could be expected where knowledge correlation may mean less activity time.

When 'social' is regressed on the nine pull factors (R^2 = .11), less variance is explained. The finding of the 'social' push motivations indicates that four pull factors 'safety', 'activity', 'historical/cultural' and 'leisure', were significant.

A regression in which 'the economical' motivation was regressed on the nine pull factors revealed an adjusted R^2 = .15, indicating that the model explained 15% of the total variance. Five pull factors, 'activity', 'beach/sports activities', 'historical/cultural', 'religious' and 'leisure', were found to be important contributors in predicating 'the economical' motivations. A negative relationship between the push factor 'economical' and two pull factor 'safety' and 'leisure' shows that such tourists did not necessarily prefer these pull factors.

A regression equation to predicate 'the family togetherness' motivations showed an adjusted R^2 = .04, indicating that one pull factor, 'activity', was significantly low. This is the factor in which you would expect the family to take part.

'Interest' is regressed on the nine pull factors (R^2 = .25) indicating that the model explained 25% of the total variance. Five pull factors 'activity', 'beach/sports activities', 'historical/cultural', 'religious' and 'upscale', were found to be important contributors in predicating 'the interest' motivations. A negative relationship between the push factor 'interest' and one pull factor, 'nature/ outdoor', shows that such tourists did not necessarily prefer this pull factor.

A regression equation to predicate the push 'relaxation' factor showed an adjusted R^2 = .08, indicating that the model explained 8% of the total variance. The result indicates that three pull factors 'beach/sports activities', 'historical/cultural' and 'budget', were significant. A negative relationship between the push factor 'relaxation' and the pull factor 'leisure' was found.

The 'convenience of facilities' is regressed on the nine pull factors (R^2 = .13) indicating that the model explained 13% of the total variance. Three pull factors 'safety', 'activity' and 'upscale' were found to be important contributors in predicating 'convenience of facilities' motivations.

In further analysis, the model is reserved and each pull factor was used as dependent variables to predict each one of the push factors. A regression equation to predicate the 'safety' motivations showed an adjusted R^2 = .18, the 'activity' factor showed an adjusted R^2 = .23, the 'beach sports/ activities' factor illustrated an adjusted R^2 = .08, the 'nature/outdoor' motivations showed an adjusted R^2 = .12, the 'historical/cultural' factor illustrated an adjusted R^2 = .36, the 'religious' motivations showed an adjusted R^2 = .06, the 'budget' factor indicated an adjusted R^2 = .04, the 'leisure' motivation showed an adjusted R^2 = .12 and the 'upscale' showed an adjusted R^2 = .01.

It may be concluded that the results of the correlation analysis indicate that significant relationships were found between the push and the pull factor at the .01, .05 or .1 level of significance. This supported previous research (Uysal and Jurowski 1994; Baloglu and Uysal 1996; Kim and Lee 2002) that reported a relationship between push and pull factors.

8.9 Respondents' Comments

Some of the tourist respondents mentioned their difficulties or problems with Saudi domestic tourism.

1. Most of the entertainment and tourist places are offered for families only, which means that single men are not allowed to enter these places, so, young males can not find places to go.
2. Lack of swimming seaboard in Jeddah makes it very expensive to rent a cabin at the beach for some people.
3. Some of the tourists complained about the high prices of the accommodation, restaurants, amusement and entertainment places.
4. Insufficient tourist information.
5. Some of the roads to the tourist areas, e.g., the southern road in the Kingdom, are narrow, which might cause accidents.
6. Some of the tourist areas are not well organised.

8.10 Discussion

From the previous analysis the result shows that tourist age has a significant, strong and positive relationship with the location. This indicates that a significantly different age group prefers one location to another. Also, a significant correlation between household monthly income and the location exists which means that a different income level has a preferred location. The results indicate that there is a significant correlation between gender and location which explains that gender has a specific preference when tourists choose their destination. The outcome of the relationship between educational level and location shows that educational level does not correlate with the location. There are no previous studies which examine the correlation between age, household monthly income, gender, educational level and location, consequently, it has not been possible to compare the results with previous work.

The result of the study indicates that nearly 95% of the sample is travelling with a group which is similar to Fodness (1991) study. Fodness's result shows that 96% of the respondents are travelling with a group while 4% travel alone. A significant variation in distribution of the numbers of adults in between Jeddah and Abha have been indicated from the result. Also, a significant variation in distribution of the number of children less than 11 years number between Jeddah and Abha has been shown from the analysis. The results illustrate no significant variation in distribution of the numbers of children 11-16 years between the two cities. A family with children was the most common group, with 66.9% in Jeddah and 72.7% in Abha, followed by the mothers' group in Jeddah with 17.5%, but, in Abha, followed by the brothers' and sisters' groups with 18%. It can be noted that the sample was composed of the nuclear family and the extended family. So, the tourism marketer needs to recognize that the Saudi family size will influence marketing strategies because the small family has different needs to the large family.

The result shows that most of the respondents were of Saudi nationality. All the non-Saudis were from Arab countries. About 6% were from the Gulf countries. The most common region of origin is the central region, this is followed by the western region, followed by the southern region, the eastern region and the lowest region was the northern region. No previous studies have been found which contrast the similarity and difference.

The results indicate that the most used accommodation was the furnished apartment, with 61.7% at the two study areas, which means that Saudi tourists prefer furnished apartments as accommodation rather than hotels because family size is large.

The result shows that most of the tourists in Jeddah stayed in furnished apartments, their age level is from 25-34 years old, they are university educated and their monthly income range is 6000-14999 SR. They are accompanied by less than 3 adult persons, less than 3 children under 11 years old and less than 3 children from 11-16 years old, their staying ranges from 2-6 days and most of them are Saudi. That is different from Al-Ghamidi's (1996) study which indicated that the majority of tourists stay in furnished apartments, their age level is 18-30 years old, they are intermediate or less educated and their monthly income less then 6000 SR.

The tourists staying at hotels in Jeddah have an age level range 25-34 years old, they are university educated, the monthly income level range is 9000-14999 SR, they are accompanied by less than 3 adult person, less than 3 children less than 11 years old and less than 3 children from 11-16 years old, their length of stay ranges from 2-6 days and most of them are Saudi. That is different from Al-Ghamidi's (1996) study, which showed that the tourists stay in hotels, their age level is from 18-30 years old, they are secondary, educated, their monthly income range is 6000-9000 SR.

From the analysis it can be concluded that the total of tourists' attitude about tourist facilities tends to be in the highest level which indicates that there is a positive attitude toward tourist facilities. The result of this study is congruent to the results suggested in a previous study by Al-Ghamidi (1996).

This study found that the most important push and pull factors, as perceived by Saudi tourists, are 'cultural value' and 'religious'. The result of push and pull motivations in this study is congruent to the results suggested in previous studies (Uysal and Jurowski 1994; Baloglu and Uysal 1996; Hanqin and Lam 1999; Kim and Lee 2002),

in which they recognise that there are many motivations which predispose the individuals to travel. However, the importance level of push and pull factors might be different for tourists from one country to another. In a mature market German tourists perceive 'escape' and 'active sports environment' as the most important push and pull factors (Jamrozy and Uysal, 1994). In addition, Australian tourists perceive the most important push and pull factors as 'knowledge/intellectual' and 'historical/cultural' (Chul Oh, Uysal and Weaver, 1995). For a developing market, Mainland Chinese tourists perceive 'knowledge' and 'high-tech image' as the most important push and pull factors (Hanqin and Lam, 1999).

This result of this study is different from previous studies by (Al-Ghamidi 1996 and Al-Torkistani 1999). The current study identifies motivational influences by examining the push and pull motivation factors simultaneously while Al-Ghamidi (1996) and Al-Torkistani (1999) do not divide motivational factors into push and pull. Al-Ghamidi (1996) concluded that the leisure motive is top of the all motives in all Saudi regions. The second motive was the social motive in Al-Baha and the western region, while cultural motive was the second in the Asir region. The third motive was the cultural motive in Al-Baha but, in Asir, the social motive was the third motive, while the shopping motive was the third in Jeddah and the western region.

Al-Torkistani's (1999) study suggested six grouping factors: economical, entertaining, social, natural and geographical, cultural and family. Because he does not differentiate between push and pull there are apparent differences between his study and this study. He found that the natural and geographical factors were the most important ones for Saudi tourists, followed by economical factors, then leisure factors, then the families

factors, followed by cultural factors and, lastly, the social factors. This is different from this study which showed 'cultural value' and 'religious' as the most important factors.

The results confirm that, in Saudi Arabia, as in the Western World (Krippendorf 1987; Parker 1983; Gnoth 1997), free time and holidays are linked to the concept of self-actualisation (self-realization), that is, to (either) redress the strains and stresses of a work-a-day routine life and (or) to develop mind and body to its full potential.

The current study showed the correlation between push or pull motivation factors and the social demographic variables while a previous study by Hanqin and Lam (1999) realized that there are significant differences between push or pull factors and demographic factors. This study found that there are significant correlations between some push or pull motivation factors and social demographic variables.

The result of a relationship between push and pull factors in this study is congruent to the results suggested in previous studies (Uysal and Jurowski 1994; Baloglu and Uysal 1996; Kim and Lee 2002).

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER NINE

Conclusions

9.1 Introduction

The conclusions chapter summarises the main argument and findings for each of the objective of the study and considers some of the potential contributions and implications of the research findings and their limitations on the basis of methodology and theory.

9.2 Research Objective

The research objectives are discussed in this section

Research Objective 1. To assess the motivation 'push' and 'pull' factors of tourist behaviour towards domestic tourism

The result of push motivation analysis indicates nine factors:

(F1) cultural value factor;

(F2) utilitarian factor;

(F3) knowledge factor;

(F4) social factor;

(F5) economical factor;

(F6) family togetherness factor;

(F7) interest factor;

(F8) relaxation factor;

(F9) convenience of facilities factor.

The result of the factor loading for pull motivational items presents nine factors:

(F1) safety factor;

(F2) activity factor;

(F3) beach sports/activities factor;

(F4) nature/outdoor factor;

(F5) historical/cultural factor;

(F6) religious factor;

(F7) budget factor;

(F8) leisure factor;

(F9) upscale factor.

This study found that the most important push and pull factors as perceived by Saudi tourists are 'cultural value' and 'religious'. This result is different from other cultures, in a mature market. German tourists perceived 'escape' and 'active sports environment' as the most important push and pull factors (Jamrozy and Uysal, 1994). Australian tourists perceived the most important push and pull factors as 'knowledge/intellectual' and 'historical/cultural' (Chul Oh, Uysal and Weaver, 1995). For a developing market, Mainland Chinese tourists perceived 'knowledge' and 'high-tech image' as the most important push and pull factors (Hanqin and Lam, 1999).

H1 • there is no motivation towards domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia

The results do not support this hypothesis.

The results indicate that there is motivation toward domestic tourism. This study has identified nine push factors and nine pull factors that motivate individuals to travel. The push factors are considered to be socio-psychological motivations that incline the individual to travel, while the pull factors are those that attract the individual to a specific destination once the decision to travel has been made. The present study

provided evidence for the push and pull motives which have suggested a hierarchy of their importance. This means that tourists seek to satisfy not one single need but a number of distinct needs, simultaneously. Tourists are not motivated by the individual qualities of the destination.

The results indicate that the mean value of tourists' attitude towards push motivational items tends to be high which indicates that there is a positive attitude towards domestic tourism.

It can be noticed from the results that the mean value of tourists' attitude towards pull motivational items tends to be high, which points out that there is a positive attitude toward domestic tourism.

H_2 ▪ the attitude of consumers towards domestic tourism is negative

The results do not support this hypothesis.

- **Research Objective 2. to examine the nature and usefulness of the relationship between push and pull motivation factors and to examine if there is any significant correlation between tourist motivations factors and social demographic variables: educational level, income level, age and gender**

Objective 2 is divided to 2 sub-objectives.

Objective 2a. The correlation and regression analyses were used to examine the nature of the relationship between push and pull motivation factors for pleasure tourism. The findings of this study suggest that there is a significant relationship between

destination attributes and motives. As a result, a significant correlation exits between the total push factors and the total pull factors. The results show that the push factors are positively and strongly related to pull factors. Examining the push and pull motivations simultaneously would help domestic tourism marketers in segmenting the markets, designing promotional programmes and packages and decision making about destination development.

H_3 ▪ there is no correlation between push and pull motivation factors

The outcome does not support this hypothesis.

Objective 2b. In the case of the push factors the test found that there is no significant correlation between push motivation factors and the educational level with one exception, a significant correlation between the social factor and the educational level in Abha.

The study found that there are significant correlations between the economical push motivation factor and the income level, while the remaining eight factors are not significantly correlated with the income level in Jeddah. Also, there is a significant correlation between the knowledge factor and the income level in Abha.

The results indicate that there is significant correlation between push motivation factors and age as follows:

1. cultural value factor and age in Jeddah
2. interest factor age in Abha
3. social factor and age in Abha.

The study found that there is significant correlation between push motivation factors and gender. A significant correlation is found between the interest factor, the social factor and gender in Jeddah. In addition, a significant correlation is found between the interest, the cultural value and the utilitarian factors and gender in Abha.

Relating to pull factors, the results indicate that there is no significance correlation between pull motivation factors and the educational level with the exception of a significant correlation between the upscale factor and the educational level in Jeddah and a significant correlation between the activity factor and the educational level in Abha. A significance correlation exists between the upscale factor and the income level in both Jeddah and Abha.

There is no significance correlation between pull motivation factors and age in Jeddah. However, there is significant correlation between the activity factor, the beach sports activities factor, the upscale factor and age in Abha.

There is no significance correlation between pull motivation factors and gender in Jeddah, except the activity factor. In Abha there is significant correlation between the nature/outdoor factor, the activity factor, the safety factor and gender.

H_4 ▪ there is no significant correlation between tourist motivation factors and the social demographic variables: educational level, income level, age and gender in Jeddah and Abha

The results partially support the hypothesis as shown above.

- **Research Objective 3. To examine if there is any significant correlation between motivation items and social demographic variables: educational level, income level, age and gender**

No significant correlation was found between push and pull motivation items and the social demographic variables, educational level, income level and age. The only significant correlation was found between pull motivation items and gender.

H5 ▪ ***there is no significant correlation between tourist motivation items and social demographic variable: educational level, income level, age and gender***

The results accept the hypothesis in most parts but reject the hypothesis regarding gender.

- **Research Objective 4. To examine the correlation between the educational level, income level, gender and age of the tourists and the location**

The result shows that tourist age has a significant, strong and positive relationship with the location. Also, a significant correlation between household monthly income and the location exists. The results indicate that there is a significant correlation between gender and location. The result of the relationship between educational level and location shows no significant relationship.

H6 ▪ ***location is not correlated with demographic variables: age, educational level, income level and gender***

The results reject the hypothesis regarding age, income level and gender and accept it in the educational level. This means a significantly different age group prefers one location to another. In addition, a different income level has a preferred location. Gender has a specific preference when tourists choose their destination, but the education level does not correlate with the location.

- **Research Objective 5. To test the correlation between the educational level, income levels, age, length of staying, family number and the kind of accommodation**

The results indicate that the educational and income levels have no significant correlation with the kind of accommodation, while tourist age and the length of tourist stay have significant and strong correlation with the kind of accommodation. In respect of the family number and the kind of accommodation the result shows that there is a significant correlation between the kind of accommodation and the number of adults and number of children under 11 years group. The study indicates that there is no correlation between the kind of accommodation and the number of children 11-16 years group.

H_7 ▪ kind of accommodation does not correlate with the educational level, income levels, age, length of staying and family number.

The results support this hypothesis with the educational, income level and children number (11-16 years group) but reject it with age, the length of tourist stay, the adult number and children under 11 years group. This indicates that different age groups prefer certain kinds of accommodation. In addition, the kind of accommodation the respondent used is correlated with the length of their stay.

The complex interdependent relationships mean that providers of tourist facilities have to have a deep understanding of the motivation of potential markets to provide the required facilities and activities.

9.3 Contribution and Implications

Based on the data analysis and interpretation of the collected data, several conclusions concerning motivation for domestic tourism can be drawn. This study has used the cognitive perspective in studying the domestic tourism motivation in Saudi Arabia. This perspective is one of the five perspectives: the behavioural perspective, the trait perspective, the interpretive perspective and the postmodern perspective that can be used by researchers as methodology to study the consumer behaviour. The cognitive perspective refers to the mental processes and knowledge structures involved in people's response to the environment. The study has rigorously investigated the extensive factors that influence complex high involvement decision making.

The current study supports the approach-avoidance paradigm since Saudi tourists are attracted to holiday within Saudi Arabia because of fulfilling the socio-psychological motives. When considering the avoidance side of the motivational paradigm, a concern with keeping Islamic cultural values contributes an important obstacle to tourism outside Saudi for some people.

This study provides the first attempt to examine push and pull domestic tourism motivation in Islamic and Arabic cultures, since cultural variables play a significant role in the tourism motivation. These insights are illustrated by actual domestic tourist perspectives. 'Cultural value factor', 'utilitarian factor', 'knowledge factor', 'social

factor', 'economical factor', 'family togetherness factor', 'interest factor', 'relaxation factor' and 'convenience of facilities factor' are the most important push factors for Saudi tourists. These push factors may be considered as the socio-psychological motivation which inclines individuals to travel. The motivational pull factors showed that the 'safety factor', 'activity factor', 'beach sports/activities factor', 'nature/outdoor factor', 'historical/cultural factor', 'religious factor', 'budget factor', 'leisure factor ' and 'upscale factor' are the most common motives for Saudi tourists. The pull factors are those which attract the individual to a specific destination when the individual has made the decision to travel.

This study has identified the significance of both the push and pull factors as perceived by Saudi tourists that could assist these destinations to meet the desired needs of individual tourists. It is necessary to understand both the push and pull factors, and the relationship between them, to provide guidelines for marketers in a specific destination. Information about the interaction of these two dimensions of tourist motivation can assist marketers and developers of tourist destination areas to decide the most successful combination of push and pull factors. Therefore, the interaction based on tourism motivations might then provide a basis for segmenting the market for those travelling for pleasure.

The study results also confirm that in Saudi Arabia, as in the Western World' free time and holidays are linked to the concept of self-actualisation (self-realization) that is, to (either) redress the strains and stresses of a work-a-day routine life and (or) to develop mind and body to its full potential.

9.4 Limitations of the Study

A limitation of this study relates to the nature of the secondary data. The push and pull items considered in the questionnaires do not comprise all possible dimensions of motivation.

Another limitation is that the sample population of this study includes those visiting a mixture of two tourist destinations, Jeddah and Abha. Although the sample size is not large, it is limited by its focus on only two tourist destinations, Jeddah and Abha.

Another concern was that the findings based on a sample of Jeddah and Abha might not generalise to a larger population of tourists. Also, there is no official census of population. Lists that can serve as a sample frame do not exit. Therefore applying a convenience sample was necessitated by the problems of sampling prevalent in the Saudi environment.

Additionally, social custom in Saudi Arabia precludes use of personal interview as a research method since the researcher is female.

An additional limitation is that many variables which contribute to tourist's destinations preferences and motivation is only one of these variables. Thus, marketers of destinations need to bear in mind other variables, such as circumstantial constraints on tourists' decision-making processes.

9.4 Further Research

Further research is needed to replicate this study focusing on only one destination to reflect the exact attractiveness of this destination in Saudi Arabia. Also, the possibility

exists to replicate the same study to discover regional and cultural factors influencing travel motivation and tourism behaviour. The same method and data analysis can be used by studying Moslem people who visit Saudi Arabia because the authority allows for visitors performing the Omra (minor pilgrimage) to travel to other cities of the country beyond the holy cities of Makkah and Madina. This study could be replicated in a different country, especially an Islamic or Arabic country, since there is a lack of tourism motivation research in these cultures. Researchers in the future can use the same method by studying foreign tourists visiting Saudi Arabia, since tourist visas are being issued and limited numbers visited the country in controlled groups.

Another area for further research is the segmentation of the domestic tourism market by studying the interaction and the relationships between push and pull factors. An additional area for further research lies in the travel behaviour of Saudi tourists, such as involvement, trip planning and the sources of information they use when making travel decisions.

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APPENDIX A

Pictures From Saudi Arabia

Exhibit 1 Example of the Flora in Saudi Arabia



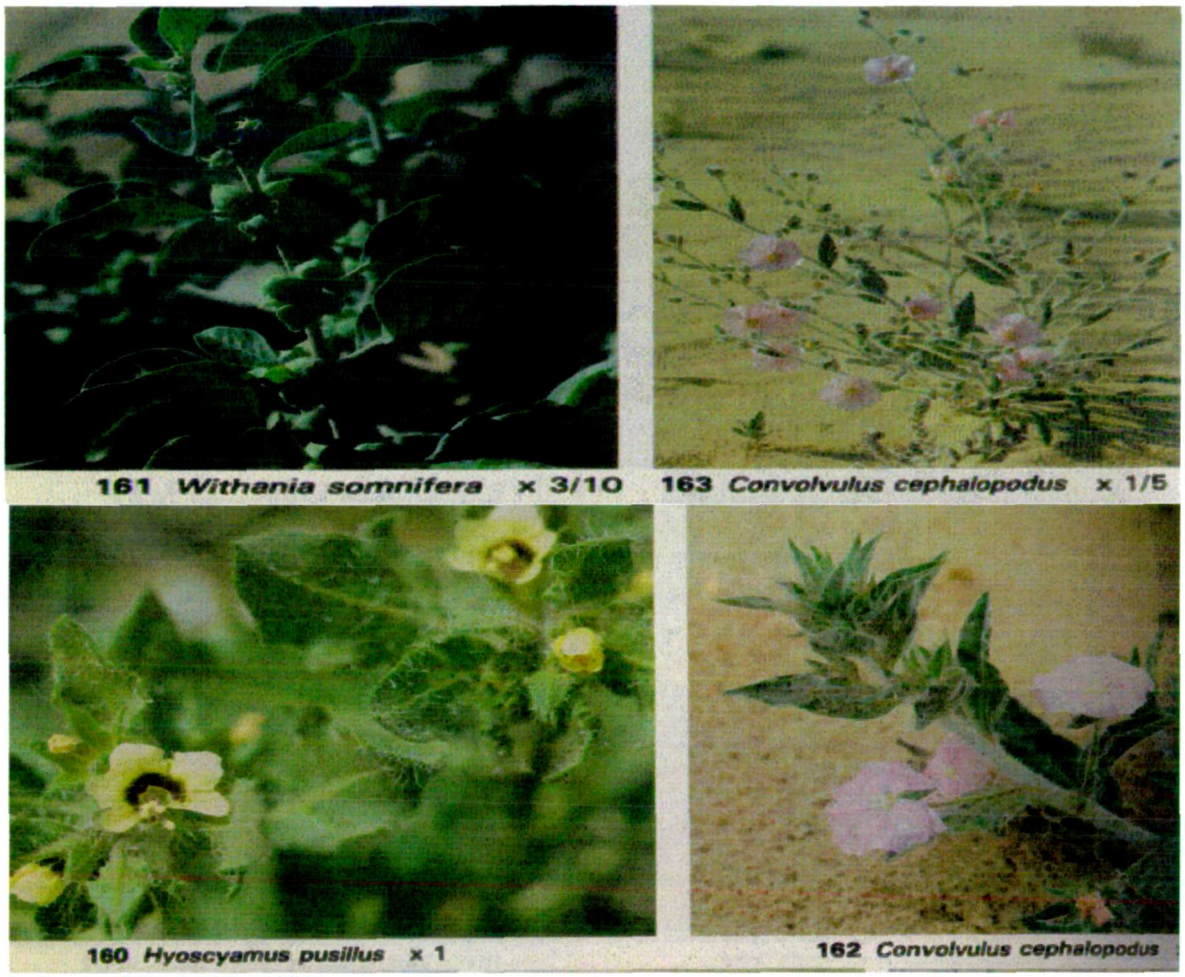




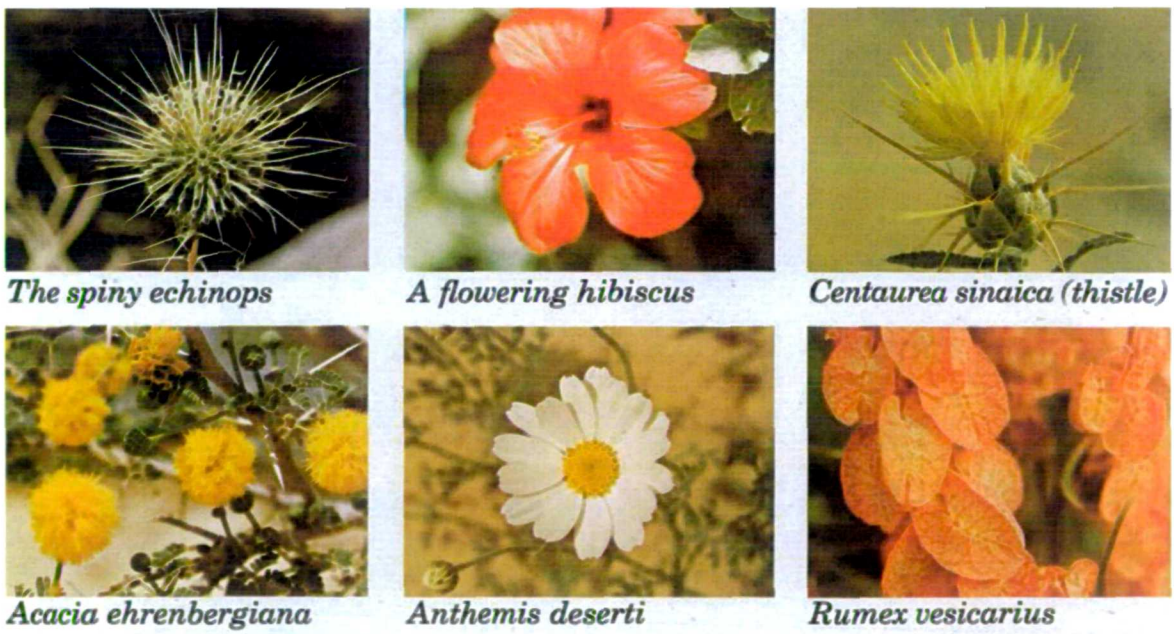


Source: Collenette, 1999, p.588.

Exhibit 2 Example of the Flora in Saudi Arabia



Source: Mandaville, 1990.

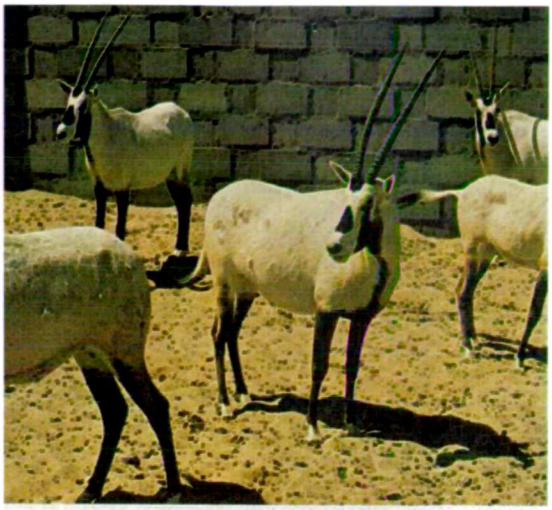


Source, Anderson, 1993, p. 20.

Exhibit 3 Example of the Fauna in Saudi Arabia



Arabia's famous hunting dog, the saluki.



The oryx – saved from extinction.



A kitten of Arabia's rare sand cat.



The spiny hedgehog is well defended.



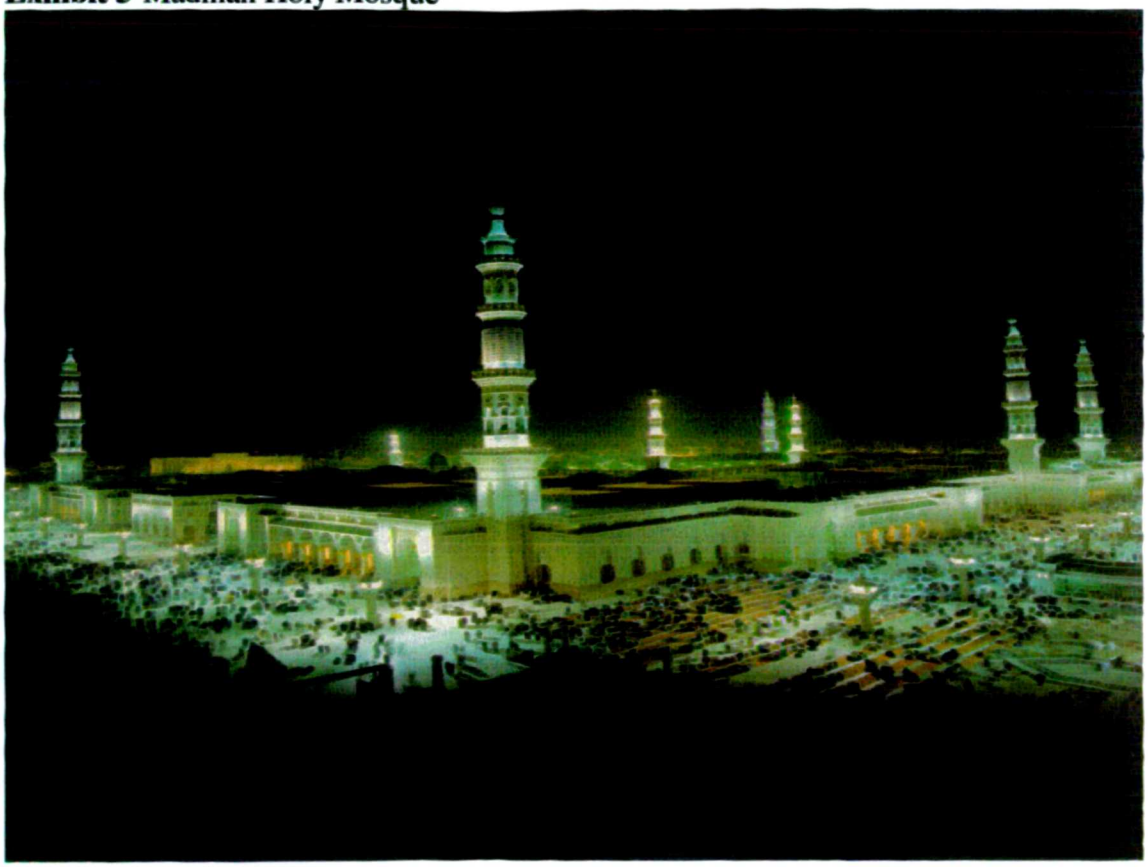
The red speckled angelfish

Source, Anderson, 1993, p. 21

Exhibit 4 Makkah Holy Mosque



Exhibit 5 Madinah Holy Mosque



Source: Ministry of Information.

Exhibit 6 Masmak Fortress



Exhibit 7 Madain Saleh



Source: Ministry of Information

Exhibit 8 King Fahad International Stadiums



Source: Ministry of Information.

Exhibit 9 Jeddah's Corniche

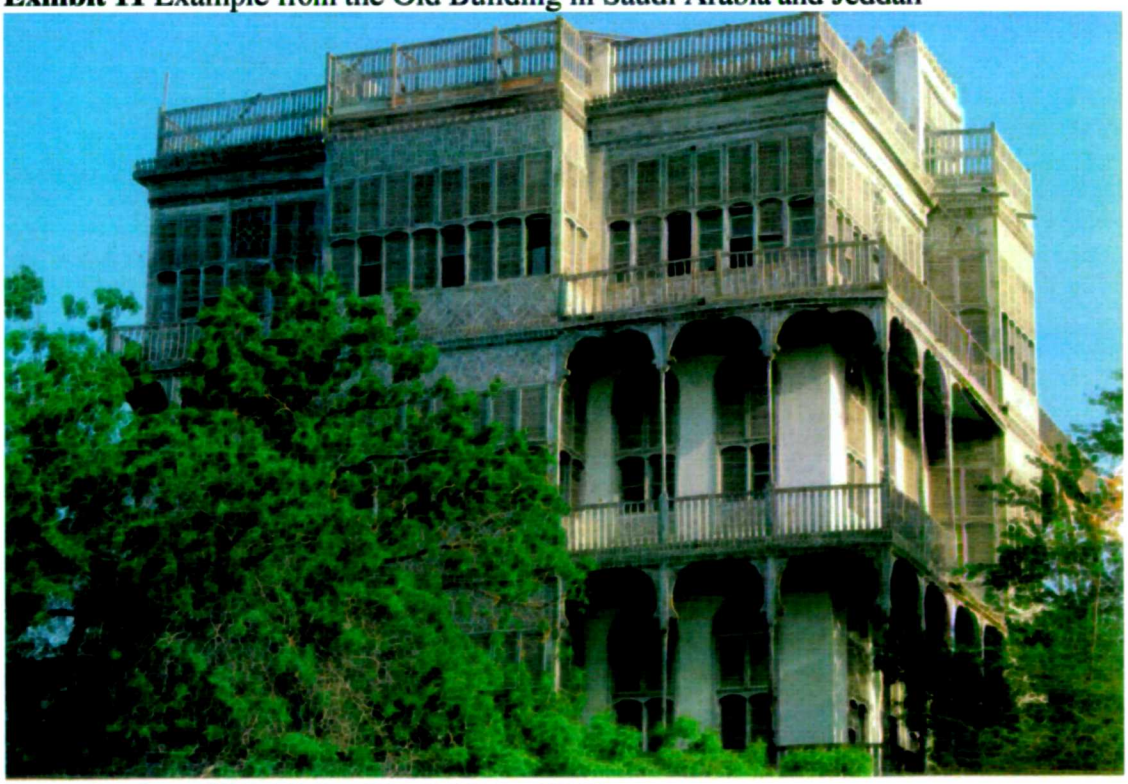


Source: Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs, 1996.

Exhibit 10 Jeddah Municipality Museum



Exhibit 11 Example from the Old Building in Saudi Arabia and Jeddah



Source: Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs, (1996).

Exhibit 12 Example from the Old Building in Saudi Arabia and Jeddah



Source: Anderson, 1993.

Exhibit 13 Example from the Beautiful Seen Sight in Asir



Source: Al-Fify, 2000.

Exhibit 14 Example from the Beautiful Seen Sight in Asir



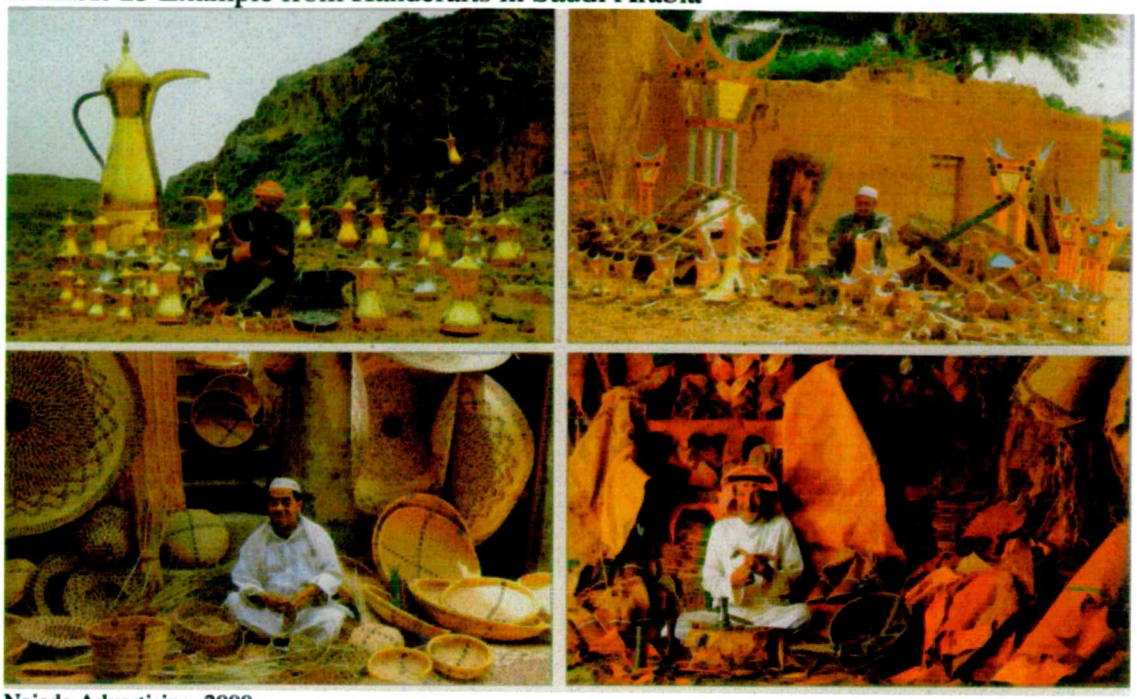
Source: Al-Fify, 2000.

Exhibit 15 Example from Handcrafts in Asir



Source: Anderson, 1993.

Exhibit 15 Example from Handcrafts in Saudi Arabia



Najada Advertising, 2000.

APPENDIX B

The Middle East International Tourist Arrivals and Tourism Receipts

Table 1 Middle East international tourist by country of destination.

	1990	1995	1997	1998	1999	Market share in the Region (%) 1995	1999	Growth rate (%) 1998/97	1999/98	Average annual growth 1999/95
	International Tourist Arrivals (1000)									
Middle East	**8,959**	**12,353**	**14,258**	**15,092**	**17,599**	**100**	**100**	**5.8**	**16.6**	**9.3**
Bahrain	1,376	1,396	1,571	1,750	1,991	11.3	11.3	11.4	13.8	9.3
Dubai	633	1,601	1,792	2,184	2,481	12.0	14.1	21.9	13.6	11.6
Egypt	2,411	2,872	3,657	3,213	4,489	23.2	25.5	-12.1	39.7	11.8
Iraq	748	61	51	51		0.5		0.0		
Jordan	572	1,074	1,127	1,256	1,358	8.7	7.7	11.4	8.1	6.0
Kuwait	15	69	76	77		0.6		1.3		
Lebanon		450	558	600	673	3.6	3.8	7.5	12.2	10.6
Libya	96	56	50	32	40	0.5	0.2	-36.0	25.0	-8.1
Oman	149	279	375	423	502	2.3	2.9	12.8	18.7	15.8
Qatar	136	294	435	451		2.4		3.7		
Saudi Arabia	2,209	3,325				26.9		2.9		
Syria	562	815	891	1,267	1,386	6.6	7.9	42.2	9.4	14.2
Yemen	52	61	81	88		0.5		8.6		

Source: World Tourism Organisation 2000b, p. 64.

Table 2 Middle East international tourism receipts by country of destination.

	1990	1995	1997	1998	1999	Market share in the Region (%) 1995	1999	Growth rate (%) 1998/97	1999/98	Average annual growth 1999/95
	International Tourist Receipts (US$ million)									
Middle East	**4,402**	**7,521**	**9,186**	**8,572**	**10.121**	**100**	**100**	**-6.7**	**18.1**	**7.7**
Bahrain	135	247	311	366		3.3		17.7		
Dubai	169	389	535	562	607	5.2	6.0	5.0	8.0	11.8
Egypt	1,100	2,684	3,727	2,564	3,903	35.7	38.6	-31.2	52.2	9.8
Iraq	55	13	13	13		0.2		0.0		
Jordan	512	661	774	773	795	8.8	7.9	-0.1	2.8	4.7
Kuwait	132	121	188	207		1.6		10.1		
Lebanon		710	1,000	1,221	807	9.4	8.0	22.1	-33.9	3.3
Libya	6	6	6	18	28	0.1	0.3	200.0	55.6	47.0
Oman	69	92	108	112	104	1.2	1.0	3.7	-7.1	3.1
Saudi Arabia	1,884	1,210	1,420	1,462		16.1		3.0		
Syria	320	1,338	1,035	1,190	1,360	17.8	13.4	15.0	14.3	0.4
Yemen	20	50	69	84		0.7		21.7		

Source: World Tourism Organisation 2000b, p. 64.

APPENDIX C

Quantitative and Qualitative Paradigms and Research Approach Tactics

Table 1 shown the different assumptions of the two paradigms the **positivist** and the **phenomenological** (quantitative and qualitative) that are drawn by Creswell (1994).

Table 1 Assumptions of the Two Main Paradigms

Assumption	Question	Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontological	What is the nature of reality?	Reality is objective and singular, apart from researcher	Reality is subjective and multiple as seen by participants in a study
Epistemological	What is the relationship of the researcher to that researched?	Researcher is independent from that being researched	Researcher interacts with that being researched
Axiological	What is the role of values?	Value-free and unbiased	Value-laden and biased
Rhetorical	What is the language of research?	Formal Based on set definitions Impersonal voice Use of accepted quantitative words	Informal Evolving decisions Personal voice Accepted qualitative words
Methodological	What is the process of research?	Deductive process Cause and effect Static design-categories isolated before study Context-free Generalisations leading to prediction, explanation and understanding Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability	Inductive process Mutual simultaneous shaping of factors Emerging design-categories identified during research process Context-bound Patterns, theories developed for understanding Accurate and reliable through verification

Source: Creswell, 1994: 5.

With the **ontological assumption**, the researcher should decide whether the world is objective and external to the researcher, or socially constructed and only realised by investigating the perceptions of the human actors.

Epistemology is involved with the study of knowledge and what researchers believe as being valid knowledge. This includes an examination of the relationship between

the researcher and that which is being researched. The quantitative approach holds that the researcher should remain distant and independent of what is being researched. Thus, in surveys and experiments, the researcher tries to control for bias, choose a systematic sample and be objective in assessing a situation. The qualitative tries to reduce the distance between the researcher and those being researched. The qualitative may be involved in various forms of participative enquiry.

The **axiological assumption** is involved with the values. Quantitative researchers think that science and the process of research is value-free. The researcher's values are kept out of the study in a quantitative project. This feat is a accomplished through entirely omitting statements about values from written reports, using impersonal language and reporting the facts arguing closely from the evidence gathered in the study.

The main difference between quantitative approach and that of the qualitative researcher is that the qualitative investigator admits the value-laden nature of the study and actively reports their values and basis, as well as the value nature of information collected from the field, the language of the study might be first person or personal.

The rhetorical assumption is involved with the language of research. In a quantitative study a researcher typically needs to write not only with an impersonal and formal approach but also based on accepted words such, as relationship, comparison and within group. This is because the researcher must be attempting to give the impression that the research is objective, that exact procedures have been adapted and any personal values the researcher possesses have not been allowed to alter the findings. Concepts and variables are well defined from accepted definitions.

In a qualitative study the position is less clear. In several disciplines the preferred approach of writing is one which completely reproduces the immediacy of the research and reveals the researcher's involvement. The language of qualitative studies became personal, informal and based on definitions that evolve during a study.

The **methodological assumption** is concerned with the process of the research. There are many research methodologies that can be decided.

Table 2 Approaches to Research

Research approaches
Action research
Case studies
Ethnographic
Field experiments
Focus groups
Forecasting
Futures research
Game or role playing
In-depth surveys
Laboratory experiments
Large-scale surveys
Participant-observer
Scenario discussions
Simulation

Source: Galliers, 1992.

Table 3 Classifications of the Main Types of Research

Type of research	*Basis of classification*
Exploratory, descriptive, analytical or predictive research	Purpose of the research
Quantitative or qualitative	Process of the research
Deductive or inductive research	Logic of the research
Applied or basic research	Outcome of the research

Source: Hussey and Hussey, 1997, p. 10.

APPENDIX D

University Authorisation Letter, Arabic Questionnaire and English Questionnaire

Appendix D: University Authorisation Letter, Arabic Questionnaire and English Questionnaire

(a) University Authorisation Letter

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعة الملك عبدالعزيز
King Abdulaziz University

مكتب وكيل الجامعة للدراسات العليا والبحث العلمي
Office of the Vice President for Graduate Studies & Research
E-mail : KAUVPGSR @ KAAU. EDU. SA: البريد الإلكتروني

Tel. 6952015 Fax. 6952441
P.O. Box 1540 Jeddah 21441
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

تليفون : ٦٩٥٢٠١٥
فاكسميلي : ٦٩٥٢٤٤١
ص . ب : ١٥٤٠ جدة ٢١٤٤١

إفادة

تُفيد إدارة البعثات بوكالة الجامعة للدراسات العليا والبحث العلمي بجامعة الملك عبدالعزيز بأن المحاضرة/ نعيمة بنت بكر عمر بوقري أحد المبتعثات الى جامعة هدرز فيلد في المملكة المتحدة لتحضير درجة الدكتوراه في تخصص إدارة اعمال (تسويق) .

وحيث قدمت الى المملكة العربية السعودية للقيام برحلة علمية لجمع المعلومات اللازمة لبحثها لدرَجة الدكتوراه ، ونظراً لأن بحثها يتطلب توزيع الاستبانه وجمعها من الجهات والمؤسسات المختصه .

نأمل مساعدتها وتسهيل مُهمتها .

وتقبلوا خالص تحياتي وتقديري...

وكيل الجامعة
للدراسات العليا والبحث العلمي

أ.د/مصطفى بن محمد الحسن الإدريسي

٩-خ/ت.و ١

Encl. ..... : المشفوعات Date ٢١/٤/١٤٢١هـ التاريخ : Ref. الرقم: ٤٢٤/٢/١٤٢١ب خ

(b) Arabic Questionnaires

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

أختي السائحة / أخي السائح

السلام عليكم و رحمة الله و بركاته

تقوم الباحثة بإعداد رسالة الدكتوراه و موضوع بحثها هو
"الدوافع للسياحة الداخلية: دراسة حاله المملكة العربية السعودية".

ولأغراض استكمال الدراسة الميدانية لهذا البحث، تقوم الباحثة بإعداد هذا الاستبيان الذي يعد أحـــد أدوات جمـــع المعلومات عن الجانب الميداني للرسالة بهدف التعرف على كيفية اختيار الأفراد الجهة التي يقصدونـــها لقضاء الإجازة.

و حيـــث ان مشاركتكم في تعبئة الاستبيان المرفق يعد إثراء لهذا البحث، ترجو الباحثة منكم إعطـــاء الاستبيان جزء من وقتكم الثمين، علما بان المعلومات الواردة في الاستبيان ستعامل بسرية السرية و لن تستخدم إلا لأغراض البحث العلمي.

الرجاء التكرم بإعادة الاستبيان لي بعد تعبئته. شاكرة لكم سلفا صدق تعاونكم.

الباحثة
نعيمة بكر بوقري

جامعة هدرزفيلد
بريطانيا

الرجاء الإجابة بوضع علامة ☒ داخل المربع أو الكتابة إذا لزم الأمر

١. ما هو السبب الرئيسي لزيارتك لهذه المنطقة ؟ وهل هناك أسباب أخرى ؟

	السبب الرئيسي	السبب الغير رئيسي
أ. قضاء الإجازة	☐	☐
ب. زيارة الأهل والأصدقاء	☐	☐
ت. عمل (حكومي، شركة، خاص)	☐	☐
ث. أسباب أخرى الرجاء ذكرها	☐	☐

٢. ما هو نوع وسيلة المواصلات التي استخدمتها للوصول إلى هذه المنطقة ؟

أ. ☐ الطائرة
ب. ☐ سيارة مستأجرة
ت. ☐ سيارة خاصة
ث. ☐ تاكسي
ج. ☐ حافلة
ح. أخرى الرجاء ذكرها .....

٣. من قام بترتيب مكان الإقامة؟

أ. ☐ وكالة سياحة
ب. ☐ معارف
ت. ☐ بنفسي
ث. أخرى الرجاء ذكرها .....

٤. ما هو مكان الإقامة ؟

أ. ☐ فندق
ب. ☐ شقق مفروشة
ت. ☐ مع أقارب
ث. ☐ سكن ملك
ج. أخرى الرجاء ذكرها .....

٥. هل استطعت الحصول على أي معلومات سياحية عن هذه المنطقة قبل وصولك؟

أ. ☐ نعم
ب. ☐ لا

لو كانت الإجابة بلا الرجاء التكرم بالانتقال إلى السؤال ٧
لو كانت الإجابة بنعم الرجاء التكرم بإجابة السؤال ٦

٦. من أين حصلت على هذه المعلومات؟

أ. ☐ من وكالة سياحية
ب. ☐ من المعارف
ت. ☐ من دليل إرشادي تجاري
ث. ☐ من المجلات
ج. ☐ من الجرائد
ح. ☐ من الخبرة السابقة
خ. من مصادر أخرى الرجاء ذكرها .....

٧. ما هي المدة التي ستقضيها في هذه المنطقة؟

أ. ☐ زيارة ليوم واحد
ب. ☐ ٢-٦ أيام
ت. ☐ ٧-١٤ يوما
ث. ☐ ١٥-٢٨ يوما
ج. ☐ ٢٩ يوما او اكثر

٨. هل أنت؟

أ. ☐ بمفردك
ب. ☐ مع مجموعة

لو كنت بمفردك الرجاء التكرم بالانتقال إلى السؤال رقم ١١
لو كنت مع مجموعة الرجاء الإجابة على السؤال رقم ٩

٩. مما تتكون المجموعة التي ترافقك؟
بإمكانك وضع العلامة علي اكثر من مربع

أ. ☐ زوج و زوجة بدون أطفال
ب. ☐ عائلة مع أطفال
ت. ☐ والدي (الأب)
ث. ☐ والدي (ألام)
ج. ☐ أعمام
ح. ☐ عمات
خ. ☐ أخوال
د. ☐ خالات
ذ. ☐ أقارب
ر. ☐ أصدقاء

١٠. ما هو عدد الأشخاص المرافقين في هذه الزيارة؟

	اقل من ٣ أشخاص	٣-٥ أشخاص	اكثر من ٥ أشخاص
أ. البالغين	☐	☐	☐
ب. الأطفال اقل من ١١ عاما	☐	☐	☐
ت. الأطفال من ١١-١٦ عاما	☐	☐	☐

١١. ما هي جنسيتك؟

أ. ☐ سعودي
ب. ☐ غير سعودي الرجاء تحديدها .....

لو كنت غير سعوديا الرجاء التكرم بالانتقال إلى السؤال ١٣.
لو كنت سعوديا الرجاء الإجابة على السؤال رقم ١٢.

١٢. ما هي المنطقة التي قدمت منها؟

أ. ☐ المنطقة الوسطى
ب. ☐ المنطقة الشرقية
ت. ☐ المنطقة الشمالية
ث. ☐ المنطقة الغربية
ج. ☐ منطقة عسير

١٣. ما هو رأيك في الخدمات السياحية المتوفرة في المنطقة؟

الخدمات	مرضي تماما	مرضي	غير محدد	غير مرضي	غير مرضي تماما
أ. خدمات الإقامة					
ب. موقع مكان الإقامة					
ت. سهولة الوصول لهذه المنطقة					
ث. خدمات الطعام					
ج. المعلومات السياحية					
ح. وسائل الترفيه					

١٤. هل أنت؟

أ. ☐ ذكر

ب. ☐ أنثى

١٥. هل عمرك؟

أ. ☐ اقل من ٢٥ عاما

ب. ☐ ٢٥ - ٣٤ عاما

ت. ☐ ٣٥ - ٤٤ عاما

ث. ☐ ٤٥ عاما واكبر

١٦. هل مستواك التعليمي؟

أ. ☐ الابتدائية واقل

ب. ☐ الإعدادية

ت. ☐ الثانوية

ث. ☐ الجامعة

ج. ☐ تعليم عالي

١٧. هل دخل الأسرة الشهري؟

أ. ☐ اقل من ٣٠٠٠ ريالا

ب. ☐ ٣٠٠٠-٥،٩٩٩ ريالا

ت. ☐ ٦٠٠٠-٨،٩٩٩ ريالا

ث. ☐ ٩٠٠٠-١٤،٩٩٩ ريالا

ج. ☐ ١٥٠٠٠ ريالا واكثر

١٨. الـــرجاء تحديـــد مـــدي موافقتك او عدم موافقتك على الجمل التالية والتي تهدف إلى تحديد "**أهمية الإجازات بالنسبة لك**". الرجاء وضع دائرة على الإجابة المناسبة كما هو موضح في المثال التالي:

مـــثال: لو كنت توافق بشدة على العبارة "الإجازة تعني عدم القيام بأي شئ"، فان عليك القيام بإحاطة العدد ٥ بدائرة حسب التوضيح التالي.

	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	بدون رأي	لا أوافق	لا أوافق على الإطلاق
الإجازة تعني عدم القيام بأي شئ	(٥)	٤	٣	٢	١

أ. وقت الإجازة يعني المشاهدة والقيام بأنشطة متعددة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ب. العودة إلي أماكن الإجازة السابقة ممتع.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ت. الأماكن التاريخية مهمة جدا ، عند تخطيطي لمكان الإجازة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ث. رغبتي في معرفة كيف يعيش الأفراد في الأقاليم الأخرى.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ج. وجود المناظر الطبيعية يجعل ، إجازتي رائعة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ح. احب أن انطلق نحو المناطق الريفية والقروية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
خ. قضاء الإجازة في الأماكن المزدحمة يعد شيئا رائعا.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
د. التمتع بالتفرغ لقراءة بعض الكتب ، يمثل إجازة رائعة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ذ. سوف أكون سعيدا بأخذي إجازة لأي مكان بعيدا عن منزلي.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ر. افضل الإجازات هي التي نكون بدون تخطيط.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ز. الإجازات القصيرة المتكررة تتيح الفرصة للقيام بأشياء اكثر.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
س. القيام بالكثير من الأنشطة في الإجازة مثل التسوق.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ش. قضـــاء الإجـــازة فـــي آي مكان افضل من عدم قضائها على الإطلاق.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ص. لعائلتـــنا الإجازة تعني مغامرة جديدة و لا نذهب لنفس المكان مرة أخرى.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ض. الإجازة السنوية هي وقت اجتماع الأسرة بأكملها.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ط. عادة ما نزور أقارب أو معارف خلال رحلتنا.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ظ. الإجازة وسط الناس ممتعة جدا.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ع. الإجازة الممتعة هي التي تضم أفراد أسرتي.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
غ. التحدث عن الأماكن التي زرتها والأشياء التي شاهدتها.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ف. لقضاء الإجازة مهم أن اذهب إلي مكان ما يتمشى مع الموضة (الاتجاه السائد حاليا لسفر معظم الناس إلى مكان ما) .	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ق. توفـــر المطاعم الجيدة والطعام الجيد هو عامل مهم في تحديد مكان الإجازة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ك. توفر أماكن الإقامة المناسبة في مكان الإجازة مهم جدا.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١

١٩. الرجاء تحديد مدي موافقتك او عدم موافقتك على الجمل التالية والتي تهدف إلى تحديد "**لماذا الإجازة في الملكة مهمة بالنسبة لك**". الرجاء وضع دائرة على الإجابة المناسبة كما هو موضح في المثال التالي:

مثال: لو كنت لا توافق على العبارة "احب أن ازور ثقافات أجنبية"، فان عليك القيام بإحاطة العدد ٢ بدائرة حسب التوضيح التالي.

	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	بدون رأي	لا أوافق	لا أوافق على الإطلاق
احب أن ازور ثقافات أجنبية	٥	٤	٣	(٢)	١

أ. قضاء الإجازة في المملكة يساعد على اكتساب خبرات جديدة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ب. لا حاجة لتغير ملابسي الوطنية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ت. الإجازة في المملكة تساعدني على الراحة و الاسترخاء.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ث. من وجهة نظر الاقتصاد القومي صرف المبالغ المالية في السعودية انفع من صرفه في دولة أخرى.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ج. لعدم الحاجة لمصاريف تغيير العملات والحصول علي تأشيرات زيارة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ح. كل ما أتطلع إلية خلال العطلة هو وسائل الترفيه البريء.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
خ. مكان الإجازة بالقرب من سكني حتى لا اضطر لتحمل تكاليف إقامة إضافية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
د. لأنها ارخص تكلفة من السياحة الخارجية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ذ. ضمان الأمان الشخصي عندما تكون الإجازة في السعودية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ر. الطقس المعتدل ينتج عنه إجازة ممتعة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ز. التعامل مع السياح بود و بصدر رحب في المملكة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
س. هناك خيارات جيدة لأماكن الترفيه التي تضم العائلة بأكملها.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ش. السياحة في المملكة تحمي أطفالنا من القيم الغير إسلامية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ص. قضاء الإجازة في السعودية يعني الحفاظ على العادات والتقاليد.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ض. قضاء الإجازة في السعودية انسب عائليا من قضائها في دول أجنبية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ط. السياحة في المملكة تساعد على حماية شبابنا من التعرض لكثير من الأمراض مثل الإيدز.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ظ. لكي أكون مع أفراد متفقين معي في العادات والتقاليد.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ع. البيئة الاجتماعية تساعد المرأة على المحافظة على الحجاب.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١

	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	بدون رأي	لا أوافق	لا أوافق على الإطلاق
غ. قضاء الإجازة في المملكة يعد اكثر ملائمة للمحافظة على أداء الشعائر الإسلامية اكثر من قضائها في دول غير إسلامية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ف. لكي أكون قريبا من الأماكن المقدسة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ق. توفر الطعام طبقا للشريعة الإسلامية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
ك. المتعة التي حصلت عليها من السياحة في المملكة تفوق نفقات الإجازة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١

٢٠. الـرجاء تحديـد أهمية أو عدم أهمية كل مفردة من المفردات التالية "**عند قضاؤك الإجازة الان** " عن طريق وضع دائرة حول رقم محدد فقط كل إفادة كما هو موضح في المثال التالي:

مـثال: "إذا كـان وجـودك فـي جو غريب" مهم بالنسبة لك ، فضع دائرة على الرقم العدد ٤ بدائرة حسب التوضيح التالي:

	مهم جدا	مهم	غير محدد	غير مهم	غير مهم جدا
لأكون في جو غريب.	٥	(٤)	٣	٢	١

١. زيارة المسجد الحرام.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٢. زيارة المسجد النبوي الشريف.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٣. زيارة وسط المدينة القديم.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٤. زيارة الأماكن الأثرية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٥. التعرف على أفراد محليين ودودين ومألوفين.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٦. مشاهدة المناظر الطبيعية الجميلة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٧. مشاهدة الحرف/ الأعمال اليدوية المحلية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٨. زيارة القرى/ الهجر الصغيرة الممتعة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٩. الذهاب و الإقامة في كبائن في البحر.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
١٠. ممارسة أنشطة رياضية مائية مثل الغوص او التزلج على الماء.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
١١. وجود شواطئ بحرية جيدة للسباحة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
١٢. زيارة شاطئ البحر.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
١٣. صيد السمك.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
١٤. ركوب/ قيادة زوارق (قارب).	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
١٥. ممارسة أنشطة السباحة في مسبح.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
١٦. الذهاب إلى أماكن التسلية/ الترفيه.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١

	مهم جدا	مهم	غير محدد	غير مهم	غير مهم جدا
١٧. ركوب التلفريك .	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
١٨. زيارة المنتزهات مثل منتزه عسير القومي.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
١٩. الاستمتاع بالسهر الليلي.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٢٠. الذهاب لمطاعم الوجبات السريعة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٢١. الذهاب للمطاعم.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٢٢. القيام بالتسوق.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٢٣. الذهاب لمدينة كبيرة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٢٤. وجود مستوي عالي من النظافة و الصحة العامة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٢٥. الشعور بالأمان الشخصي.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٢٦. الشعور بالترحيب الدافئ للسائحين.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٢٧. الاستمتاع بجو معتدل.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٢٨. الإقامة في فندق من الدرجة الأولى.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٢٩. الإقامة في شقة مفروشة بمستوي عالي.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٣٠. وجود مطاعم جيدة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٣١. سهولة الوصول إلى أماكن الترفيه المحلية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٣٢. الذهاب إلى البر.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٣٣. الابتعاد عن الأماكن المزدحمة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٣٤. المشاركة في أنشطة في الخلاء.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٣٥. زيارة المناطق الجبلية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٣٦. مشاهدة الحياة البرية/ الطيور.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٣٧. استحقاق الرحلة للقيمة المدفوعة ماليا.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٣٨. وجود أماكن إقامة أسعارها مناسبة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٣٩. وجود مطاعم تستحق القيمة المالية.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
٤٠. استخدام وسائل المواصلات العامة.	٥	٤	٣	٢	١

٢١. هل لديك أي ملاحظات، الرجاء التكرم بذكرها

١. .....

٢. .....

٣. .....

شكرا جزيلا على تعاونك في الإجابة.

(c) English Questionnaires

Dear Respondent

I am a research student at the University of Huddersfield, United Kingdom doing my Ph.D. in marketing on the following topic.

Motivation for Domestic Tourism: A Case Study For the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

The objective of the research is to find how people choose holiday destinations.

I would very much appreciate your co-operation in making my research a success. Please spare some of your valuable time to complete the attached questionnaire. You are assured that all information provided would be treated in total confidence. No names will be published only aggregate data will be used.

Yours sincerely

Naima Bogari

Please mark ☒ in the box that applies or write down the answer if requested.

1. What is the main reason for your visit to this destination? Are there any additional reasons?

	Main Reason	Other Reason
a) Holiday	☐	☐
b) Visit friends and relatives	☐	☐
c) Business (government, company or personal)	☐	☐
d) Other (please specify----------)	☐	☐

2. In what kind of transportation did you arrive at this destination?

a) Airplane ☐ d) Bus ☐
b) Company car ☐ e) Taxi ☐
c) Private car ☐ f) Other (please specify----------)

3. How did you arrange your accommodation?

a) Travel agency ☐ c) My self ☐
b) Relative or friend ☐ d) Other (please specify----------)

4. Where are you staying?

a) Hotel ☐ d) Own house ☐
b) Furnished apartment ☐ e) Other (please specify----------)
c) With relative ☐

5. Did you get any type of tourist information about the area you are visiting before you arrived?

a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

If you answer 'No' please go to question 7
If you answer 'yes' please answer question 6

6. From where did you get this information?

a) Travel agency ☐ d) Magazines ☐
b) Friends or relative ☐ e) Newspaper ☐
c) Commercial guide books ☐ f) Past experience ☐
g) Other (please specify----------)

7. What is the total length of your visit to this destination?

a) One day ☐ d) 15-28 days ☐
b) 2-6 days ☐ e) 29 days or more ☐
c) 7-14 days ☐

8. Are you?

a) Alone ☐
b) With a group ☐

If you are alone please go to question 11
If you are with group please answer question 9

9. Who is included in the group?

You can mark more than one box

a) Married partner without children ❑
b) Family with children ❑
c) Fathers' parents ❑
d) Mothers' parents ❑
e) Uncles (father brothers) ❑
f) Aunts (father sisters) ❑
g) Uncles (mother brothers) ❑
h) Aunts (mother sisters) ❑
i) Relatives ❑
j) Friends ❑

10. What is the number of persons travelling with you on this visit?

	Less then 3 persons	3-5 persons	More than 5 persons
a) Adults	❑	❑	❑
b) Children under 11 years	❑	❑	❑
c) Children 11- 16 years:	❑	❑	❑

11. What is your nationality?

a) Saudi ❑ b) Non Saudi (please specify----------)

If you are Non-Saudi please go to question 13
If you are Saudi please answer question 12

12. Which region do you come from?

a) Central region ❑ c) Western region ❑
b) Eastern region ❑ d) Asir region ❑
c) Northern region ❑

13. What is your opinion about the tourist facilities in this area?

Facilities	Very Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Neither Satisfactory or Unsatisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Very Unsatisfactory
a) Accommodation services					
b) Location of the accommodation					
c) Accessibility to reach this area					
d) Restaurants services					
e) Tourist information					
f) Entertainment					

14. Are you?

a) Male ❑
b) Female ❑

15. Is your age:

a) Less than 25 years ❑ c) 35-44 years ❑
b) 25- 34 years ❑ d) 45 years or more ❑

16. Is your educational level:

a) Primary or less ❑ a) Secondary ❑
b) Intermediate ❑ b) University ❑
e) Post University ❑

17. Is your household monthly income:

a) Less than 3000 SR ❑
b) 3000-5,999 SR ❑
c) 6000-8,999 SR ❑
d) 9,000-14,999 SR ❑
e) 15,000 SR and over ❑

18. The following statements might explain, "Why is your holiday important to you". Please indicate the level of your agreement or disagreement with each statement. Do this by circling one of the five numbers after each statement according to the following scale:

Example: if you Strongly Agree with the statement *that 'A holiday means being able to do nothing', then you would circle number 5 as illustrated below.*

	Strongly Agree	*Agree*	*Neither Agree or Disagree*	*Disagree*	*Strongly Disagree*
A holiday means being able to do nothing	(5)	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*

a) Holiday time means seeing and doing lots of things.	5	4	3	2	1
b) Returning to previous holiday destination is enjoyable.	5	4	3	2	1
c) Historical sites are very important to my holiday plans.	5	4	3	2	1
d) Knowing how other people in different regions live.	5	4	3	2	1
e) Just nature and me, that's my idea of perfect holiday.	5	4	3	2	1
f) Getting out into the country and rural areas.	5	4	3	2	1
g) Holidays in crowded areas are fine.	5	4	3	2	1
h) Just to curl up with a good book in the shade sounds like a wonderful holiday.	5	4	3	2	1
i) I would be happy taking a holiday anywhere away from home.	5	4	3	2	1
j) The best holidays are holidays without planning.	5	4	3	2	1
k) Frequent short holidays offer opportunity to do more.	5	4	3	2	1
l) Doing a lot of activities, like shopping.	5	4	3	2	1
m) Any holiday destination is better than no holiday at all.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
n) For our family, a holiday is always a new adventure. We never go to the same place twice.	5	4	3	2	1
o) The yearly holiday is the time when the family can be together.	5	4	3	2	1
p) Usually, we visit relatives or someone we know on our trip.	5	4	3	2	1
q) A holiday among people is very enjoyable.	5	4	3	2	1
r) The perfect holiday would include all of our family.	5	4	3	2	1
s) Talking about the places I've visited and the things I've seen.	5	4	3	2	1
t) It's important to go to a fashionable place on holiday.	5	4	3	2	1
u) Availability of good restaurants and good food is important in a holiday destination.	5	4	3	2	1
v) The kinds of accommodation you get are very important.	5	4	3	2	1

19. The following statements might explain, "Why is your domestic holiday important to you". Please indicate the level of your agreement or disagreement with each statement. Do this by circling one of the five numbers after each statement according to the following scale:

Example: if you disagree with the statement that 'I like to visit foreign cultures', then you would circle number 2 as illustrated below.

	Strongly Agree	*Agree*	*Neither Agree or Disagree*	*Disagree*	*Strongly Disagree*
I like to visit foreign cultures.	*5*	*4*	*3*	*(2)*	*1*

a) Spending a holiday within Saudi will help in obtaining new experiences.	5	4	3	2	1
b) No need to change Arabic clothes.	5	4	3	2	1
c) A holiday in Saudi Arabia will help me rest and relax.	5	4	3	2	1
d) From the national economic point of view spending money within Saudi will be beneficial instead of spending it in another country.	5	4	3	2	1
e) No expenditure needed to get a visitor visa or to change currency.	5	4	3	2	1
f) Having fun, being innocently entertained that's what a holiday is all about.	5	4	3	2	1
g) Because holiday places are near to my home there is no need to pay for extra accommodation.	5	4	3	2	1
h) Because it is cheaper than overseas tourism.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
i) Personal security is assured while on holiday in Saudi.	5	4	3	2	1
j) Cooler weather results in a more enjoyable holiday.	5	4	3	2	1
k) There is friendly treatment and generosity towards tourists in Saudi.	5	4	3	2	1
l) There is a good selection of family entertainment places.	5	4	3	2	1
m) Domestic tourism will protect our children from non-Islamic values.	5	4	3	2	1
n) Preserve traditions and customs when holiday in Saudi.	5	4	3	2	1
o) Holidays within Saudi are more appropriate for families than foreign holidays.	5	4	3	2	1
p) Domestic tourism will help to protect our youth from such diseases as Aids.	5	4	3	2	1
q) To be with other people who are similar to me in their traditions and customs.	5	4	3	2	1
r) The social environment will help women to preserve the Islamic veil.	5	4	3	2	1
s) It is more convenient to perform Islamic rituals when holidaying in Saudi than when holidaying in non-Islamic country.	5	4	3	2	1
t) To be near to holy Islamic places.	5	4	3	2	1
u) Food availability according to Islamic Law (Sharia).	5	4	3	2	1
v) Domestic holidays in Saudi Arabia represent good value for money.	5	4	3	2	1

20. Please rate how important or how unimportant to you are the listed items below "when you are holidaying". Do this by circling one of the five numbers after each item according to the following scale:

Examples if it is important to you 'to be in an exotic atmosphere', then you would circle number 4 as illustrated below.

	Very Important	*Important*	*Neither Important Nor Unimportant*	*Un-Important*	*Very Un-Important*
To be in an exotic atmosphere?	*5*	*(4)*	*3*	*2*	*1*

1) To visit the Kaaba.	5	4	3	2	1
2) To visit the Prophetic Mosque.	5	4	3	2	1
3) To visit the historic old city.	5	4	3	2	1
4) To visit historical archaeological sites.	5	4	3	2	1
5) To meet interesting/friendly local people.	5	4	3	2	1
6) To see outstanding scenery.	5	4	3	2	1
7) To see local crafts/handwork.	5	4	3	2	1

	Very Important	Important	Neither Important Nor Unimportant	Un-Important	Very Un-Important
8) To visit interesting small towns/ villages.	5	4	3	2	1
9) To go and stay at a beach cabin.	5	4	3	2	1
10) To take part in water sports like diving and water-skiing.	5	4	3	2	1
11) To find good beaches for swimming.	5	4	3	2	1
12) To visit the beach.	5	4	3	2	1
13) To go fishing.	5	4	3	2	1
14) To go boating or to charter a boat.	5	4	3	2	1
15) To enjoy pool activities.	5	4	3	2	1
16) To go to entertainment/ amusement places.	5	4	3	2	1
17) To ride telpherage.	5	4	3	2	1
18) To visit theme park such as Asir National Park.	5	4	3	2	1
19) To enjoy nightlife.	5	4	3	2	1
20) To go to fast food restaurants.	5	4	3	2	1
21) To go to restaurants.	5	4	3	2	1
22) To go shopping	5	4	3	2	1
23) To go to a big city.	5	4	3	2	1
24) To find high standards of hygiene/ cleanliness.	5	4	3	2	1
25) To feel personally safe.	5	4	3	2	1
26) To feel a warm welcome for tourists.	5	4	3	2	1
27) To enjoy the cool weather.	5	4	3	2	1
28) To stay in a first class hotel.	5	4	3	2	1
29) To stay in a high standard apartment.	5	4	3	2	1
30) To find quality restaurants.	5	4	3	2	1
31) To be easily accessible for local attractions.	5	4	3	2	1
32) To go to a wilderness areas.	5	4	3	2	1
33) To get away from crowds.	5	4	3	2	1
34) To participate in outdoor activities.	5	4	3	2	1
35) To visit mountainous areas.	5	4	3	2	1
36) To see wildlife/birds.	5	4	3	2	1
37) To find this trip value-for-money.	5	4	3	2	1
38) To find budget accommodation.	5	4	3	2	1
39) To find value-for-money restaurants.	5	4	3	2	1
40) To use public transportation.	5	4	3	2	1

21. Any further comments, if there are please indicate.

1) ----------
2) ----------
3) ----------

Thank You For Your Help.

APPENDIX E

Analysis Tables

Table 1 Reliability Analysis-Scale (A L P H A) Item-total Statistics For 44 Push Motivational items

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Q18 A	170.8895	296.2067	.0652	.8597
Q18 B	171.6792	293.1482	.1250	.8595
Q18 C	171.4933	281.5101	.3959	.8540
Q18 D	171.4447	288.1341	.2555	.8571
Q18 E	170.4663	294.3144	.2259	.8575
Q18 F	171.4124	287.1241	.2605	.8571
Q18 G	171.8437	295.5052	.0312	.8629
Q18 H	172.0782	288.8182	.2125	.8582
Q18 I	171.1509	293.3177	.1136	.8599
Q18 J	171.6819	297.7256	-.0227	.8647
Q18 K	171.8491	290.4799	.1568	.8597
Q18 L	171.3315	293.1628	.1296	.8593
Q18 M	171.2049	292.4552	.1219	.8601
Q18 N	172.2210	293.7943	.0779	.8614
Q18 O	171.3208	287.5914	.2563	.8571
Q18 P	171.6388	288.4746	.2272	.8578
Q18 Q	171.1536	292.0655	.1573	.8589
Q18 R	170.6846	290.2165	.3235	.8560
Q18 S	171.0135	288.4025	.3289	.8557
Q18 T	171.6388	300.9287	-.0923	.8658
Q18 U	171.2884	289.0869	.2156	.8580
Q18 V	170.4798	295.0557	.1798	.8580
Q19 A	171.4070	276.1285	.5956	.8499
Q19 B	171.4555	276.3027	.4932	.8516
Q19 C	171.3181	276.9364	.5902	.8502
Q19 D	170.8032	282.3098	.4969	.8526
Q19 E	171.5957	279.5334	.4533	.8527
Q19 F	171.2210	287.8753	.2661	.8568
Q19 G	172.3127	284.7452	.2899	.8566
Q19 H	172.1860	277.2221	.4153	.8535
Q19 I	170.8679	279.8122	.5539	.8513
Q19 J	170.7574	291.0599	.2643	.8568
Q19 K	171.1887	280.2400	.4743	.8525
Q19 L	171.2534	283.3573	.4406	.8535
Q19 M	170.7089	281.2826	.5935	.8514
Q19 N	170.8895	278.4445	.6101	.8504
Q19 O	171.0189	276.2618	.5912	.8500
Q19 P	170.7655	280.0665	.5481	.8515
Q19 Q	171.0243	276.2994	.6870	.8490
Q19 R	170.8140	276.7680	.6365	.8496
Q19 S	170.7170	283.2197	.4709	.8531
Q19 T	170.8221	284.1196	.5311	.8528
Q19 U	170.8706	281.3778	.5524	.8518
Q19 V	171.5849	273.0056	.5407	.8502

Table 2 Reliability coefficients with 44 items

Reliability Coefficients 44 items

Alpha = . 8585

Table 3 Reliability Analysis-Scale (A L P H A)Item-total Statistics For 36 Push Motivational items

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Q18 C	141.7806	257.6551	.3875	.8854
Q18 D	141.7168	264.0347	.2461	.8879
Q18 E	140.7500	269.2980	.2291	.8875
Q18 F	141.6786	262.5665	.2645	.8878
Q18 H	142.3622	263.9094	.2240	.8886
Q18 K	142.1276	265.5949	.1624	.8902
Q18 L	141.5918	267.2703	.1673	.8890
Q18 O	141.5893	262.8820	.2620	.8878
Q18 P	141.9184	263.9933	.2289	.8884
Q18 Q	141.4235	265.9992	.2025	.8885
Q18 R	140.9566	265.7398	.3172	.8865
Q18 S	141.2832	264.0756	.3276	.8863
Q18 U	141.5740	264.2349	.2224	.8885
Q18 V	140.7577	269.7493	.1970	.8878
Q19 A	141.6786	251.8657	.6059	.8812
Q19 B	141.7143	252.6292	.4898	.8833
Q19 C	141.5893	252.6007	.6021	.8814
Q19 D	141.0842	257.9341	.4949	.8836
Q19 E	141.8750	255.3373	.4535	.8841
Q19 F	141.4898	262.7825	.2848	.8872
Q19 G	142.5765	258.9865	.3222	.8870
Q19 H	142.4439	252.1298	.4375	.8847
Q19 I	141.1301	254.7887	.5829	.8820
Q19 J	141.0306	266.7561	.2524	.8873
Q19 K	141.4566	255.9060	.4791	.8836
Q19 L	141.5255	258.9098	.4438	.8844
Q19 M	140.9770	257.6542	.5771	.8827
Q19 N	141.1531	254.5852	.6110	.8817
Q19 O	141.2934	252.3971	.5939	.8815
Q19 P	141.0383	255.4487	.5633	.8824
Q19 Q	141.2985	252.1383	.7015	.8802
Q19 R	141.0944	253.4463	.6112	.8814
Q19 S	141.0000	258.3529	.4823	.8838
Q19 T	141.0944	259.5333	.5408	.8834
Q19 U	141.1429	257.0742	.5591	.8827
Q19 V	141.8393	249.3066	.5428	.8821

Table 4 Reliability coefficients with 36 items

Reliability Coefficients 36 items
Alpha = .8799

Table 5 Age of Tourist

Age group	Jeddah n = 290	Abha n = 215	Total n = 505
	%	%	%
Less than 25 years	21.0	32.1	25.7
25-34 years	49.3	33.0	42.4
35-44 years	21.7	24.7	22.0
45 years or more	7.9	10.2	8.9
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 6 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.788[a]	3	.002
Likelihood Ratio	14.901	3	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	.187	1	.666
N of Valid Cases	505		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.16.

Table 7 Gender of Tourist

Gender	Jeddah n = 290	Abha n = 215	Total n = 505
	%	%	%
Male	76.9	67.0	72.7
Female	22.8	33.0	27.1
None response	.3	0	.2
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 8 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.462[b]	1	.011		
Continuity Correction[a]	5.958	1	.015		
Likelihood Ratio	6.417	1	.011		
Fisher's Exact Test				.012	.007
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.449	1	.011		
N of Valid Cases	504				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count i 58.44.

Table 9 Travelling Alone or with a Group

Gender	Jeddah n = 290	Abha n = 215	Total n = 505
	%	%	%
Alone	7.2	2.8	5.3
With a group	92.8	97.2	94.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 10 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.833[b]	1	.028		
Continuity Correction[a]	3.993	1	.046		
Likelihood Ratio	5.197	1	.023		
Fisher's Exact Test				.029	.020
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.823	1	.028		
N of Valid Cases	505				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.50.

Table 11 Percent of Adults Travelling

Adults number	Jeddah n = 269	Abha n = 209	Total n = 478
	%	%	%
Less than 3 persons	45.0	30.6	38.7
3-5 persons	26.4	34.4	29.9
More than 5 persons	28.6	34.0	31.0
Non response	0	1.0	.4
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 12 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.905[a]	2	.007
Likelihood Ratio	10.003	2	.007
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.558	1	.010
N of Valid Cases	476		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 62.19.

Table 13 Percent of Children Under 11 years Travelling, by the Study Areas

Number of children less than 11 years	Jeddah n = 171	Abha n = 144	Total n = 315
	%	%	%
Less than 3 children	55.6	52.8	54.3
3-5 children	39.8	32.6	36.5
More than 5 children	4.7	14.6	9.2
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 14 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.529[a]	2	.009
Likelihood Ratio	9.695	2	.008
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.903	1	.088
N of Valid Cases	315		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13.26.

Table 15 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.230[a]	2	.199
Likelihood Ratio	3.223	2	.200
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.514	1	.113
N of Valid Cases	161		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.26.

Table 16 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Monte Carlo Sig. (2-sided)			Monte Carlo Sig. (1-sided)		
				Sig.	99% Confidence Interval		Sig.	99% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pearson Chi-Square	5.367[a]	4	.252	.255[b]	.243	.266			
Likelihood Ratio	5.676	4	.225	.258[b]	.247	.269			
Fisher's Exact Test	5.410			.243[b]	.232	.254			
Linear-by-Linear Association	.045[c]	1	.832	.854[b]	.845	.863	.439[b]	.427	.452
N of Valid Cases	505								

a. 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.13.

b. Based on 10000 sampled tables with starting seed 2000000.

c. The standardized statistic is -.212.

Table 17 Household Monthly Income of Tourist

Household monthly income	**Jeddah** n = 290	**Abha** n = 215	**Total** n = 505
	%	%	%
Less than 3000 SR	6.9	6.0	6.6
3000-5999 SR	23.8	14.0	19.6
6000-8999 SR	27.9	28.4	28.1
9000-14999 SR	27.6	31.6	29.3
15000 SR and more	13.1	19.5	15.8
Non response	.7	.5	.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 18 Chi-Square Tests

				Monte Carlo Sig. (2-sided)			Monte Carlo Sig. (1-sided)		
					99% Confidence Interval			99% Confidence Interval	
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pearson Chi-Squa	10.151[a]	4	.038	.038[b]	.033	.043			
Likelihood Ratio	10.336	4	.035	.037[b]	.032	.042			
Fisher's Exact Te	10.237			.037[b]	.032	.042			
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.611[c]	1	.006	.005[b]	.004	.007	.003[b]	.002	.005
N of Valid Cases	502								

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.07.

b. Based on 10000 sampled tables with starting seed 624387341.

c. The standardized statistic is 2.759.

Table 19 Tourist Nationality

Nationality	**Jeddah n=290**	**Abha n=215**	**Total n=505**
	%	%	%
Saudi	90.3	87.4	89.1
Syrian	1.0	0	.6
Jordanian	.3	0	.2
Kuwaiti	1.7	7.0	4.0
Egyptian	1.7	0	1.0
Sudanese	1.0	0	.6
Lebanese	1.0	0	.6
United Arab Emirate	.3	3.7	1.8
Bahrain	0	.5	.2
Qatar	0	.9	.4
Yemeni	.3	0	.2
Palestinian	.3	0	.2
Non Saudi no response	1.7	.5	1.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 20 Saudi Tourists Cities

Nationality	Jeddah n=262	Abha n=188	Total n=450
	%	%	%
Riyadh	19.8	19.1	19.6
Jeddah	0	23.4	9.8
Madinah	5.3	1.6	3.8
Makkah	3.1	3.2	3.1
Taif	2.7	1.6	2.2
Al-Baha	.8	.5	.7
Abha	4.2	0	2.4
Qayssem	.4	1.6	.9
Bisha	1.9	3.7	2.7
Dhahran	.8	1.1	.9
Najran	2.3	3.7	2.9
Jizan	.4	1.6	.9
Ha'il	1.5	0	.9
Hafer Al-Baten	.4	.5	.4
Khamis Mushait	.4	1.1	.7
Jubail	.4	1.1	1.3
Ar'ar	.4	2.7	.2
Tabouk	.4	2.1	1.1
Yanbu	1.5	.5	1.1
Al-kobar	1.1	1.6	1.3
Al-ahas	.8	0	.4
Ohod Rfydah	.4	0	.2
Alnmas	.4	1.1	.7
Badar	.4	0	.2
Damam	1.9	3.7	2.7
Borida	.8	.5	.7
Samta	.4	0	.2
Almajmah	.4	0	.2
Afyuf	.4	0	.2
Alkoryat	.4	0	.2
Mahail Asir	0	.5	.2
Alqouia	0	.5	.2
Aldoadmi	0	.5	.2
Wadi-ai-Dawasir	0	.5	.2
Bariq	0	.5	.2
Qatiaf	0	.5	.2
Majardah	0	.5	.2
None response	46.2	21.3	35.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 21 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.754[a]	4	.101
Likelihood Ratio	8.032	4	.090
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.609	1	.057
N of Valid Cases	497		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.45.

Table 22 Chi-Square Tests

				Monte Carlo Sig. (2-sided)			Monte Carlo Sig. (1-sided)		
					99% Confidence Interval			99% Confidence Interval	
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pearson Chi-Squ	15.103[a]	16	.517	.457[b]	.444	.470			
Likelihood Ratio	19.434	16	.247	.234[b]	.223	.245			
Fisher's Exact Te	17.205			.311[b]	.299	.323			
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.492[c]	1	.222	.221[b]	.211	.232	.116[b]	.108	.125
N of Valid Cases	504								

a. 14 cells (56.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .05.

b. Based on 10000 sampled tables with starting seed 726961337.

c. The standardized statistic is -1.222.

Table 23 Chi-Square Tests

				Monte Carlo Sig. (2-sided)			Monte Carlo Sig. (1-sided)		
					99% Confidence Interval			99% Confidence Interval	
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Sig	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pearson Chi-Squ	14.951[a]	16	.528	.521[b]	.508	.534			
Likelihood Ratio	15.917	16	.459	.533[b]	.520	.546			
Fisher's Exact Te	14.920			.469[b]	.456	.481			
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.181[c]	1	.277	.283[b]	.271	.294	.142[b]	.133	.151
N of Valid Cases	501								

a. 7 cells (28.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .33.

b. Based on 10000 sampled tables with starting seed 126474071.

c. The standardized statistic is -1.087.

Table 24 Kind of Accommodation by the Age

Kind of accommodation	Age				Total n = 504
	n = 129 < 25	n = 214 25-34	n = 116 35-45	n = 45 45 >	
	%	%	%	%	%
Hotel	11.6	24.8	22.4	22.2	20.6
Furnished apartment	58.1	58.4	68.1	71.1	61.7
With relative	12.4	6.5	5.2	4.4	7.5
Own house	14.7	9.8	4.3	2.2	9.1
Other	3.1	.5	0	0	1.0

Table 25 Chi-Square Tests

				Monte Carlo Sig. (2-sided)			Monte Carlo Sig. (1-sided)		
					99% Confidence Interval			99% Confidence Interval	
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pearson Chi-Squa	32.713[a]	12	.001	.002[b]	.001	.003			
Likelihood Ratio	33.765	12	.001	.001[b]	.000	.002			
Fisher's Exact Te	29.419			.002[b]	.001	.003			
Linear-by-Linear Association	20.800[c]	1	.000	.000[b]	.000	.000	.000[b]	.000	.000
N of Valid Cases	504								

a. 6 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .45.

b. Based on 10000 sampled tables with starting seed 1487459085.

c. The standardized statistic is -4.561.

Table 26 Kind of Accommodation by the Length of Staying

Kind of accommodation	Length of tourist stay					Total n = 504
	One day n =20	2-6 days n = 202	7-14 days n =130	15-28 days n = 59	29 days or more n = 85	
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Hotel	15.0	27.7	16.9	15.3	15.3	20.8
Furnished apartment	35.0	62.9	70.0	71.2	47.1	61.9
With relative	15.0	6.4	8.5	5.1	8.2	7.5
Own house	35.0	2.5	4.6	6.8	27.1	9.1
Other	0	.5	0	1.7	2.4	.8

Table 27 Chi-Square Tests

				Monte Carlo Sig. (2-sided)			Monte Carlo Sig. (1-sided)		
					9% Confidence Interva			9% Confidence Interva	
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig (2-sided)	Sig.	ower Bound	pper Bound	Sig.	ower Bound	pper Bound
Pearson Chi-Sq	80.691[a]	16	.000	.000[b]	.000	.000			
Likelihood Ratio	68.854	16	.000	.000[b]	.000	.000			
Fisher's Exact T	68.198			.000[b]	.000	.000			
Linear-by-Linear Association	20.556[c]	1	.000	.000[b]	.000	.000	.000[b]	.000	.000
N of Valid Case	496								

a. 9 cells (36.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .16.

b. Based on 10000 sampled tables with starting seed 1131884899.

c. The standardized statistic is 4.534.

Table 28 Kind of Accommodation by the Adult Group

Kind of accommodation	Adult group			Total
	Less than 3 persons n = 185	3-5 persons n = 143	More than 5 persons n = 148	n = 476
	%	%	%	%
Hotel	29.2	14.7	10.8	19.1
Furnished apartment	59.5	67.1	64.2	63.2
With relative	4.9	8.4	9.5	7.4
Own house	5.4	9.8	14.2	9.5
Other	1.1	0	1.4	.8

Table 29 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Monte Carlo Sig. (2-sided)			Monte Carlo Sig. (1-sided)		
				Sig.	99% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Sig.	99% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pearson Chi-Squ	28.594[a]	8	.000	.000[b]	.000	.000			
Likelihood Ratio	29.719	8	.000	.000[b]	.000	.000			
Fisher's Exact Te	28.097			.000[b]	.000	.000			
Linear-by-Linear Association	20.045[c]	1	.000	.000[b]	.000	.000	.000[b]	.000	.000
N of Valid Cases	476								

a. 3 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.20.

b. Based on 10000 sampled tables with starting seed 1122541128.

c. The standardized statistic is 4.477.

Table 30 Kind of Accommodation by the Children Under 11 years Group

Kind of accommodation	Number of Children under 11 years			Total
	> 3 persons n = 171	3-5 persons n = 115	< 5 persons n = 29	n = 315
	%	%	%	%
Hotel	20.5	8.7	3.4	14.6
Furnished apartment	62.0	75.7	69.0	67.6
With relative	6.4	7.0	10.3	7.0
Own house	9.9	8.7	13.8	9.8
Other	1.2	0	3.4	1.0

Table 31 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig (2-sided)	Monte Carlo Sig. (2-sided)			Monte Carlo Sig. (1-sided)		
				Sig	99% Confidence Interv Lower Boun	Upper Boun	Sig.	99% Confidence Interv Lower Boun	Upper Boun
Pearson Chi-S	15.390[a]	8	.052	.055[b]	.050	.061			
Likelihood Rati	16.717	8	.033	.040[b]	.035	.045			
Fisher's Exact	15.751			.029[b]	.025	.033			
Linear-by-Linea Association	3.603[c]	1	.058	.060[b]	.054	.066	.035[b]	.030	.039
N of Valid Cas	315								

a. 6 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .28.

b. Based on 10000 sampled tables with starting seed 2110151063.

c. The standardized statistic is 1.898.

Table 32 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Monte Carlo Sig. (2-sided)			Monte Carlo Sig. (1-sided)		
				Sig.	99% Confidence Interval		Sig.	99% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pearson Chi-Sq	7.431[a]	8	.491	.491[b]	.478	.504			
Likelihood Ratio	6.630	8	.577	.638[b]	.626	.651			
Fisher's Exact T	7.440			.457[b]	.444	.470			
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.011[c]	1	.156	.174[b]	.164	.183	.091[b]	.084	.099
N of Valid Cases	161								

a. 9 cells (60.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .26.

b. Based on 10000 sampled tables with starting seed 605580418.

c. The standardized statistic is 1.418.

Table 33 Total Variance Explained 36 Push Motivational Items

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.658	24.049	24.049	8.658	24.049	24.049	6.056	16.822	16.822
2	2.500	6.945	30.994	2.500	6.945	30.994	2.348	6.522	23.344
3	1.714	4.761	35.755	1.714	4.761	35.755	2.193	6.092	29.436
4	1.543	4.287	40.042	1.543	4.287	40.042	1.971	5.474	34.910
5	1.435	3.985	44.028	1.435	3.985	44.028	1.682	4.673	39.583
6	1.265	3.514	47.542	1.265	3.514	47.542	1.617	4.492	44.074
7	1.210	3.361	50.902	1.210	3.361	50.902	1.594	4.427	48.501
8	1.132	3.144	54.046	1.132	3.144	54.046	1.465	4.070	52.572
9	1.095	3.043	57.089	1.095	3.043	57.089	1.448	4.022	56.594
10	1.024	2.845	59.933	1.024	2.845	59.933	1.202	3.339	59.933
11	.989	2.748	62.681						
12	.895	2.485	65.167						
13	.860	2.390	67.556						
14	.788	2.189	69.746						
15	.772	2.144	71.889						
16	.729	2.024	73.913						
17	.708	1.965	75.879						
18	.685	1.904	77.783						
19	.674	1.873	79.655						
20	.652	1.812	81.467						
21	.623	1.732	83.199						
22	.579	1.609	84.808						
23	.560	1.555	86.362						
24	.521	1.446	87.809						
25	.516	1.434	89.243						
26	.478	1.328	90.570						
27	.462	1.283	91.854						
28	.433	1.203	93.057						
29	.413	1.147	94.204						
30	.396	1.099	95.304						
31	.369	1.025	96.329						
32	.345	.957	97.286						
33	.292	.811	98.097						
34	.282	.782	98.880						
35	.232	.645	99.525						
36	.171	.475	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The Frequencies of the Component of Interest Factors

Table 34 Lot of activities like shopping

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	stron dis agre	12	2.4	2.4	2.4
	dis agre	48	9.5	9.6	12.0
	neutral	47	9.3	9.4	21.3
	agre	255	50.5	50.8	72.1
	stron agre	140	27.7	27.9	100.0
	Total	502	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.6		
Total		505	100.0		

Table 35 Holiday among people enjoyable

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	stron dis agre	8	1.6	1.6	1.6
	dis agre	37	7.3	7.4	9.0
	neutral	50	9.9	10.0	19.0
	agre	207	41.0	41.4	60.4
	stron agre	198	39.2	39.6	100.0
	Total	500	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	5	1.0		
Total		505	100.0		

Table 36 Frequent short holidays can be more

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	stron dis agre	35	6.9	7.0	7.0
	dis agre	114	22.6	22.8	29.8
	neutral	85	16.8	17.0	46.8
	agre	169	33.5	33.8	80.6
	stron agre	97	19.2	19.4	100.0
	Total	500	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	5	1.0		
Total		505	100.0		

Table 37 No expenditure to get a visitor visa or to change currency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	stron dis agre	21	4.2	4.3	4.3
	dis agre	76	15.0	15.5	19.8
	neutral	112	22.2	22.9	42.7
	agre	141	27.9	28.8	71.4
	stron agre	140	27.7	28.6	100.0
	Total	490	97.0	100.0	
Missing	System	15	3.0		
Total		505	100.0		

Table 38 Just to curl up with good book

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	stron dis agre	36	7.1	7.3	7.3
	dis agre	111	22.0	22.4	29.7
	neutral	130	25.7	26.3	56.0
	agre	157	31.1	31.7	87.7
	stron agre	61	12.1	12.3	100.0
	Total	495	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	10	2.0		
Total		505	100.0		

Table 39 Usually we visit relatives or someone we know

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	stron dis agre	30	5.9	6.0	6.0
	dis agre	67	13.3	13.5	19.6
	neutral	78	15.4	15.7	35.3
	agre	232	45.9	46.8	82.1
	stron agre	89	17.6	17.9	100.0
	Total	496	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	9	1.8		
Total		505	100.0		

Table 40 Having fun being innocently entertainment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	stron dis agre	12	2.4	2.4	2.4
	dis agre	47	9.3	9.4	11.8
	neutral	62	12.3	12.4	24.1
	agre	186	36.8	37.1	61.2
	stron agre	195	38.6	38.8	100.0
	Total	502	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.6		
Total		505	100.0		

Table 41 From the national economic better to spend money in Saudi

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	stron dis agre	10	2.0	2.0	2.0
	dis agre	21	4.2	4.2	6.2
	neutral	41	8.1	8.2	14.3
	agre	113	22.4	22.5	36.9
	stron agre	317	62.8	63.1	100.0
	Total	502	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.6		
Total		505	100.0		

Table 42 The kind of accommodation are very important

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	stron dis agre	2	.4	.4	.4
	dis agre	3	.6	.6	1.0
	neutral	6	1.2	1.2	2.2
	agre	94	18.6	18.7	20.8
	stron agre	399	79.0	79.2	100.0
	Total	504	99.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.2		
Total		505	100.0		

Table 43 Availability of good restaurants and good food is important

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	stron dis agre	17	3.4	3.4	3.4
	dis agre	53	10.5	10.5	13.9
	neutral	58	11.5	11.5	25.4
	agre	181	35.8	35.9	61.3
	stron agre	195	38.6	38.7	100.0
	Total	504	99.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.2		
Total		505	100.0		

Table 44 Total Variance Explained Pull Motivational Items

	Initial Eigenvalues			ıction Sums of Squared Loac			ation Sums of Squared Loadi		
Compon	Total	of Varian	umulative	Total	of Varian	umulative	Total	of Varian	umulative
1	6.722	16.805	16.805	6.722	16.805	16.805	3.329	8.322	8.322
2	3.920	9.800	26.605	3.920	9.800	26.605	3.265	8.162	16.483
3	2.725	6.813	33.418	2.725	6.813	33.418	2.995	7.487	23.971
4	2.179	5.448	38.867	2.179	5.448	38.867	2.906	7.266	31.237
5	1.968	4.920	43.786	1.968	4.920	43.786	2.798	6.995	38.232
6	1.584	3.960	47.746	1.584	3.960	47.746	1.931	4.828	43.060
7	1.546	3.866	51.612	1.546	3.866	51.612	1.924	4.810	47.870
8	1.309	3.273	54.886	1.309	3.273	54.886	1.773	4.431	52.301
9	1.159	2.899	57.784	1.159	2.899	57.784	1.660	4.150	56.451
10	1.077	2.691	60.476	1.077	2.691	60.476	1.610	4.025	60.476
11	.983	2.458	62.934						
12	.908	2.271	65.205						
13	.821	2.051	67.257						
14	.789	1.974	69.230						
15	.777	1.942	71.172						
16	.751	1.877	73.049						
17	.713	1.784	74.833						
18	.692	1.730	76.563						
19	.660	1.650	78.214						
20	.651	1.627	79.841						
21	.602	1.505	81.346						
22	.573	1.433	82.778						
23	.566	1.415	84.194						
24	.528	1.321	85.515						
25	.500	1.249	86.763						
26	.477	1.193	87.956						
27	.451	1.128	89.084						
28	.448	1.119	90.203						
29	.428	1.069	91.272						
30	.402	1.005	92.277						
31	.393	.983	93.260						
32	.380	.949	94.208						
33	.367	.919	95.127						
34	.341	.852	95.979						
35	.321	.803	96.782						
36	.294	.736	97.517						
37	.283	.708	98.225						
38	.272	.680	98.905						
39	.260	.649	99.554						
40	.179	.446	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 45

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.754	4	.438	2.327	.056
Within Groups	72.938	387	.188		
Total	74.692	391			

Table 46

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.829	4	.207	1.078	.367
Within Groups	73.852	384	.192		
Total	74.681	388			

Table 47

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.499	4	.125	.772	.544
Within Groups	59.637	369	.162		
Total	60.135	373			

Table 48

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.671	1	.671	3.535	.061
Within Groups	73.882	389	.190		
Total	74.554	390			

Table 49

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.157	4	3.917E-02	.243	.914
Within Groups	60.055	372	.161		
Total	60.212	376			

Table 50

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.499	4	.125	.772	.544
Within Groups	59.637	369	.162		
Total	60.135	373			

Table 51

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Grou	1.053	3	.351	2.212	.086
Within Groups	59.159	373	.159		
Total	60.212	376			

Table 52

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.957	1	.957	6.060	.014
Within Groups	59.047	374	.158		
Total	60.004	375			