

T H E U N I V E R S I T Y O F H U L L

**THE PACKAGE HOLIDAY; PARTICIPANT, CHOICE
AND BEHAVIOUR**

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SUMMARY OF THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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THE PACKAGE HOLIDAY; PARTICIPANT, CHOICE AND BEHAVIOUR

This research provides an explanation of package holidaymaking behaviour based on the analysis of data gathered through 303 interview-administered questionnaires in Hull. Strict statistical links are used hand-in-hand with informal, qualitative information to generate a thorough understanding of key elements in the holiday decision-making process.

Three levels of behaviour are examined. General participation separates the package holidaymaking population from non-holidaymakers and independent travellers. Package holiday 'habits' are then examined; repeat purchasing, booking, the holiday party, services, timing and behaviour whilst on holiday. Finally, spatial patterns are analysed according to relative location (travel time, linear distance, and the home/abroad dichotomy) and absolute location (proximity to the coast, and resort qualities). Explanation is largely based on the holidaymaker's characteristics, represented by traditional sociodemographic and economic measures, and by a number of life-style factors. The finer investigation of spatial patterns is accompanied by a detailed analysis of destination choice, primarily structured around information sources, place-specificity and the resort characteristics sought after. The destination decision, and its role in overall choice of holiday, acts as a unifying theme throughout the research.

Holiday choice emerges as a highly individualistic phenomenon loosely set within a framework of predictive parameters. Economic factors tend to set fairly rigid constraints on behaviour, as exemplified by the distinction between both homestayors and holidaymakers, and travellers by air and coach. Within these basic guidelines, the two main explanatory themes rest on the notion of 'holiday careers' and the role of risk in holiday choice. The former attributes current behaviour to a succession of experiences through time that tend to establish personal habits. Risk encompasses a wide range of issues, and is often manifested in satisficing behaviour. Its role in holiday choice is as an enforcer of decisions rather than a prime factor, though its influence is widespread.

A wealth of supplementary ties support the hypothesis that behaviour is an outcome of the holidaymaker's characteristics. In the case of spatial patterns, particularly the location of the holiday destination relative to the home, this is systematically related to the destination decision. The difference between holidays at home and abroad is the most telling distinction, and encapsulates many of the important themes contributing towards an understanding of package holidaymaking choice and behaviour.

To my parents

Memorable family holidays are many

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C O N T E N T S

List of Tables, Diagrams and Appendices

	PAGE
CHAPTER ONE : A BRIEF HISTORY OF HOLIDAY TRAVEL	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 THE PERIOD UPTO 1840	3
1.2.1 Travel in Ancient History	3
1.2.2 Renaissance revival and the Grand Tour	5
1.2.3 Spa town and seaside	6
1.3 1840 TO THE INTER-WAR YEARS	8
1.3.1 Pleasure travel and the Industrial Revolution	8
1.3.2 Transport technology: The age of coal and steam	10
1.3.3 Growth of the English seaside resort	11
1.3.4 Origin and development of the package holiday	13
1.4 WORLD WAR TWO AND AFTER; THE YEARS OF GROWING PROSPERITY	15
1.4.1 The diffusion of paid leave and transport technology	15
1.4.2 Air transport and evolution of the package holiday product	17
CHAPTER TWO : CONTEMPORARY PACKAGE HOLIDAYMAKING	22
2.1 TOURISM TRENDS AND THE ROLE OF THE PACKAGE TOUR	22
2.1.1 Participation	22
2.1.2 Destination patterns	24
2.1.3 Service elements	28
2.1.4 Date, duration and frequency	32
2.2 CURRENT ISSUES WITHIN THE TOUR OPERATING INDUSTRY	37
2.2.1 Supply system structure; vertical integration of activities	37
2.2.2 Horizontal agglomeration and competitive advantage	39
CHAPTER THREE : A REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE FIELDS AND THEIR USES	43
3.1 LOCATION OF SOURCES	43
3.2 THE TOURIST	44
3.2.1 Typologies, conceptualisation and applicability	44
3.2.2 Documentation of factors influencing tourist behaviour	46
3.3 THE HOLIDAY DECISION-MAKING PROCESS	51
3.3.1 Evaluation framework	51
3.3.2 Pinpointing the decision-maker	53
3.3.3 An overview of tourist motivation	54
3.3.4 Initial travel desire	56
3.3.5 Specific holiday motives	59
3.3.6 Information search and the role of images	62
3.3.7 Means of selection from alternative choices	65

	PAGE	
3.4	LEISURE AND RECREATION STUDIES	66
3.4.1	The nature of application	66
3.4.2	Work/leisure relationships	68
3.4.3	Behavioural careers and the life cycle	69
3.5	THE CONTRIBUTION OF PSYCHOLOGY	72
3.5.1	Decision-making and motivation theory	72
3.5.2	Weather, mood and behaviour	73
3.5.3	The role of fashion	75
3.6	CONSUMER CHOICE RESEARCH	76
3.6.1	Validation and coverage	77
3.6.2	Risk and purchase behaviour	78
3.6.3	The concept of 'conspicuous consumption'	80
 CHAPTER FOUR : PRESENTING THE CURRENT STUDY		 82
4.1	CONCEPTUAL DESIGNATION	82
4.1.1	Research objectives	82
4.1.2	Definitions employed	84
4.2	STRUCTURE AND APPROACH	87
4.2.1	The pattern of investigation	87
4.2.2	Research typology	89
4.2.3	Population characteristics; coverage and employment	90
4.2.4	Intermediary linkage and decision-making measures	92
 CHAPTER FIVE : THE ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK		 96
5.1	DATA ACQUISITION	96
5.1.1	Choice of a suitable capture device	96
5.1.2	Questionnaire design	97
5.1.3	Questions and the use of information	99
5.2	SAMPLE DERIVATION	102
5.2.1	The size required	102
5.2.2	Tracing a source	103
5.2.3	Selection procedures	108
5.3	FIELDWORK PRACTICE	111
5.3.1	Questionnaire implementation and administrative strategy	111
5.3.2	Survey execution	112
5.4	THE DATA MATRIX	117
5.4.1	Database preparation	117
5.4.2	Methods of analysis	122
5.4.3	The sample: representation and outline	126
 CHAPTER SIX : HOME-STAYER AND HOLIDAYMAKER		 136
6.1	NON-HOLIDAYMAKERS	136
6.1.1	Identification: profile controls over holiday participation	137
6.1.2	Decision criteria	143

	PAGE	
6.2	INDEPENDENT HOLIDAYMAKERS	147
6.2.1	Separation parameters	147
6.2.2	Decision criteria	157
6.3	THE PACKAGE HOLIDAYMAKER	162
6.3.1	Resumé: descriptive profile and key identification features	162
6.3.2	Preferences for packaged travel	171
 CHAPTER SEVEN : PACKAGE HOLIDAY HABITS		 182
7.1	OVERVIEW	182
7.1.1	Coverage and perspectives on behaviour	182
7.1.2	Data patterns; dissecting the holiday 'mix'	183
7.2	PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE AND PRODUCT FAMILIARITY	194
7.2.1	Resort allegiance	194
7.2.2	Tour operator loyalty	198
7.3	BOOKING BEHAVIOUR	201
7.3.1	Descriptive and explanatory measures	201
7.3.2	Advance booking	202
7.4	THE HOLIDAY PARTY	206
7.4.1	Analysis	206
7.4.2	Size and composition	207
7.5	HOLIDAY SERVICES	208
7.5.1	The main form of transport	208
7.5.2	Accommodation facilities	214
7.6	TEMPORAL ELEMENTS	218
7.6.1	Holiday month	218
7.6.2	Travel duration	222
7.7	BEHAVIOUR WHILST ON HOLIDAY	227
7.7.1	Activities and contact with the host culture	227
7.7.2	Day trip movements	233
7.8	SUMMARY	236
 CHAPTER EIGHT : THE HOLIDAY DESTINATION IN CONTEXT		 241
8.1	DESTINATION PATTERNS	241
8.1.1	Measurement and description	241
8.1.2	Cross-correlation between spatial behaviour measures	250
8.1.3	Integration with holiday habits	253
8.2	THE DESTINATION DECISION	262
8.2.1	Status in overall choice of holiday	262
8.2.2	Measures representing the decision-making process	273
 CHAPTER NINE : THE DESTINATION DECISION AND SPATIAL PATTERNS OF PACKAGE HOLIDAYMAKING		 279
9.1	GUIDELINES FOR ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	279

	PAGE	
9.2	RELATIVE DESTINATION LOCATION	280
9.2.1	Representation	280
9.2.2	Travel time	281
9.2.3	Journey distance	291
9.3	HOLIDAYS AT HOME AND ABROAD	303
9.4	DESTINATION CHARACTERISTICS; ABSOLUTE LOCATION	316
9.4.1	Holidays on the coast and inland	316
9.4.2	Resort qualities	322
9.5	DESTINATION CHOICE AND BEHAVIOUR : AN OVERVIEW	332
 CHAPTER TEN : CONCLUSIONS		 339
10.1	INTRODUCTORY REMARKS	339
10.2	THE OUTCOME OF HYPOTHESIS TESTING	340
10.2.1	Holistic hypothesis	340
10.2.2	Component hypotheses	349
10.2.3	Contextual hypothesis	368
10.3	QUALITATIVE ELEMENTS OF HOLIDAY DECISION-MAKING	372
10.3.1	Risk; manifestation and risk reduction strategies	373
10.3.2	Avoidance mechanisms and the conflict of interests	378
10.3.3	The supply/demand environment	379
10.4	THE APPLICATION OF RESULTS	381
10.4.1	Theoretical issues	381
10.4.2	Practical implications; the package holiday market	384
10.5	FINAL COMMENTS	389
 BIBLIOGRAPHY		 395
 APPENDICES		 440

TABLES

TABLE NO.	TITLE	PAGE
1	Proportion of the U.K. population taking a holiday of four or more nights	22
2	The number of holidays of four or more nights taken by U.K. residents to destinations at home or abroad	24
3	Long haul tourist destinations: the role of independent and packaged travel	26
4	Transport mode and holiday destination (1982)	29
5	Accommodation type and holiday destination (1982)	32
6	Holiday departure dates; home and abroad (1982)	33
7	Holiday destination and average length of stay (1980)	35
8	'Traditional' determinants of tourism participation	48
9	'Traditional' determinants of specific elements of holidaymaking	48
10	Major reasons for not taking a holiday	59
11	The relative importance of destination qualities	61
12	Tourists' use of information sources	63
13	Response rate, interview sample size and the sampling frame population	104
14	Pointer characteristics of Hull and Beverley Boroughs and the six sampling wards	107
15	Household totals and contacts by ward	110
16	Results of the filter survey (after seven sets of calls)	114
17	Target interviews and outcome	117
18	Parent, filter and targetted interview population profiles	127
19	Response and non-response interview sample profiles	128
20	Sample profile: sociodemographic characteristics	129
21	Sample profile: economic characteristics	130

TABLE NO.	TITLE	PAGE
22	Sample profile: qualitative work characteristics	131
23	Sample profile: leisure activities	132
24	Sample profile: holiday life-style measures	133
25	Significant pairwise association amongst sample population characteristics	134
26	Clustered leisure activities and holiday participation	141
27	The relationship between holiday type and work life-style measures	155
28	Recent holiday profiles of independent and package travellers	158
29	Sociodemographic profile of package holiday-makers	164
30	Economic profile of package holidaymakers	165
31	Work life-style profile of package holidaymakers	167
32	Leisure life-style profile of package holiday-makers	167
33	Holiday life-style profile of package holiday-makers	169
34	Decision criteria grouped for correlation tests	175
35	Significant single effects on tour operator loyalty	198
36	Annual holidaymaking frequency and tour operator loyalty	200
37	Air and coach travellers; previous holiday location	212
38	Transport mode and measures of economic well-being	213
39	Accommodation preferences and parameter surrogates for holiday 'careers'	215
40	Individual economic effects on accommodation type	216
41	Holiday month preferences of pensioners and non-pensioners	219
42	Previous holiday life-style and holiday month	222

TABLE NO.	TITLE	PAGE
43	Influences on travel duration	224
44	Age and holiday activities	229
45	Association between home and holiday leisure activities	232
46	Day trip travel as a response to economic controls	233
47	The relationship between age and day trip travel	235
48	Significant linkages between destination measures	251
49	Travel time and journey distance	251
50	Resort proximity and coastal location	252
51	Destination measures and the holiday 'mix'	255
52	Holiday composition and journey distance	256
53	Travel time and holiday duration	257
54	Destination country and holiday duration	258
55	Holiday behaviour of inland and coastal visitors	259
56	Resort allegiance and primary characteristics	261
57	Significant predictors of the primary element of holiday choice	269
58	Age and primary elements of overall holiday choice	271
59	Age and information sources of those travelling for less than 12 hours	284
60	Travel time, desired resort characteristics and the regular annual holidaymaker	288
61	Travel time and economic parameters	290
62	Long haul travellers and their information sources	292
63	Age, journey distance and the number of resorts considered	294
64	Desired resort characteristics and journey distance	295
65	Education, place specificity and journey distance	300
66	Journey distance and income	301
67	Journey distance, income and desired resort characteristics	302

TABLE NO.	TITLE	PAGE
68	Destination country and place specificity	306
69	Destination country and desired resort characteristics	306
70	Destination country and place specificity of individual decision-makers	310
71	Income, information source and the holiday destination	314
72	Three measures of economic well-being, and expressed preference for coastal or inland holiday destinations	319
73	Inland and coastal resorts, and holidaymaker age	320
74	Age, income and resort perception	326
75	Occupation and resort type	328
76	Foreign holiday experience, place specificity and resort type	331

DIAGRAMS

DIAGRAM NO.	TITLE	PAGE
1	Explanatory literature sources and their primary linkages	43
2	Classification of traveller types	46
3	General travel motivation categories and their sources	57
4	An outline of support for the relationship between work and leisure activities	70
5	The hierarchy of definitions used to identify the subject focus	85
6	The location of sampling wards	106
7	Hierarchical structure of the Electoral Register	108
8	The breakdown of filter survey results (after seven sets of calls)	115
9	Outcome of holiday activities cluster analysis	121
10	Outcome of desired resort characteristics cluster analysis	121
11	Outcome of leisure activities cluster analysis	121
12	The family of regression and log-linear analysis techniques	124
13	Primary reasons for not taking a holiday	144
14	Secondary reasons for not taking a holiday	145
15	The relationship between income and holiday type	153
16	Primary reasons for choosing an independent holiday	160
17	Secondary reasons for choosing an independent holiday	161
18	Primary reasons for choosing a package holiday	172
19	Secondary reasons for choosing a package holiday	174

DIAGRAM NO.	TITLE	PAGE
20	Linkage between package holiday habit measures	184
21	Holiday familiarity	185
22	Booking behaviour	187
23	The holiday party; size and composition	188
24	Holiday services; transport and accommodation	189
25	Temporal holiday elements	191
26	Measures of behaviour whilst on holiday	193
27	The relationship between age and transport technology	211
28	Primary themes in the explanation of package holiday habits	237
29	Measured destination patterns	242
30	A percentage polygon of raw travel times	244
31	Concentric distance rings around Hull to the holiday destination	246
32	Primary components of overall holiday choice	264
33	Secondary components of overall holiday choice	265
34	Grouped primary components of the overall holiday decision	268
35	Primary sources of destination information	274
36	Spatial specificity and destination choice	277
37	Desired resort characteristics	278
38	Correlation arrangement and the explanation of spatial package holidaymaking patterns	279
39	Elements in the explanation of travel time	282
40	Elements in the explanation of journey distance	293
41	Elements in the explanation of destination country	304
42	Elements explaining the coastal/inland dichotomy	318

DIAGRAM NO.	TITLE	PAGE
43	Elements in the explanation of resort type	324
44	Destination behaviour and explanatory themes; relative holiday location	333
45	Destination behaviour and explanatory themes; absolute holiday location	334
46	Primary factors in the explanation of holiday participation	341
47	Primary factors in the explanation of holiday type	343
48	Primary factors in the explanation of package holiday habits	345
49	A generalised profile of the package holiday 'career'	363
50	The components of risk, and holidaymaking behaviour	374

APPENDICES

APPENDIX	TITLE	PAGE
1A	Behaviour variables used in analysis	440
1B	Population characteristics used in analysis	442
1C	Decision measures used in analysis	444
2A	The pre-pilot question form	446
2B	The pilot questionnaire form	448
2C	Filter survey classification form	461
2D	Explanatory interview letter	463
2E	The main survey questionnaire form (package holidaymakers)	465
2F	The main survey questionnaire form (non-holidaymakers)	476
2G	The main survey questionnaire form (independent holidaymakers)	482

CHAPTER ONE

A BRIEF HISTORY OF HOLIDAY TRAVEL

1.1 INTRODUCTION

When Pedro Orts, a twenty-nine year old Benidorm - born coalminer, first implemented his plans for a commercial Spanish seaside resort in 1951 (see Pile, 1986:5), it is unlikely he fully realised the new impetus his actions were to give to world tourist traffic. Only now can the implications of his entrepreneurial flair be fully appreciated. As an activity attracting 270 million participants spending 92 billion U.S. dollars every year, and currently enjoying an annual 6% increase in visitor arrivals, tourism has become,

"... one of the largest and fastest-growing world industries and an economic and social phenomenon of major importance."

(Mathieson and Wall, 1982 : 183)

Orts was not, of course, the founder of the holiday trade. Nor should he be lauded as the creator of package holidays, the origins of which lie many years earlier in the mid-nineteenth century. However, by being the first to commercially harness the appeal of the Spanish coast, in particular the drawing power of fine weather and the convenience of tailored accommodation and entertainment facilities, he stamped his identity squarely over what has today become one of the fundamental elements of international tourism; the package holiday. His place in the history of pleasure travel is secured not so much by invention as by application.

Largely on account of the premise established by Orts, there have been numerous and varied developments in the package tour trade over the last three decades. Nonetheless, the package holiday has strong historical roots which must be fully appreciated if its present nature is to be genuinely understood. Clearly, there is neither the need nor the scope here to unravel the history of holidaymaking in detail (for comprehensive accounts see Sigaux, 1966; Pimlott 1976). Instead, it is more valuable to briefly outline the development of tourism in the context of four controlling factors, identified by Holloway (1983 : 23-4) as:

1. Personal enabling conditions
2. Motivation
3. Transport technology
4. Accommodation facilities

Each of these has a direct bearing on the nature of the current package holiday trade. Collectively they provide a tidy means of historical summary. Individually, each acts as a yardstick of change through which the prime developments in tourism pertinent to the emergence of popular package holidaymaking may be charted, and the important themes extracted. They are as follows:

1. Personal Enabling Conditions

Increasing discretionary time and money has encouraged a welcome, if gradual, shift in the nature of tourism. Sectarianism has been replaced by mass, often standardised, participation in pleasure travel.

2. Motivation

Originally for education, health or even rank curiosity, the reasons for holiday travel have consistently erred further towards simple unbridled enjoyment. Indeed, the need to escape the rigors of modern society have become almost universal. Not once has the appeal of the

sea faltered in this function, though in recent times it has commonly been paired with fine weather. These changes have been accompanied by a reformation in attitudes. As an accepted part of life, albeit sometimes taken for granted, the holiday is no longer the luxury item it once was.

3. Transport Technology

As the desire, and means, to take a holiday became more widespread, transport facilities were not slow to react to the new demands made upon them. A succession of technologies (from the stage coach, through the age of the railway, to jet aviation) ensured the increasing number of holidaymakers were transported further, more quickly, in greater comfort and safety, and at a relatively lower cost.

4. Accommodation Facilities

Greater capacity and standardisation are the hallmarks of the changes to tourist accommodation. Through time they have gradually become more closely attuned to the requirements of visitors, culminating in the design and creation of purpose built tourist resorts.

Each of these four factors is used to underscore recurring themes in the following brief history of pleasure travel that help track the evolution of the package holiday.

1.2 THE PERIOD UPTO 1840

1.2.1 Travel in Ancient History

Like so many great trading activities, tourism has its roots

laid firmly in the history of mankind. Homer's 'Odyssey' records the wanderlust of the Greeks for both domestic and foreign destinations (see Robinson, 1976:3). Many Greek citizens travelled to spas, festivals and athletic events: individual travellers from all over Europe and the Middle East congregated to see the Olympic Games of 776 B.C. (Young, 1973:9). Travel in this period, however, was largely restricted to eminent citizens and academics, with both the time and the resources to participate. It was indeed a minority pursuit.

The first instances of 'collective' tourism emerged under the stability offered by the Roman Empire. Parties of Roman citizens often journeyed for pleasure - a marked contrast to the rather idiosyncratic individual wanderings of their travelling forbears. This can be largely attributed to the comprehensive communication network that spanned the Roman Empire (McIntosh, 1977: 9). The origin of the habitual 'summer holiday' may well be traced to this era, for many Romans changed their place of residence during the summer months (Sigaux, 1966: 11).

After the collapse of the Roman Empire, both domestic and foreign travel declined in the face of political instability and the scourge of roaming Barbarians. As the threat to personal safety increased, and as communications fell into a state of disrepair, pleasure travel dwindled into obscurity. Throughout the Middle Ages, travel in Europe was largely on account of warfare. Only those of high rank could undertake journeys in reasonable comfort (Sigaux, 1966: 16), though rarely did these fortunate few venture beyond the security of familiar territory. Decades later however, these constraints were to lift, thereby heralding a resurgence in pleasure travel.

1.2.2 Renaissance revival and the Grand Tour

Following intermittent recovery throughout the Renaissance period, continental travel during Stuart and Hanoverian times was stimulated by two factors; the intellectual atmosphere of the Restoration period, and widespread peace following the Utrecht Settlement of 1713 (Pimlott, 1947: 68). The eighteenth century became the era of the Grand Tour, reaching its peak in the 1770's and 1780's. They were an exclusive activity. Served by the horse and carriage, progress was often as dignified as the type of accommodation frequently used, which included the grand palaces of royalty and the aristocracy residing in some of Europe's finest cities. Undertaken in a rather elegant fashion, and with a great sense of style, the Grand Tour attracted the patronage of the upper classes and landed elite (Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 4). Indeed, only those blessed with substantial wealth, and granted the freedom to spend much of their time at their own discretion, could afford to participate. Grandiose, and sometimes ostentatious, the Grand Tour was a pleasure exclusive to the select few, and beyond the contemplation of the many.

Education is frequently cited as the motivation behind these tours, though this seems unlikely in view of travellers' attitudes towards continental culture. Rarely were Grand Tourists sympathetic to foreign languages and ideas, whilst often fault was found with what was French simply because it wasn't English (Pimlott, 1976: 70). Indeed, Andrews (1784: 2) provides a contemporary glimpse of their motives by remarking that,

"Amusement and dissipation are their principal, and often their only, views."

However, it is important to realise that these English travellers, for more than two centuries familiar figures on the continent, were instrumental in the transformation of Mediterranean fishing villages, Swiss mountain villages and German mineral spring settlements into cosmopolitan resorts (Pimlott, 1976: 65). Continental travel, as it appears today, owes a great deal to the era of the Grand Tour (Robinson, 1976: 11).

During these years, tourism was not only restricted to foreign lands. Much travel was also taken within the British Isles, a large proportion of which rested on the eighteenth century development of inland spa towns.

1.2.3 Spa town and seaside

Spa towns and early seaside resorts prospered on account of their medical facilities. The reputed curative effects of fresh mineral and salt water had first been popularised by Dr. Richard Russell in his noted medical treatise (see Russell, 1752). Once again, the only beneficiaries of these findings were the wealthy, many of whom sought replenishment at a growing number of spa and seaside centres. Accordingly, fashionable resorts prospered, in particular Bath (Pimlott, 1976: 44), Buxton and Tunbridge Wells (Robinson, 1976: 7).

Thus, belief in the curative powers of salt water established the vogue of holidaymaking by the sea (Newman, 1973: 231). The forces of fashion once more prompted demand for particular seaside spas, especially those frequented by Royalty; the Prince of Wales visited Brighton in 1783 and

1784, and Southend became host to Princess Charlotte in 1801. The wealthy were quick to effect the prestigious gains to be enjoyed by taking breaks in similar resorts. By this time, however, the advantages of accessibility were gradually being realised. Increasingly, Royalty became responsible for only transitory deflections in the stream of fashion. Coastline resorts close to large urban centres began to flourish, particularly those served by navigable waterways in addition to coach routes. The growth of Margate and Ramsgate is a prime example, for both benefitted from the link with the City of London provided by the River Thames. The number of visitors brought by boat to these two resorts rose from 17,000 in 1812/13 to 106,000 in 1835/36 (Duffield and Walker, 1979: 62).

Inland and seaside spa towns therefore mark the first clear-cut association between the Englishman on holiday, and access to water facilities, even if prompted originally by medical motives. Mowat (1932: 70), for example, refers to eighteenth century England as,

"An Age of watering places."

By the 1830's many inland spa towns were prospering (Pimlott, 1976: 100), and seaside spas were in ascendancy. Their clientele remained firmly restricted to the upper echelons of society. Nowhere is this more vividly portrayed than in the elegant and lavish resorts of the period - a far cry from their Victorian successors - though already there were warning signs of an event which was to change the face of pleasure travel (particularly its facilities and the people it benefitted). However, though widespread, not once did these changes ever threaten to diminish the Englishman's apparent fascination with water.

1.3 1840 TO THE INTER-WAR YEARS

1.3.1 Pleasure travel and the Industrial Revolution

Industrialisation consequent on the Industrial Revolution had profound implications for pleasure travel. One of these was the creation of new concentrations of urban population (Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 6). The Census of 1861 recorded, for the first time, an excess of urban over rural population (Pimlott, 1976: 141). As the industrial conurbation became both the workplace and homestead, so demand intensified for periodic escape back to the freer, quieter and more salubrious surroundings with which people had hitherto been familiar (Young, 1973: 17). The leisurely programme of agricultural life was replaced by the relentless monotony of factory routine, further prompting the desire to periodically escape from the rigors of everyday life. In short, felt need (and therefore demand) for pleasure travel increased in response to the new style of living imposed by the Industrial Revolution. This marked a major shift in the motives for pleasure travel, away from the rather restricted appeal of educational or medical factors, towards a more universal and fundamental human instinct; the need for a break from the everyday environment, and the desire for fresh surroundings.

Closely tied to these changes was the increasing ability of a greater share of the population to take a break from work. Out of the new industrial towns and cities grew a prosperous middle class of fundholders and financial intermediaries with wealth not committed to the land. This was accompanied by the emergence of a true urban proletariat (Pimlott, 1976: 74), the cumulative effect of which was to create a ready market for

tourism travel (Lickorish, 1966 : 167, Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 6).

Thus, the Industrial Revolution achieved more than a simple broadening of the travel horizons of the wealthy. It ensured the benefits were also relayed to those of lower social standing, largely on account of Victorian concern with the psychological effects of urbanisation and the quality of life, together with a shift in attitudes that saw the holiday treated more as a necessity than as a luxury.

Much of the increased demand for pleasure travel was fuelled by the working classes and the growing financial resources at their command. This was partnered by an increase in the number of paid holidays from work. A major breakthrough was achieved by Sir John Lubbock's Holiday Act of 1871, which offered four annual public holidays (Robinson, 1976: 19). During the 1860's an annual fortnight's holiday with pay for professional people and the newly emergent white-collar class became increasingly commonplace (Myerscough, 1974: 8). By 1900 such privileges were enjoyed by better paid manual workers, and under continual pressure by strengthening trade unions, were extended to many labourers by the outbreak of the First World War.

The Industrial Revolution therefore had a profound effect on pleasure travel, not least in its role as the propagator of social conditions conducive towards 'mass tourism'. For the first time in history, pleasure travel became a genuinely 'popular' activity. This was the culmination of many factors, including the increased perception of a need for 'escape', rising incomes in society, more leisure time and a marked shift in attitudes towards travel. Though each of these meant a greater number of people were both willing, and able, to take a holiday, none of their

benefits could have been realised without simultaneous developments in transport technology that actually made feasible the widespread enjoyment of pleasure travel.

1.3.2 Transport technology : The Age of coal and steam

Invention and application of the steam engine was one of the major features of the Industrial Revolution, particularly the creation of the steam locomotive. After 1850 the railways were the engine of development for tourism (Sigaux, 1966: 81, Lickorish, 1970: 167), both domestically, and on the continent through links provided by the steamship. Between 1840 and 1902 the number of passengers crossing the English Channel rose tenfold (Young, 1973: 18). The railways made travel quicker, cheaper and easier than when speed was restricted to that of a horse. They were also sufficiently cheap to make possible the 'escape' sought by the growing urban masses (Holloway, 1983: 28). In the hands of transport technology lay the key to wholesale participation in pleasure travel, for without the invention of the steam locomotive the movement of large numbers of people would not have been possible.

Hardly a leisure activity escaped the influence of the railway. Indeed, the family holiday was largely an outcome of travel by rail (Myerscough, 1974: 14). This owed a great deal to the emergence of excursion trains. Initially, rail travel was very expensive, but as the networks grew, so railway companies were eager to generate income from every possible source. This they did by introducing special excursion trains, which both met, and generated further, the demand for cheap travel. Within eight

months of the opening of the pioneer Liverpool and Manchester Railway in September 1830, an excursion train was run to Liverpool for the Bennett Street Sunday School in Manchester (Patmore, 1983: 32). Other lines quickly followed. Collectively, excursion trains moved far greater numbers of people than previously had been possible. Brighton, for example, received 117,000 visitors in 1835, the heyday of the coaching trade. In 1850 the railways carried 73,000 travellers to Brighton in a single week (Gilbert, 1954: 152).

Though slow and uncomfortable, and indeed sometimes unsafe, excursion trains were immensely popular. By making travel relatively cheap they not only touched nearly all levels of society, but they also made family travel affordable. The family day trip to the seaside became commonplace, particularly where the railways forged a practical link between urban centres and the coast. Indeed, more than that, the railways often delineated resort hinterlands (Patmore, 1983: 45). As such, they were instrumental in the mushroom development of the traditional English seaside resort.

1.3.3 Growth of the English seaside resort

The growing holiday hordes were transported by the railways to the seaside resorts most accessible to the urban centres from where they came. Along the Fylde coast, Blackpool and Fleetwood served the towns and cities of North Lancashire and the West Riding of Yorkshire (Robinson, 1976: 15). Scarborough fulfilled an equally important role on the East coast of Yorkshire, whilst further south, Brighton flourished owing to its

proximity to London. Rarely was an opportunity missed to prosper from the demand for seaside holidays. To cater for the growing number of visitors, rows of terraced boarding houses, offering functional family accommodation at a reasonable cost, were constructed in the matrix of large Victorian hotels. By 1900 over 60 seaside resorts were officially listed (Robinson, 1976: 14). More than 1/5th of the population took a staying trip to the seaside each year by 1911, with many more making daily excursions (see Myerscough, 1974: 14).

Towards the end of the nineteenth century the reasons for visiting the seaside were transformed. During the 1870's the sea became valued as an object of contemplation and recreation. Gradually the beach became a focus for the Victorian family as the seaside rose in social value (Patmore, 1983: 43). No longer was the beach the prerogative of the traveller in search of medical replenishment. Facilities aimed squarely at the family on holiday were built close to the beach, the most obvious today being the grand Victorian pier.

It must be stressed that during this time the appeal of the coast lay primarily in the fresh sea air, though sea bathing was quick to find popularity. The holiday experience must have invariably been an invigorating one! It was only during the 1890's that these attributes began to be paired with the desire for sunshine and warm weather (see Holloway, 1983: 31). Indeed, the climatic imperative gained significance in its own right, as an important element of any holiday. This triggered renewed interest in foreign travel, particularly to the Swiss Alps and the French Riviera (Pimlott, 1976: 197). Despite the invaluable assistance provided by numerous noted travel guides (those of Karl Baedeker and

Michelin are good examples), travellers became increasingly aware of the difficulties of organising and booking such trips in advance. As the demand for travel rose, so too did the demands placed on accommodation and travel services. Holiday arrangements had to be made in advance. It was under these increasingly complex circumstances that the notion of agents to handle people's travel requirements was first realised. Inevitably, as agents themselves felt the pressures of increasing participation in tourism, so they turned to a form of travel precipitated 60 years earlier by the advent of the railways; the package holiday.

1.3.4 Origin and development of the package holiday

There is still debate as to the effective originator of package holidays. Holloway (1983: 29) attributes this to Sir Rowland Hill, later Chairman of the London and Brighton Railway Company. There is wider support for the view that the laurel belongs to Thomas Cook. On 5th July, 1841, he organised his first tour, inclusive of travel and accommodation, from Leicester to a temperance demonstration at Loughborough (Young, 1973: 20; Turner and Ash, 1975: 51; Pimlott, 1976: 91; McIntosh, 1977: 7), based on the Benthamite principle of,

"... the greatest benefit for the greatest number at the lowest cost."

(Turner and Ash, 1975: 52)

The first inclusive tours were clearly closely attuned to the services of the railways. Four year later, Cook offered a further tour from Liverpool to Caernarvon (Thomson, 1978: 15), and by 1855 operated the first foreign package tour (Holloway, 1983: 29). This four day rail tour to the Paris

Exhibition cost just 36/- (Young, 1973: 21), and was rightly regarded as,

"... an event in the history of railway travel."

(Manchester Guardian, 1855)

Such tours were a major step towards enabling ordinary men and women to travel on the continent. Cook extended his tours, to Italy in 1863 (Pimlott, 1976: 192) and to America three years later (see Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 15). Imitators soon followed, alert to the commercial possibilities of affordable foreign travel. As wealth in society increased, and railways were constantly improved, so the number and variety of tours offered by an increasing number of operators widened. Thomas Bennett, in serving as Secretary to the British Consul-General in Oslo, organised scenic all-inclusive tours to Norway (McIntosh, 1977: 7). The group of such entrepreneurs was a growing one; Swinglehurst (1974: 174-9) provides a detailed account of the tours of many, including Crisp, Gaze, Frame, Hogg, Dean and Dawson.

The effects of package holidays on pleasure travel were profound. By the end of the nineteenth century Cook had,

"... effected a revolution in tourism."

(Turner and Ash, 1975: 59)

The growing number of agents handling peoples' holiday requirements were quick to realise the solutions offered by package holidays in the face of increasingly competitive and complex booking arrangements. Fortunately for them, the foreign tour was still beyond the reach of the lower classes, most of whom still took to the U.K. seaside. Early package tours mostly benefitted the middle and upper - middle classes (see Thomson, 1978: 18). However, just as the early foreign tours gathered momentum, so

the hostilities of 1914 and the First Great War effectively ended pleasure travel in Europe. The Depression and hardship subsequently suffered had a largely restrictive effect on tourism, which showed no signs of wholesale revival until after the conclusion of the Second World War. During this time, tourism (particularly in the 1920's) reverted back to the pleasures of the relatively wealthy, though selectivity was not as pronounced as during the era of the Grand Tour. Rail travel on the continent was fostered by railway companies, in particular the Southern Railway. The inter-war years also saw the first fare - paying scheduled air trip between London and Paris, in August 1919, though its high cost (six times that of the railway) and low comfort militated against significant growth (Patmore, 1983: 38). Widespread use of aircraft, together with plentiful opportunities for foreign travel for nearly all members of society, had to wait until the peacetime following the Second World War.

1.4 WORLD WAR TWO AND AFTER; THE YEARS OF GROWING PROSPERITY

1.4.1 The diffusion of paid leave and transport technology

The post - war period witnessed a spectacular rise in the number of people taking a holiday, largely due to relative wage increases and more paid leave from work. The Holidays with Pay Act of 1938 proposed power to wage - regulating authorities (Pimlott, 1976: 221), thereby ensuring for the first time that paid holidays were enjoyed by the majority of British workers (see Myerscough, 1974: 8). By granting more time for leisure without a loss in income, this encouraged many more people to take a holiday.

Set in this context of increasing participation, the Second World War instigated a change in peoples' holiday patterns, particularly their choice of destination. This it did by heightening awareness, interest and curiosity in foreign countries (Holloway, 1983: 35). Common perception of unfamiliar places was no longer so parochial. This prompted a new demand for foreign travel, met largely by the application of air technology learnt rapidly during the Second World War. Many wartime aircraft were in fact employed for civilian use. During the 1950's, prop-engined aircraft transported increasing numbers of people to foreign countries. It was, however, the introduction of the jet engine that revolutionised civilian air transport by offering faster, larger, more efficient and more comfortable aircraft. Several years after the abortive and tragic early experiences of the British - made Comet, the Boeing 707 was one of the first civilian jet aircraft to successfully reach production. By the mid 1960's, the 707 was a familiar sight in international airports around the world.

The advent of jet aviation encouraged people to travel further (see Lundberg, 1972: 73). Though the transatlantic ocean liners were effective mass carriers, the number of air passengers crossing the Atlantic exceeded the number opting for sea travel, for the first time, in 1957 (Young, 1973: 28-9). North American tourists began flooding over to Europe. A contrary flow of Europeans led to the growth of the Caribbean tourist industry. Meanwhile, within Europe itself, jet travel placed many miles of Mediterranean coastline within a few hours reach of all the developed countries of Western Europe. By doing so, jet aviation shattered the tidy mutual association that had built up for over a century between the U.K. railway network and traditional seaside resorts - an association that had not only encouraged the wholesale development of

seaside towns and their facilities (for example, Newquay and Blackpool), but which had also fostered special developments aimed squarely at the family market, the most noticeable being Billy Butlin's holiday camps in locations accessible to large concentrations of the working classes (Clacton and Filey are good examples). This is not to say that jet aviation caused a wholesale and immediate switch from domestic to Mediterranean resorts (although subsequent developments were to greatly influence this destination balance). Indeed, the growth of Mediterranean traffic cannot be attributed exclusively to air travel, for cost alone would have prevented this. However, whilst domestic seaside resorts soldiered on, tour operators were quick to realise the enormous potential of air travel. Fiscal restrictions on holiday currency spurred operators to provide ingenious, economical packages that did much to make them financially possible for large segments of society not conditioned to making individual arrangements, but drawn by the prospect of holidays abroad. By doing so, tour operators heralded in a new era of pleasure travel that transformed the holiday habits of millions.

1.4.2 Air transport and evolution of the package holiday product

Vladimir Raitz, a Russian émigré educated at the London School of Economics, organised his first air tour to Calvi (Corsica) in 1950, under the banner of Horizon Holidays. He is generally accredited with pioneering package holidays by air (Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 181, Holloway, 1983: 36). During his first year Raitz carried only 300 passengers, though he successfully repeated his experiment in the following years, mainly to Majorca, Sardinia and mainland Spain (Turner and Ash 1975: 96; Thomson, 1978: 20). Many of his competitors rapidly

adopted air transport (first prop-engined aircraft, then jets of ever-increasing carrying capacity). By the mid 1960's mass-market package holidays by air were a major phenomenon of the European tourist industry. Tourist developments, especially on the Spanish mainland and Balearic Islands, were quick to respond. Following the lead of Pedro Orts in Benidorm, facilities were rapidly constructed not only to accommodate the large number of visitors (both efficiently and at a reasonable cost) but also to provide for their enjoyment and entertainment. Other Mediterranean countries quickly followed suit, notably Greece and Italy.

The package holiday abroad had thus undergone a major transition. During the inter-war years most foreign tours were aimed up-market, and were characterised by their restricted volume and exotic schedules (flying boat trips to Egypt, weekends in fashionable Le Touquet and visits to the French Riviera during Carnival time are just a few examples). The majority of package holidays sold in the 1960's were barely comparable, tapping instead the enormous demand for holidays in sunny, warm locations, offering good value and straightforward entertainment facilities. The joint development of air transport and package holidays thus saw the extension of foreign travel to,

"... those sections of society for whom Cook had envisaged the benefits of his railway journeys."

(Swinglehurst, 1974: 189)

At long last the holiday abroad became a realistic goal for most members of society (see Thomson, 1978: 18). Whilst the number of sea passengers from the U.K. to Western Europe increased from 1.51 million to 1.88 million between 1963 and 1971, the number of air passengers rose from 1.24 million to 3.09 million (see Department of Trade and Industry, 1972). Of these

air passengers, the proportion taking a package tour rose from 51% to 80% during the same period. In 1963, 630,000 package holidays by air were taken in Europe from the U.K. By 1971 this figure had increased fourfold (Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 173). Meanwhile, the number of independent journeys by air remained static.

Clearly, the advent of cheap air transport and the package tour was a major influence on holiday habits (Patmore, 1983: 38). The phenomenal success of inclusive air tours was largely due to the combined effects of the inherent attributes of the package holiday product, and a market eager to reap the benefits on offer.

The advantages of package tours were numerous. Their all-inclusive price meant they were particularly good value. They were nearly always far cheaper than the cost of travel and accommodation services bought separately (Thomson, 1978: 3-4; Robinson, 1976 : 113). The major cost breakthrough was made in the 1960's when airlines realised that tour operators could fill empty seats. This led to reduced rates for operators on scheduled journeys (ITX fares). Eventually tour operators were given the option of 'chartering' entire aircraft, thereby achieving a major reduction in unit travel costs (these were known as ITC fares), a system still prevalent today. The only provision to protect scheduled flight operations was held in Resolution 045 of the International Air Transport Association, which stated that the total price of an inclusive tour should not undercut the minimum scheduled fare to the same destination (Robinson, 1976: 111). Given this leeway, it is not surprising that charter flights flourished.

The package holiday partnered its cost advantage with convenience (see Lundberg, 1972: 94). A single purchase secured all the essential elements constituting the holiday - a major factor according to Askari (1971), and one that furthered the perceived value of package tours. On top of this, the package holiday brought a near-guarantee of fine weather to all travellers who hitherto had previously made do with the vagaries of the English summer. This was a telling factor (see Jordan and Sons 1982: IV). Warmth and sunshine were no longer a bonus for the family holiday by the sea; they were now a prerogative. This was the cornerstone of the sun/sea/sand formula that has served the package holiday trade for over two decades.

The market itself was ready to take these opportunities. The extension of paid leave from work meant the holiday became a resilient item on the household budget (Guitart, 1982), for people had the time to travel. Increasing wealth in society created a market eager to improve living standards after years of austerity immediately following the Second World War (Holloway, 1983: 51). The package holiday offered a convenient 'escape', both for fun and for pleasure, that was readily accepted.

Thus, there seems little doubt that the well-matched characteristics of supply and demand account for the extraordinary post-war growth of package holidays by air. This development marks the culmination in the evolution of popular holidaymaking. Each of the four factors highlighted at the start of this chapter lend their own interpretation to the history of increasing participation in pleasure travel; the availability of more discretionary time and money, the universal need to escape for enjoyment rather than the select appeal of educational or medical trips, a

succession of technologies each transporting more passengers further, more quickly, in more comfort and at a relatively lower cost, and the emergence of increasingly efficient, standardised and down-to-earth accommodation offering, above all, value for money.

These are the main characteristics of mass tourism. Although demand for package holidays continues to rise, albeit less dramatically than before, the great wave of increasing participation in tourism, particularly to foreign countries, has in recent years given way to changes more in the nature than in the scale of the package holiday trade.

CHAPTER TWO
CONTEMPORARY PACKAGE HOLIDAYMAKING

2.1 TOURISM TRENDS AND THE ROLE OF THE PACKAGE TOUR

2.1.1 Participation

Overall, the proportion of the population taking a holiday has altered little in the last twenty years, as table 1 clearly shows.

Table 1 : Proportion of the U.K. population taking a holiday of four or more nights

YEAR	% TAKING A HOLIDAY
1966	56
1970	59
1972	62
1974	62
1976	61
1978	61
1980	62
1982	59

(Tourism Planning and Research Associates
estimates, in Devas, 1985)

Conversely, there has been a steady rise in the number of trips taken each year, from 41 million in 1971 to 48 million in 1983 (British Tourist Authority - sourced figures, in Devas, 1985). Thus, whilst the proportion of the population taking a holiday seems to have stabilised, those individuals undertaking such trips clearly do so more often.

A word of caution is needed here, however, concerning the definitions used

for such analysis. Wherever possible a holiday is defined as 'a pleasure or general interest trip for reasons other than business or specific visits to family and friends, lasting four nights or more'.

Terminological slackness throughout tourism literature prevents indiscriminate adoption of such a definition. Though this problem is discussed more fully in the following chapter, this definition is used wherever possible throughout this thesis.

Wahab (1975: 95) remarks that the greater number of people currently taking a package holiday is reflected in the generally higher levels of holidaymaking. It is perhaps more accurate to suggest that in recent years the package holiday has contributed more towards a rise in the number of holiday trips undertaken than to the proportion of the population taking a holiday. In 1982 the number of inclusive tours taken rose by 11% (Senior, 1983: 11), a trend that has largely continued. In 1985, Harry Chandler (President of the Tour Operators Study Group) predicted that the holiday market would increase by 10% in 1986 (Travel News, 1985: 37).

This suggests that the development of the package holiday in recent years has failed to extend the habit of holidaymaking to that proportion of the population not taking a holiday, although it may well have acted as a means by which currently active tourists travel more often. The quite dramatic growth of tour operating in the 1960's has more recently slowed, such that current trends in package holidaymaking are more closely attuned (at least in terms of participation) to general trends in tourism. Nowhere is this more apparent than in the synchronised short term fluctuations of the two activities. The 3% fall in international

passenger arrivals suffered in 1974 over 1973 (see Devas, 1985) coincides with a similar decline in British tourism (Guitart, 1982), much of which can be drawn against the 22% fall in air passengers to the Mediterranean and the collapse of the Court Line package tour organisation in the midst of the early 1970's World Oil Crisis and recession.

2.1.2 Destination patterns

One of the most striking features of tour operation in the last decade has been its distinct contribution towards the rise in holidays taken abroad. There is little doubt that this growth has been at the expense of domestic holidaymaking, given the increase in the number of holidays taken overall. This is clearly demonstrated in table 2 below.

Table 2: The number of holidays of four or more nights taken by UK residents to destinations at home or abroad.

YEAR	NO. OF HOLIDAYS (MILLIONS)		
	Domestic	Abroad	Total
1965	30.0	5.0	35.0
1967	30.0	5.0	35.0
1970	34.5	5.75	40.25
1975	40.0	8.0	48.0
1980	46.5	12.0	58.5
1982	32.5	14.25	46.75

(British Tourist Authority, 1983b: 49)

Indeed, whilst the number of holidays abroad doubled between 1971 and 1983, the number of domestic holidays remained the same (Gratton and Taylor, 1985). Though only 35% of U.K. adults in 1971 had been abroad on holiday at some time, this proportion had risen to 62% by 1983 (Central Statistical Office, 1985). A large part of this change has been engineered through the package holiday market. The share of inclusive tours for all visits abroad rose from 32% to 36% between 1977 and 1981

(Senior, 1983: 28), whilst the five year period prior to 1982 witnessed a fivefold increase in the number of inclusive tours taken abroad (Senior, 1983: 8). Holloway (1983: 71) claims that currently one half of all British tourists travelling abroad do so on package tours, an outcome of the extremely competitive U.K. tour operating industry (see English Tourist Board, 1974b: 9).

The exact nature of the package holiday's contribution towards foreign tourism is clarified if destination patterns are investigated further. Three distinctive features emerge; the growth of 'long haul' holiday travel, the channelling function of tour operating on tourism destination trends (see Mathieson and Wall, 1982: 18), and the introduction of instability to tourist flow patterns. Each is considered in turn.

One of the most noticeable elements of U.K.-sourced tourism during the 1970's was the increase in long haul travel, particularly the significant increase in visitors to America between 1976 and 1982 (British Tourist Authority, 1982c: 7). This is due to two interrelated factors. The value of the U.S. dollar relative to the pound made holidays to the States relatively cheap, reflected in the rush of English holidaymakers to Florida. This provided opportunities seized more effectively by packaged travel than independent travel; whilst the number of independent visits to America increased threefold between 1976 and 1982, the number of package holidays escalated by a factor of ten (see British Tourist Authority, 1983b: 34). Given favourable exchange rates, package holidays thus further encouraged long haul travel. Due to currency differences the trend for Canada is similar if not nearly so pronounced, whilst quite often a reverse trend represents other long haul destinations, owing

their rise in U.K. patronage to 'independent' holidaymakers (see table 3)

Table 3: Long haul tourist destinations : the role of independent and packaged travel

DESTINATION	FACTOR INCREASE IN VISITS, 1976 - 82	
	Independent travel	Package holidays
N. America	2.9	13.0
Middle East	1.7	3.4
N. Africa	1.8	1.3
S. Africa	1.8	1.0
Japan	7.0	2.0
Commonwealth Caribbean	1.9	3.1
Latin America	1.8	2.0
Australia	4.7	*
New Zealand	2.0	*

* Not computed since below 500,000 visitors

(Derived from British Tourist Authority, 1983b: 34)

In general therefore, the rise in long haul travel has been effected simultaneously, and in broadly equal proportion, by independent and package tour travel alike. Exceptions to this rule are the Commonwealth Caribbean, the Middle East and North America, particularly the U.S.A. This ably demonstrates the channelling effect of tour operating on destination trends.

This may be further illustrated by reference to individual Western European countries (all the following cited percentages are based on data from the British Tourist Authority, 1983b: 34). For all tourist trips in 1976, Spain was the most popular destination (35% of U.K. visitor arrivals to Western Europe), followed by France (23%), Italy (9%) and then Greece (5%). Amongst independent travellers only, however, France is by far the most common destination (39% of such arrivals). Thus the relative popularity of Spain (including both the mainland and the Balearic Islands) as a destination for all types of tourist is on account of its dominance

of the package holiday market; in 1976, 49% of all package tours to Western Europe were taken in Spain, over five times as many visitors as the next most popular destination (Italy). The spatial concentration of the package tourist on holiday in the mid 1970's is clearcut indeed. Since then the market share enjoyed by Spain has fallen (to 1/3 in 1982), largely as a consequence of the rise in popularity of Greece, Portugal, Yugoslavia and France, and the value of the peseta in a very price-conscious market. Between 1976 and 1982 the proportion of U.K. package holidaymakers visiting Greece rose from 3% to 11%, whilst Portugal witnessed a rise to 5% from under 2%, and France from 9% to 14%. Although these gains were made largely at the expense of Spain, the latter remains a particularly powerful magnet for the U.K. package holidaymaker. Of the 15 million U.K. holiday trips abroad in 1983, 5.1 million were to Spain, and indeed 2.0 million to one resort - Benidorm (Devas, 1985). Marked destination concentration is a key characteristic of the modern-day package holiday trade; the package holidaymaker abroad is far more likely to be funnelled into densely-visited regions than the independent traveller, many of whom are thinly diffused over a wider area. Nonetheless, the concentration of package holiday destinations is most accurately represented not by Spain alone, but by a handful of particularly popular locations. According to the British Market Research Bureau, in 1985 these were:

1. Corfu
2. Crete
3. Paris
4. Benidorm (Spain)
5. Tenerife (other than Las Palmas and Gran Canaria)
6. Rhodes
7. Gran Canaria/Las Palmas
8. San Antonio (Spain - Balearic Islands)
9. Magaluf (Spain)
10. Salou (Spain)

(Travel News, 1985: 37)

Not unsurprisingly, the package holiday market in recent years has thus witnessed short-term fluctuations in destination preferences. The see-saw struggle for market share between Spain and its main competitors has been a major element of tour operator activity since 1976, when both France and Greece increased in popularity (see Jordan and Sons, 1982: III). Indeed, variation in package holiday destination patterns may even occur annually, since this is a function of the supply of package holidays, over which a great deal of control is exercised. Re-scheduling of programmes by tour operators may initiate wholesale changes in destination patterns. The assertion made by Williams and Zelinsky (1970) that there is much year to year stability in tourist flow patterns therefore seems invalid in the context of recent package holidaymaking to Western Europe. It may well be, however, that such continuity can be identified for other aspects of the holiday.

2.1.3 Service elements

The service elements of a holiday largely amount to transport mode and accommodation. One of the most noticeable features of holiday travel in the last decade is the continuing dominance of air transportation. This varies according to the holiday destination, as illustrated on table 4, and is clearly tied to the growth of foreign travel.

Table 4: Transport mode and holiday destination (1982)

MAIN MODE OF TRANSPORT	% OF TRIPS	
	HOME	ABROAD+
Airplane	1	68
Own Car	66	14
Hire Car	2	-
Train	12	4
Scheduled Bus	8	2
Coach Tour	6	9
Other	5	3
TOTAL	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>

+ Trips abroad include boats and hovercraft

(Devas, 1985: table 51)

The increasingly widespread ownership of private motor vehicles accounts for the dominance of domestic travel by car.

Package holiday travel is almost entirely responsible for the equivalent domination of journeys to foreign destinations by air. Between 1976 and 1981 the number of passengers carried by air, both to and from the U.K., rose by only 31% for scheduled services compared to 49% for inclusive tours (see Senior, 1983: 37). Similarly, the number of air inclusive tours from the U.K. rose by 36% between 1979 and 1982 (see Senior, 1983: 93). The source of growth in international air holiday transport is clearly easy to identify.

Within the last few years however, the actual number of package holidays sold has increased, thereby providing the opportunity for market share gains by other means of transport. Of these, coach travel has generated the greatest increase in passenger loads. In 1970 only a very small number of foreign holidays were motor coach packages (Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 183). Between 1977 and 1980, however, their share of the overseas package holiday market rose from 3% to 5%, involving an increase in the

number of coach passengers from 75,000 to 200,000 (Key Note, 1983: 10). This expansion has been maintained, and currently the organised coach tour acts as a popular entry level for people venturing abroad for the first time (Devas, 1985). Only the railways provide a practical alternative for domestic inclusive tours, though they are neither as convenient nor as flexible. Indeed, the coach tour has become the mainstay of domestic package holidays.

Parallel developments have occurred in the accommodation sector (for tourism in general). Accommodation standards have risen and the popularity of self-catering arrangements has increased (Holloway, 1983: 67-8). The trend towards self-catering holidays, predicted up until 1990 by Lickorish (1985), is countrywide, and is one that has altered the traditional structure of the U.K. accommodation sector. The Yorkshire seaside coast, for example, has seen a contraction of hotel and guest house capacity as properties have been converted to self-catering use (English Tourist Board, 1974b: 61). This has in turn determined the decline of many grand hotels, themselves rather fine legacies from the Victorian era of travel. Associated with self-catering, and one of the fastest growing sectors of foreign holiday accommodation, is time-sharing. This originally allowed those taking holidays in self-catering accommodation the opportunity to 'buy' a specific week in the year in a holiday property, for any number of years. Evolution has ensured that time-sharing is now a much more flexible holiday option: scheme members may now swap locations or weeks with other members. Many such properties can be found along the Mediterranean coast, in Florida and amongst the Caribbean Islands (Key Note, 1983: 11). More recently, schemes have been set up in the U.K., including North Wales and the English Lake District. In such locations there is in fact evidence of a further trend; the use of

second homes as holiday accommodation. However, this has little effect on mainstream holiday patterns since, in 1982 at least, only 7% of higher income U.K. households (and a much lower proportion of all households) possessed a second home in the U.K. Only 3% owned equivalent properties abroad.

The inclusive tour industry has been fairly slow to adopt the principle of self-catering accommodation. Between 1960 and 1970 the number of U.K. travellers abroad staying in hotel accommodation rose, largely due to the widespread use of hotels by tour operators; particularly in Spain (see Instituto Espanol de Turismo, 1984). Indeed, relatively cheap half board hotel accommodation became a mainstay element of mainstream package holiday offerings during the 1970's. Within the last decade however, tour operators have made increasing use of self-catering accommodation (Senior, 1983: 8), often in an attempt to keep holiday costs down (Jordan and Sons, 1982: VII). Rosenberg (1985: 15) regards the enthusiastic adoption of such facilities by the U.K. package holidaymaker as an indication of the greater value recently attached to holidays offering novelty, freedom and a little more in the way of adventure. In strict contrast to the pioneering function of tour operating and air transportation however, it is unlikely that the package holiday will ever be identified as a disciple of self-catering accommodation. Although such facilities have been skillfully applied to the package holiday product, hotel accommodation is still more widely used. After all, the benefits to be gained from serviced accommodation have much in common with the advantages of packaged travel. This accounts for the different accommodation preferences of domestic and foreign holidaymakers (table 5).

Table 5: Accommodation type and holiday destination (1982)

TYPE OF ACCOMMODATION	% OF TRIPS	
	HOME	ABROAD
Hotel/motel	19	57
Guest house	9	4
Friends/relatives	26	21
Rented house/flat	13	13
Camping	5	6
Caravanning	19	3
Holiday camp	6	1
Other	8	8
TOTAL	<u>100+</u>	<u>100+</u>

+ note these figures do not sum to 100% because more than one type of accommodation may be used on a single trip.

(Devas, 1985: table 5.2)

The destination, however, is not the only component of the holiday that might influence accommodation type. Other factors requiring consideration are the date of the holiday and its duration.

2.1.4 Date, duration and frequency

As the holiday is an event in time it is important to consider the temporal elements of current holidaymaking. These may be identified as the holiday date, its duration, and the frequency of holidaymaking.

For centuries pleasure travel has been closely associated with the summer months. Current departure dates display a similar trend. Holidaymaking remains essentially a summertime activity, thereby presenting many of the problems of seasonality on account of the imbalance between tourist arrivals and the inability to store the tourist product (see Wanhill, 1980). This remains an intrinsic element of the holiday trade. Holloway (1983: 57) states that 80% of all European tourism takes place between

June and September. This proportion has remained fairly constant over the last ten years and is reflected in the more detailed statistics of the British Tourist Authority (see table 6). Indeed, if domestic holidays alone are considered, an even more pronounced seasonal tendency emerges (Gratton and Taylor, 1985).

Table 6 : Holiday departure dates; home and abroad (1982)

MONTH WHEN HOLIDAY COMMENCED	% OF TOTAL
January	1.5
February	1.5
March	3
April	6
May	9
June	13 }
July	20 }
August	21 }
September	15 } 69%
October	6
November	1.5
December	3
	<u>100.5%+</u>

+ due to rounding

(derived from British Tourist Authority, 1983c: 17)

This may be due to different penetration of the domestic and foreign markets by tour operators, for package holidays seem to have been the only device to effectively extend the tourism season (Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 173). This has been achieved by revised holiday options to include not only destinations offering warmth and a pleasant climate in winter, but also those catering for wintersports enthusiasts. Between the 1963/4 and 1971/2 seasons, for example, the number of winter package holidays rose from 6,900 to 600,000 (Young, 1973: 29). Since then, Guitart (1982) demonstrates that the proportion of inclusive tours to the Mediterranean taken in 'winter' (defined as between November and March) has risen from 11.6% (in 1971) to 21.3% (1978). Thus the winter/summer ratio over the same period has fallen from approximately 1:8 to 1:4. This should be

compared with an 'all-tourism' peak/ trough ratio of 1:20 in the mid 1960's (see Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 179). In short, the seasonality peak is less pronounced for package holidaymakers than for tourism in general. This is not only a function of widened package holiday options during the winter months, but also of special promotions and preferential price structuring (see McIntosh, 1972: 208-9; Robinson, 1976: 61). There is further evidence to suggest that, superimposed over the effects of packaged travel, the increasing tendency to take second holidays may also help to iron out the discrepancies between winter and summer tourist arrivals.

Again this may be seen as a trend of tourism in general, and not a feature peculiar to the package holiday market. In many of the mature European markets, including the U.K., departure rates have already reached a plateau (in terms of the proportion of the population taking a holiday). The increase in the number of holidays taken is therefore a function of the growing tendency to take more than one annual holiday (English Tourist Board, 1974b: 70). Between 1971 and 1983 the proportion of the U.K. population taking two or more annual holidays rose from 15% to 19% (see Devas, 1985). The tendency of these second holidays to be both shorter and to closer destinations (see British Tourist Authority, 1982c: 15) accounts for their particularly high growth rate within the domestic market (Cooper and Jackson, 1985).

Until very recently these developments by-passed the tour operator, since traditionally the two week package holiday was effectively the main annual holiday. Only diversification of the inclusive tour product has allowed beneficial inroads to be made into the second holiday market, achieved in

the main by wintersun, wintersports and special activity holidays, and 'mini breaks'. The vast majority of package holidays available, however, seem to have been designed with the primary annual holiday in mind. Very often this may be attributed to their duration, for a 'fortnight away' has long been regarded as the staple diet of the once-yearly holidaymaker. However, when all the elements of a holiday are considered, there is evidence to suggest they are gradually being traded down. This is manifested in many ways, but often through the shortened break. In 1981, 63% of British adults took a holiday of four nights or more, falling to 58% by the following year (British Tourist Authority, 1983c: 5). The rise in popularity of short breaks is particularly evident amongst domestic travellers (Travel News, 1985: 12). This is partly on account of the apparent relationship between distance to destination and holiday duration. In 1982 only 5% of domestic holidays (compared to 20% of foreign trips) lasted 15 nights or more (see British Tourist Authority, 1983c: 9). Table 7 provides evidence of a similar trend on the global scale.

Table 7 : Holiday destination and average length of stay (1980)

DESTINATION	AVERAGE HOLIDAY DURATION (NIGHTS)
North America	23.5
North West Europe (EEC)	8.9
North West Europe (non EEC)	12.7
Rest of World	29.0

(derived from the British Tourist Authority, 1983b: 38)

Given this association, how might the general fall in holiday duration be reconciled with the increasing tendency to partake in long haul travel, which, from the foregoing, would be expected to effect an increase in holiday duration? Explanation of this anomaly lies in consideration of holiday frequency, for though the distance/duration relationship may hold true, the increase in second and third holidays engenders an apparent

overall reduction in average holiday length. It is unlikely therefore that main annual holidays, particularly those abroad, are shortening to any significant degree. This is a view endorsed by the British Tourist Authority (1982c :15), although a marginal decline may be observed. Between 1971 and 1981 the average duration of trips abroad by U.K. residents fell from 14.1 to 13.2 nights (Keynote, 1983: 9), though once again this may be attributed to the development of shorter second holidays abroad.

Such trends and explanations are almost certainly mirrored in the package holiday market. Even a fleeting glance at tour operator brochures is sufficient to reaffirm the two week holiday as the most popular option. The reduction in the average duration of inclusive tours may easily be explained by reference to the recent growth in wintersports holidays. Many of these are taken as second holidays, and consequently are of shorter duration than their counterparts during the summer season (Jordan and Sons 1982: VII). Thus the three component elements of temporal holiday patterns (date, duration and frequency) display marked mutual interdependence.

Similar connectivity may be observed between all the elements discussed so far, in particular those concerned with destination patterns. Variation in the composition and balance amongst such elements may well precipitate changes in the supply of package holidays subsequent to shifts in market behaviour. At the interface marking interaction between package holiday supply and demand occurs the tour operator, mediating (and often initiating) the prompts for change in both 'directions'. As such, the tour operator represents the pressure point of the package holiday

business. This in turn justifies consideration of major recent issues within the industry, and their effects (be they demand - or supply-based) on current package holidaymaking patterns.

2.2 CURRENT ISSUES WITHIN THE TOUR OPERATING INDUSTRY

2.2.1 Supply system structure: vertical integration of activities

The central function of tour operators is the arrangement and scheduling of package holidays, which by *implication at least*, involves organisation of both transport and accommodation. Traditionally the tour operator's only involvement with these facilities has been the re-working and presentation of their services to form the package holiday product. 'Backward' vertical integration within the industry has recently led to tour operator ownership of accommodation facilities, either by property acquisition or purpose-built construction (Key Note, 1983: 3; see also Kay, 1986). Conversely, 'forward' integration has secured ownership of transport services. Whilst many companies now run their own coach fleets for example, several of the larger tour operators maintain their own charter airline, including Thomson Holidays (Britannia Airways) and Horizon Travel (Orion Airways). The advantages of such integration are not only financial, for they also allow the operator greater control and flexibility in the range and quality of holidays offered; an important consideration given the recent tendency towards product specialisation. Indeed, one major operator (Intasun) actually sold off five Boeing aircraft in order to finance a diversification programme to include more specialised holidays (Harwood and Frankis, 1985). This specialisation has

either been customer-based (e.g. Saga holidays specifically for older people and Club 18-30 trips for younger travellers) or destination-based (Olympic tours specialise in visits to Greece, for example, whilst Yugo Tours not surprisingly concentrate on holidays to Yugoslavia - Senior, 1983: 102).

These developments are in line with a package holiday market that is gradually maturing. This has engendered a growing demand for specialist holidays and those employing high quality services, at the expense of traditional 'budget' travel, much of which is centered on the Mediterranean basin. Package holidays in three and four star hotels rose by over 10% between 1986 and 1987 (see Ferguson, 1987: 19). The demands of today's package tourist are more stringent than ever before, as widening product experience continually fosters changing market preferences. As Riley (1983: 253) remarks,

" In its early years, the package holiday itself was a novelty as it made the foreign holiday cheap and convenient and there was a broadening of the base of holidaymakers going abroad. However, from the late 1970's onwards we have seen the growth in experience of the package holiday buyer paralleled by an increasing sophistication in the range of holidays demanded. To keep pace with this sophistication, the package tour operating business has had to respond with product ideas."

Tour operators have both encouraged and reacted to such changes in the demand for holidays. This they have done by offering a more specialised and better quality service to cater for the greater discrimination exercised over choice by potential holidaymakers. This is reflected in the recent growth of activity and sports holidays, and those encompassing a particular 'theme', as the novelty of the sun-and-beach formula, so popular in the early 1970's, now appears to be wearing a little thin. The shift in preference is only a relative one however. Though growing, demand

for specialist holidays is still dwarfed by the demand for sun, sea and sand. For many package holidaymakers the climatic imperative remains paramount. A more universal change has been the increasing demand for better quality services, irrespective of the type of holiday.

Until fairly recently, specialist holidays were the domain of small tour operators, whose output ideally catered for such needs. Increasing market discrimination, however, has prompted an increase in the activity of larger tour operators in this sector, thereby effectively cutting the only real life-line of many small businesses (see Rosenberg, 1985: 15). Inevitably, many have fallen by the wayside (20 travel firms collapsed during 1984 alone - Rosenberg, 1985: 15), which has served only to accentuate the trend towards larger and larger package holiday businesses.

2.2.2. Horizontal agglomeration and competitive advantage

Horizontal integration has been achieved either by take-overs or in-house expansion. The net effect is the same; the supply of package holidays is increasingly dominated by a few large tour operators, matching small businesses in terms of the specialist holidays they offer, and bettering them in terms of cost and value simply on account of the benefits of scale economies they enjoy. Even medium sized firms have not escaped the effects of increasing concentration. In the late 1970's the seven largest U.K. based tour operators represented 75% of British I.T.C. (inclusive tour charter) demand (Guitart, 1982). By 1985 the market share of the two largest operators alone, Thomson Holidays and Intasun, reached 40% (Harris, 1985: 3), although three years previously Thomsons, the

larger of the two operators, accounted for only 14% of foreign tours (Senior, 1983: 9). Though rapid, this growth rate became even more pronounced after 1985, when Thomson Holidays doubled its programme to 2 million holidays for the 1986 season, and Intasun introduced a schedule for 1.75 million holidays (compared to 0.75 million in 1985). Of the remaining operators, Horizon Holidays reacted most strongly, after experiencing financial difficulties in 1985. By 1987, the International Thomson Organisation, the International Leisure Group (incorporating Intasun) and Horizon Holidays were expected to supply 70% of the market (Ferguson, 1987: 19).

The prime driving force behind this expansion was the opportunity it created to achieve economies of scale in the light of increasing need for price competitiveness. Once more this can be attributed to the maturing of the package holiday market and the greater discriminatory power of customers regarding holiday cost (see Kay, 1986). Accordingly, competition between tour operators to gain market share (by offering better value for money) escalated, leading to the so-called 'price wars' of late 1985.

The mass schedule increases effected by Thomson Holidays and Intasun facilitated price reductions which smaller operators were unable to match; summer holidays offered by Thomsons for the 1986 season were 17% cheaper than the previous year (Harris, 1985:3; see also Frankis and Harwood, 1986: 23). Further financial incentives were offered, in addition to surcharge guarantees (adopted by most companies in 1983), including attractive family reductions and special promotions of greatly reduced, and even 'free', holidays. The press coverage this attracted ensured

cheap, extensive, and often dramatic publicity during a fortnight of frenetic sales activity, which even witnessed fighting in a Sheffield Travel Agency over the last cut-priced trip to Spain (see Pile, 1985: 7).

Price competition between operators became so fierce that even amongst the largest organisations, whilst the number of holidays sold increased, profit margins fell dramatically. Between 1981 and 1985, for example, Intasun's pre-tax profits as a proportion of turnover fell from 9.9% to 4.8% (derived from Harwood and Frankis, 1985), whilst an even more marked decline can be identified when profits are viewed in relation to the number of holidays sold.

However, price competitiveness did not grow solely on account of the desire to gain market share. Cheaper holidays were also introduced to counter the record slump in holidays in 1984, especially those to Spain (see Millward, 1985: 15). This they achieved. The revival has also been maintained: one of the main reasons for the strong booking trend for 1986 was widespread price reductions (between 15 and 20%), although people's memories of the appalling UK weather suffered during the summer of 1985 undoubtedly played a significant contributory role (see Frankis and Harwood, 1986: 23). An equally important effect of price reductions was that they encouraged holidaymakers to book early. Between 1979 and 1982 the number of summer holidays booked before the end of January fell from 63% to 42% (Key Note, 1985: 15 - source of data originally Pickfords Travel). As package holidaymakers became more experienced, so they became more aware of the savings to be enjoyed by taking advantage of the late-booking discounts traditionally offered by tour operators to maximise the number of customer units per holiday trip. In 1982, 20% of package

holidays were sold in this manner (Senior, 1983: 92). Not only did this mean tour operators lost revenue by missing out on interest gains, it also created administrative difficulties as travel and accommodation scheduling arrangements could only be finalised immediately prior to holiday departure (Key Note, 1983: 15). The introduction of special promotions and holiday discounts so early in the booking season remedied these problems by securing a large number of bookings at the beginning of the season (Newlands, 1985: 1; Pile, 1985 :7). By the end of the first week in November (1985) Thomsons had sold over 400,000 holidays, their deposits from this alone earning £16 million interest.

Changes within the tour operating industry can thus be closely associated with the maturing package holiday market; in particular, evolution in the demand for holidays and the growth of specialist services and a higher quality product. Customers have become increasingly cost conscious, not so much in terms of outright minimisation of expenditure, but in terms of comparative costs between different operators offering similar holidays. This has been partnered by a trend towards fewer, but larger tour operators, each eager to reap the benefits of scale economies and competitive price advantage. Clearly, these developments have influenced behavioural patterns - both booking activity prior to departure, and the type of holidays actually undertaken. It is within the context of an appreciation of this interplay between supply, demand and expressed travel patterns, that a more penetrative understanding of package holiday choice and behaviour is sought. The first step towards acquisition of this insight is a review of literature sources employed in the construction of an interpretative matrix with which to tackle the analysis of behaviour.

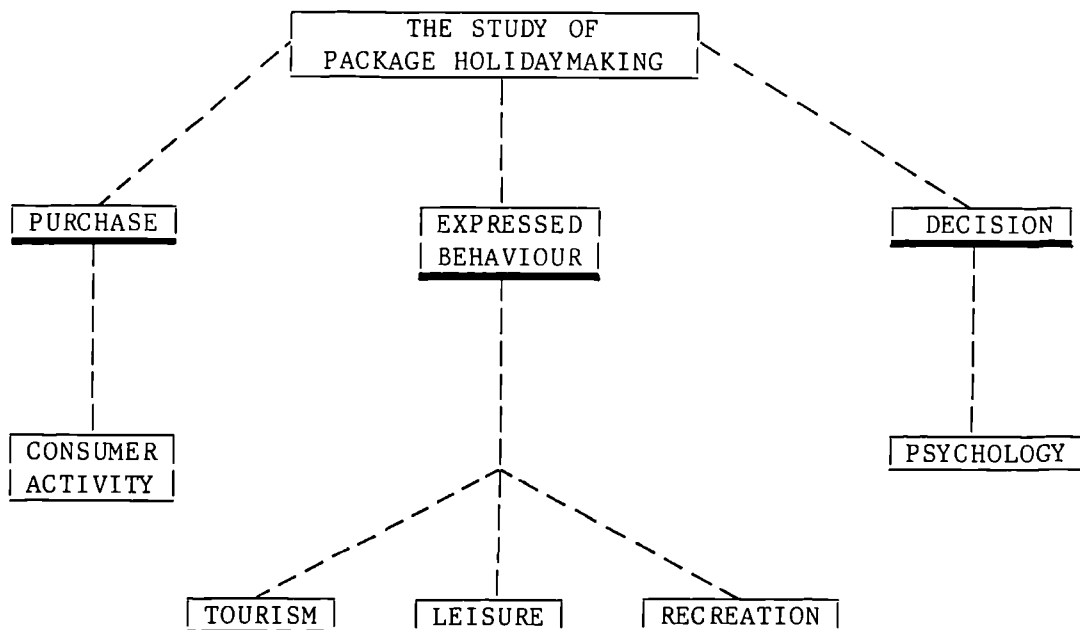
CHAPTER THREE

A REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE FIELDS AND THEIR USES

3.1 LOCATION OF SOURCES

The interdisciplinary profile of this thesis is a function of both the scarcity of literature specific to package holidays (see Thomson, 1978; Thomson and Pearce, 1980), and widespread recognition of the value of such a multi-stranded approach (see Lundberg, 1972: 7; Young, 1973: 6; Dann, 1981 and 1983). Those sources considered pertinent to an explanation of package holidaymaking behaviour are shown in diagram 1, together with their primary linkages. It is from such sources that concepts are borrowed and applied to the current study, subsequently to be adopted, modified or rejected according to the research findings.

Diagram 1 : Explanatory literature sources and their primary linkages



Key Primary linkage Main source

Unification of these disparate themes is a prerequisite to their effective management, for there are many different approaches to the study of tourism. Clarification and cohesion of sources is achieved when an embracing spatial perspective is adopted, for tourism is of interest to the geographer largely on account of its concern with land use, resort location and the movement of people to these destinations (Mathieson and Wall, 1982: 8; Nichols, 1982: 73; Williams and Zelinsky, 1970). It is a happy coincidence that the theme common to such varied literature sources coincides so tidily with the current research objectives (outlined in the following chapter). For the time being it provides a useful perspective from which to assess the explanatory input of literature presented here. Yet it must be stressed that in the light of very limited research specific to package holidays to date, such literature remains peripheral. This in turn fashions the textual use of these sources, for it would be misleading to integrate it, in the first instance, with the research findings presented in later chapters, without continual reminder of the original subject material to which it applies. A neater solution is to discuss relevant literature fields fully prior to such analysis, leaving links to be drawn in the chapter of conclusions. Thus, the bulk of secondary-sourced theoretical and conceptual input to this research is contained in this chapter. This is reflected in its coverage.

3.2 THE TOURIST

3.2.1. Typologies, conceptualisation and applicability

Tourism is, above all, a composite phenomenon (Vukonic and

Pirjevec, 1980). Robinson's (1976: 40) three essential tourism elements of 'locale' (the destination and what it offers), mode of transport, and accommodation, clearly illustrate his view of tourism as an agglomeration of facilities and services. A more general tendency in identifying the components of tourism, however, is to place greater emphasis on behaviour and the tourist (see Wahab, 1975: 8, and Mathieson and Wall, 1982: 4). Indeed, an integral and central role is assigned to the tourist in those systems presented by Leiper (1979, 1981) and Gunn (1972).

The likelihood of this central role means there is a pressing need to identify different types of tourist, for this is a term often used to cover a multitude of traveller types. P.L. Pearce (1982a: 30) provides a review of the different methods used to achieve this. He also presents a classification system (1982a : 36) based on the work of Cohen (1974), which helps in the identification of "pleasure-first" travellers from those journeying for other reasons (occupation requirements, spiritual commitments and environmental concern). However, better classification is provided by the more specific system proposed by Cohen (1972b: 49-50) shown on diagram 2. This system is valuable in that it highlights the important distinction between package holidaymakers and those planning and executing their own individual trips. Though strict definitions are rarely observed within tourism literature, it is assumed that reference is directed towards the pleasure-first tourist (that is, the holidaymaker), and unless otherwise indicated, refers to tourism in general rather than package tourists. This is the meaning adopted by the term 'tourist' throughout the following narrative. Strict definitions employed in the current research are outlined in the next chapter. For the purpose of this review it is more important to bear in mind the distinction between package holidaymakers and tourism, quite apart from

other forms of travel, for the strict relevance of findings concerning tourism (in general) to package holidaymakers (in particular) cannot necessarily be assumed, due to fundamental differences between the

Diagram 2 Classification of traveller types (after Cohen, 1972b)

CATEGORY	CHARACTERISTICS
Organised mass tourist	Mostly confined to an "environmental bubble". The tour is entirely pre-planned with familiarity at a maximum and novelty at a minimum.
Individual mass tourist	Similarly on a tour, though scope for own decisions and attitudes. Familiarity dominant though some routine novelty.
Explorer	Arranges trip on own and therefore more interaction with host community, though still likes travel comforts such as a good hotel and food.
Drifter	Considers the ordinary tourist experience to be phoney. Almost wholly immersed in host culture. Novelty at a maximum and familiarity has almost disappeared altogether.

respective phenomena. Indeed, herein lies one of the secondary objectives of the research. Thus, it must be appreciated that the following discussion is concerned wholly with tourism, which by default is assumed to deal with independent rather than package holidays unless specific reference is made to the contrary.

3.2.2. Documentation of factors influencing tourist behaviour

As a population, tourists are heterogeneous (Cooper, 1981).

There is therefore a need for market segmentation. Literature attempting this is widespread, segmentation providing a common means of behavioural explanation. This is generally achieved by two approaches; use of traditional sociodemographic and economic factors (a course followed by the majority of researchers), and more recently, employment of 'life-style' or 'psychographic' measures. These are considered in turn.

Sociodemographic and economic parameters have been widely applied to help explain patterns of participation in tourism, and at a finer scale of analysis, to uncover the determinants of specific elements of behaviour. A summary of this research is provided by tables 8 and 9. Detailed discussion of these factors can be found in the references provided, for only a summation of findings is provided here.

Tourism increases simultaneously with a rise in income, occupational status and social class, whilst peaking amongst people in their 20's and 30's (see Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 280), and for families without young children (see Cosenza and Davis, 1981). Amongst these influences, income is often seen as the most powerful (Sauran, 1978), although participation is more an outcome of income above or below a critical level than any linear function linking the two. For those above this level the restraining effects of inflation have failed to curtail participation owing to the holiday's status as a particularly resilient item of household expenditure.

Amongst more specific studies, emphasis lies in destination patterns and holiday-taking frequency (see table 9). Indeed, sociological variables

Table 8 : 'Traditional' determinants of tourism participation

FACTOR	EXAMPLE REFERENCE
Age	: British Tourist Authority (1967) : Burkart and Medlik (1974 : 280) : Turner and Ash (1975 : 13)
Family Status	: Cosenza and Davis (1981)
Income	: Turner and Ash (1975 : 13) : McIntosh (1977 : 39) : Mathieson and Wall (1982 : 43)
Occupation	: British Tourist Authority (1967) : Turner and Ash (1975 : 13)
Social Class	: Robinson (1976 : 31) : McIntosh (1977 : 39) : Ternowetsky (1983)

Table 9 : 'Traditional' determinants of specific elements of holidaymaking

FACTOR	HOLIDAY ELEMENT	EXAMPLE REFERENCE
Age	Destination behaviour	:Morton-Williams (1973:9) :Gitelson and Crompton (1984)
	Temporal patterns	:Morton-Williams (1973:4) :Walter & Tong (1977)
Family Status	Destination behaviour	:Etzel and Woodside (1982)
	Temporal patterns	:Morton-Williams (1973:[i])
Income	Temporal patterns	:British Tourist Authority (1967:33) :Walter & Tong (1977)
Social Class	Destination Behaviour	:Muir (1973) :Pearce, P.L. (1982a:9)
	Temporal patterns	:Morton-Williams (1973:[i]) :Ternowetsky (1983)

are often considered more significant in determining destination type than the actual decision to travel (Todt, 1964, Przeclawski, 1976). A complex series of interwoven links emerges between the tourist's sociodemographic and economic characteristics on the one hand, and expressed spatial and temporal behaviour patterns on the other. Only the most prominent are highlighted here.

1. In identifying through time a process of successive class intrusion into resort patronage, Pearce, P.L. (1982a:9) implies association between destination type and social class. Benidorm, for example, by catering mainly for working class tourists (Muir, 1973), displays visitor orientation in strict contrast to that exercised by resorts such as Gstaad, Davos or Cannes.
2. Destination location relative to the home is affected by many influences. Large families including youngsters below the age of 12 travel to closer locations (Etzel and Woodside, 1982). These families are less likely to comprise foreign holidaymakers, as are elderly folk (Morton-Williams, 1973:9) or those belonging to lower social classes and less - educated groups (Lundberg, 1972:117).
3. As age increases so does the tendency to visit a familiar destination, resort loyalty becoming a common characteristic amongst holidaymakers above the age of 40 (Gitelson and Crompton, 1984). This may well be a mechanism to reduce the risk of an unsatisfactory holiday experience (see Hill, 1965).
4. More holidays per year are taken by members of higher social classes (see Ternowetsky, 1983), probably because subsidiary holidays are more vulnerable to financial

constraints (British Tourist Authority, 1982a:11). The findings of Morton-Williams (1973) suggest this is a trend maintained for all measures of economic well-being. Similar effects may be noted concerning holiday duration (see Walter and Tong, 1977).

Protagonists of the life-style approach to tourism explanation offer a less well-defined framework for assessment of findings to date. As a relatively recent perspective this is not surprising. The basic premise on which such research rests can, however, be brought into sharper focus: at a level beyond that at which traditional sociodemographic and economic factors function, the effect of less tangible elements of an individual's 'make-up' also determines their behaviour (see Woodside and Pitts, 1976). The concept has been applied recently by a growing body of workers, although coverage is less complete than that offered by more traditional research. Hawes (1977) provides a review of psychographic work, concluding that life-style measures do in fact offer explanatory input. Mayo (1975), for example, studies association between psychographic profiles and attitudes towards tourism. The majority of researchers, however, conclude that although psychographic measures do provide explanation above and beyond that offered by traditional approaches, they do not stand alone as a means of explanation. Instead they rely on a framework of sociodemographic and economic parameters for their effective application (see Perreault, Darden and Darden, 1977; Schewe and Calantone, 1978).

Clearly, both approaches to the study of influences on tourist behaviour are valid, for a predictive role may be ascribed both to traditional

factors and to more inventive life-style measures. The function of such studies is to forge a link between the participant and their behaviour, and this they have achieved, though rarely has the intervening role of the holiday decision-making process been taken into consideration. Holiday choice mechanisms have instead been researched rather in isolation. It is unfortunate that the extent of their reliance and emphasis on conceptual bases of decision process theory has not been matched by the effective integration of the understanding they bring, to holiday choice, with mainstream research tying holidaymaker characteristics to expressed behaviour patterns. Such research must not be dismissed out of hand however, for it is a potential source of valuable assistance.

3.3 THE HOLIDAY DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

3.3.1 Evaluation Framework

Tourist decision-making is currently little understood (Mathieson and Wall, 1983: 25; see also Mazanec, 1983). It is not so much the coverage but the lack of standardisation and integration of findings that restricts our understanding. The first step towards alleviating this problem is to substantiate the perspective from which the decision process is viewed. Even during the 1970's decision-making studies were based on the concept of economic man, assuming perfect knowledge and rationality (Sauran, 1978; Mathieson and Wall, 1982:26), and reflected in the earlier

comments of Hill (1965:11) who remarked that the aim of the holiday was to,

"... maximise opportunities for intake and minimise the risk of disappointment."

More recent studies foster greater emphasis on satisfaction over optimisation, and rational actions within a context of limited rather than perfect knowledge (see, for example, Baretje and Defert, 1972; Rostron, 1972:38; Schmoll, 1977:62; Mathieson and Wall, 1982:27; Cook and McCleary, 1983). Adoption of this perspective creates an umbrella under which all the remaining tourist decision process literature may be viewed. From this research, the following literature themes or decision process components can be identified:

1. Pinpointing the decision-maker
2. An overview of tourist motivation
3. Initial travel desire
4. Specific holiday motivation
5. Information search and the role of images
6. Means of selection from alternative choices

Much of the rather unwieldy collection of tourism decision-making literature may be assigned to one of these categories for evaluation purposes. Before this is further discussed it must be emphasised that holiday choice comprises many component decisions. Choice of destination, travel mode, accommodation and holiday duration are all sub-decisions precipitated by the initial decision to travel (Schmoll, 1977:53; Mathieson and Wall, 1982:31). To borrow a marketing term, they are all components of the 'holiday mix'. The literature discussed here, with the exception of the first two categories, is largely streamlined to destination choice. This is a function of the desire to restrict discussion to that commensurate with the specific research objectives. Indeed, little seems to be known about the remaining sub-decisions, nor in

fact their relative importance.

3.3.2 Pinpointing the decision-maker

Identification of decision-makers is clearly dependent on the definitions used to isolate them, which themselves may be peculiar to individual pieces of research. However, identification in theory, at least, is a worthy prerequisite to further investigation of decision processes. Who makes the holiday decisions?

Smith, V.L. (1979), after interviews with 124 families, concluded that women dominate the holiday decision-making process. Though a bold remark, there is extensive evidence to dispute this. Hermans (1980) dismisses these findings on the grounds of the definitions and methods Smith employs, pointing out bias in her sample towards middle class couples with young children. More importantly, the assumption that decision-making takes place in the travel agent's office is a dubious one.

There is little doubt that Smith's (1979) findings bow to the criticisms of Hermans (1980), whose identification of definitional and methodological weaknesses appear well founded in logic alone. Furthermore, these criticisms are underset by the comparatively extensive body of literature viewing the holiday decision as an increasingly syncretic one (see, for example, Sharp and Mott, 1956; Cunningham and Green, 1974; Davis and Rigaux, 1974; Walter and Tong, 1977). Holiday choice seems to be made by husband and wife jointly. Whilst this is true for most holiday components, husbands tend to dominate information search and fixation of

the holiday duration and budget (Jenkins, 1978). Not surprisingly, parents commonly perceive children exerting a considerable, if indirect, influence over their decisions (Jenkins, 1978). This may well be effected through the motivations behind holiday choice.

3.3.3. An overview of tourist motivation

Wahab (1975:44) regards the study of motivation as indispensable to tourism research. Whilst this is certainly reflected in the volume of such literature, it is unfortunate that its importance has rarely prompted more widespread type-based standardisation, and the subsequent facility for comparison between researched motivational categories. Not only is there little agreement over their content, but also rarely can the relative significance of each component be assessed (Mathieson and Wall, 1982: 30-31). Kelly (1978), Tinsley and Kass (1979), Crandall (1980), Rubenstein (1980) and Beard and Ragheb (1983) are representative of a much larger body of writers employing individual categories of motivation without recourse to standardisation. This may well be due to several intrinsic difficulties in the study of travel motivation, including its complexity (see Guthrie, 1961; Robinson, 1976:29; Crompton, 1979, Dichter, 1979; Pearce, P.L. 1982a:52), uncertainty as to the time-scale involved (Pearce, P.L. 1982a:50) and the role of intrinsic motives when these themselves are not yet fully understood (see De Charms and Muir, 1978). In short, the study of tourist motivation to date is muddled and lacks cohesion. A degree of agreement, however, is reached over two issues; the separation of initial travel desire from specific motivation, and the extent of mental conflict usually experienced by the traveller.

Very many writers make a distinction in their classification systems between the motives that actually prompt people to travel (termed "push" factors), and "pull" factors (specific motivation) which draw them to a particular destination (see, for example, Wahab, 1975:45; Dann, 1977; Schmoll, 1977:52; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Mathieson and Wall, 1982: 29-30; Smith, S.L.J., 1983). This distinction is employed in the following two sections, when an attempt is made to extract and summarise major themes from tourist decision-making literature, if only to provide a grasp of the basic motivation components involved. Common to both these "push" and "pull" factors is an element of conflict experienced by travellers, as is evident in Dichter's (1967) remark that,

"Anyone concerned with the motivation of travel has to realise first that he is reaching deep into one of the major conflicts of the human mind : a desire for sameness.... conflicting with the motivation to reach out and discover the world".

Tourists therefore experience contradictory feelings. On the one hand they seek novelty, change, excitement and new experiences, but on the other they feel insecure in a strange environment (Wahab, 1975:47; see also Mathieson and Wall, 1982: 178; Iso-Ahola, 1983a). The balance that is reached between these two opposing desires imparts an influence over subsequent behaviour, though the nature of this is dependent on the type of tourist. Cohen (1972b: 49-50) demonstrates the greater desire for novelty experienced by 'drifters' and 'explorers' than by organised mass tourists (see diagram 2), who often reconcile their contradictory feelings by seeking the novelty of a strange "macroenvironment" within the comparative security of a familiar "microenvironment". Thus, stimulating though unfamiliar climatic and physical surroundings are often enjoyed from within the security of an everyday immediate environment comprising companions in language, food, drink and even custom. The nature of this

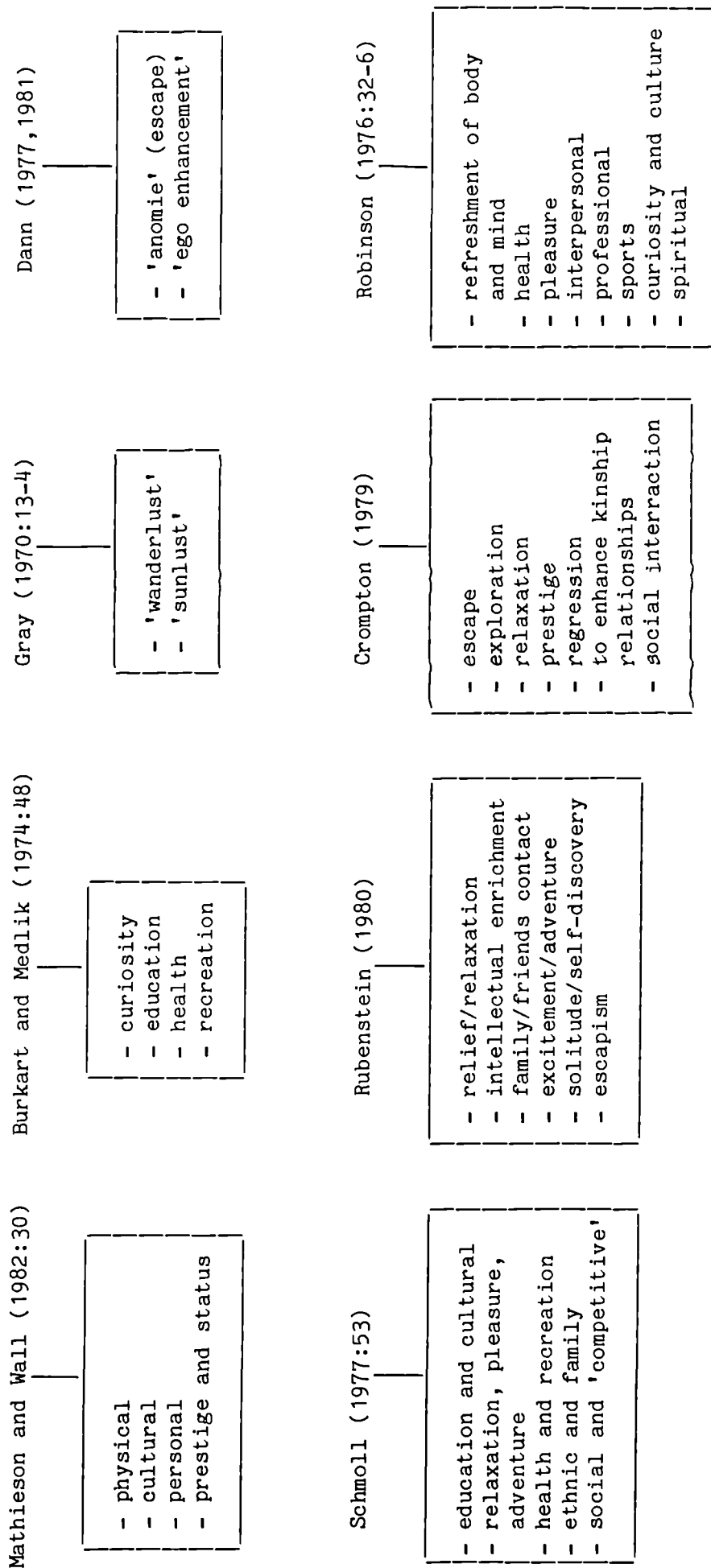
fine balance is in no way constant, but by pervading over tourism motivation, the compromise so reached exerts a considerable influence over holiday choice.

3.3.4 Initial travel desire

It was not until the 1970's and the work of Lundberg (1971), Mercer (1976a, 1976b), McIntosh (1977) and Schmoll (1977) that a substantial body of literature concerned with the reasons why people travel began to accumulate. However, as shown on diagram 3, there is little agreement as to the composition of this motivational "push". Careful consideration of these classification systems prompts the use of that developed by Mathieson and Wall (1982: 30) on the initial proposals of McIntosh (1977:61), who set out four main types of initial travel motivation. These are briefly considered in turn:

1. Physical motivation is an outcome of the need of mankind to indulge in tourism (Kasumov, 1979: 60) in order to achieve physical and spiritual rehabilitation. This may be achieved by simple relaxation, participation in activities, or even the act of travelling itself.
2. Cultural motivation stems from an interest in foreign cultures, art or historical artefacts, and is a function of basic curiosity in the unfamiliar (see Dann, 1977; Kaiser and Helber, 1978: 1). As such it may often be 'reduced' in theoretical terms to mere instinct.
3. Personal motivation may be to retain family or friendship ties, or to generate fresh links with new

Diagram 3 : General travel motivation categories and their sources



acquaintances. It is also propelled by a desire to escape the daily living environment (see Robinson, 1976: 31), or as Dann (1977: 187) describes it, to

"... get away from it all..."

This desire to 'escape' is regarded by Johnston (1970) as the greatest reason for travel, and is closely tied to the conflict between familiarity and novelty already outlined.

4. Prestige and status motivation accrues from the opportunities provided to pursue hobbies, further educational learning or simply to reap the benefits of sensual indulgence. Such travel may extend one's ego boundaries (see Grinstein, 1955) since recognition and a feeling of superiority may be imparted by taking a holiday (Dann; 1977; 1981). Under such conditions the role of fashion is clearly significant.

Although this is by no means a definitive assessment of initial travel desire, it nonetheless acts as a guide to the basic motivational components. The strength of this felt desire relative to perceived obstacles to travel determines whether or not a tourist trip is taken. Thus it must be judged against opposing motivations for not travelling. Morton - Williams (1973: 5) provides a researched inventory of cited reasons for not taking a holiday (see table 10). There is widespread support for the view that expense is the major reason for not travelling (see also Robinson, 1976 : 36). Family ties include the young, sick and the elderly. These two factors combined constitute over half the stated motivations behind the decision to stay at home.

A factor not mentioned in the research by Morton - Williams is the role of attitudes towards tourism, which incidentally provides further fertile opportunities for application of the concept of the tourist's contradictory feelings. Schmoll (1977: 52), for example, remarks that a

Table 10 : Major reasons for not taking a holiday

REASONS	% MENTIONING AS A MAJOR REASON +
Expense	50
Family ties	31
Lack of interest or incentive	26
Too busy	8
Preference for day trips	9

+ does not sum to 100% as more than one factor can be mentioned by an individual.

(Morton - Williams, 1973 :5)

fear of strange places may be enough to discourage travel. A similar function is exercised by the perceived threat to personal well-being, be it through illness or injury. There can be little doubt that some package holidaymakers aborted their plans for foreign travel following the series of aircraft disasters during 1984 and 1985. Such incidents may therefore alter the balance between felt travel desire and reasons for not travelling. However, providing these obstacles are either perceived as insignificant, or are circumvented or otherwise overcome, the decision to take a holiday will be made. This in turn triggers specific motivation as part of the destination decision-making process.

3.3.5 Specific holiday motives

If there were no geographical differences between places, tourism

would not exist (Robinson, 1976: 42). To gain patronage, the holiday destination has to offer certain characteristics beyond those found in everyday living environments. Quite often a simple change in surroundings may ensure this. Alternatively, the destination product may be developed to meet the requirements of particular customers, or rather the market may shape itself around the product available (Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 46-47). Either way, destination characteristics are prominent.

These are classified by Burkart and Medlik (1974: 44) and Holloway (1983: 9) as accessibility, attractions and amenities. Many of the components of rival systems (for example, Peters, 1969: 148-9; Wahab, 1975: 77-8) can be assigned to one of these three interdependent categories.

Realistically, they are likely to interact to determine the overall "pull" exerted by a destination, though it is nonetheless important to assess their relative significance. This is achieved by Ritchie and Zins (1978) using a method pioneered by Gearing et al (1974), the results of which are shown on table 11. In concluding climate as a major factor, these findings agree with those of Morton-Williams (1973: [iv]) and the English Tourist Board (1976a: 7). Climate must not be seen as a singular commodity however. Kaiser and Helber (1978: 144) pinpoint the importance of access. These two qualities are sensibly combined by Patmore (1983: 156) in remarking that,

"The two prime factors in the choice of holiday destination are the friction of distance and the lure of the sun, factors that are equally applicable abroad and at home."

Alternatively, Kaynak and Yavas (1981) conclude that good weather and a seaside location represent the two most important features in destination choice, the latter characteristic explained by Mercer (1972) in terms of the psychological attraction of the junction in landscape

between land and sea. Weighing the relative travel ease offered by inclusive tours against the psychological barrier imposed by more than one day's travelling means, in the context of the package holidaymaker, both conclusions are likely to be equally valid. Widespread reference to climate, however, suggests its importance must be fully recognised. By indentifying 'physical' factors as the most important, Matley (1976: 22)

Table 11 : The relative importance of destination qualities

RANK	CHARACTERISTICS
1	Natural beauty and climate
2	Cultural and social characteristics
3	Accessibility
4	Attitude towards tourists
5	Regional infrastructure
6	Price level
7	Sport, recreation and education facilities
8	Shopping and commercial facilities

(Ritchie and Zins, 1978: 261)

offers more cautious conclusion. This accounts for the secondary role assumed by 'high contact' characteristics such as sports and shopping facilities, and other elements of the destination infrastructure. Between the two ranks cultural and social characteristics, according to Ritchie and Zins (1978). Whilst this may be true for certain 'independent' travellers (though Turner and Ash, 1975: 245, would disagree), it is unlikely to be applicable to the modern mass tourist, whom Boorstin (1963) scorns as wanting novelty without risk, hardship or subsequent intellectual demands, and a simple escape into superficiality (see Marcuse, 1964: 57). A more pragmatic summation is provided by Matley (1976: 22) who suggests that,

"To many tourists the country matters little. Spain may have bullfights and flamenco dancers and Italy may have Latin lovers and the Leaning Tower of Pisa, but what matters to most is the promise of reliable sunshine, warm temperatures, a beach to lie on, warm waters to swim in, and clean but cheap hotels and restaurants."

Though the strict accuracy of this comment may have diminished due to the recent changes in market taste outlined in the previous chapter, it still succeeds in placing into perspective some of the varied elements that constitute locational appeal, whilst avoiding violation of the assumption that the heterogeneity of tourism demand means there is no ubiquitous 'ideal' holiday destination.

For all but the repeat visitor, judgement and destination choice depend on secondary sources. Resort evaluation therefore rests largely on information flows and the formation of mental images. These are studied next.

3.3.6 Information search and the role of images

Tourism is typical of many human activities in that communication plays an important role in the quest for satisfying experiences. This is an element common to the two types of information search identified by Gitelson and Crompton (1983), as:

1. Internal - the recollection of information to which the individual has previously been exposed.
2. External - the conscious search for new information.

In the absence of previous applicable travel experience, the tourist has no facility for internal 'search' (see Canter, 1982). The external search that ensues may employ two sources; informal or formal (Mathieson and

Wall, 1982: 31). The first of these includes comments from family, friends or fellow travellers, whilst formal sources are less personal and include media advertising, travel intermediaries and holiday brochures.

Katz and Lazarfeld (1955) regard person-to-person contact as the most influential means of transferring information, a conclusion upheld in the case of holidaymakers (see, for example, Nolan, 1974: 54-5; Schmoll, 1977: 59; Vogeler, 1977). Gitelson and Crompton (1983) find that 71% of their respondents use information received from friends and relatives, over twice that of the next most frequently used source, guidebooks (see table 12). Widespread preference is exercised for information from informal sources : lack of familiarity results in a negative attitude towards a given source (Nolan, 1974: 70). This may well be a strategy to reduce the risk involved in holiday purchase prior to direct experience of the product (see Kaynak and Yavas, 1981), as informal sources are generally accredited with greater accuracy.

Table 12 : Tourists' use of information sources

SOURCE	% OF RESPONDENTS INDICATING INFORMATION RECEIVED FROM THE NAMED SOURCE
Friends & relatives	71
Commercial guidebooks	30
Government information	17
Commercial brochures	25
Automobile clubs	22
Travel agents	10
Oil Company travel clubs	6
T.V. - media	17
Radio - media	7
Newspaper - media	9
General magazines - media	10
Specific travel magazines	14

(Gitelson and Crompton, 1983: 3)

A great deal more uncertainty pervades over the significance of the travel agent as a source of information. This is not discussed at length here (see Time, 1967; Richardson, 1969; Sindlinger, 1969; Sesser, 1970). A similarly large body of literature covers the debate over the effect of mass media advertising on travel choice (eg. see Waugh, 1962; Montgomery and Bergman, 1966; McCalls, 1969; Rusk, 1970; Marplan, 1972), although it is generally considered secondary to informal sources or direct experience (see Gunn, 1972 : 115; Young, 1973: 4). Assessment of current tourism advertisements suggests that corporate advertising to gain tour operating loyalty takes precedence over that focussing on specific destinations.

Though information search may vary according to certain characteristics of the holiday to be undertaken (for example, Schul and Crompton, 1983, find that as the propensity to visit an unfamiliar destination increases, so does the extent of information search), it is largely a very individual phenomenon with respect to differing types of holidaymaker (Nolan, 1974: 73). So too is the process by which it is employed in the construction of pre-holiday images. Though studies measuring images of far-distant places abroad are numerous (see, for example, Georgoulas, 1970; Harrison and Sarre, 1971; Mayo, 1973; Saarinen, 1973; Hunt, 1975; Riley and Palmer, 1976; Swart, Gearing and Var, 1976; Walker J.D., 1976), with the exception of Hunt (1975), rarely have they been studied in the context of decision-making (Mathieson and Wall, 1982: 32). A more common theme rests on the difference between cognitive and actual physical distance, expounded in theoretical terms by Briggs (1973), Cadwallader and Clark (1973), Downs and Stea (1977), and Mackay and Zinnes (1981). The difference between the two increases as actual distance to destination increases (Cook and McCleary, 1983). Only infrequently, however, are these studies integrated with the wider field of tourism decision-making

research, though they are at least more numerous than those investigating processes of evaluation between possible holiday options.

3.3.7 Means of selection from alternative choices

Very little is known about the range of options considered and how these are evaluated in the build-up to holiday choice. Are individuals intent on reaching specific destinations before consideration of options even commences, or are broader parameters exercised? Are many options considered, or is the first holiday meeting certain criteria chosen? How often is the holiday an impulse purchase, or is it more frequently subject to careful consideration and debate?

Questions such as these are very difficult to answer given the scarcity of applicable studies. Something approaching a framework is provided by the research of Woodside and Sherrell (1977) who find that travellers usually consider a limited number of destinations (from 2 - 5) which they feel they have a reasonable likelihood of visiting, since the mental process of evaluating the positive and negative features of a large number of resorts is likely to be an unacceptable task.

There is clearly considerable scope for further research into the means of resort evaluation and selection. Though similar comment equally applies to other areas of tourist decision-making, there is a more pressing need to streamline such research by more frequent standardisation of classification systems, and further integrated application of findings to the explanation of expressed behaviour patterns. An additional step is

required in the case of the package holidaymaker, for there is first a need to confirm the relevance of this tourism research in general (together with amendments where necessary) prior to acquiring a genuine understanding of package holiday choice. The paucity of strictly relevant literature means this can only be achieved by adoption of a multidisciplinary approach, encouraging the cross-fertilisation of ideas (see Heeley, 1982). Selectivity is the key attribute of such an approach, both to retain conceptual tidiness and to ensure theoretical manageability. This provides the basic premise on which research extracts from a variety of related sources are discussed in the following section.

3.4 LEISURE AND RECREATION STUDIES

3.4.1 The nature of application

As holidays may be seen as the peak of the annual leisure experience (Burkart and Medlik, 1974:221) it is profitable to provide an explanation of tourist behaviour within the wider context of leisure (see Coppock, 1974: 235; D.G. Pearce, 1981: 1). Given the many difficulties encountered in defining leisure (see Glasser, 1973: 63; Roberts, 1978: 1), it is important to recognise that the combined discussion of leisure and recreation studies in this section is an outcome of their overlapping contribution rather than any terminological confusion.

This is apparent in the mutual call for greater use of decision-making information in the explanation of behaviour patterns (see Cherry, 1976). Glyptis (1983a: 2) sees the reliance on descriptive data for explanatory

insight as a misuse of material sources, for descriptive profile characteristics are not necessarily determinants of behaviour (see Glyptis, 1981). Similarly, both leisure and recreation research have been quick to realise the value of life-style measures for participant profiling, due to the far-reaching advantages they offer (see Glyptis, 1983a: 35) and dissatisfaction with the effectiveness of traditional indices (see Stover and Garbin, 1982; Surber, 1983). Though Feldman and Thielbar (1975) view it as a matter of greater complexity than clarity, there are numerous studies profitably employing life-style measures in explanatory analysis of leisure and recreational behaviour. Glyptis (1981 : 314) for example, devises life-style measures by diary accounts representing,

"The aggregate pattern of day-to-day activities..."

This method rests largely on the matrix of daily 'leisure' activities undertaken whilst not working. Other life-style studies tend to place greater abstract emphasis on attitudes, interests and opinions (known as AIO research), deriving participant groupings from inventories either by factor analysis (see Proctor, 1962; Bishop, 1970; Witt, 1971; McKechnie, 1974) or clustering procedures (see Burton, 1971; Tatham and Dornoff, 1971; Romsa, 1973). However, though leisure and recreation research perhaps offer a more mature collection of life-style analysis, this merely underscores the need for such an approach already prompted by consideration of tourism literature. In this sense it is unlikely they offer anything 'new' to the study of package holidaymaking. A more tangible contribution is offered by two off-shoots of the life-style concept; the relationship between work and leisure, and the notion of life-style based behavioural 'careers'.

3.4.2 Work/leisure relationships

Ties between work and leisure were enthusiastically investigated in the 1970's, based on the premise that the nature and quality of the work experience influences that sought during leisure time activities. It is this emphasis on the qualitative aspects of work, rather than strict occupational categorisation, which is closely attuned to the central theme of life-style research.

Only an outline of research studying the work/leisure relationship is presented here : rather more exhaustive coverage can be found in Parker (1973b; 1975; 1976), Roberts (1978) and Staines (1980). Recognition of a relationship is based on the assumption that work is a central component of everyday life (see M.A. Smith, 1973: 6), providing the opportunity for self-identification (Parker, 1973b: 75) and attachment to routines (Young and Willmott, 1973: 151). As such it creates a time-ordering essential to everyday existence. It is on such a foundation that the work/leisure relationship, following Wilensky (1960), may be conceptualised in terms of two hypothesised linkages; Spillover and Compensation. These linkages, subsequently to be copied by many researchers (e.g. Wippler, 1970; Meissner, 1971; Kelly, 1972) warrant further discussion. The Spillover (or extension) hypothesis states that the nature of leisure experiences are similar to those gained at work (see Zuzanek and Mannell, 1983). The Compensation (or opposition) hypothesis recognises the pursuit of leisure experiences to contrast with those at work. In addition, Parker (1973a: 71) identifies a third class of linkage (Neutrality), which proposes a lack of involvement and no systematic relationship between work and leisure (see also Surber, 1983; Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1985: 161).

Debate concerning the existence of these links is extensive, and will not be entered into here. Suffice to say that despite criticism based on the assumptions made (see M.A. Smith, 1973: 6), the role of intervening variables (see Pennings, 1976; Iso-Ahola, 1980; Kabanoff and O'Brien, 1980), the means of such linkage (Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1985: 173) and the claim that supporting evidence is in fact limited (see Burns, 1973: 40-1; Spreitzer and Snyder, 1974; Champoux, 1975: 56; Kabanoff, 1980; Surber, 1983; Loundsbury and Hoopes, 1985), a large number of writers add their support to the notion of a work/leisure relationship. The nature of this evidence is dependent on the dimensions on which work and leisure are compared, and the hypothetical level at which this comparison is made (see diagram 4). The complexity introduced by these considerations prevents simple summation of the nature of the work/leisure relationship other than to suggest that the link is a subtle one (Parker, 1973a :69), and sensitive to the measures used to uncover it. It is more important to recognise that it may aid our understanding of the choice between an independent or package holiday, the former being characterised by independence and decision autonomy, the latter by routine and external organisation. Such differences were inferred by Newman (1973: 235-8) to account for the high proportion of working class people preferring package holidays. If so, this represents support for the 'Spillover' hypothesis. It will be investigated further in Chapters Six and Seven.

3.4.3. Behavioural careers and the life cycle

The evolution of leisure participation, in tandem with progression through the life cycle, facilitates the identification of 'leisure careers' (see Kelly, 1977; Osgood and Howe, 1984). This is

Diagram 4 : An outline of support for the relationship between
work and leisure activities

A: COMPARISON DIMENSIONS

DIMENSION	NATURE OF RELATIONSHIP	REFERENCE
1	Interpersonal interaction	: Spillover : Bishop & Ikeda (1970) : Staines & Pagnucco (1977)
2	Autonomy	: Spillover : Meissner (1971) : Karasek (1976)
3	Mental effort	: Spillover : Kohn & Schooler (1973) : Karasek (1976)
4	Physical effort	: Compensation : Bishop & Ikeda (1970) : Karasek (1976)

B: COMPARISON LEVEL

LEVEL	NATURE OF RELATIONSHIP	REFERENCE
1	Attitude	: Spillover : Harry (1971) : Campbell et al (1976) : Orpen (1978) : Compensation : Grubb (1975) : Mansfield & Evans (1975) : Adams & Stone (1977) : Herbert (1984)
2	Behavioural	: Spillover : Miller & Kohn (1982) : Compensation : - none uncovered

because the uses and character of leisure are fashioned by surrounding society (Roberts, 1978: 92) and the experiences it imparts on the individual (Stover and Garbin, 1982). As with any career, in the absence of major upheavals, later stages of development reflect the origins on which it is founded. Thus, the impact of society and subsequent experiences during the formative years of the life cycle explains why adult leisure activities are often a function of childhood participation (see Sofranko and Nolan, 1972; Yoesting and Burkhead, 1973; Kelly, 1977).

The notion of 'leisure careers' is therefore not just an expression of academic convenience, but is also a plausible interpretative tool in the explanation of behaviour. It is ably demonstrated by Young and Willmott (1973: 15) who remark that,

"... our own survey ... showed ... that older people more often went for walks and were more satisfied with their jobs. Can it be safely concluded that they were like that only because they were older? Clearly not. Such an unqualified conclusion would be legitimate only if there had been no historical change in these respects since the people, now old, were young. If the assumption is abandoned, the possibility has to be reckoned with that the old people are as they are partly because when they were young they walked more and rode less, or were more satisfied with their jobs than people have since become. They may, as they have grown older, not changed but remained [more or less] as they started out, while younger generations have started off differently, and also stayed the same subsequently; or, more likely, both influences were at work together. The difference may be due to their birth-date in a sequence of ever-changing centuries as well as to their birth-date alone."

Clearly, the effect of past experiences is crucial to our understanding of current behaviour, an emphasis often discussed within recreation research. This may determine information processing (for example, see Lime and Lucas, 1977; Krumpal, 1979; Rentz and Schreyer, 1979; Lucas, 1981; Roggenbuck and Berrier, 1981) or motivation towards certain behavioural 'ends'. As such it represents a close ally to the concept of leisure careers. Combined, they help provide a particularly attractive perspective from which to interpret package holiday choice, particularly in the light of rapid changes in holidaymaking behaviour witnessed this century (see Chapter Two). To ensure accurate interpretation of this behaviour, a working knowledge of the decision-making process is required. This is one element discussed in the following section.

3.5 THE CONTRIBUTION OF PSYCHOLOGY

3.5.1. Decision-making and motivation theory

To ensure conceptual accuracy, many recent leisure studies (for example, Tinsley and Kass, 1979; Iso-Ahola and Allen, 1982; P.L. Pearce, 1982a; Beard and Ragheb, 1983) endorse investigation of travel motivation in the context of psychological motivation theory. Though the value of this is widely recognised, it is unfortunate that our current understanding of motivation and decision-making is not so widespread (see Gray and Tallman, 1984). An all-encompassing model of choice behaviour therefore cannot be extracted from the literature and applied to the current study, though one or two guidelines may be profitably selected.

Firstly, assessment of psychological literature confirms the need for a 'satisficing' approach to choice analysis, by offering a wealth of 'descriptive' decision-making models (which deal with processes in reality) over 'normative' models (see, for example, Janis and Mann, 1977; Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). These descriptive models are often preferred (see Ölander, 1975; Van Praag, 1975; Baron, Byrne and Kantowitz, 1980: 284; Edwards, 1984). Furthermore, psychological research uncovers some of the basic human drives, many of which aid our understanding of holiday behaviour. These drives are an intrinsic function of the biological and physiological needs of the body, and can therefore be distinguished from motives which are primarily learnt (Bugelski, 1973: 408). The source of many travel motives, for example, are apparent in Dichter's (1964: 436-7) list of four basic human needs :

1. Visceral - those that keep the body functioning

2. Activity - the need to move around and explore
3. Sensory - the tendency to organise our surroundings and orientate ourselves with the environment
4. Security - the avoidance of threats and danger

Continuing this theme, many psychological studies of motivation (for example, Maslow, 1954; 1968; Eiser, 1980; Kagan and Havemann, 1980 : 365-77) can be applied in a similar manner. Whilst useful, this breaks no new ground, and serves only to infill and substantiate knowledge of decision-making within the framework already acquired in Section 3 of this chapter. Here the psychologist's contribution must not be dismissed however, for there remain two further areas logically tied to choice of package holiday; the relationship between weather, mood and behaviour, and the role of fashion.

3.5.2 Weather, mood and behaviour

Huntington (1945), Tromp (1974) and Moos (1976) provide reviews of the widespread research into the relationships between weather, mood and behaviour. General consensus is that weather affects an individual's emotional state or mood, which in turn creates a predisposition to engage in particular behaviours (Howarth and Hoffman, 1984). A mediating role is therefore assumed by 'mood' (see Bell and Baron, 1976; M.R. Cunningham, 1979; Schneider et al, 1980; Bell, 1981).

No attempt is made here to delve deep into the realms of physiology or biology to account for these relationships (for a full account see M.R.

Cunningham, 1979). The nature of these ties, however, needs unravelling before their value to the current study can be proposed, though it must be remembered that much research to date is based on small samples (see Sanders and Brizzolara, 1982).

Bell and Baron (1976) and Palamerek and Rule (1980) find that as temperature increases, so does the tendency for aggressive behaviour. A contrary trend however is uncovered by Schneider et al (1980) and Goldstein (1972). This conflict may be reconciled by consideration of the temperature extremes examined, for it is unlikely temperature is linearly related to aggression, either positively or negatively. Rather, two critical temperature levels exist, between which aggression is subdued, and above or below which aggression is provoked.

Other findings are less equivocal. Optimism scores increase as the number of sunshine hours per day rises (Persinger, 1975; Howarth and Hoffman, 1984). Similarly, warm temperatures invoke friendliness (M.R. Cunningham, 1979), whilst attraction response of individuals to stimuli are strongly positive under 'comfortable conditions' (Griffitt, 1970), genial temperatures contributing towards this.

These findings clearly account for the preference of many holidaymakers to seek favourable weather on holiday. If the associations are to be believed (and there are fundamental medical reasons for these preferences), this in turn accounts for the cheery disposition often displayed whilst on holiday, and explains why activities are undertaken which, for the rest of the year, would not even be considered. The 'happy holiday' therefore, more than just a familiar term, may actually be the

simple manifestation of biological and physiological response to a sympathetic and favourable environment. This brings us full circle once more to consideration of the basic human drives, outlined by Maslow (1954; 1968) amongst others. As such, psychological research provides an understanding of certain elements of holiday choice that is much more than skin deep by explaining the mechanisms behind climatic preferences. A similar function is achieved by studies of fashion.

3.5.3. The role of fashion

As demonstrated in Chapters One and Two, variation in destination trends can sometimes be ascribed to fluctuations in the "pull" of fashionable resorts. The French ski village of Courchevel is a current example. What are the mechanisms behind such behaviour?

Fashion theory has evolved largely through emphasis placed on clothing, though the principles involved are generally considered applicable to all products and services (Sproles, 1981a). Long term variation in fashion occurs as tastes evolve in an historical continuity of styling changes (Sapir, 1931; Blumer, 1969). Alternatively, short term variation occurs as a consequence of progression through stages in the product life cycle (known as introduction, acceptance, mass conformity and decline / obsolescence). This may pass in less than a decade. Both may be applied to tourism, the latter possibly accounting for the shift in destination preferences since 1970 (see Lundberg, 1972: 10).

Upperclass leadership theory assigns propagation of these trends to higher social groups (see Sproles, 1981a), who in the first instance enjoy sole

patronage of a particular product (in this case, the holiday destination). However, as holiday options previously available only to the upper classes slowly trickle down the social scale, their reaction is to retain exclusivity by enforcing a change of holiday habit to a new destination.

Alternatively, mass market theory (after King, 1963) proposes that mass production and communications make new styles available to all social classes simultaneously, fashion diffusion thereby having the opportunity to commence at the same time within any given social group. This would seem to provide a suitable explanation of the switch in package holidaymaker patronage from Spain to Greece and Yugoslavia in the early 1980's. Both theories, however, require careful consideration in the context of explicit destination preferences, before the effects of fashion on resort choice can be evaluated. It is in this context that the remark made by Sproles (1981a: 116) that,

"The phenomenon of fashion invades consumers' choices of many products and services."

finds much validity, thereby invoking further investigation of consumer choice behaviour.

3.6 CONSUMER CHOICE RESEARCH

3.6.1 Validation and coverage

Consumer behaviour may be identified as,

".. the acts of individuals directly involved in obtaining and using economic goods and services, including the decision processes that precede and determine these acts."

(Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1968:5)

As much consumer research to date deals with goods, can these findings be strictly applied to the study of package holidays? A great deal of discussion revolves around the difference between an 'item of goods' and a 'service' (see, for example, A. Wilson, 1972; George and Barksdale, 1974; Gronroos, 1979), though the unique characteristics exhibited by services are neatly summarised by Greenley and Matcham (1983), who state that :

- 1 Services are not tangible and cannot be seen before purchase
- 2 Services cannot be stored
- 3 Services are more variable and difficult to standardise
- 4 Service flows are not easily adjusted in response to short run demand increases

In many ways the package holiday fails to exhibit such characteristics. Pre-purchase viewing may be achieved through the use of holiday brochures (and more recently, video films), 'storage' is possible until contract date, standardisation certainly has been achieved (often to an enviable degree) and tour operator programmes are often adjusted prior to, and actually during, the holiday season. Should this prompt the unqualified classification of package holidays as an item of goods, it must be remembered that the holiday purchase is unusual in many ways, not least on account of the considerable expenditure involved and the lack of initial tangible return on this investment (see Wahab, Crampon and Rothfield, 1976: 74; Gitelson and Crompton, 1984). The research discussed in this

section therefore requires cautious treatment. It essentially revolves around two theories; the role of risk in purchase behaviour, and Veblen's (1899) concept of 'conspicuous consumption'. Before these are investigated further it is first necessary to briefly mention the role of psychographic research in consumer behaviour studies. To fail to do so might prove misleading considering the wealth of such studies (see, for example, Myers, Stanton and Haug, 1971; Myers and Mount, 1973; Hirsch and Peters, 1974; Zaltman and Wallendorf, 1979; Schaninger, 1981).

Unlike leisure research, where this concept has been applied mainly through life-style parameters, psychographic studies in consumer activities tend to focus on the role of personality in choice behaviour (Ziff, 1971). Wells (1975) provides an inventory of such work, which may be updated by additional reference to Horton (1979). Despite extensive literature coverage, evidence for the relationship is equivocal (Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1968: 163; Frank, Massy and Lodahl, 1969; Kassarjian, 1971), and there remain misgivings concerning the techniques used to measure personality (see, for example, Teleki, 1970; Dorny, 1971; Garfinkle, 1971; Reiser, 1972). Direct application of personality profiling is not furthered therefore, though proxy measures are used where appropriate.

3.6.2 Risk and purchase behaviour

Risk is an important consideration in choice (Barnes, 1977; Midgley, 1983), itself the central problem of consumer behaviour research (Taylor, J.W. 1974). Manifested in many ways (see Jacoby and Kaplan,

1972), the consumer often seeks to reduce its effect by means of risk reduction strategies, the most common being extensive information search prior to purchase, and brand loyalty.

In general, as perceived risk increases so does the propensity to seek relevant information (Swan, 1972; Weigl, 1975). As purchase price and perceived risk are strongly interlinked, it is not surprising to find that as price increases so information search, in terms of time and the range of sources, becomes more extensive (see Towery, 1970; Arndt, 1972: 10; Newman and Staelin, 1972; Ross, 1974: 49; Kiel and Layton, 1981). A similar effect is exercised by an increase in inter-purchase time (Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1968: 519; see also Midgley, 1983). Both dictate anticipation of extensive information search prior to package holiday purchase. They may be insufficient, however, to allay fears involved in holiday choice, such is its relative magnitude and infrequency. Under such circumstances the consumer may further reduce perceived risk by exercising brand loyalty, be it with respect to the tour operator, destination, or choice of any other holiday component.

A high risk purchase is more likely to foster brand-loyal behaviour (Cunningham 1967a: 513-4) than frequent or low-risk purchases, many of which generate an opposite tendency simply as a means of maintaining novelty (Brickman and D'Amato, 1975). Once established however, as familiarity increases so too does the impetus for variety-seeking (Pessemier and Handelsman, 1984). This suggests that inexperienced package holidaymakers exercise brand loyalty until sufficiently familiar with the product (at which point perceived risk is assumed to decline), when more adventurous purchases may be made. Indeed, novelty may be

valued in its own right, not only on account of the stimulation it may ensure, but also as a means of furthering recognition of the initial purchase by onlookers.

3.6.3 The concept of 'conspicuous consumption'

As a phenomenon of buying behaviour, the notion of 'conspicuous consumption' was first introduced by Veblen (1899), but has received little attention since then (Mason, 1984). Its basic premise is that as a form of exceptional behaviour, it lies beyond the general scope of consumer theory, which views the purchase of goods or services as a function of their inherent utility. Instead it is founded on the belief that a purchase may be made according to the value it assumes in the eyes of other individuals, whose opinions and reaction are important to the buyer. 'Conspicuous consumption' is therefore a form of purchase behaviour inspired by social rather than economic or physiological product utility (Mason, 1981: vii-viii). It is due to such forces that particularly high prices may be charged for prestige items, in so much as they facilitate 'status' acquisition within, or between, social groups (Mason, 1981: 28).

Accordingly, 'conspicuous consumption' flourishes within affluent societies, (Galbraith, 1977). V.L. Smith (1979: 50) even remarks that,

"Tourism, the world's largest peaceful industry, is a signal example of conspicuous consumption."

The package holiday seems a particularly suitable candidate for such assessment. Although economy-based standardisation has been achieved, the holiday still represents the peak of the annual leisure experience, and thereby inherits status accordingly. As a frequently talked about event,

it is a highly 'visible' purchase (despite being intangible), as are often its after-effects. In the analysis chapters that follow, an attempt will be made to qualitatively assess the role of 'conspicuous consumption' in modifying anticipated behavioural response to certain controlling factors. Prior to this the explicit research objectives need to be established and the data-matrix, on which analysis is founded, further discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTING THE CURRENT STUDY

4.1 CONCEPTUAL DESIGNATION

4.1.1 Research objectives

Just as the original formulation of research objectives is in the first instance dependent on a knowledge of relevant literature, so an understanding of the proposed contribution of these sources is a prerequisite to the thorough appreciation of the aims and experimental hypotheses upon which the current study is based. The value of context thus cannot be overplayed, for it is the directives it offers in combination with specific targets that help isolate and define research objectives.

The overall aim of this thesis is to generate an understanding of package holidaymaking behaviour, covering a broad spectrum of the elements this entails, from previous tied preferences to behaviour undertaken whilst actually on holiday. Carried throughout as a unifying theme is an examination of the package holiday destination; to explain not only spatial behaviour patterns, but also to uncover the intrinsic and extrinsic function of the holiday destination. This is to be achieved by examination of the latter's role in overall holiday choice, and by careful analysis of the process by which participants decide on their destination, translating this through an understanding of destination choice to

provide a comprehensive explanation of locational patterns of package holidaymaking.

These objectives, together with the literature discussed in Chapter Three, must be considered when the research hypotheses are assessed. Presented in three classes, they are as follows:

- 1 HOLISTIC HYPOTHESIS : Variation in expressed package holidaymaking behaviour is attributable to the differing characteristics of participating individuals.

- 2 COMPONENT HYPOTHESES (i) : The decision process and criteria constituting holiday destination choice vary according to decision-maker characteristics such that the two in combination provide an effective explanation of locational patterns of package holidaymaking.
 - (ii) : The explanatory contribution of life-style measures equals or transcends that of 'traditional' economic and sociodemographic factors.
 - (iii) : As an outcome of previous holiday experience, vacation behaviour may be partly explained by reference to a progression of holiday 'careers' through the life cycle.
 - (iv) : The primary element of overall holiday choice is the destination decision.

- (v) : Owing to the relative ease of inclusive tour travel, spatial patterns of package holidaymaking do not conform with wider explanations of population displacement behaviour.
- 3 CONTEXTUAL HYPOTHESIS : In the absence of literature specific to package holidays, relevant explanations of package holidaymaking choice and behaviour can be found in a variety of peripheral sources.

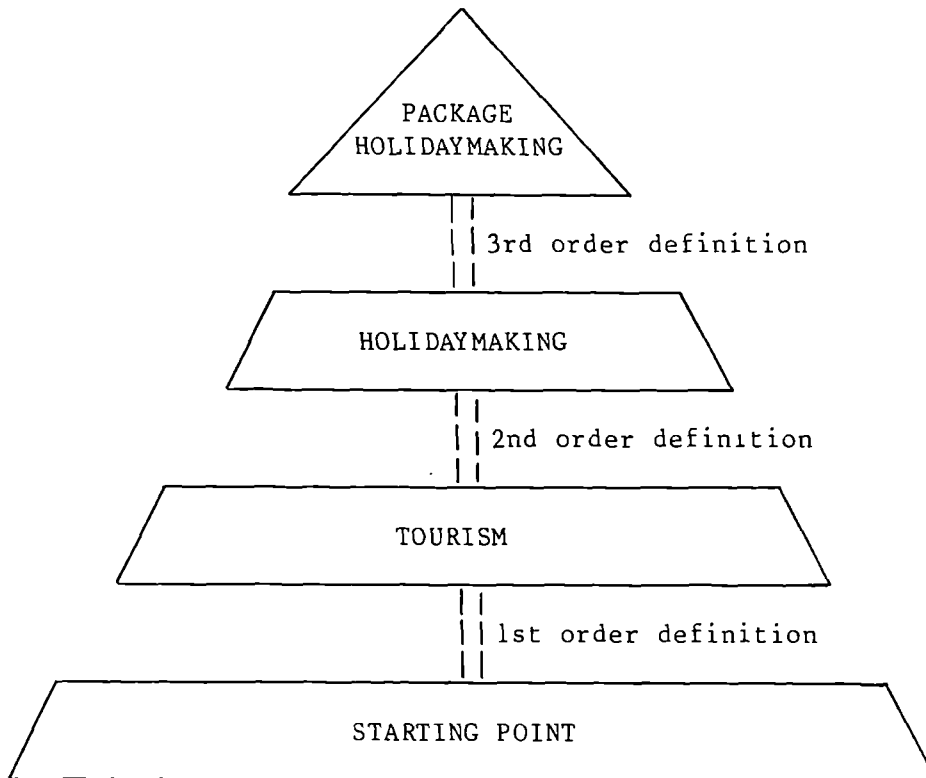
The cumulative effect of these hypotheses is to define the study parameters, and as such they are instrumental in the research design. Therefore, before their implications on the nature and content of the study are discussed, the definitions employed in the isolation of subject material are presented.

4.1.2 Definitions employed

As mentioned in preceding chapters, the study of tourism is riddled with terminological inconsistency and widespread neglect over the creation of standard working definitions. There is an obvious need therefore to state clearly the definitions followed in this study. These are outlined in hierarchical form in diagram 5.

A. First order definition: The most important element of tourism is the movement of people from one location to another (Matley, 1976: 6). This

Diagram 5 : The hierarchy of definitions used to identify the subject focus



fails, however, to distinguish tourism from other forms of population displacement, notably migration. Extracted from the multitude of available alternatives, the following definition is adopted by the current study :

"Tourism is the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal place of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater to their needs".

(Mathieson and Wall, 1982: 1)

B. Second order definition : Burkart and Medlik (1974: 40) identify three types of tourism according to purpose of visit :

- 1 Business tourism
- 2 Common interest tourism i.e. visiting friends and relatives
- 3 Holiday tourism

The intention behind travel may thus be used to isolate "the holiday" from other forms of travel. Businessmen and people travelling and staying with friends and relatives, though tourists, are not in this instance classed as holidaymakers. This definition is tightened by strict application of the standard exercised by the British Tourist Authority to distinguish holidays from weekend trips by inclusion of the criterion that holidays must involve a break away from home of four nights or more.

C. Third order definition : A package holiday is distinct from an independent holiday because the pre-paid cost of the travel fare cannot be distinguished from the cost of accommodation and other elements (Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 42; Holloway, 1983: 7). Again, this is a definition strictly adhered to in the research presented here.

Clearly, accurate utilisation of these hierarchical definitions is dependent on the specification of an operative time period. For the purpose of the current study this is defined as twelve months prior to the starting date of the field survey (effectively, therefore, between 1/10/83 and 30/9/84). This is considered an amicable balance between ensuring sufficient holiday coverage without inducing undue problems of memory decay, and coincides tidily with the tendency for holidays to be taken on an annual basis. Where one or more holidays have been taken in the stated time period, the main one (as perceived by the respondent) is designated the study holiday. If no such distinction is possible, the most recent holiday is chosen for further analysis. When applied to a survey largely conducted between September and January, this clearly implies a bias towards summer holidays. This is borne out in practice.

These definitions generate three outcome categories; package holiday,

independent holiday and no holiday. Individuals (identified as the main household decision-maker, and the highest household income earner in cases of joint decisions) are ascribed to each of these categories according to the selection criteria previously outlined. This facilitates accurate identification of the subject focus of the study; the package holiday and the package holidaymaker. The next step is to consider the structure of the research and the approach it follows.

4.2 STRUCTURE AND APPROACH

4.2.1 The pattern of investigation

Synonymity commonly extends between function and form. This association is maintained in the current study by careful tailoring of the identity it assumes to its stated objectives (already outlined in the previous section). The structure and approach adopted therefore closely resemble the research hypotheses they serve.

Behaviour is examined at three increasingly specific levels. These are;

- 1 General holiday participation
- 2 Package holiday 'habits'
- 3 Spatial patterns of package holidaymaking

1. General holiday participation is based on three mutually exclusive categories (themselves an outcome of the definitions employed by the research). These comprise non -, independent and package holidaymakers. The aim is to first distinguish the holidaymaker from the non-holidaymaker before further dividing participating individuals into two groups; those

taking an independent holiday and those taking a package holiday. Thus, the package holidaymaker is progressively identified from the general population as a precursor to further analysis of their behaviour.

2. Package holiday 'habits' is the term used to encompass all the components of a package holiday other than its spatial elements. These include the holiday party (size and composition), services (accommodation and transport), temporal aspects (holiday month and duration) and elements of behaviour undertaken whilst actually on holiday (activities and day trip travel). It also covers booking behaviour (month and extent of advance booking) together with two measures related to previous package holiday choice (resort and brand loyalty). Once examined, behaviour is further investigated at the third level of analysis.

3. Spatial patterns of package holidaymaking are studied in greater depth and by several indices. These are resort location relative to both the home (in terms of linear journey distance and travel time) and to destination nationality (to differentiate between domestic and foreign resorts), and destination features (founded on the inland/coastal dichotomy, and on resort characteristics). A full list of these behaviour measures is given in Appendix 1A.

Investigation of behaviour clearly becomes more detailed with each successive level of analysis. This secures the advantage of contextual oversight, for any element of behaviour is always studied in the light of wider issues, and not in isolation.

Use of explanatory factors largely follows similar principles, culminating in a full discussion of the holiday destination decision and its bearing

on locational patterns of package holidaymaking. The finer investigation of destination choice at the third level of analysis is commensurate with increased specialisation of the descriptive base. Equilibrium is therefore maintained between the descriptive and the explanatory components of the research. This is an integral part of the structure within which investigation occurs. The actual nature of this investigation, however, is dependent on the approach adopted. This is now further considered.

4.2.2 Research typology

Given the literature deficiencies highlighted in the previous chapter, a study setting out to explain package holidaymaking behaviour by reference to the characteristics of participating individuals and their decision-making processes, hardly requires exhaustive justification. The approach adopted to achieve these goals however, does warrant further attention. Subsequent finer discussion is dependent on a clear view as to the type of study this research represents.

Cicchetti (1972) recognises three types of recreation study, each equally applicable to tourism. These are:

- i Site-specific area models
- ii Site-specific user models
- iii Population-specific models

Site-specific models examine the observable behaviour patterns at a given site. Consequently, the findings tend to be closely tied to that site, and may lack applicability elsewhere. A similar weakness may be seen in site-specific user models, which examine the characteristics of users of a

specified site. The third study type concentrates on the whole population, and not just the recreationally active. Population-specific models thus offer a complete perspective for the interpretation of behaviour. The current study falls into this category, largely on account of two distinct advantages. Firstly, by covering all individuals, the population-specific model is the only one of the three capable of handling all possible dimensions of choice (Vickerman, 1978: 317), a quality commensurate with the desire to progressively isolate the package holidaymaker from home-stayers and then from independent travellers. Secondly, in contrast to the growing number of site-based empirical leisure studies focussing on patterns rather than processes (see Owens, 1984; Kirby, 1985), population-specific models place emphasis on the participant and expressed preferences rather than behavioural/travel facilities. As such they provide an appealing perspective from which to analyse holiday choice, and are closely attuned to the central component of tourism - people (see Gunn, 1972; Wahab, 1975:8; Leiper, 1979; 1981; Mathieson and Wall, 1982: 14). As a population-specific study centred on individuals and their choice processes, therefore, the emphasis inherent within the current research can be underscored. This standpoint now verified, some of the details of the approach require further clarification.

4.2.3 Population characteristics; coverage and employment

Appendix 1B lists those measures used to represent population characteristics. Though recently challenged by life-style protagonists, sociodemographic and economic characteristics have long been used as segmentation indices, and indeed are often used to provide the framework

within which life-style measures operate. The decision to include them as fundamental components of the explanatory base of this research therefore seems wholly justified.

Literature assessment also urges that life-style measures be used in analysis. Accordingly, three classes are included. These are daily leisure activities, previous holiday experience and qualitative work descriptors (leisure - , holiday - and work life-style measures respectively). Leisure life-styles are studied largely in the wake of the exploratory studies made by Glyptis (see 1979; 1981; 1983a; 1983b), and are orientated towards the search for connectivity between high frequency / low magnitude leisure activities and their opposite counterparts (that is, holidays). Holiday life-styles are used as a tool to investigate further the idealised progression of holiday careers through the life cycle, whilst exploration of the work/leisure relationship in the context of holidaymaking determines the inclusion of work life-style measures.

No attempt is made to use a direct measure of personality, which may appear contradictory to the large body of consumer behaviour literature dedicated to the influence of psychographic factors. This is because the concept of personality is undermined by basic theoretical weaknesses and is confounded by practical problems. In particular, little agreement has been reached over the standardisation of measures, even amongst primary schemes such as the Gordon Personal Profile (see Tucker and Painter, 1961), the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and the California Personality Inventory. Furthermore, many devised tests are clumsy and time-consuming; Perreault, Darden and Darden (1977) require 105 statements in the construction of 28 Activity, Interest and Opinion scales. Even

then the data required may not be truly representative, for owing to complex interaction between personality and situational variables, the effects of the confounding environment on the day of profiling have to be considered (Barefoot, Strickland and Housch, 1981). Thus, where personality traits are considered in the course of analysis, they are not measured directly but are interpolated from other profile measures. This in itself is beneficial to the research, for rather than strict statistical ties, it encourages carefully interpreted qualitative associations bearing much closer resemblance to the proposed nature of personality influences on behaviour.

A further characteristic of personality indicators, and indeed all other population measures, is their integrated application. Their effect is not investigated in isolation, as is often the case in profile analysis, for this obscures multivariate influences and exaggerates the role of individual factors (Glyptis 1983a: 3). Following the example set by Patmore and Rodgers (1972), the interdependence between profile measures is examined, and their interaction considered when investigating the effect of population characteristics on behaviour. The mechanisms by which this is achieved are outlined in the following chapter.

4.2.4 Intermediary linkage and decision-making measures

The heart of scientific method lies in the process of identifying sets and understanding relationships between these sets (Atkin, 1974: 82). Traditional leisure research, in its widest sense,

has concentrated on two such sets; one representing participant characteristics, and the other their expressed behaviour patterns. Such approaches may encounter many problems, not least of which is the interpretation of associative ties. Since explanatory insight is forced to rely on descriptive data, process has to be inferred from form (see Cox and Golledge, 1969). The problem is essentially one of induction. Reasons for behaviour have to be deduced by studying relationships between 'independent' and 'dependent' measures. Explanatory insight therefore runs the risk of remaining incomplete, for inference is usually dependent on the prior existence of these relationships. Intermediary information pertaining to the decision-making process itself is required, a call frequently encountered amongst tourism literature (for example, see Hebestreit, 1975: 59; Nichols, 1982: 77; Iso-Ahola, 1983a). How might such information be represented?

The creation of a package holidaymaker decision-making model initially seems the most appropriate means of forming this link. Such an approach, however, would inevitably be founded on several major weaknesses existing within decision theory itself. These are outlined by Thrift (1981: 352-9). It is for similar reasons that a motivation model is discarded, handicapped as it is by measurement problems (see Dann, 1981; 1983), classification disorder (see Dichter, 1964: 385), and its great complexity (see Guthrie, 1961, Crompton, 1979; Dichter, 1979). All these were discussed in Chapter Three.

This is not to evade an issue as challenging as holiday choice. However, it seems unwise to openly build research on bases undermined by fundamental theoretical weakness and conceptual ambiguity. The approach

adopted assumes a more simplistic stance by considering the role of a selected set of explicit choice criteria and processes. These are used as pointers by which, out of the confusion generated by decision-making and motivation models, the important principles of holiday choice may be discerned.

Appendix 1C lists the basic choice information used in analysis. This is of two types; criteria used in deciding the first choice of holiday, and the processes behind this choice, namely information sources used and the range of options considered. Restraints imposed on the research dictate that this information is not used at each of the three behaviour levels of analysis.

Simple criteria are employed in the first instance to uncover the mechanisms behind the decision to either take no holiday, an independent trip, or an all-inclusive package tour. At the second level of analysis no decision information is used to assist the explanation of package holidaymaking habits. This is because so many behavioural elements are analysed (in order to retain the holiday as a complete entity), that it is impossible to consider choice criteria for each measure within the limits of the current study set by financial and temporal constraints. Furthermore, even if such restraints were relaxed, the extensive investigation that would be required to cover choice criteria for all these elements would detract from thesis focus. Accordingly, choice criteria and process information are only applied in detail at the third level of analysis. As such, their contribution is unashamedly directed towards acquisition of an insight into holiday destination choice, and the subsequent generation of a comprehensive understanding of spatial patterns

of package holidaymaking.

The constraints mentioned here determine a selective search for this decision process information only in the context of the need to assimilate it for a relatively large number of respondents. They are therefore instrumental in the balance achieved between the desire for a large volume of information from each informant, and the need to cover a wide and sufficiently numerous cross-section of respondents to support valid statistical findings and subsequent explanation. This provided the premise on which data collection and analysis were founded.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

5.1 DATA ACQUISITION

5.1.1 Choice of a suitable capture device

Regardless of the form it assumes, data is the main commodity of original research. Value can only be attached to rigorous statistical analysis and comprehensive theoretical exposition if the required information is both accurate and dependable.

The data gathered for this research is primary : that is, it is raw data collected during fieldwork and tailored to the research objectives. It is acquired largely by the use of questionnaires, a decision taken at an early stage in the research and pre-emptory to all subsequent fieldwork decisions. Questionnaires are used for several reasons. By representing a standard procedure for data collection (see Gardner, 1978: 82-3), they facilitate easy comparison amongst findings and rapid statistical processing of information. As a means of data collection they are relatively efficient, and if skilfully applied, enjoy both favourable response and comprehensive retrieval. Compared to free-talking or structured discussions they are more objective, whilst still facilitating the collection of qualitative information once a framework of facts has been secured. They are inherently flexible.

All these advantages were realised during the course of a questionnaire - based pilot survey completed in May and June 1984, when it soon became apparent that the subject matter was well suited to data collection by questionnaires. Holidays, it seems, are not particularly prone to memory decay, even though they are relatively infrequent. They are also a topic most individuals are openly prepared to discuss. Questionnaires thus proved an effective means of ordering the large volume of information invariably offered, whilst acting as a springboard for further, often qualitative, discussion.

5.1.2 Questionnaire design

Tailored to the specific requirements instilled by the research objectives, the final design of the questionnaire form used during fieldwork (see Appendix 2E) is both an outcome of lessons learnt during the pilot survey, and guidance available in a wide variety of associated literature. Compared with the Pilot questionnaire (see Appendix 2B), the form used in the main survey is more rigidly structured. This was achieved by 'closing' several open-ended questions in order to elicit standardised information from respondents and to facilitate comparison between them. Other changes made in the light of experience gained during the pilot survey were question re-wording, simplification and checklist refinement. There is little doubt the final questionnaire benefitted greatly from careful assessment of the pilot survey form.

Further benefit accrued by taking heed of a wealth of recommendations in questionnaire and survey technique texts. Evaluated in the context of

the specific research requirements and overacting constraints, the main guidelines considered were:

i. LENGTH : A logical inverse relationship exists between questionnaire length and response rate (Kanuk and Berenson, 1975; for evidence see Childers and Ferrell, 1979; Yu and Cooper, 1983). In the interest of response rate (and also manag ability) the questionnaire forms were kept as short as was reasonably possible.

ii. LAYOUT : Benefits are to be gained from a well-spread questionnaire (Scott, 1961; Rothwell and Rustmeyer, 1979, Mayer and Piper, 1982). Layout considers the interspacing of different types of question (see Smith, J.M., 1972: 91), filters to traffic questioning, and the use of personal intermediary statements outlining and smoothing over changes in question subject (see Moser and Kalton, 1971: 346; Smith, H.W., 1975: 181; Gardner, 1978: 47).

iii. QUESTION ORDER : Despite conclusions by Kalton and Schuman (1982) to the contrary, there is much evidence to suggest that question order affects response rate and accuracy. Early questions must help the rapport-building process (Smith, J.M., 1972: 91), "easy" and non-provocative questions therefore occurring early on in the questionnaire (Moser and Kalton, 1971: 346; Gardner, 1978: 47). Those risky, difficult and likely to prompt conflict, embarrassment or personal withdrawal appear at the end (see Smith, H.W., 1975: 181).

iv. QUESTION WORDING : A major problem in survey research, this has to be appropriate to the lowest educational level likely to be encountered, without appearing simplistic and trivial to those of higher educational ability. Moser and Kalton (1971: 318-331) provide a comprehensive review of points to watch concerning the wording of questions.

It should be evident from inspection of the final form in Appendix 2E that these guidelines were extensively used in the design and refinement of the working questionnaire. Equally apparent is the form's well-defined structure. This was not only due to pilot survey experience, but was also due to a preference for 'closed' questions (some with specified alternative answers) over an 'open-ended' format simply on account of the standardisation of answers and ready facility for statistical analysis which they ensure (see Kalton and Schuman, 1982). Extensive use was made of checklists, largely because they may often 'jog' the respondent's memory (see Oppenheim, 1966: 44) and are more readily comprehended than semantic differential tests. The latter proved troublesome in the pilot survey. Following the recommendations of Oppenheim (1966: 82) these checklists were carefully constructed in the light of responses secured by the pilot survey to avoid bias and to maximise objectivity, since their success is dependent on the quality of alternative answers provided. Flexibility is always retained by use of the 'other' category. Not only do these checklists give an indication of the overall pattern of response, but the relative importance of primary individual components may also be indicated (see Dixon and Leach, n.d: 35), whilst avoiding the problems of wholesale ranking systems.

5.1.3. Questions and the use of information

The questions discussed in this section all appear on the questionnaire form in Appendix 2E. Two sets of information are common to all three categories of respondent (non-, independent and package holidaymakers). The first of these is found on the cover sheet, which

though essentially for administrative purposes, was particularly useful in estimating non-response bias. The second provides basic data on the characteristics of the interviewed population. This is used as the starting point for statistical analysis in all the following chapters. It includes traditional socioeconomic and demographic factors together with three life-style measures; work (question 38), leisure (q.39) and holiday (q's 40-44).

The remaining questions on the form are for more specific purposes. Question 1 attempts to uncover, why, in general, respondents chose to take a package holiday. An equivalent question was asked of both non- and independent holidaymakers (see Appendices 2F and 2G respectively). In fact, the questionnaire for non- and independent holidaymakers comprised only this checklist followed by the standard questions covering the respondent's characteristics. All the analysis in Chapter Six is based on this data.

Given the research objectives, a great deal more information was required from package holidaymakers. This falls into two categories:

(i) Details of the most recent package holiday taken in the stipulated time period (that is, between 1.10.83 and 30.9.84). This includes the holiday party (q. 3, 4 and 5), services (q. 6 and 7), booking (q. 9), temporal aspects (q. 10 and 11), familiarity (q. 13 and 14) and behaviour whilst on holiday (q. 15 to 18, inclusive). Correlation between these factors and the respondent's characteristics provides the explanatory backbone for Chapter Seven; package holiday habits. In addition, questions 8 and 12 provide vital information about the spatial elements of the chosen holiday.

From the information provided here, further data was derived (km to resort, coastal location and the major qualities of the resort according to a classification system - see section 8.1.1.) in order to comprehensively cover all spatial aspects of the package holiday. This was combined with the following information.

(ii) Details of the decision-making process.

Questions 19 and 20 simply act as filters to ensure that the holiday studied represented the respondent's first choice. The overwhelming majority said it was, even amongst last-minute bookers. Questions 24 and 25 examine the status of the destination relative to all other components when choosing a holiday (see Chapter Eight). Most of the decision process information (q. 21 to 23, and 26 to 30, inclusive) refers to the choice of holiday destination. This information, together with the respondent's characteristics, is used at some length in Chapter Nine to provide a comprehensive explanation of spatial patterns of package holidaymaking.

It is the structured questions, together with an indication of how and when they are used, that provide the bulk of information for statistical analysis and the presentation of results. Interpretation of these findings is aided considerably by reference to the numerous (and often enlightening) qualitative comments made during interviews. These were recorded on a separate sheet, or on the 'prompt' page (see the back sheet of the questionnaire in Appendix 2E), and were a particularly valuable extra source of information in unravelling the complex forces shaping behaviour patterns. They were an important, often spontaneous, supplement to the basic questionnaire.

5.2. SAMPLE DERIVATION

5.2.1 The size required

Once the questionnaire had been designed, the size of the required sample was determined. This was finalised prior to the choice of a sampling source. A major prerequisite was that the respondents had to be reached via a general household survey. Non-, independent and package holidaymakers all had to be contained within the one working sample. A strategy of contacting holidaymakers through travel agents or at their destination failed to meet this essential requirement, and thus were ruled out. However, prior to a household survey, some indication of the relative frequency of occurrence of homestayors, independent travellers and package holidaymakers was needed before the size of sampling frame could be determined.

This was achieved by first assessing the results of a pre-pilot survey of 200 randomly selected Hull households in February 1984. A random sample of 20 streets was used, the first 10 answers from each being recorded. A mixture of daytime and evening calls avoided the potential problem of bias this method might have induced. The simple form used for data collection is shown in Appendix 2A. Membership of the three participating categories was as follows :

	Percentage of sampled population
Non-holidaymaker	38
Independent holidaymaker	39
Package holidaymaker	23

The important finding here is the occurrence of package holidaymakers amongst every 4th or 5th member of the sampled population. This rate of occurrence was then used to estimate the size of the sampling frame required. Table 13 illustrates a range of possible sample frame permutations calculated according to variation in response rate, the proportion of non- and independent holidaymakers to be covered in the main survey, and the number of targetted package holidaymaker interviews. The size of the sampling frame was dependent mostly on the latter. This was fixed at 200; large enough to sustain statistical relevance whilst remaining a manageable size. Fulfilling a largely supportive role, between 50 and 100 non-holidaymakers and independent travellers were targetted alongside the proposals for 200 package holidaymaker interviews. Assuming an average response rate of 65%, the area of interest on table 13 is highlighted by the broken lines. Accordingly, a sampling frame population of 1200 households was finalised. Any anticipated gains due to higher response rates were expected to be counterbalanced by 'natural wastage' in the survey due to house movers and vacant premises. The next step was to accurately derive a household sample of this size.

5.2.2 Tracing a source

Chosen from a wide range of possible sources, the 1984 Register of Electors was used as a starting point for the selection of a sampling frame. It contains a list of all those people eligible to vote by a given qualification date (October 31st, 1983), thereby excluding people of foreign extraction, those under the age of 18, a proportion of people not bothering to register (estimated to be 4%) and those moving since compilation of the register (Maclean and Genn, 1979: 108). The

Table 13: Response rate, interview sample size and the sampling frame population*

	S A M P L E S I Z E +														
	100	200	300	400	50(6)	200	400	100(3)	250	300					
30 %	200	50(3)	50(3)	200	50(6)	50(6)	400	100(3)	400	75(5)	400	75(5)	300	50(9)	50(9)
40 %	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
50 %	800	800	800	800	800	800	800	800	800	800	800	800	800	800	800
60 %	667	667	667	667	667	667	667	667	667	667	667	667	667	667	667
70 %	571	571	571	571	571	571	571	571	571	571	571	571	571	571	571
80 %	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500
90 %	444	444	444	444	444	444	444	444	444	444	444	444	444	444	444

* Assuming the package holidaymaker occurrence ratio to be 1 : 4. The figures show the number of households needed (the sample frame population)

+ Sample composition is as follows;

- A = Total number of interviews
 - B = No. of package holidaymaker interviews
 - C(x) = No. of indept. holidaymaker interviews
 - D(y) = No. of non-holidaymaker interviews
- WHERE:
- x&y = Every Nth non and indept. holidaymaker to be interviewed

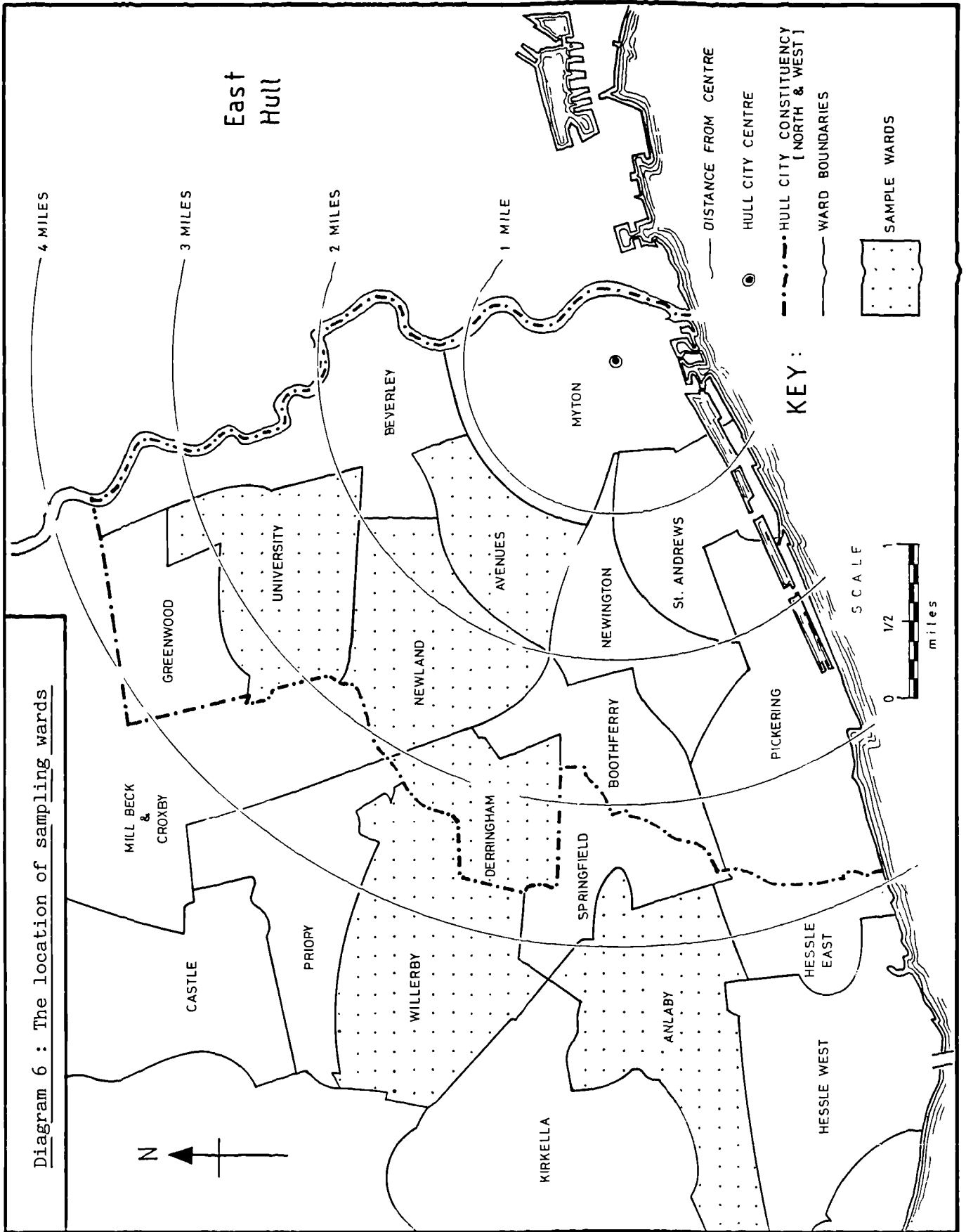
Register was used because, these exceptions aside, it provided recent and extensive coverage of the local population, and was readily accessible.

The chosen sample had to satisfy the following conditions:

- i It had to be representative of the parent population of Hull and Beverley Boroughs.
- ii Areal coverage was preferred in the form of a logical wedge stretching outwards from Hull city centre to suburban and rural areas.
- iii A wide and complete range of population types had to be covered.
- iv Some spatial clustering of the sample was needed to minimise travelling time whilst conducting fieldwork.

These requirements clearly illustrate the conflict between obtaining a random sample to represent a given area, and the logistical and practical problems associated with contacting that sample within time and financial constraints imposed by the research programme. It was resolved by careful selection of sampling areas.

Hull and Beverley Boroughs were covered in four Register Constituency Volumes; Beverley, Hull (North), Hull (West) and Hull (East). The latter was discarded in the interests of spatial sample clustering. This was further achieved by selecting six wards from the remaining three volumes to represent the sample's 'working universe'. Diagram 6 depicts these six wards. These are reasonably concentrated, and also approximate to a wedge radiating outwards from the city centre. Before adoption, however, the two remaining sample requirements had to be satisfied. The obvious way to ensure parent population representation and coverage of a wide



cross-section of households was to compare 1981 Census sociodemographic and economic data for the six wards with that for Hull and Beverley Boroughs as a whole. Unfortunately, at the time the wards were chosen (September 1984), only a limited number of such indices were available before interviewing was scheduled to commence. Furthermore, ward boundaries underwent change in April 1983, between 1981 Census collation and the creation of the 1984 Electoral Register boundaries. Fortunately, changes made to the six proposed sampling wards were minimal.

The profile of these wards is shown on Table 14.

Table 14 : Pointer characteristics of Hull and Beverley Boroughs and the six sampling wards.

AREAL UNIT	% persons unemployed	% houses owner occupied	% houses council	% households with 1 car or more
Hull and Beverley Boroughs	15.9	47.5	38.8	51.0
<u>Wards:</u>				
Anlaby	7.8	59.7	36.9	67.6
Willerby	5.2	85.1	5.4	80.5
Derringham	10.3	46.7	27.2	49.6
Newland	9.2	66.3	16.4	55.2
Avenues	12.7	69.7	1.6	49.7
University	23.4	25.4	66.0	40.0
Ward population overall*	12.7	55.5	26.8	53.4

* this takes into account the different size of the wards and therefore is a true representation of their collective averages.

source : Office of Population Censuses and Surveys (1984)

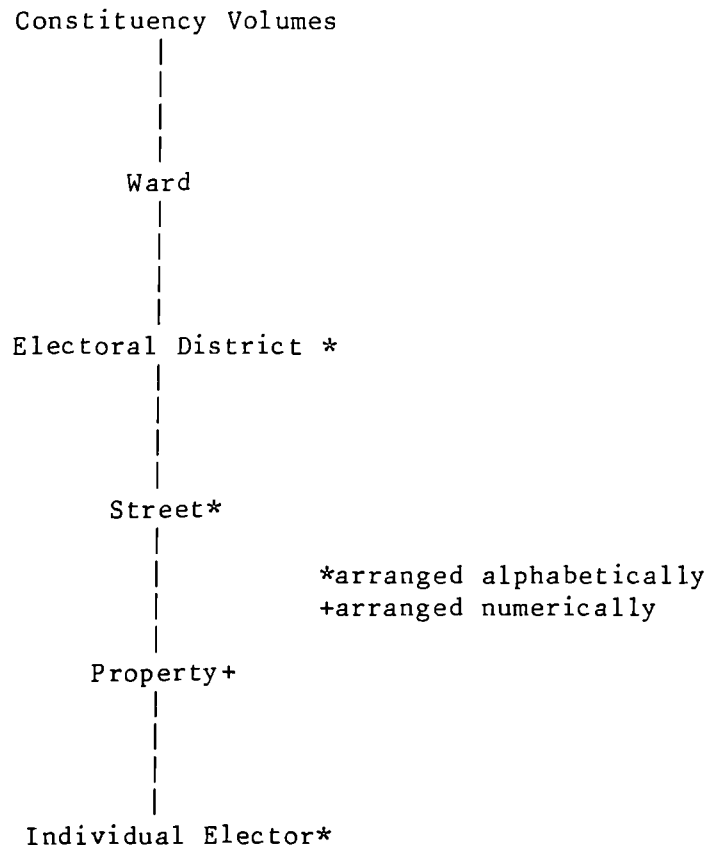
Examining this data underscored the decision to select these six wards.

Given the measurement indices available, not only did they offer a wide range of population types (compare, for example, Willerby and University wards), but also, collectively, they acted as a sufficiently accurate representation of Hull and Beverley Boroughs combined. The fact that they were slightly biased in favour of areas of higher socioeconomic status is acknowledged, though this was considered a further aid to securing a sufficiently large sample of package holidaymakers for interview in the light of pre-pilot and pilot survey experience. From this sampling frame of six wards a random sample of 1200 households was drawn up.

5.2.3 Selection procedures

The structure of the Electoral Register is shown on Diagram 7.

Diagram 7 : Hierarchical Structure of the Electoral Register



As such it provides an inventory of individuals. These were not used for sampling because each named individual may not have been responsible for the holiday decision. By aggregating electors into households and using the household as the basic sampling unit, contact could be ensured with the main decision-maker for each household covered. Furthermore, individual electors were not suitable for random sampling, because a large household would have a greater chance of selection than a single-member household. Indeed, this even ran the risk of including two or more individuals from the same household, taking the same holiday.

To gain a representative sample, each unit must have an equal and singular chance of selection (McCrossan, 1984:8). The sample should be both random and independent (Selkirk, 1978: 11), as this is the only way to reduce bias (Moser and Kalton, 1971: 80). Given the importance of accurate sampling to survey reliability (see Tourism and Recreation Research Unit, 1983: 11), the only means of adhering to these guidelines was to construct an index of households from the register of individual electors. Though a laborious task, and a particularly lengthy process, this was accurately achieved by following several rules :

- i Where two house numbers were listed as one household (for example, two cottages converted into one property), the unit was assumed to represent one household.
- ii Separate flats within one building were treated as individual households.
- iii Where households took in an independent lodger, the household owners were the subjects covered in the survey.
- iv Excluded from the household count and subsequent sampling were:
 - old people's homes
 - hospitals
 - residents in hotels and other institutions

- nursing and rest homes
- all university and college owned student accommodation

The number of households identified in each ward is shown on table 15. Also shown is the number of households to be contacted within each ward to provide a total of 1200 contacts, where the number of households called

Table 15 : Household totals and contacts by ward

WARD	HOUSEHOLD TOTAL	NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS TO BE CONTACTED*
Anlaby	2256	106
Willerby	2228	105
Derringham	5650	266
Newland	4875	229
Avenues	5563	262
University	4921	232
Total	25493	1200

* calculated as $\frac{\text{Total households to be contacted}}{\text{Total number of households}} \times \text{ward household total}$

example:- Anlaby $\frac{1200}{25493} \times 2256 = 106$

upon in any one ward was proportional to the size of that ward according to the number of households it contained. This ensured that the sample to be contacted accurately represented the wider population of Hull and Beverley Boroughs, with the minor reservations previously noted concerning the wards used. In order to select these 1200 households randomly, each was tagged with a unique identification number. A Pascal computer program was then written, based on a random number generator created by Essex University, to produce a set of random numbers (individually, and for each ward exclusively) according to the total number of households in any given ward and the number to be contacted. No number could be repeated for each of the six wards, and each random number generated was independent of all the others. This random sampling method was particularly appropriate as

the household inventory was ordered (see Smith, H.W., 1975: 121). A total of 1200 households, proportionally split as shown on table 15, was randomly sampled from the derived inventory of households in the six study wards. These were then used exclusively in the execution of the household survey.

5.3 FIELDWORK PRACTICE

5.3.1. Questionnaire implementation and administrative strategy

A systematic approach was needed if 1200 households were to be contacted efficiently. Mail surveys were discarded on account of their low response rate and subsequent introduction of bias (see Suchman and McCandless, 1940; Donald, 1960; Moser and Kalton, 1971: 260-1). This left two alternatives.

The first of these was the drop-and-collect method, advocated by Walker, R.L., (1976). This requires questionnaires to be left at sampled households and collected after self-completion at a prescribed time and date. The main advantage of this method was that a large number of forms could be distributed quickly; a useful facility considering the inaccessibility of package holidaymakers as a sub-population (see Kanuk and Berenson, 1975). This strategy was dismissed in the light of the numerous advantages offered by an interviewer-administered questionnaire survey.

These are outlined below:-

- i The greater personal contact contributes towards a high response rate (Gardner, 1978:77).
- ii Verbal explanations may be offered by the interviewer in support

- of complex questions (Tourism and Recreation Research Unit, 1983: 98). This reduces the possibility of misunderstanding .
- iii Probes may be used to further elucidate replies.
 - iv Fewer questions are left blank, so that the quality of secured response is high (Houston and Jefferson, 1975; Gardner 1978: 79; Yu and Cooper, 1983).

In addition, the subject studied seemed well suited to interviewer - administered questionnaire completion, for pilot fieldwork demonstrated the value of supplementary notes and jottings made in response to remarks passed by the interviewee. This was the only way of recording such qualitative information.

Preference for this strategy made fieldwork assistance essential if the sample was to be covered in reasonable time. Thorough briefing, and the suitable personal qualities of the two main volunteer interviewers circumvented possible problems of induced bias, whilst their frank generosity regarding financial reciprocation for services offered meant that no funding problems were anticipated! Accordingly, an interviewer - administered questionnaire survey was conducted. This was completed in two phases.

5.3.2. Survey execution

The two stages of fieldwork completion comprised an initial filter survey followed by a series of questionnaire-based interviews.

Throughout September and early October (1984) all 1200 households were visited personally during the filter survey. In order to secure as many contacts as possible, seven sets of calls were made as follows:

<u>Call</u>	<u>Time</u>
1st	midweek daytime
2nd	midweek evening
3rd	weekend daytime
4th	midweek evening
5th	midweek evening
6th	midweek evening
7th	weekend daytime

The aim of this first stage was simply to assign households to one of three categories (non-, independent or package holiday) depending on the response gained from the head of the household, and according to the definitions outlined in Chapter Four. A copy of the form is provided in Appendix 2C. An encouragingly high proportion (93%) of the households were actually contacted during the filter survey. These are shown by ward (table 16) and by response category (diagram 8). The latter also reveals the structure of the filter survey.

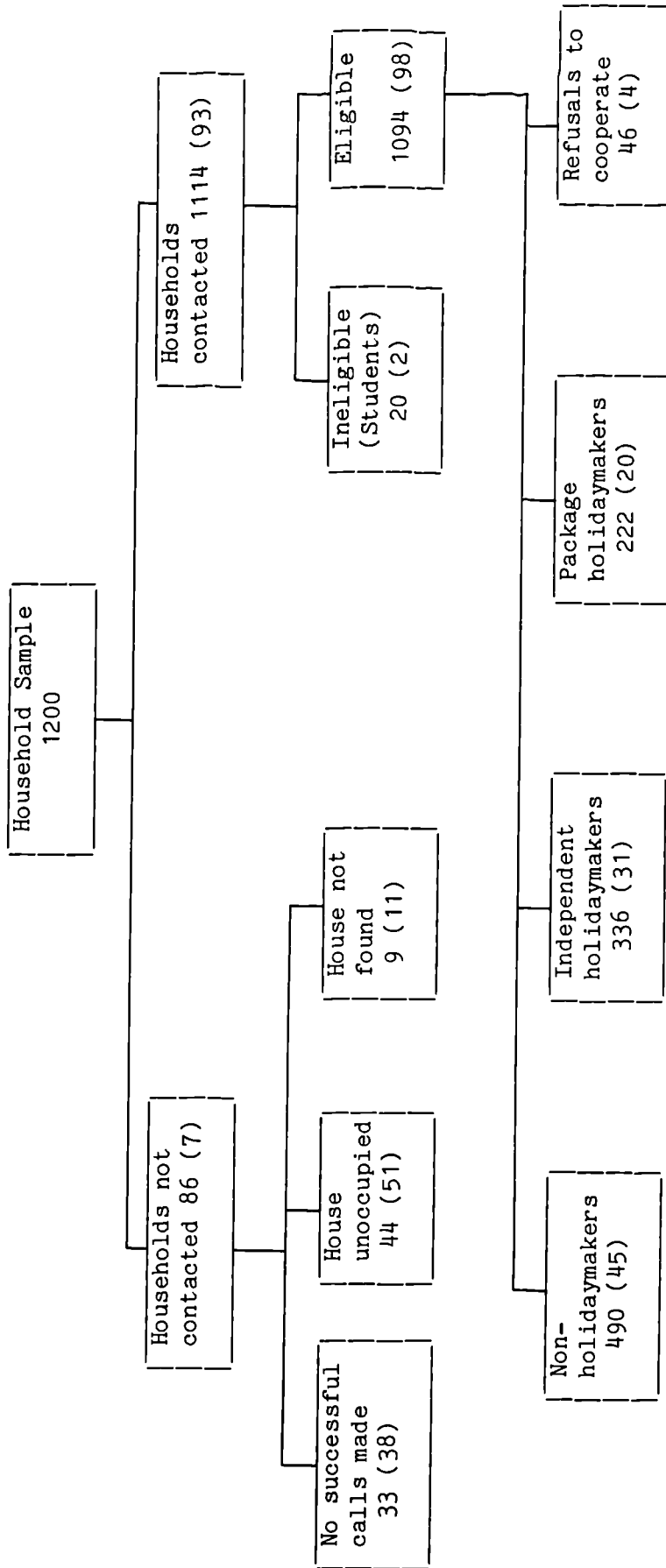
From this, an ordered inventory of 490 non-holidaymakers, 336 independent holidaymakers and 222 package holidaymakers was constructed. All package holidaymakers, and a 17% and 25% systematic random sample of non- and independent holidaymakers, respectively, were forwarded to the next fieldwork stage. This comprised the targetted total of 386 questionnaire interviews (see table 17). All individuals on this inventory were contacted by letter, explaining further the purpose of the research and the need for their co-operation in the ensuing follow-up interview (see Appendix 2D). These individuals were then contacted again, either by telephone (as favoured by Jolson, 1977) or by personal calls, and an

Table 16: Results of the filter survey (after seven sets of calls)

	W A R D						
	Anlaby	Willerby	Derringham	Newland	Avenues	University	Total
Households in sample	106	105	266	229	262	232	1200
Non-contacts :							
No successful calls	1	2	6	3	14	7	33
House unoccupied	2	1	10	7	15	9	44
House not found	0	0	2	2	4	1	9
<hr/>							
Total non-contacts	3	3	18	12	33	17	86
<hr/>							
No. of contacts	103	102	248	217	229	215	1114
- minus those ineligible (students)	0	0	0	2	18	0	20
<hr/>							
No. of eligible contacts	103	102	248	215	211	215	1094
<hr/>							
Of these :							
- Non-cooperation	4(4)	1(1)	11(4)	7(3)	9(4)	14(7)	46(4)
- Non-holidaymakers	22(21)	30(29)	123(50)	94(44)	105(50)	116(54)	490(45)
- Independent holidaymakers	51(49)	45(44)	60(24)	60(28)	68(32)	52(24)	336(31)
- Package holidaymakers	26(26)	26(26)	54(22)	54(25)	29(14)	33(15)	222(20)
<hr/>							
Total	103	102	248	215	211	215	1094
<hr/>							
Response Rate	99(96)	101(99)	237(96)	208(97)	202(96)	201(93)	1048(96)
(i.e. cooperating, out of eligible and contacted)							

FIGURES IN BRACKETS ARE PERCENTAGES OF CONTACTED, ELIGIBLE SAMPLE

Diagram 8: The breakdown of filter survey results (after seven sets of calls)



Figures shown are the number in each category. Those in brackets are the proportion of the total in the preceding 'block' on the diagram.

appointment made to interview the main household decision-maker. Once more, seven sets of second contacts were made. Careful scheduling minimised the time spent travelling in the field. The subsequent interview usually lasted between 45 and 90 minutes, half-an-hour usually accounting for completion of the questionnaire form, and the remainder filled with valuable qualitative comments and discussion amidst numerous, though often enlightening, holiday anecdotes.

In the outcome (see table 17), a total of 303 usable questionnaire forms were secured; 58 non-holidaymakers, 67 independent holidaymakers and 178 package holidaymakers. These were largely completed between October and Christmas 1984, the remainder being collected in the first two months of 1985.

The administration and fieldwork strategy undertaken provided structured data of a high quality, and also recovered a great deal of qualitative information useful in the subsequent interpretation of behaviour. The high response rate enjoyed in both survey stages (96% and 92% respectively - of those eligible and contacted) lessens the chances of bias and imparts confidence over the ensuing analyses undertaken on the data so derived. The techniques used in statistical processing are now discussed in more detail, together with methods of data preparation and a review of the interviewed sample's characteristics.

Table 17 : Target interviews and outcome

	SUB-POPULATION			Total
	Package holidaymakers	Independent holidaymakers	Non - holidaymakers	
Number in filter sample	222	336	490	1048
% Sample for interview	100	25	17	-
No. targetted for interview	222	83	81	386
No. contacts made for interview	195	75	65	335
No. eligible for interview	191*	73+	64+	328
No. of refusals	13	6	6	25
<u>No. of actual interviews</u>	<u>178</u>	<u>67</u>	<u>58</u>	<u>303</u>
% Response rate (of contacted and eligible)	93	92	90	92

Key * 4 repondents exercised no control over their choice of holiday; 2 on school trips; 2 winning holidays as competition prizes.
 + respondents actually belonged to another behavioural category when full interview call made.

5.4 THE DATA MATRIX

5.4.1 Database preparation

Prior to analysis, much data was simply entered straight into the university computer (ICL 2960, Harris H800 and ICL 3980) after category coding. Several interval scale variables were transformed into ordinal form beforehand. Few problems were encountered during this process, for most variables covered in the questionnaire registered response in

labelled categories, and transformation was readily achieved on inspection of the frequency distribution of original interval data.

More sophisticated clustering procedures were used to transform unwieldy checklists into a categorical format. These reduce the indices constituting the original checklist to a new set of devised parameters, which, though far fewer in number, still accurately portray patterns evident in the original data. By a process of fusion, the number of representative units are thus reduced (see Johnston, 1976:4; Everitt, 1980: 24). Clearly, clustering procedures depend on a functional strategy, and require a suitable index with which to 'measure' the 'distance' between units, for an individual may be plotted in multidimensional space according to several axes (that is, initial variable measures). A great deal of controversy surrounds these two issues (see, for example, Sokal and Sneath, 1963; Lance and Williams, 1967; Baker, 1974; Hubert, 1974; Wishart, 1978: 33; Everitt, 1980: 21-2), though if genuine clusters are present in the data, choice of strategy or distance measure is largely unimportant (see Sneath, 1966; Watson et al, 1966; Muir et al, 1970; Cunningham and Ogilvie, 1972). Widespread support for Ward's (1963) clustering method meant this strategy was adopted, largely on account of its proven track record (see Kuiper and Fisher, 1975; Johnston, 1976: 17; Wishart, 1978: 33), its versatility (Anderberg, 1973 : 143-5) and its performance under conditions of cluster overlap (Bayne et al, 1980). Default options in the statistical packages used ensured selection of the correct distance measures with Ward's clustering strategy.

Similar debate revolves around the choice of cut-off points. Results from

cluster analysis demand careful interpretation, particularly regarding the final number of clusters chosen. Mojena (1977) presents two statistical stopping rules for hierarchical clustering procedures. Aldenderfer and Blashfield (1984 :57) discuss the value of examining fusion coefficients, a large and sudden increase indicating the merger of two dissimilar clusters. Everitt (see 1980: 67) achieves a similar result by visual inspection of output dendograms. The procedure followed here used a similar method, and measured the change to fusion coefficients by the formula;

$$\frac{FC^{N-1}}{FC^N}$$

for FC = Fusion coefficient, of 'N' Clusters.

Interpretation of results is based on this formula, though constantly bearing in mind the seemingly logical remark made by Johnston (1968) that cluster choice is arbitrary and subjective, and must occur in the context of a thorough working knowledge of the original data.

This discussion of clustering methods is necessarily brief. Comprehensive coverage is offered by Cormack (1971), Blashfield and Aldenderfer (1978), Everitt (1980) and Aldenderfer and Blashfield (1984). It is more important to reflect on the outcome of applying these procedures to three main checklists used in the questionnaire survey. They are;

- i Annual leisure time activities
- ii Activities undertaken whilst on holiday
- iii Desired resort characteristics

Prior to clustering, data matrix vertices were transformed so that clusters of behavioural variables, rather than individuals, were generated. This method enjoyed the advantage of grouping similar

activities (or choice criteria), and therefore provided a ready summary view of patterns in that data. Once these 'behavioural' clusters were determined, individuals were ascribed to one group on the strength of their membership+. This procedure was carried out using the CLUSTAN package on the university ICL 2960 mainframe, and sub-routine CLUSTER on the more recently acquired SPSS^x analysis package. The latter was used to cluster the inventory of leisure time activities owing to logistical problems encountered using the CLUSTAN package. Each procedure was re-run after removal of several cases to test their statistical rigidity, all three clustering solutions being further validated. Diagrams 9, 10 and 11 show the outcome of this analysis. Clearly, these demonstrate a degree of effective and logical grouping, without which they could not have been accepted in earnest. However, they must remain tentative, and are not definitive (see the recommendations of Anderberg, 1973: 22-3). In particular, the clusters generated from the checklist of leisure activities seem inconclusive, for 68% of the original checklist indices are allotted to one category alone, respondent membership of this category being so low as to exclude it from later analysis. Results from the other two checklists are more encouraging, as is evident from the labels attached to the clusters derived, since these accurately represent the characteristics of individual members. Nonetheless, it is with guarded optimism that these clusters are applied in subsequent explanatory analysis.

+ To be assigned to a cluster an individual had to display twice the representation in that cluster of the next most applicable cluster. Individuals not meeting this strict criterion were assigned to 'missing value' categories. Membership of any given cluster is therefore strictly defined .

Diagram 9 : Outcome of holiday activities cluster analysis

ORIGINAL CHECKLIST ITEM	CLUSTER	LABEL/DESCRIPTION
Relaxing and resting , Seeing general tourist attractions, Sunbathing and swimming	---1-----	PASSIVE - activities characterised by minimal effort and little integration with host envt
Shopping, Historical and cultural visits, Walking and rambling	----- 2-----	ACTIVE - not active in the sense of sports, but much involvement with the host envt.

3rd cluster (comprising visiting friends and relatives, land sports, water sports and mixing with local people) discounted due to low membership.

Diagram 10 : Outcome of desired resort characteristics cluster analysis

ORIGINAL CHECKLIST ITEM	CLUSTER	LABEL/DESCRIPTION
Favourable climate, Beaches/ sea swimming	-----1-----	PHYSICAL QUALITIES - little interest in the 'nature' of the place
Varied nightlife, Busy and lively resort Good shopping facilities	----- 2-----	ENTERTAINMENT - emphasis on 'things to do' and resort facilities.
Local flavour Scenic area Peaceful place	-----3-----	ENVIRONMENT : a desire to absorb and enjoy the particular qualities offered by the host environment.

4th cluster (comprising family facilities, cheap, British ties, historical/cultural sites, sports facilities, access and reputation) discounted due to low membership.

Diagram 11 : Outcome of leisure activities cluster analysis

ORIGINAL CHECKLIST ITEM	CLUSTER	LABEL/DESCRIPTION
Car and home maintenance Gardening	-----1-----	HEMOCARE - activities strongly centered on home-keeping
Entertaining/visiting people, Relaxing and resting, Meals out/pub visits	----- 2-----	SOCIAL/MIXING - emphasis mostly on contact with other people
Listening to radio/records Reading books	-----3-----	SOLITARY - activities undertaken usually alone

4th cluster discounted due to low membership. (See original checklist in Questionnaire Appendix).

5.4.2 Methods of analysis

This section deals with the statistical tests used to analyse data and to identify patterns and relationships within it. Choice of procedure was largely governed by analysis objectives and the type of data utilised.

There are four main types of data:

- 1 Nominal - occurring as the frequency of occurrence in exclusive categories.
- 2 Ordinal - occurring as the frequency of occurrence in ordered categories.
- 3 Interval - values on a continually measured continuum.
- 4 Ratio - values where proportions hold at all points of a scale.

(see Youngman, 1979: 7-8)

The nature of the study subject meant most of the data collected was ordinal or nominal, and for ease of analysis, remaining interval information was reduced to this form (collectively known as categorical data). This presented two main analysis options; the chi-square test and log-linear modelling.

Chi-square tests for association within categorical data by measuring the amount of deviation from random expectancy in a contingency table built on cell frequencies (Youngman, 1979: 70). A thorough review of this widely used procedure is provided by R.G.B. Williams (1984: see Chapter 15). Provided certain conditions are met⁺, it facilitates thorough analysis of two-way contingency tables; that is, it tests effectively for association

between any two variables. Efficiency is improved if each of these variables contains two categories, thereby forming a 2 x 2 contingency table, for these are easy to work with, are conceptually straightforward and rarely fail to meet the previously outlined conditions (see Dillon and Goldstein, 1984: 307). This method is therefore widely used in the following analysis to uncover simple association between any two variables.

Correlation, however, is no proof of causation (Simon, 1971: 5). Spurious correlation (discussed further by R.G.B., Williams, 1984: 264-7) means a relationship identified between two variables may not be due to any intrinsic association between them. It may simply be the effect of a third intervening measure. To test for *spurious correlation*, association between the two original variables must be investigated further to see if it is maintained when the effects of the third measure are taken into account (Simon, 1971: 7). This demands a function of the chi-square test it is unable to fulfil, other than to hold the third variable 'constant', and to produce a series of two-way contingency tables (Upton and Fingleton, 1979). This is unsatisfactory, for it confuses the marginal relationships between the two variables examined for association, and ignores the possibility of three-way or higher order interaction between a set of variables (Fienberg 1977:1), thereby introducing the danger of

+ These are mainly;

i Not more than 20% of cells should have expected frequencies below five, and none below one (Siegel, 1956).

ii The 2 x 2 contingency table must therefore include at least 20 cases (Youngman, 1979: 20).

iii Cells must be mutually exclusive (Williams, R.G.B., 1984: 211).

fallacious results (Simpson, 1951; Blyth, 1972). *Log-linear modelling* is used to search for relationships under ^{such} conditions. Developed extensively in the 1960's and 1970's (see, for example, Darroch, 1962; Birch, 1963; Good, 1963; Goodman 1963; 1964; McFadden, 1974; Bishop et al, 1975; Fienberg, 1977) this procedure is just one of a large interrelated family of statistical tests designed to elevate the analysis of categorical data to a level similar to that exercised over interval and ratio data. Indeed, these tests (collectively known as log-linear modelling) are directly related to traditional regression techniques (see diagram 12). It is unfortunate that their apparent complexity seems to have limited their use. Only recently have they been more widely employed by social scientists. No attempt is made here to uncover their mathematical mechanisms. These are outlined in further detail by Wrigley (1979; 1981: 111-22; 1985) and by Davis J.A. (1974), Payne (1977: 105-42) and Fingleton (1981). It valuable, however, to consider the advantages of

Diagram 12 : The family of regression and log-linear analysis techniques

		EXPLANATORY VARIABLES			
		Continuous	Mixed	Categorical	None
RESPONSE VARIABLE	Continuous	A	B	C	
	Categorical	D	E	F	G

(after Wrigley, 1979: 317; 1981: 112)

Cells A, B, C - traditional regression models used. i.e. multiple regression - see Yeates (1974), Mather (1976), Ferguson (1977) and Johnston (1978).

Cells D, E, F, G - require one of the family of log-linear modelling procedures: logistic or linear logit models (cells D, E) and log-linear models for cells F and G (see Wrigley, 1981: 112-3).

log-linear modelling, in particular;

- i The ability to test for multivariate association between two or more variables under complex interactive conditions (Upton, 1978b: 46).
- ii The facility for simultaneous testing of pairwise relationships.
- iii Maintenance of statistical stability even when low cell frequencies are encountered (Fingleton, 1981).
- iv Generation of summaries far more sensitive than the simple dependence/independence outcome.

Thus, though an alternative to traditional tests for independence amongst two-way contingency tables, the main advantages of log-linear modelling lie under multivariate conditions (Wrigley, 1985: 169). The procedure is used here accordingly+. Far from replacing the findings of chi-square analysis, it is used largely in two ways; as a check for spurious correlation amongst relationships uncovered between simple 'X' and 'Y' variables (for example, population characteristics and behaviour measures at the first two levels of analysis), and as a method to investigate connectivity at the third level of analysis by uncovering two- and three-way relationships between population characteristics, destination choice information and spatial patterns of package holidaymaking. Log-linear analysis fulfilled the latter function admirably (see Chapter Nine). As as a means of validation against spurious correlation, the technique found more widespread use throughout data analysis by assessing the explanatory role of pairwise combinations of population

+ A hierarchical log-linear procedure (an SPSS^x subroutine on the ICL 3980 mainframe computer) was employed which investigates the pattern of relationships between a given set of variables whilst making no explanatory/response variable distinction. This in no way invalidates the results, for the unravelling of causal connection is an exercise in logic rather than statistics (Williams R.B.G., 1984: 227), a view fully endorsed by Dr Allan Reese of Hull University Computer Centre. The method was preferred simply on account of computing efficiency.

characteristics, themselves first disclosed by chi-square testing when the sample was initially examined.

5.4.3. The sample : representation and outline

Sample bias is an acceptable part of fieldwork survey so long as it is identified and taken into account. All components of the data search of this research were designed and blended such that the end product (collected data) comprised the minimum of weaknesses and a well-balanced array of evident strengths. Such control, for instance, was exercised over the questionnaire's ability to elicit accurate response in the face of several problems, including the respondent's desire to distort answers to effect a more favourable impression (Krausz and Miller, 1974: 50; Smith, H.W., 1975: 136; Kalton and Schuman, 1982), acquiescence tendencies prompting agreement with opinion statements (Smith, H.W., 1975: 137) and poor memory recall (Oppenheim, 1966: 55; Moser and Kalton, 1971: 390). Survey bias from these sources can be controlled by effective questionnaire design.

Overall survey structure, however, purposefully introduced a degree of sample bias. Bearing in mind the limited range of indices for comparison, whilst the initial sample of 1200 households (covered in the filter survey) seems representative of both parent populations (the six sample wards, and Hull and Beverley Boroughs combined - see table 18), the unequal proportion of non-, independent and package holidaymakers subsequently targetted for interview means that the final sample is not representative of the two parent populations. Indeed, variation in

percentage systematic sampling means such comparison is meaningless other than to demonstrate anticipated bias in the targetted interview sample.

Table 18 : Parent, filter and targetted interview population profiles

POPULATION	% HOUSEHOLDS OWNER OCCUPIED	% HOUSEHOLDS COUNCIL	% HOUSEHOLDS WITH \geq 1 CAR
Interview target#	67.9	18.7	71.5
Filter			
Survey #	59.7	24.1	52.0
Six sampling wards*	55.5	26.8	53.4
Hull and Beverley* Borough	47.5	38.8	51.0

based on observation records

* from Office of Population Censuses and Surveys (1984)

This acknowledged, it is more important to consider sources of bias intervening between initial selection of the targetted interview sample, and the ensuing aggregation of relevant data collected from individuals actually interviewed. Error may enter here simply because non-respondents are likely to differ to those consenting to interview (National Council of Social Service 1972:11; Gardner, 1978: 118). Non-response is therefore not a random process, and has its own determinants, which may vary from survey to survey (Oppenheim, 1966:34; Maclean and Genn, 1979: 87-9), including age⁺ (Maclean and Genn, 1979: 83), social class⁺ (Moser and Kalton, 1971: 268) and education (Suchman and McCandless, 1940; Roeher, 1963; Ognibene, 1970; Gamon et at, 1971).

+ evidence here is for mail surveys.

Again, based on a limited number of indices (those which are most dependable when recorded by observation), table 19 compares the profile of households responding to the request for an interview and those for which no interview was secured, either through no contact being established or a refusal to co-operate. This indicates slight systematic bias with respect to general "well-being" in favour of responding households. Though considered in the discussion of analysis results in the following chapters, these profile differences are small, probably on account of the high overall response rate (78%) enjoyed by the interview survey.

Table 19 : Response and non-response interview sample profiles*

POPULATION	% HOUSEHOLDS OWNER OCCUPIED	% HOUSEHOLDS COUNCIL	% HOUSEHOLDS WITH \geq 1 CAR
Non-response	65.1	20.5	66.3
Response	68.7	18.2	72.9 [^]

* based on observation records

[^] interview survey

Though the sample actually interviewed is representative of that targetted, and the filter population closely resembles the parent ward population from which it was derived, the research design nonetheless prevents strict comparison of interviewed and parent population profiles. This in turn necessitates a particularly careful examination of the characteristics of the interviewed sample before evaluation of their role in the explanation of holidaymaking behaviour patterns. Tables 20 to 24 provide a breakdown of these characteristics, whilst table 25 lists pairwise combinations used in the tests for spurious correlation. In all instances these profile characteristics are those of the main holiday decision-maker (as identified in Chapter Four, section 1) and refer to the relevant household unless otherwise indicated.

Table 20 : Sample profile : sociodemographic characteristics

POPULATION MEASURE	CATEGORY	% OF REPSONSE
1. SEX	- Male	73.3
	- Female	26.7
2. AGE	- 16-29 years	16.8
	- 30-44 years	23.8
	- 45-64 years	38.3
	- 65 years +	21.1
3. MARITAL STATUS	- Married & home-sharing	70.3
	- Other (single, divorced, separated, widowed)	29.7
4. FAMILY STATUS	- infants in family (below 6 years)	9.6
	- no infants in family	90.4
	- family including children below 15 years	23.1
	- members all over 15 years	76.9

As shown on table 20, male decision-makers are dominant. Most are married and living with their spouse. Only relatively infrequently are young families encountered; one in every ten families include 'infants' (i.e. those below the age of six) and less than a quarter contain 'children' (that is, all those aged below 15 years). It is likely therefore that many offspring are sixteen years or older, some of whom are established in their own homes. This is reflected in the age profile of the sample, the majority of whom fall into the two 'middle-aged' categories (i.e. 30-64 years), many in fact being 45 years or older. The sample therefore demonstrates bias towards later stages in both the family and life cycles.

Economic profiles are depicted on table 21. The majority of respondents withdrew from education at the minimum school leaving age, though this does not seem to have had any detrimental effect on current economic well-being : incomes are broadly split either side of an £8000 p.a.

limit, whilst nearly three quarters of all households have access to a car. Of those people in employment (67% of the sample), a fairly even split occurs between those in manual labour and those engaged in managerial or supervisory occupations, including the self-employed. At least three weeks paid leave is enjoyed by the majority of such people. Of those not in employment, 70% are retired, thus further reflecting the relatively old age profile of the sample.

Table 21 : Sample profile : economic characteristics

POPULATION MEASURE	CATEGORY	% OF RESPONSE
1. EDUCATION	- Minimum school leaving age	58.1
	- '6th form' or equivalent	22.3
	- Higher education	19.6
2. EMPLOYMENT	- Engaged full-time	66.9
	- Part time/not in employment	33.1
3. OCCUPATION	- Manual workers	40.3
	- Supervisors and lower level management	28.4
	- Professional, higher level management and self employed (with a workforce of more than 20)	31.3
4. PAID HOLIDAY	- 15 days/year or less	17.5
	- More than 15 days/year	82.5
5. INCOME	- Less than £8000/year	57.1
	- £8000/year or more	42.9
6. CAR OWNERSHIP	- Car owner/household access to car	72.9
	- No car in household/no realistic access	27.1

Closely associated with employment are the descriptors used by respondents to reflect perception of their occupations (see table 22). Parameters measuring the routinised nature of work, its demands on physical resources and the degree of supervision entailed display fairly evenly divided response. The majority of respondents did not see their work as boring, isolating or requiring much travel, whilst most perceived it as mentally demanding. Reasonably positive perception of occupations seems to be the

overriding characteristic of this information. This coincides tidily with the distribution of occupational types covered, and the tendency of the sample to contain individuals sited well towards the middle reaches of a continuum of economic well-being.

Table 22 : Sample profile : qualitative work characteristics

WORK PARAMETER	% OF RESPONSE +	
	'Yes'	'No'
1. Boring	13.7	86.3
2. Mentally demanding	71.5	28.5
3. Involving much travel	30.7	69.3
4. Routine	46.0	54.0
5. Isolating	13.7	86.3
6. Physically strenuous	40.8	59.2
7. Supervisory	57.1	42.9

+ percentage figures are calculated on the total of 'yes' and 'no' responses, and thus exclude 'inbetween' responses.

The outline of response to the original checklist of leisure activities (see table 23) displays relatively infrequent weekly participation in 'active sports', both indoor and outdoor, and dominance of restful and passive pursuits lacking in extensive physical commitment or competition; a finding broadly similar to those presented by Glyptis, (1979: Chapter 7). Reduction of this checklist by cluster analysis produces the three generic classes listed at the bottom of table 23. It is interesting to note that both clusters generated according to 'personal/interaction' parameters outweigh that constructed on activity-based criteria. 'Solitary' is the modal category; this includes listening to the radio or records and reading books, and once more reflects the dominance of passive leisure time activities.

Table 23 : Sample profile : leisure activities

INDIVIDUAL ACTIVITIES	% PARTICIPATING	% NOT PARTICIPATING	
1	Listening to radio/records	69.0	31.0
2	Reading books	60.7	39.7
3	Meals out/pub visits	59.1	40.9
4	Relaxing and resting	56.4	43.6
5	Gardening	56.3	43.7
6	Entertaining/visiting people	51.0	49.0
7	Car and home maintenance	39.7	60.3
8	Walks and visits to parks	38.9	61.1
9	Spending time with children	38.6	61.4
10	Day trips out	36.0	64.0
11	Indoor hobbies	35.6	64.4
12	Indoor games	33.1	66.9
13	Going to watch sport	25.7	74.3
14	Club meetings	24.4	75.6
15	Pet care	24.1	75.9
16	Indoor sports	23.8	76.2
17	Outdoor hobbies	23.8	76.2
18	Outdoor sports	22.1	77.9
19	Cinema, disco, dance, theatre	18.8	81.2
20	Church	14.9	85.1
21	Water sports	13.2	86.8
22	Bingo	4.0	96.0

CLUSTERED ACTIVITIES	% OF CLASSIFIED RESPONDENTS
'Homecare'	25.9
'Social mixing'	32.5
'Solitary'	41.6

Holiday life-styles, based on the past holiday experience of respondents, display a greater degree of variation. The information here is of two types; measures summarising previous experiences, and specific details of the two most recent holidays undertaken prior to the holiday actually studied here. Full details are given on table 24, wherein it is readily apparent that the majority of respondents have previously taken a package holiday. Most have travelled abroad and have taken at least one annual holiday every year over the last three years.

Aggregate profiles of the two most recent holidays are broadly similar. Classification according to holiday type, month and location displays fairly equal membership amongst all six dichotomous categories.

Table 24 : Sample profile : holiday life-style measures

CLASS A : OVERALL MEASURES OF PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE			
% OF RESPONSE			
1	Package holiday previously taken	Yes	67.0
		No	33.0
2	Holiday abroad previously taken	Yes	72.3
		No	27.7
3	Average of more than one holiday per year (1982-84)	Yes	71.9
		No	28.1
CLASS B : SPECIFIC BEHAVIOUR			
		HOLIDAY	
		Most recent+	Most recent but one+
1	Type - % Package	47.5	46.6
	- % Independent	52.5	53.4
2	Month - % July or August	48.0	50.4
	- % Other	52.0	49.6
3	Location - % Within UK	61.1	57.1
	- % Abroad	38.9	42.9

+ Prior to the holiday examined in the research

Overall, the lack of significant data extremities encountered in the sample with respect to sociodemographic or economic parameters is reflected in the profiles assumed by all three life-style measures. All these factors, however, must not be viewed in isolation, for there is undoubtedly much interaction between them. This is depicted in a generalised fashion on table 25. Clearly, this table does not represent the outcome of exhaustive testing of every possible pairwise association amongst sample population characteristics, for this would be too time consuming and too unwieldy for later analysis. Only logically combined

Table 25: Significant* pairwise association amongst sample population characteristics

CLASS		VARIABLE 'A'	VARIABLE 'B'	PROBABILITY
Socio-demographic	1.	Sex	Marital status	0.0000
	2.	Age	Family status (children)	0.0000
	3.	Marital status	Family status (children)	0.0008
Economic	1.	Education	Car ownership	0.0137
	2.	Education	Occupation	0.0000
	3.	Education	Income	0.0000
	4.	Education	Paid holiday	0.0211
	5.	Car ownership	Income	0.0000
	6.	Occupation	Income	0.0000
Holiday Life Style	1.	Past package experience	Foreign holidaymaking experience	0.0000
	2.	Foreign holiday experience	Most recent holiday location	0.0000
	3.	Foreign holiday experience	Most recent but one holiday location	0.0000
	4.	Av.annual hol. frequency	Most recent holiday location	0.0012
	5.	Av.annual hol. frequency	Most recent but one holiday location	0.0002
Between Classes	1.	Sex	Leisure type	0.0008
	2.	Age	Employment characteristics	0.0000
	3.	Age	Income	0.0000
	4.	Age	Leisure type	0.0018
	5.	Marital status	Car ownership	0.0000
	6.	Family status (children)	Leisure type	0.0059
	7.	Education	Foreign holiday experience	0.0006
	8.	Education	Av.annual holiday frequency	0.0234
	9.	Car ownership	Leisure type	0.0068
	10.	Occupation	Work quality: mentally demanding	0.0000
	11.	Occupation	Work quality: routine	0.0000
	12.	Occupation	Work quality: physically strenuous	0.0000
	13.	Occupation	Work quality: supervisory	0.0000
	14.	Occupation	Foreign holiday experience	0.0002
	15.	Occupation	Av.annual holiday frequency	0.0046
	16.	Income	Foreign holiday experience	0.0001
	17.	Income	Av.annual holiday frequency	0.0366
	18.	Paid holiday	Av.annual holiday frequency	0.0059

* To be significant at the 95% level an association must possess a probability (P) of 0.05 or less. Only those achieving this are listed

characteristics are tested for association, since it is these that are most relevant to the purpose of these tests; namely to uncover pairwise combinations for use in checks against spurious correlation. Thus, they are discussed no further here but are considered individually in later analyses in the context of specific response measures when used as a means of validating uncovered explanatory ties. In such instances additional pairwise combinations of population characteristics are introduced if possessing sufficient logical meaning in the context of the spurious linkages they are used to investigate. As such, table 25, whilst outlining the structure of the sample's characteristics further to the descriptive profiles already provided, represents an inventory of linkages used as the starting point for uncovering spurious correlation in later chapters.

CHAPTER SIX

HOME-STAYER AND HOLIDAYMAKER

6.1 NON-HOLIDAYMAKERS

Before the characteristics used to distinguish the non-holidaymaker from holidaymakers are discussed, two points concerned with the presentation of results require clarification. They are mentioned at this point, at the start of analysis, simply because they are common to all the results of statistical testing that follow. The first of these is a terminological issue. Chapter Four states the definition of non-, independent and package holidaymaker employed in this research. Clearly, these are strictly adhered to in the discussion of results. In the interest of textual lucidity however, the terms 'tourist' and 'traveller' or 'homestayer' will be frequently used, if only to avoid repetitive inclusion of the word 'holiday'. Their synonymical use should not be seen to reflect conceptual inconsistency, and as substitutes for the term 'holiday' they rigidly follow the definitions already outlined in Chapter Four.

Secondly, when relationships within the data are presented, they are supported by a probability statistic (p). Given as an explicit value (for example, $p = 0.4377$), this represents the probability of a relationship occurring by chance. The 95% significance level is generally used to select significant ties, a level frequently chosen by social scientists. Significant relationships are thus represented by a probability of 0.05 or less (i.e. $p \leq 0.05$). In some cases the 10% significance level is used

(i.e. $p \leq 0.1$), though the relationships so represented are relatively weak and careful interpretation always ensues.

6.1.1 Identification; profile controls over holiday participation

Neither sex, marital status nor family status assist in distinguishing the non-holidaymaker from the holidaymaker. Whilst it is certainly encouraging to find that males are no more likely to take a holiday than females, and single individuals no more than married couples, it is nonetheless surprising to discover that children fail to exert a constraining effect on holiday participation. Without recourse to complex argument, logic alone suggests a restrictive effect should be exercised, not least because of the extra expense incurred and difficulties encountered during the journey. The travel-sick child is familiar enough, as are the young couple whose evening activities are curtailed unless provision for infant care can be made. Despite this, there is little correlation between holiday participation and the presence of children between 6 and 15 years of age ($p = 1.0$), or even infants below the age of 6 ($p = 0.9797$). Log-linear modelling fails to uncover a significant joint effect between family status and age ($p = 0.3622$), so parental age seems to play no part in explanation either. The presence of children therefore in no way deters adults from taking a holiday. Clearly, this may well be because offspring are left at home, but further analysis suggests this is not the case (see Chapter Seven). As the peak of the annual leisure experience, the holiday thus seems to act as a family focus point; indeed, it may even draw family members together, thereby fulfilling a specialist function of its own. As such it provides an ideal opportunity to experience family 'togetherness'; an opportunity to build bonds with young

children, or to maintain them with older offspring. To enjoy such experiences the drawbacks associated with taking young children on holiday seem readily overcome.

A willingness to overcome surmountable obstacles to enjoy holiday participation is uncovered further by examination of the 'predictive' role of age. An inverse relationship between age and participation is expected, owing to health and mobility problems experienced by the elderly. No correlation emerges by analysing the four standard age categories (see table 20, Chapter Five); indeed, pensioners account for a slightly greater proportion of holidays surveyed (19%) than do individuals between 16 and 29 years (18%). This may well be a result of the relative ease of modern travel, or of a change in the attitude of elderly folk. Nonetheless, this relationship is further pursued in the belief that eventually an age limit restricting holiday travel is reached. This is achieved by deriving new age categories from the original ratio data. A significant chi-square probability is first uncovered to distinguish those over 70 years from those less than 70 ($p = 0.0367$), which strengthens thereafter with increasing age. Thus, holidays are frequently extended well into retirement years. During conversation with elderly folk, many expressed a keen interest in maintaining an annual holiday for as long as possible, viewing each one as the last, and the next one as a bonus. The holiday often seems to be used as a yardstick - a measure of 'youthfulness'. Pensioners derive great personal satisfaction out of being able to take a holiday. Conversely, a distinct impression was gained that the inability to take a holiday any longer signals a new stage in the ageing process. The holiday therefore seems to fulfil an important psychological function in the minds of more elderly members of the population.

Health apart, the obstacles to travel discussed so far are evidently overcome if the will to travel is strong enough. A more definitive role is ascribed to raw financial means. The inability to afford a holiday may well override all other considerations. The results underline this simple expectation, thereby boldly promoting economic factors as a powerful means of identifying the non-holidaymaker. A central role is assumed by income, for it not only has a singular effect on holiday participation ($p = 0.0056$), but also maintains this influence when other factors are considered, namely education ($p = 0.0034$) and occupation ($p = 0.0121$). Conversely, the latter two factors only exert a significant influence on participation when taking income into account, for individually they generate probabilities well below the 95% significance limit.

Substitute measures of economic well-being play no part, except of course those directly associated with income, such as paid leave ($p = 0.0091$) and employment status ($p = 0.0422$). Additionally, a significant influence is exerted by car ownership ($p = 0.0038$), probably on account of mobility, though car ownership and income are related. Amongst holidaymakers 77% own a car, but only 57% of non-holidaymakers do so. Alternatively, 74% of non-holidaymaking households have an income of £8000 per year or less. 47% of households taking a holiday earn more than this. Economic disadvantage thus plays a critical role in restricting participation in holidays, presenting obstacles (unlike sociodemographic factors) that determination alone fails to overcome. Its effect is far more telling, and rarely are there grounds for flexibility.

Though there may be no logical reason for occupational status to affect holiday participation (other than through its effect with income, of

course), there is little cause to readily dismiss the role of qualitative elements of the work experience. There are three instances where links are hypothesised. These are :

- i Individuals perceiving their work as boring may be more likely to take a holiday simply to break that boredom.
- ii Physically strenuous occupations may prompt a holiday, to allow the participant to relax and recuperate.
- iii Individuals whose jobs demand much travel may be less inclined to travel during time off work.

Though plausible, each of these connections is rather tenuous, for in the present sample no significant associations are uncovered. However, log-linear analysis reveals rather specific links. For example, a greater proportion (19%) of manual workers in physically strenuous occupations take a holiday than those who don't perceive their work presents such physical demands (11%). It is interesting to reflect that this trend is reversed amongst managers. This hardly qualifies as substantial evidence however, and the realistic conclusion is that work life-style measures fail to assist significantly in the identification of the non-holidaymaker.

A little more evidence is uncovered by examining the role of leisure life-styles. A greater proportion of individuals assigned to the cluster categories 'homecare' and 'solitary/restful' are non-holidaymakers than are 'social mixers' (see table 26).

Table 26 : Clustered leisure activities and holiday participation

CLUSTERED GROUP	RESPONSE - % being :	
	Non-holidaymakers	Holidaymakers
Social mixing	8.7	91.3
Homecare	28.3	71.7
Solitary/restful	24.2	75.8

Clearly, social mixing is indicative of a more active leisure life-style than either of the other two categories. There is a need for closer examination of this trend. Supportive evidence is acquired by considering the role of individual activities. The incidence of passive pursuits such as relaxing/resting and listening to the radio or records is significantly higher amongst non-holidaymakers than holidaymakers ($p = 0.0005$ and $p = 0.0073$ respectively). Conversely, a positive relationship is uncovered between indoor sports activities and holiday participation ($p = 0.0045$). This helps to substantiate the view that active leisure participation is similarly reflected in holiday participation. Alternatively, the non-holidaymaker is characterised by rather more passive pursuits (both collectively and individually). The sceptic might argue this is simply a function of age, but log-linear analysis fails to substantiate this view. Indeed, by neither discounting the role of leisure life-style measures, nor demonstrating the predictive role of age, the only conclusions to be drawn from this analysis are necessarily tentative.

By comparison, previous holiday life-style measures provide a wealth of associative ties. In short, the range and extent of previous holiday experience of the non-holidaymaker is restricted in comparison with that of the currently active holidaymaker. Effective separation is achieved by all three generic holiday life-style measures; previous package holiday experience ($p = 0.0000$), foreign holiday experience ($p = 0.0000$) and

average annual holiday taking frequency ($p = 0.0000+$). To place variation into perspective, nearly twice the proportion of holidaymakers (74%) than non-holidaymakers (38%) have previously taken a package tour. Log-linear analysis fully endorses these findings. Closer examination of specific life-style indicators suggests that the past holiday behaviour of respondents currently not taking a holiday (21% travelled abroad on their most recent trip) is more modest than that of presently active travellers (of whom 47% recently went abroad).

This suggests there is little variation through time in any given individual's holiday status. Those people currently staying at home are likely to have done so in the past, and any travel actually undertaken is likely to be modest (certainly in terms of domestic trips vis-a-vis foreign trips). Previous holiday life-styles therefore provide an effective way of identifying the non-holidaymaker. Much significance may be attached to past holidaymaking behaviour, for there seems little opportunity to regularly transcend the participation/non-participation boundary. This is closely tied to economic status; income and previous foreign holiday experience jointly combine to influence holiday participation ($p = 0.0500$). This is a finding worthy of mention, for it demonstrates that the relationships uncovered between participation and holiday life-style measures are maintained when income is taken into account. Participation is therefore a genuine outcome of previous holiday experience. The two are associated in a meaningful manner, irrespective of the forces of economic status.

+ Cell zeros undermine statistical dependence for this variable.

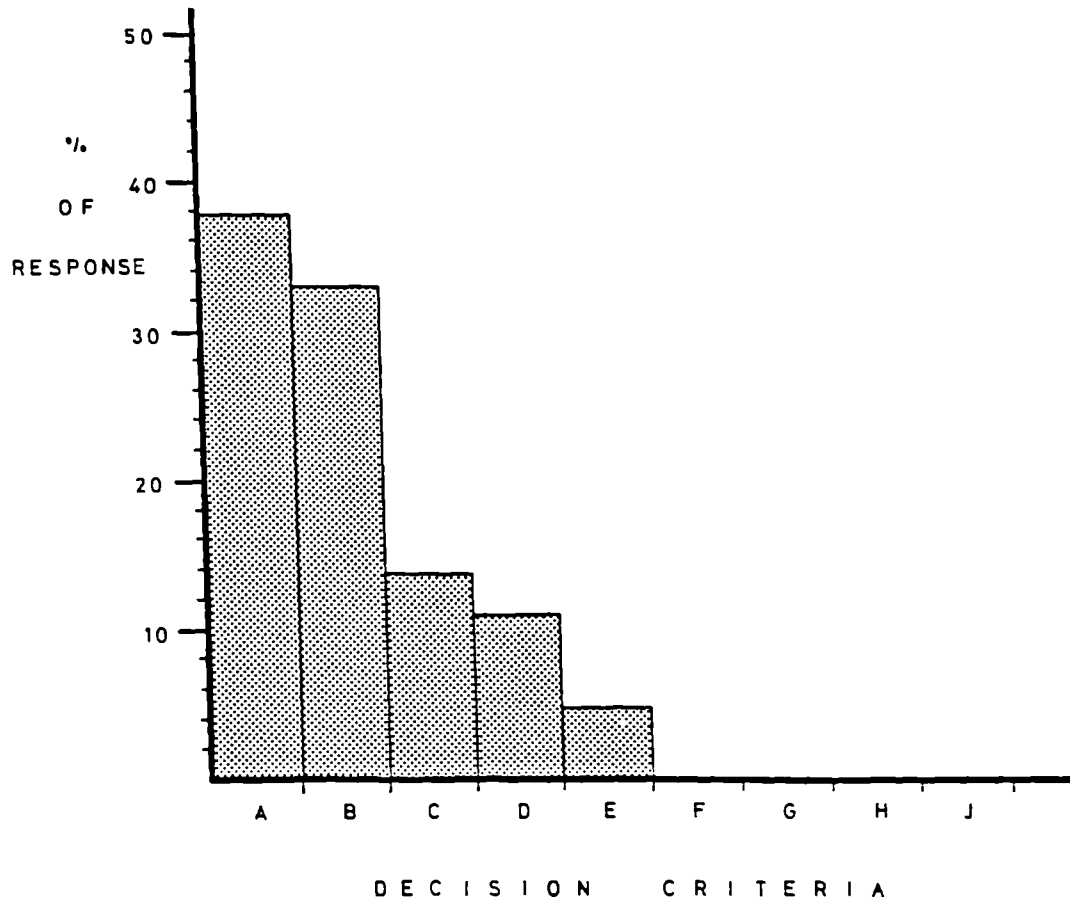
6.1.2 Decision criteria

Economic and holiday life-style parameters provide the most effective means of distinguishing the non-holidaymaker from the holidaymaker. Obstacles to travel are largely definitive and rarely appear to change over time. Where a means of overcoming barriers exists, this is a route apparently followed, which accounts for the relatively minor role of constraints associated with the presence of young children or old age.

This reasoning is largely reflected in the primary reasons stated for not taking a holiday (see diagram 13). A 'lack of money' is the most commonly cited reason, followed by 'home ties' and 'work commitments'. It is interesting to consider that 'no desire' is given as a response more often than 'no transport', probably because effective mobility may well be achieved through assistance from friends or other family members. No individuals remain at home on account of a particular holiday option being fully booked, suggesting in this instance a preference to take a second choice of holiday rather than none at all. Risk plays no part as a major primary decision factor.

Secondary reasons for not taking a holiday are shown on diagram 14. These display several interesting comparisons with primary criteria. Fewer respondents are able to pin-point a secondary influence. This suggests that once a primary obstacle to holidaymaking is encountered (preventing participation), no other contributory factors are even considered, such is the weight of the dominant criterion. Alternatively, respondents may be unable to choose a secondary reason. In the light of comprehensive

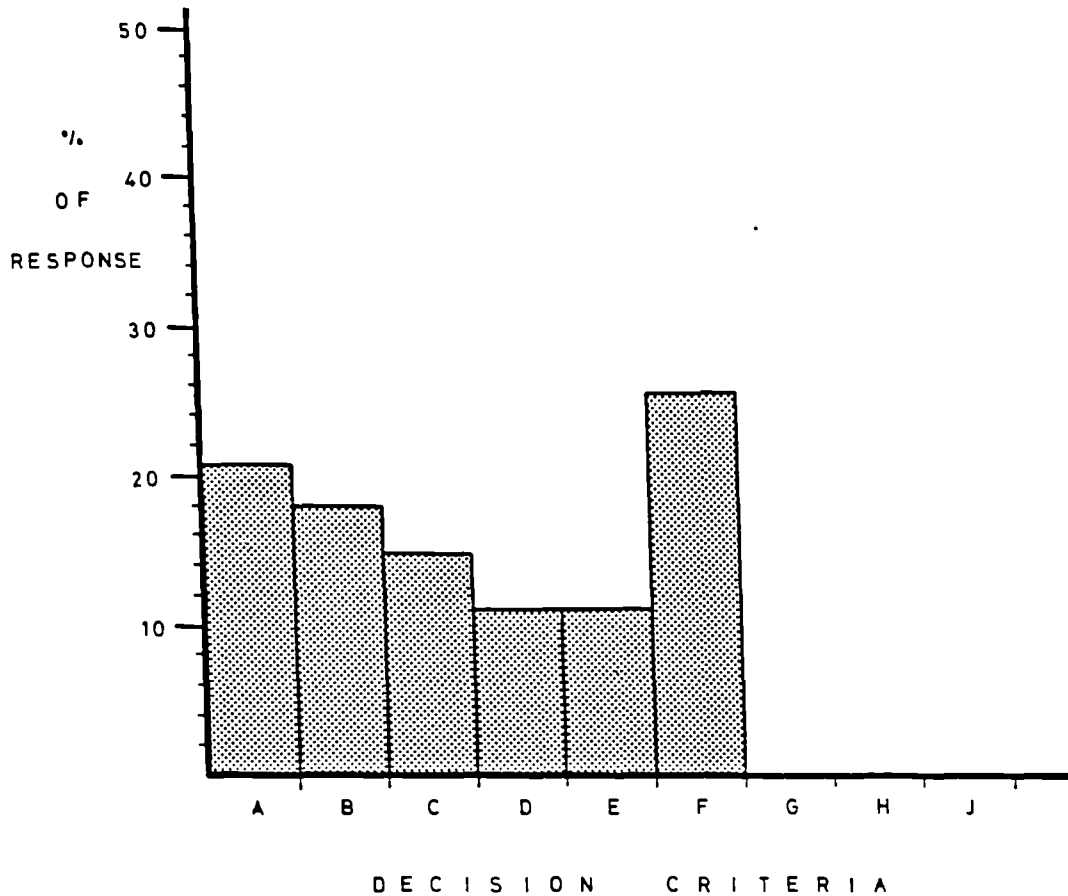
Diagram 13 : Primary reasons for not taking a holiday



WHERE :

- A - A lack of money
- B - Home ties, e.g. health, infants
- C - Work commitments
- D - No desire
- E - No transport
- F - Too risky
- G - Poor holiday in past
- H - Holiday chosen, but booked up
- J - 'Other' - non stated

Diagram 14 : Secondary reasons for not taking a holiday



WHERE :

- A - A lack of money
- B - Home ties; e.g. health, infants
- C - Work commitments
- D - No desire
- E - No transport
- F - Too risky
- G - Poor holiday in past
- H - Holiday chosen, but booked up
- J - 'Other' - non stated

response to further secondary participation reasons discussed later in this chapter, the first of these explanations seems most likely. Resigned to the fact that a holiday is not possible owing to one overriding reason, many respondents then fail to even reflect on other contributory factors. Indeed, some have no need to do so. Informal discussion with several respondents indicates an intervening role of attitudes, for several state categorically that the option to take a holiday is never even considered. For these people, staying at home does not constitute a conscious decision.

Amongst those pondering over the holiday decision and able to pin-point secondary reasons (only 48% of non-holidaymakers), 'risk' is the most commonly cited response. This seems to consolidate the decision not to take a holiday, though zero-response as a primary factor suggests it rarely stands alone as a reason for non-participation. Perceived risk therefore seems to play a unique role as an enforcer rather than a prime motivator in the decision to stay at home. This renders a few clues as to the nature of this decision. In line with a theme uncovered during analysis of sociodemographic 'predictors', there is further evidence here to suggest that non-participation is a function of palpable obstacles over which the respondent exercises very little control. This is reflected in the significant profiling parameters and disclosed decision criteria. Personal obstacles which do not necessarily obfuscate the means to partake in holidays are frequently circumvented. Rarely do they restrict participation alone. Though perceived risk may positively discourage travel, it is unlikely actively to do so without assistance from stricter constraints. In the absence of such intervention, it is likely that a holiday will be taken.

No attempt is made here to outline correlation between participant characteristics and decision criteria, since the sample of non-holidaymakers is so small (N = 58) that the statistics produced would be misleading. This is a function of the research objectives and structure. Nonetheless, the reasons stated for not taking a holiday seem to tally with the reasoning used to interpret relationships between the respondent's characteristics and holidaymaking participation. In addition, these criteria often reveal other elements in the decision not to travel, particularly the role of risk. This helps provide a comprehensive view of all the factors involved in holiday participation.

6.2 INDEPENDENT HOLIDAYMAKERS

6.2.1 Separation parameters

Several of the salient characteristics of holidaymakers as a whole are different from those of individuals staying at home. Within the travelling population there is scope for further differentiation between independent holidaymakers and package tourists. This rests largely on the assumption that there are clearcut differences between the two types of holiday.

Independent trips are flexible, and may be tailored to the specific requirements of the traveller. Provision for contact with other holiday parties is low. Seclusion may be readily secured. Characterised largely

by freedom of action and independence from others, independent travel demands a great deal of self-scheduling in order to create some sort of holiday structure.

By contrast, the whole concept of the package holiday revolves around provision; of transport, accommodation, insurance, facilities for the young or the elderly, and maybe even entertainment. A complete range of services may be secured in one purchase. Package tours generally operate within an established format, offer a time-ordering facility that may be as specific as a timetable of pre-arranged events, and are characterised by participant dependence. Though less flexible than independent travel, they score heavily in terms of *convenience and value for money*. The package concept thus makes holidays convenient, accessible and affordable. Close inspection of the independent holidaymaker's characteristics compared to those of the package tourist are used to evaluate further this interpretative premise.

Holidays can be both mentally and physically demanding, not only during the holiday itself, but also at the planning and preparation stage prior to departure. Age, therefore, is expected to effectively separate the two forms of tourism, for elderly folk may be less able to meet these demands. Conversely, freedom and a greater element of the 'unknown' inherent in independent travel may well be closer to the holiday aspirations of younger individuals. Despite this reasoning, age is not significantly related to holiday type ($p = 0.9762$). Either this reflects no systematic variation whatsoever, or else it represents the simultaneous effect of two opposing influences: the more ambitious travel plans of younger people, particularly to exotic destinations, may only be realistically catered for

by package tours, whilst it is probably true that retired individuals possess more time for planning and preparing independent trips. A further alternative is that the role of age is significant only in the context of compound association (that is, a joint effect with a paired variable). This is in fact the case.

Holiday type is closely tied to family status ($p = 0.0008$). Independent holidays are preferred by families with young children (47% opting for this type of holiday). In contrast, only 17% of package holidays are taken by young families. This relationship is maintained when parent age is considered ($p = 0.0403$); young parents (below 30 years), accompanied by children below the age of 15, frequently travel independently. Those with no young children often opt for package tours. This is likely to reflect the greater independence and freedom of independent travel. Young children are often ill-suited to package tours, largely on account of their fixed journey schedules and rigid accommodation arrangements, under which the behaviour of young children can less easily be constrained. Their needs are best met by the family travelling as an independent unit without recourse to extended contact with other travellers under conditions likely to prompt fatigue, irritation and, in the words of one respondent,

".. embarrassing situations of an unavoidable nature.."+

To enable the young family to travel independently, clearly some form of private transport is needed. This is a prerequisite common to all instances of independent holidaymaking. Unfortunately, no significant

+ Civil servant, Anlaby - November 1984.

correlation is uncovered between holiday type and car ownership/access ($p = 0.7570$). The car owner is just as likely to take a package tour as the non-car owner is to opt for an independent holiday. This apparent contradiction is reconciled by considering two confounding influences. Firstly, emphasis must be placed on the term 'access', for this may well be gained through car hire or loans to non-car owners. Secondly, because car ownership is so high amongst the sample studied (81% of all holidaymakers) it cannot be assumed that, due to the provision of transport in the holiday arrangements, all package holidaymakers are non-car owners. Clearly this is not the case, and more sensitive measures of economic 'well-being' are needed to help identify the independent tourist.

Education is one such measure, and is an effective separation parameter under a wide variety of conditions. Its singular effect on holiday type ($p = 0.0228$) acts as a common interpretative denominator; low educational status is associated with package holidaymaking. The better educated tend to travel independently. Amongst these individuals there are a high proportion of car owners, those in high status occupations, high income earners and beneficiaries of 15 days or more paid leave. However, it must be stressed that these factors are significant only as compound influences combined with education ($p = 0.0108$, $p = 0.0199$; $p = 0.0095$ and $p = 0.0199$ respectively). Standing alone they fail to impart a significant effect on tourist type. This simply underscores the central role of education in distinguishing between independent and package holidaymakers.

What are the mechanisms behind this? Given the close association between education and both occupation and income, this may be explained in terms

of the greater travel experience (and therefore confidence) of those belonging to the upper occupational and income categories. Neither occupation nor income exerts a significant effect individually, however ($p = 0.5817$ and $p = 0.6556$). In purely educational terms therefore, explanation turns to the role of awareness and attitudes. It is generally considered that education furthers knowledge and environmental awareness. The travel desire this stimulates is closely attuned to the comprehensive experience offered by independent travel, free as it is from the paternal care of the package tour operator. Awareness and knowledge may also be related to confidence, an essential ingredient in planning and organising an individually arranged trip, particularly if abroad, where communication difficulties may be encountered. Clearly, finalising such arrangements can be a daunting task. A degree of personal inertia must first be overcome. This seems to be a function of confidence, itself partly instilled from experience, knowledge and awareness. The package holiday by-passes such problems and draws those individuals susceptible to personal inertia, many of whom come from a relatively restricted educational background.

Tied to the role played by awareness is that of attitudes. Difficult to quantify, it nonetheless emerges from informal conversation that many respondents receiving education beyond the minimum school leaving age adopt a socially biased view of the package holiday, which they see as an undesirable mass market item. Far better, in terms of social 'appearance', to take a privately arranged holiday than a package holiday to some over-crowded destination. Similarities drawn between the charter tour and cattle herding remain uppermost in the minds of these folk. As one respondent remarked,

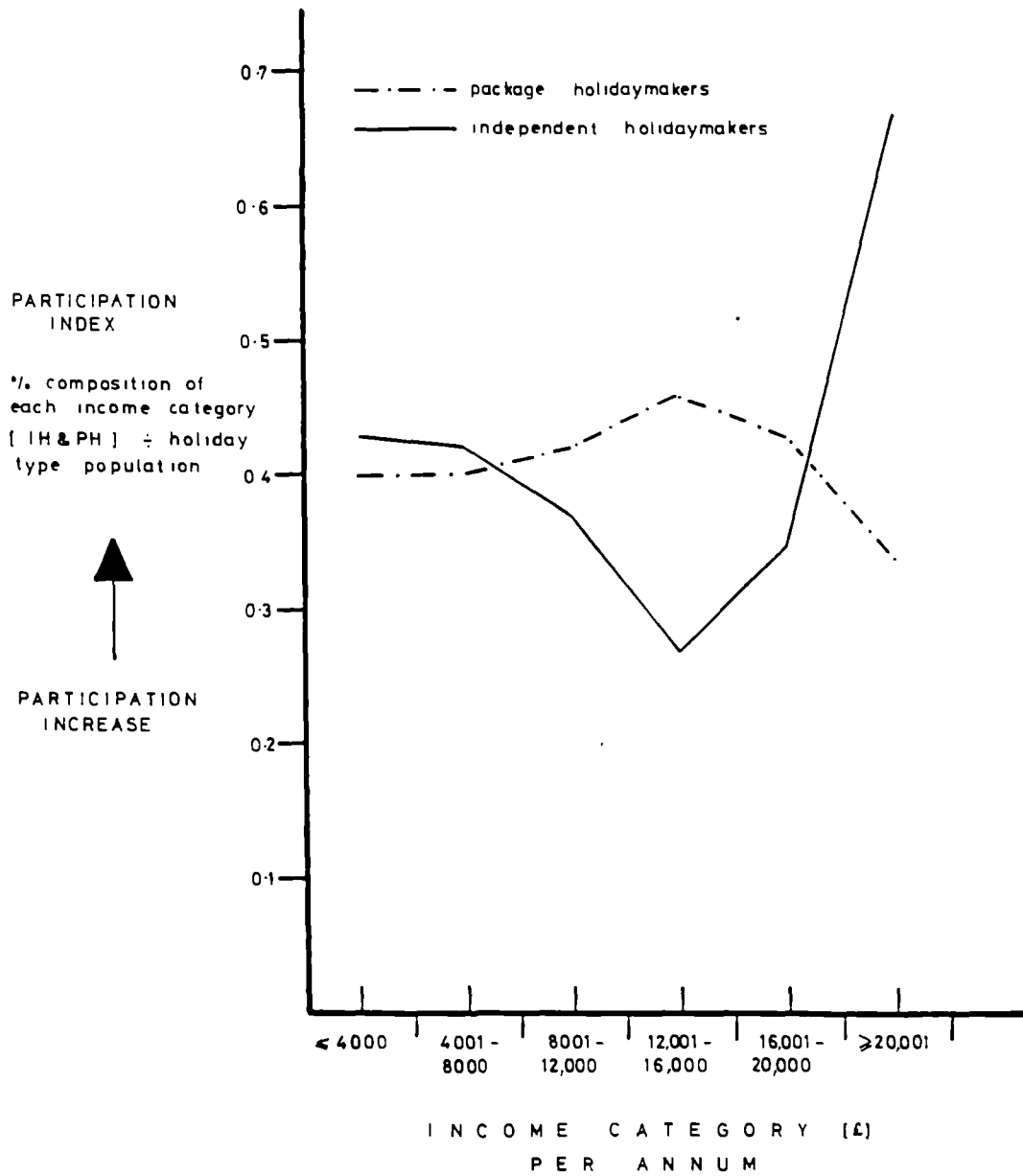
".. The package holiday? - fine for the majority of tourists I'm sure, but certainly not for me. I treat my holiday as my own; its an individual thing that I hope reflects my interests, not my wish to be seen along with millions of other tourists all doing the same thing.."+

The view remains, amongst a small section of the population, that the package holiday represents little more than a production line run by tour operators to satisfy as many tourists as possible. This is surprising, in view of the recent shift towards greater specialisation and improved standards of service for package holidaymakers. The attitude of the 'better' educated, however, does suggest status exerts an influence over holiday choice - an influence that may be indicative of the forces of 'conspicuous consumption'.

Though well worthy of consideration, it is unlikely that attitude and awareness are the sole mechanisms behind the central role assumed by education. Surely it must be closely associated with income, despite the apparent lack of direct correlation, for even in the foregoing explanation the hint of financial status is ever present? To facilitate closer analysis, income is therefore broken down into the original six categories and further scrutinised. The resultant trend amongst independent travellers is shown on diagram 15, marked by a characteristic 'U' curve describing the relationship between income and the incidence of independent travellers. They occur most frequently amongst income group extremes, the bulk of middle order respondents constituting a large proportion of package holidaymakers. The price structure of package holidays relative to independent travel may account for this. Independent

+ Lecturer, University Ward - November 1984

Diagram 15 : The relationship between income and holiday type



holiday arrangements are much more flexible. They may be enjoyed at relatively little cost (for example, camping, caravanning and youth hostelling trips), or can be tailored to meet the specific requirements of the very wealthy: a fortnight in the Carlton Hotel in St Moritz, for example, may cost more than the average yearly mortgage. By contrast, the majority of package holidays fall within a mid-range price bracket, only rarely encompassing cost extremes. This pricing variation is accurately reflected in patronage, and is evidence of a close relationship between the supply and demand for holidays.

Assuming that the package holiday is characterised by *standardisation*, routine and an absence of responsibility, and that the independent holiday possesses contrasting attributes, inspection of the distinction between these two types of holiday seems a most appropriate context for examining the role of work life-style factors, for these are represented by similar parameters. If the spillover hypothesis is followed, a manual labourer employed in a routine occupation, offering little responsibility or decision autonomy, is expected to take a package tour, for both work and holiday display similar qualitative characteristics. Accordingly, independent holidaymakers should largely consist of managers and professionals whose work involves much freedom and independence. Conversely, a contrast must be achieved in the case of the compensation hypothesis, such that the same manual labourer would prefer an independent holiday.

Table 27 : The relationship between holiday type and work life-style measures

DESCRIPTION	PROBABILITY
Boring	0.7911
Mentally demanding	0.7446
Much travel	0.8108
Routine	0.1574
Isolating	0.1692
Physically strenuous	0.9010
Supervisory	0.1384

Though there is plenty of scope for this sort of theorising, unfortunately there is little significant correlation between work life-style and holiday type (see table 27). A weak relationship is exhibited by the 'routine' measure; fewer independent holidaymakers (26%) perceive their work as boring than do package holidaymakers (42%). Similarly, fewer package holidaymakers identify an element of supervision in their work (50%) than do independent travellers (61%). Log-linear modelling fails to strengthen these tentative links, even when occupation is taken into account, though closer inspection of parameter estimates suggests significant correlation amongst manual workers for the work parameters 'routine' and 'boring'. This limited evidence, assuming the qualitative differences between independent and packaged travel are correct, supports the spillover hypothesis; the nature of the holiday experience is similar to the work experience. In view of the limited occurrence of correlation overall, however, the neutrality hypothesis must be favoured in this instance, which proposes a lack of any systematic relationship between work and leisure. If a link does exist, it is not apparent when holiday types are compared by the definitions used in the present analysis.

Neither is association uncovered between the nature of weekly leisure activities and holiday type, despite the fact they theoretically represent

opposing ends of a time-based leisure continuum. The chi-square probability between clustered leisure activities and holiday type is only 0.8596, which is not significant. In order to circumvent the dangers of possible information loss through clustering, individual leisure activities are analysed, but again no correlation is uncovered. This is surprising because social interaction, whilst an important parameter in the derivation of leisure-type clusters, may also be used effectively to represent contrasting qualities of independent and packaged travel. By their very nature, package holidays are closely implicated with the opportunity for meeting and mixing with other people. Such interaction is less accessible to the independent traveller; whilst it may be gained, solitude is always closer to hand. The lack of association is unexpected. The only explanation that can be offered at this stage in the research is a tentative one, to be verified in the light of later findings, and rests on the argument that as life-style components, weekly leisure participation and the annual holiday are so different in terms of their magnitude and frequency, that no bridging association extends between the two.

Not requiring further validation is the role of holiday life-style factors, for these effectively distinguish between the independent and package holidaymaker. Choice of holiday type is largely an outcome of previous package experience ($p = 0.0000$) and previous foreign holiday travel ($p = 0.0017$). However, there is no intrinsic reason why foreign holiday travel experience alone should influence holiday type. This is simply because those individuals previously travelling abroad are also likely to have taken a package holiday in the past ($p = 0.0000$). Log-linear modelling confirms this suspicion of spurious correlation, for when both variables are examined in combination, the relationship between

previous package experience and holiday type is maintained ($p = 0.0000$). However, under the same conditions, holiday type is not a significant function of previous foreign holiday experience ($p = 0.1741$). Once more this is indicative of static behaviour patterns through time, for the type of holiday taken today is very often similar to the type of holiday chosen in the past. This is further illustrated in table 28, which profiles the two most recent holidays of independent and package travellers. A further interesting comparison is that greater product loyalty is exercised by independent travellers, of whom 91% and 84% took an independent holiday on the last two occasions. Only 69% and 63% of current package holidaymakers, on their previous two annual vacations, took a package holiday. Thus, the package holidaymaker is more likely to alternate between holiday types than the independent traveller, implying a relatively unstable market and a lower incidence of product loyalty amongst package tourists. The latter are also more likely to have travelled abroad than independent holidaymakers, and they also display a less-pronounced seasonality 'peak'. Neither differ on account of the average number of holidays recently taken per year ($p = 1.0000$).

6.2.2. Decision criteria

The main parameters used to distinguish between independent and package holidaymakers can be summarised as previous holiday type, educational background, income and family status. This allows fairly accurate profiling of independent travellers; young parents with young children, those educated to a relatively high level, past practitioners of independent travel and members of low or high (but not medium) income categories. To some extent a complementary set of decision criteria may

Table 28: Recent holiday profiles of independent
and package travellers

A: MOST RECENT HOLIDAY ⁺		CURRENT HOLIDAY	
		Independent holidaymakers	Package holidaymakers
1. Type	- % Independent	90.8	31.5
	- % Package	9.2	68.5
2. Location	- % UK	80.0	43.5
	- % Abroad	20.0	56.5
3. Month	- % July/August	53.8	40.4
	- % Other	46.2	59.6
B: MOST RECENT HOLIDAY BUT ONE ⁺			
1. Type	- % Independent	84.1	37.7
	- % Package	15.9	62.3
2. Location	- % UK	77.8	43.7
	- % Abroad	22.2	56.3
3. Month	- % July/August	63.5	39.1
	- % Other	36.5	60.9

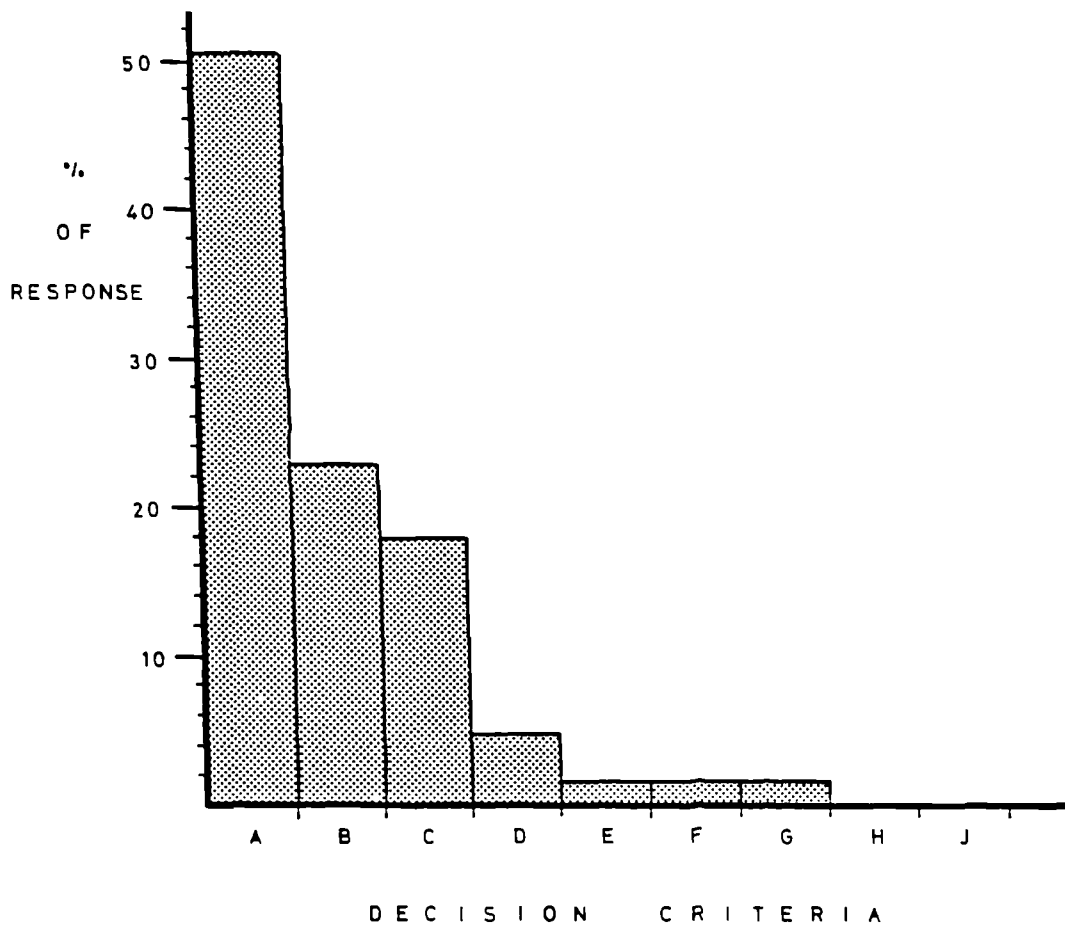
⁺ Prior to the holiday examined in the research

be applied to these critical profile elements.

The structure of the sample prevents strict correlation being drawn between the characteristics of independent travellers and their decision criteria. Nonetheless, assessing decision criteria in their own right provides a valuable insight into the nature of the decision to travel independently. Primary reasons for opting for independent travel are shown in diagram 16. Given the preceding profiling and subsequent behavioural interpretation, it is not surprising to find that the main reason cited for independent travel is 'freedom'. Herein lies the main appeal of independent travel; a lack of supervision, complete decision autonomy and the opportunity to exercise unfettered holiday aspirations. Within certain constraints, behavioural guidelines are set at the discretion of the holidaymaker in response to their intentions. This is a quality the package holiday is unlikely ever to possess, and it is a key factor in the popularity of independent travel; over half the respondents cite 'freedom' as the main reason for travelling independently.

'Cost and value' and 'wider holiday choice' follow in popularity (22% and 18% respectively). Only rarely is response to the remaining criteria encountered. Bearing in mind previous comments in connection with the predictive role of education and attitudes, it is surprising to find so few respondents cite 'prestige' as their major criterion. This may well be a function of the tendency not to admit to such a 'motive', and this figure is considered to be artificially low. On a sensitive issue such as this, informal discussion is far more likely to elicit accurate information than the rather monochromatic tones of yes/no response to checklist criteria inventories.

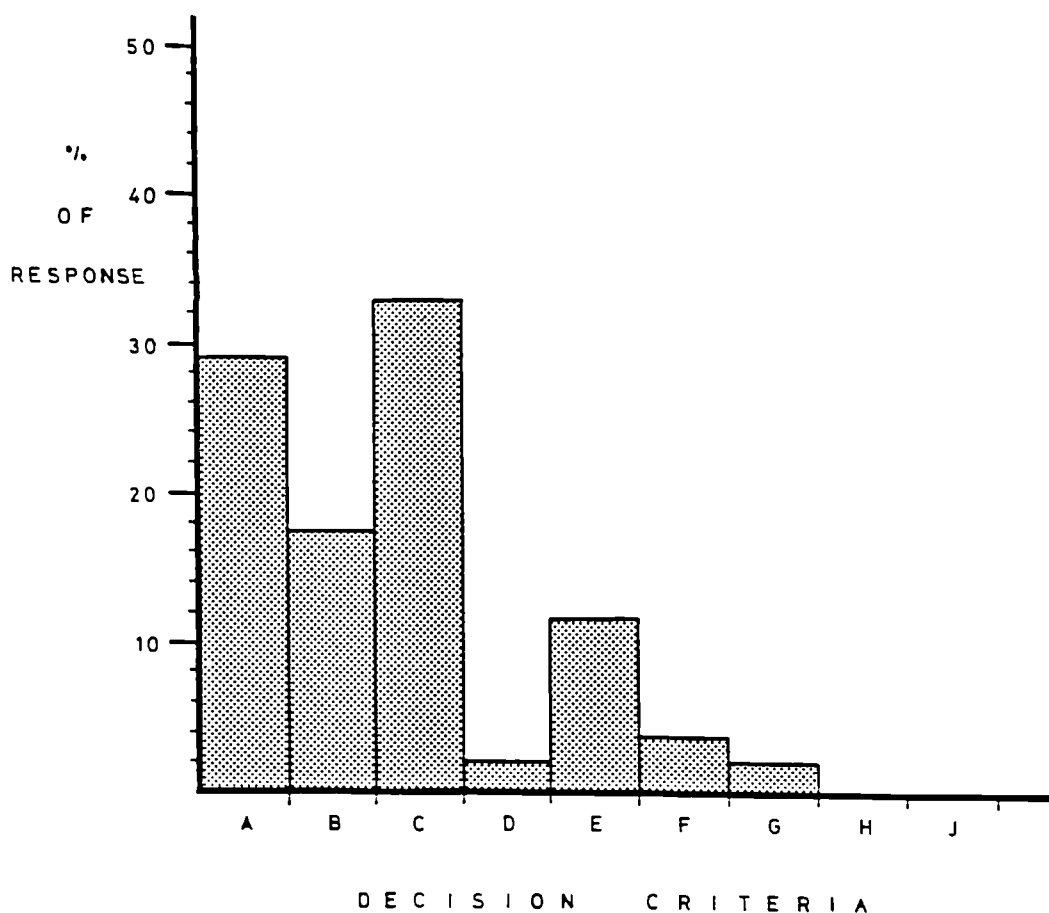
Diagram 16 : Primary reasons for choosing
an independent holiday



WHERE :

- A - Freedom and independence
- B - Cost and value
- C - Wider holiday choice
- D - 'Other' - impulse departure
- E - Enjoy planning the holiday
- F - No confidence in tour operators
- G - Greater prestige element independently
- H - Poor package holiday in past
- J - Package chosen but fully booked up

Diagram 17 : Secondary reasons for choosing
an independent holiday



WHERE :

- A - Freedom and independence
- B - Cost and value
- C - Wider holiday choice
- D - 'Other' - impulse departure
- E - Enjoy planning the holiday
- F - No confidence in tour operators
- G - Greater prestige element independently
- H - Poor package holiday in past
- J - Package chosen but fully booked up

A similar explanation may be applied to the disclosed secondary decision criteria shown in diagram 17. The histogram profile shows these are evenly scattered between the criteria categories. Some 29% of respondents indicate 'freedom' as a secondary criteria; over 80% of respondents therefore cite this factor as either of primary or secondary significance. Of further interest amongst secondary criteria is the dominance of 'wider choice'. Clearly, the flexibility inherited by making individual arrangements ensures a very large number of holiday permutations. This in itself is not an inherent quality of independent travel. It is an attribute derived by making comparisons with package tours; a relative, rather than absolute, benefit. Accordingly, 'wider choice' is most influential as a secondary factor. As a primary factor, 'freedom' may persuade the potential traveller to take an independent holiday, 'wider choice' acting as an enforcer of this decision in a similar manner to the role of risk amongst non-holidaymakers. The enormous range of independent options is a particularly valid factor, taking into account the nature of correlation between income and holiday type. Thus, the key elements in the preference for independent travel are freedom and the wide range of holiday options. In addition, the independent holiday is commonly seen as offering good value for money. This is undoubtedly a factor also uppermost in the minds of the package holidaymaker.

6.3 THE PACKAGE HOLIDAYMAKER

6.3.1 Resumé : descriptive profile and key identification features

The holidaymaker differs from the home-stayer largely on account

of contrasting economic characteristics. Travellers are likely to have a higher income, more paid leave and access to a car. Similarly, investigation of life-style measures shows that although sharing broadly similar leisure and work life-styles, the previous holiday experience of current travellers is altogether more comprehensive. The desire to extend travel activity well into retirement means that it is only once a high age limit (70 years) is reached that significant profile differences emerge between home-stayers and holidaymakers.

These parameters provide an effective way of distinguishing between the holidaymaker and home-stayer. In turn, independent holidaymakers may be identified against package holidaymakers, largely on account of family status, education, income and previous holiday life-style. This provides some basic clues as to the main characteristics of the package holidaymaking population. These are shown in tables 29 - 33, and are now examined in further detail.

Table 29 illustrates the domination of male decision-makers. This is probably an outcome of the definitions used in the field survey, which identify the holiday decision-maker as the main household income earner in the case of joint decisions. Again, the majority of respondents are married, though only 17% possess children below the age 15 years. This is a reflection of the age profile of package holidaymakers; 58% are above the age of 45 (one third of these being of pensionable age or older).

Not surprisingly, the majority (69%) of package holidaymakers are in full-time employment (see table 30), and are fairly evenly split between the three occupation categories shown in table 30. This belies the

Table 29: Sociodemographic profile of package holidaymakers

POPULATION MEASURE	CATEGORY	% of RESPONSE
1. SEX	- Male	71.3
	- Female	28.7
2. AGE	- 16-29 years	17.4
	- 30-44 years	24.7
	- 45-64 years	38.2
	- 65 years +	19.7
3. MARITAL STATUS	- Married and home-sharing	70.2
	- Other (single, divorced, separated, widowed)	29.8
4. FAMILY STATUS	- infants in family (below 6 years)	9.0
	- no infants in family	91.0
	- family including children below 15 years	17.4
	- members all over 15 years	82.6

Table 30: Economic profile of package holidaymakers

POPULATION MEASURE	CATEGORY	% of RESPONSE
1. EDUCATION TO	- Minimum school leaving age	60.9
	- '6th form' or equivalent	21.8
	- Higher education	17.2
2. EMPLOYMENT	- Engaged full-time	69.1
	- Part-time/not in employment	30.9
3. OCCUPATION	- Manual workers	38.2
	- Supervisors and lower level Management	30.9
	- Professional, higher level Management and self-employers (with a workforce of more than 20)	30.9
4. PAID HOLIDAY	- Less than 15 days/year	13.8
	- More than 15 days/year	86.2
5. INCOME	- Less than £8000/year	52.2
	- £8000/year or more	47.8
6. CAR OWNERSHIP	- Car owner/household access to car	77.5
	- No car in household	22.5

educational background of such respondents, nearly two thirds of whom terminated formal education at the minimum school leaving age. Gladly, this is a practice that rarely seems to have curtailed career progression or economic well-being, for the majority of package tourists own a car, take 15 or more days paid leave, and are evenly distributed either side of the £8000 annual income level. Of those actually in employment, the proportion earning in excess of £8000 is greater (nearly 75%). The low overall figure takes into account those on state pensions. Such folk represent an important market segment for the tour operator; of the package holidaymakers not in employment, 90% are retired. This coincides tidily with the sociodemographic profiles already discussed.

Continuity is further extended to include the various measures used to represent respondent life-styles. Most fail to see their work as boring, isolated or requiring much travel (see table 31), though to many it does represent a mental challenge. Half regard their work as routine-based, though slightly more than this have some sort of supervisory status. Some 40% find their work physically strenuous; a similar proportion to the number of classified manual occupations (38%). Overall work profiles therefore accurately portray the occupational structure previously outlined.

Similarly, an age profile biased towards older individuals is reflected in the weekly leisure activities undertaken, for 38% of respondents are classified as members of the 'solitary' activities category, which includes reading and listening to the radio (table 32). A similar proportion indulge largely in social activities, whilst 25% are classified according to home maintenance and gardening hobbies. These proportions

Table 31: Work life-style profile of package holidaymakers

WORK PARAMETER	RESPONSE+ - % replying	
	'Yes'	'No'
1. Boring	15.2	84.8
2. Mentally demanding	71.2	28.8
3. Involving much travel	28.7	71.3
4. Routine	49.1	50.9
5. Isolating	18.0	82.0
6. Physically strenuous	39.6	60.4
7. Supervisory	56.5	43.5

+ Percentage figures are calculated on the total of 'yes' and 'no' responses, and thus exclude 'in-between' responses

Table 32: Leisure life-style profile of package holidaymakers

CLUSTERED LEISURE TYPE	% OF RESPONSE
'Homecare'	25.0
'Social/mixing'	37.1
'Solitary'	37.9

are broadly similar to those of the total interviewed sample.

Greater differences emerge upon inspection of holiday life-style measures, for the package tourist generally has a wealth of holiday experience (in terms of previous product use, foreign travel and the frequency of such trips). Table 33 also shows that approximately one half of the two most recent holidays of current holidaymakers were abroad. However, whilst tending less towards high season peak travel, package holidaymakers are less loyal to the package holiday product than independent holidaymakers are to independent travel. This has already been discussed in a previous section.

It is useful at this stage to try to summarise the main characteristics of package holidaymakers as a whole. Clearly there is no single, typical example that can be identified. Indeed, as previously noted, a broad cross-section of respondents are classified as package holidaymakers. A few main features deserve special mention however, if only as general guidelines. The overriding common characteristic, and the only means of overall summary, is the rather 'moderate' nature of the package holidaymaking population; rarely are profiled 'extremes' encountered, no matter what indices are used to construct social scales with which to measure variation in the sample.

Such generality runs the risk of over-simplification. The essential characteristics are perhaps better grasped in the following two case study profiles. Albeit living separately, and randomly sampled (independently), both share a family connection. Together they provide a reasonably accurate representation of many of the package holidaymakers interviewed.

Table 33: Holiday life-style profile of package holidaymakers

CLASS A: OVERALL MEASURES OF PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE

		% of RESPONSE
1.	Package holiday previously taken	- Yes 87.1 - No 12.9
2.	Holiday abroad previously taken	- Yes 83.7 - No 16.3
3.	Average of more than one holiday per year (1982-84)	- Yes 88.8 - No 11.2

CLASS B: SPECIFIC BEHAVIOUR

		HOLIDAY	
		Most recent ⁺	Most recent but one ⁺
1.	Type		
	- % Package	68.5	62.3
	- % Independent	31.5	37.7
2.	Month		
	- % July/August	40.4	39.1
	- % Other	59.6	60.9
3.	Location		
	- % Within UK	47.2	38.1
	- % Abroad	52.8	61.9

+ Prior to the holiday examined in the research

By no means do they encompass all respondents, but they do serve to highlight several of the characteristics common to many package holidaymakers. To preserve the identity of the original informants, the names used here are entirely fictitious.

Mr and Mrs Fisher had been married 32 years. Born in 1929, three years previous to Mrs Fisher, Mr Fisher had lived in Hull all his working life. Starting out as a trainee clerk at a tanning factory after leaving school at the age of 15, he had since progressed through various jobs to his current position as a shop-floor supervisor for a local firm manufacturing caravans. Their life-style could certainly be described as 'comfortable', though certainly not extravagant. His job offered a secure income (between £8000 and £12000 per annum) which allowed them to run a car and maintain their detached bungalow to a reasonably high standard. It also allowed Mrs Fisher to indulge in her weekly art school lessons. Generally satisfied with his work, Mr Fisher suggested it was based largely on routine, though thankfully (at his age - as he put it) it did not require him to do a lot of travelling. He estimated only 3000 miles a year were spent on business.

They felt fortunate in being able to take three trips away from home every year. One of these was usually a long weekend to see Mrs Fisher's parents in Abingdon, often in autumn. At Easter they always spent a week somewhere in the U.K., usually driving there themselves. Their main holiday they took abroad; a package tour, usually to Greece, though next year they were trying Corsica in search of a change in scenery. For the past seven years they had been abroad on similar tours, though both relished the mountainous scenery that awaited them in Corsica. Mr Fisher added it would hopefully encourage them to do more walking on holiday; an activity he rarely found time for at weekends largely on account of the garden maintenance needed and his self-admitted love of choral works, which he found relaxing to listen to 'when time is in hand'.

Their daughter married locally, to a Mr Colin Lee. Colin, a 29 year old policeman, had travelled widely before his marriage to Miss Fisher in 1981. As he remarked, he could travel anytime he liked then, leave permitting, and had done so. Now his travel plans were generally less ambitious though they still took a package tour abroad. Change was afoot he remarked, for next year they were saving for a three week trip to America. Thankfully they were free from home ties with no children and a new house which seemed to "maintain itself - it's great". There would be no problems leaving home.

Once again, possessing a comfortable life-style, most of their time was spent socialising with friends. "A good, enjoyable holiday is important" remarked Colin, "for it

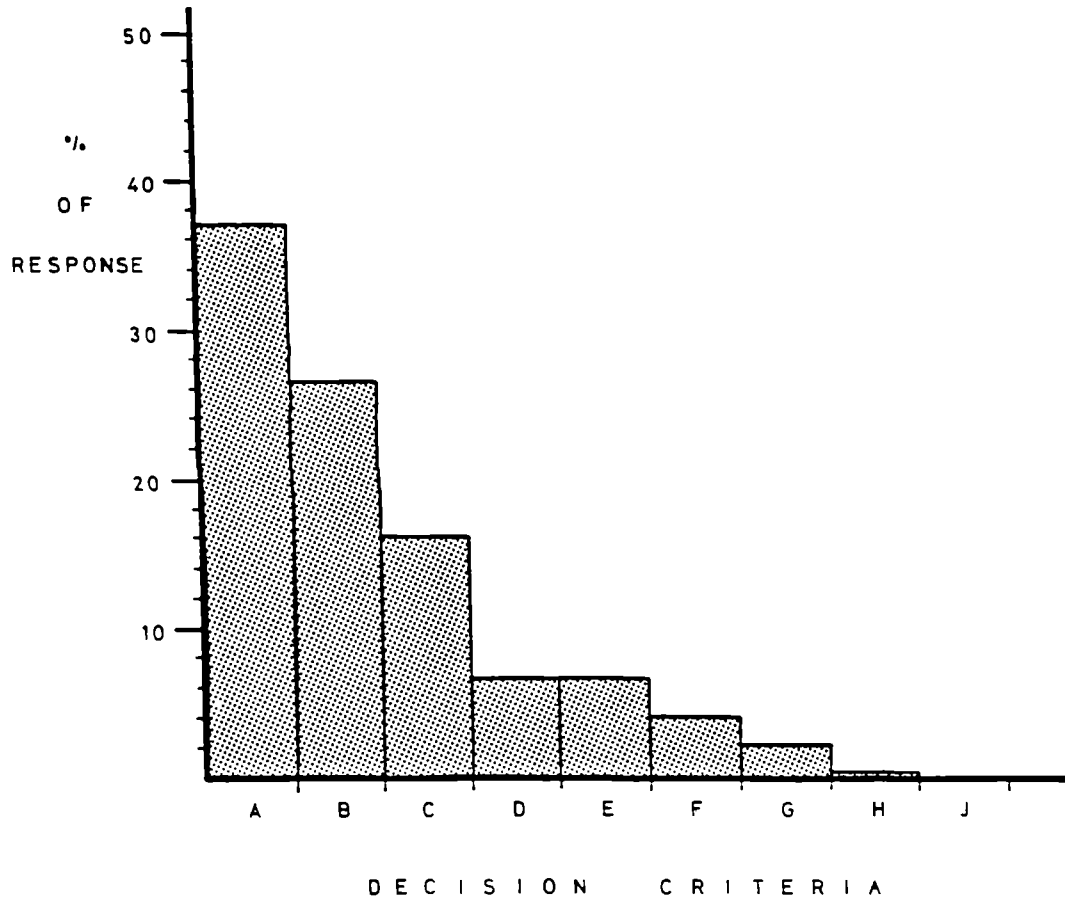
provides an essential break to my job, which though interesting is certainly fatiguing, both mentally and physically". He likened it in some ways to his first vacation job, whilst at college, as a general help on a building site, for "sometimes all you want to, on getting home, is to put your feet up. Ten minutes rest though and the phone would ring, and before very long you would be meeting your mates for a drink". The only difference now was that the company was usually mixed.

It is hoped these two profiles provide an accurate 'feel' for the many package holidaymakers encountered during the survey. They are taken straight from jottings made during a series of follow-up interviews with a small number of individuals originally covered in the initial Questionnaire survey. These two cases were chosen after careful inspection of profile characteristics, both individually and for the interviewed sample as a whole. To what extent are these characteristics reflected in the reasons stated for taking a package holiday in preference to travelling independently?

6.3.2 Preferences for packaged travel

The main reasons for choosing a package holiday, in its widest sense, are shown on diagram 18. Clearly, the main appeal of the package holiday lies in the absence of planning prior to departure. A holiday can be booked and all other procedures, other than payment, left to the travel agent or tour operator. Effort reduction is assured. This is followed by 'cost and value'. Care must be exercised over interpretation here, for an individual may regard a package holiday as good value simply because the planning is carried out by a third party. The first two categories are not mutually exclusive therefore. To help circumvent any misunderstandings, the element 'cost' was stressed during interviews. One

Diagram 18 : Primary reasons for choosing a package holiday



WHERE :

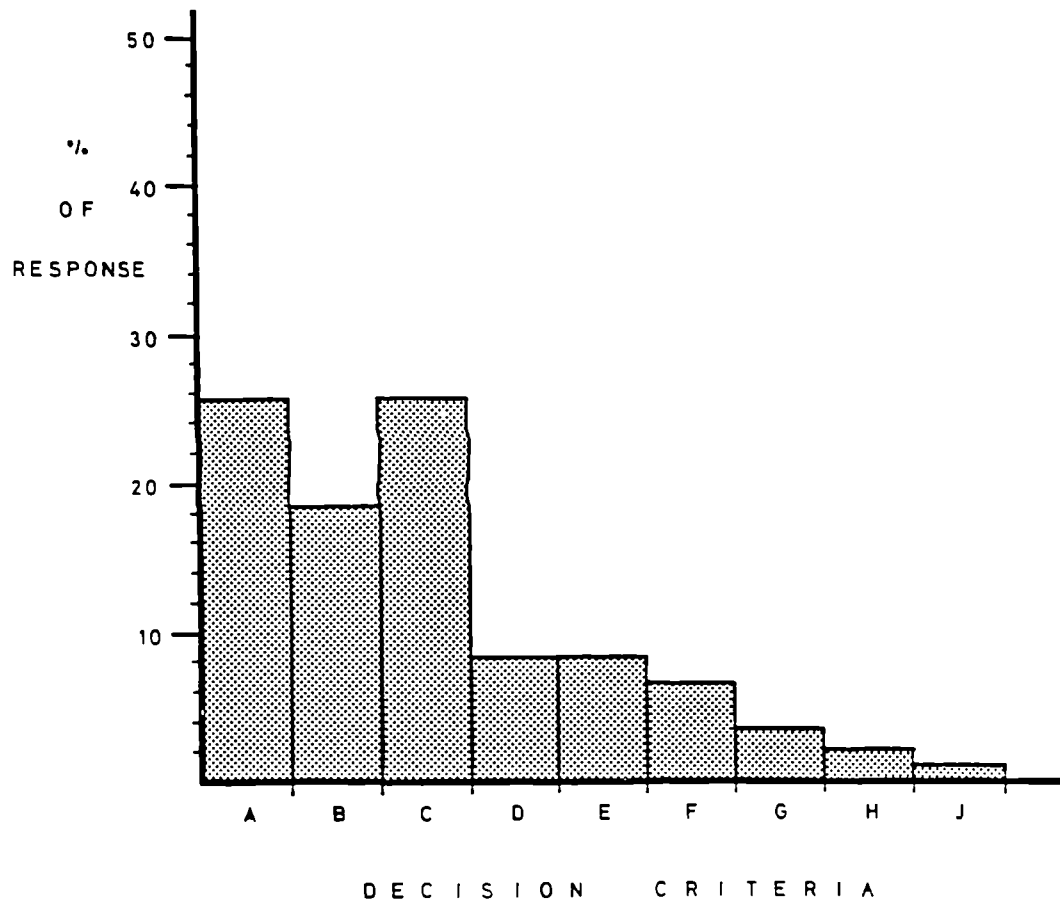
- A - Little planning needed
- B - Cost and value
- C - Looked after; i.e. less risk
- D - Improved access; i.e. to locations unlikely to be visited independently
- E - Enjoyable package holidays in past
- F - To meet people
- G - Special package features; e.g. provision for young or elderly
- H - Friend's advice (uncovered to be on grounds of cost and value)
- J - 'Other' - no driving needed

in four respondents cite 'cost and value' as the primary reason for choosing package travel. This is not necessarily an intrinsic advantage of package holidays, but is one tour operators promote by their pricing policies. Clearly, it attracts patronage.

Of the remaining criteria, only 'risk reduction' is significant. It suggests that for 16% of respondents, the paternal care of the tour operator is sufficient for them to opt for package travel.

'Risk reduction' assumes greater importance as a secondary decision criteria (see diagram 19). The role of risk in the decision to take a package holiday is similar to its role in the decision to stay at home. It may not be so much at the forefront of conscious decision-making, but rather is an omnipresent influence helping to sway the decision one way or the other once a preferred route of action is adopted. Risk is largely an enforcer of these decisions. Sideline analysis uncovers significant statistical association between risk and occupation ($p = 0.0686$) and income ($p = 0.0155$). Perceived travel risk is greatest amongst manual workers and lower management (presumably because higher status occupations involve much more travel), and households possessing an income of less than £8000 per annum, thereby supporting the notion that perceived risk and product price are positively related (remembering that purchase price is relative to income). Amongst remaining secondary decision criteria, once again 'cost and value' and 'little planning' are the only items of importance. This confirms their value as qualities of the package holiday which draw much custom. They are therefore important elements in the overall package concept.

Diagram 19 : Secondary reasons for choosing
a package holiday



WHERE :

- A - Little planning needed
- B - Cost and value
- C - Looked after; i.e. less risk
- D - Improved access; i.e. to locations unlikely to be visited independently
- E - Enjoyable package holidays in past
- F - To meet people
- G - Special package features; e.g. provision for young or elderly
- H - Friend's advice (uncovered to be on grounds of cost and value)
- J - 'Other' - no driving needed

Returning to mainstream analysis, now that the package holidaymaker is the focus of investigation, sample size restrictions on statistical processing are lifted. This facilitates a search for significant association between participant characteristics and the primary reasons stated for choosing packaged travel. These criteria are grouped prior to analysis, however, in order to meet the data requirements of chi-square procedures. Table 34 illustrates the grouping exercised. Of these three resultant

Table 34 : Decision criteria grouped for correlation tests

DERIVED GROUP	ORIGINAL FACTORS	ADJUSTED GROUP %
1 Reduction of pre-holiday effort	- Little planning	41.5
2 Cost and value	- Cost and value	29.6
3 Reduction of effort and responsibility during the holiday	- special features] - less risk] - no driving] - increased access]	28.9

criteria 'groups', two in fact remain as original single factors. Only the third category involves extensive grouping, and this seems well founded in logic. The factors 'meeting people' and 'previously enjoyable package holiday' are classified as missing values owing to their very low frequencies. Indeed, the latter factor is a misfit, for it is a function of previous product experience rather than any particular quality of the package holiday itself. Thus, by retaining the first two factors and logically combining the remaining criteria members, the three generated categories are considered to accurately represent patterns in the original data. Certainly their ranked importance is very similar to that of the relevant original factors (verified by comparison of table 34 with diagram 18).

The search for association between these grouped criteria measures and package holidaymaker profile characteristics uncovers little significant correlation. For example, a similar proportion of pensioners choose a package holiday on account of its paternal role during the vacation (category 3 - 33%) as do those on the grounds of low cost and good value (31%). Similarly, though 53% of families with young children cite 'little planning' as the primary reason (not surprisingly, considering the bedroom, mealtime and travel arrangements that are required), those remaining are broadly split between 'effort reduction' during the holiday and 'cost and value'. Again this may be readily explained, for transference of responsibility removes the worry of travel from the mind of the parent, whilst special family deals offering a large discount for young children ensures the family package holiday is often good value and competitively priced. A complete set of equally logical arguments tied to each of the three decision criteria groupings thus accounts for the lack of correlation with family status ($p = 0.9940$).

A little systematic variation is discernible however. Log-linear analysis uncovers significant association between decision criteria and the combined effects of education and occupation ($p = 0.0374$). The importance of planning and responsibility transference (both before and during the holiday) is greatest amongst those individuals whose educational and occupational profiles suggest they possess least experience in worldwide travel : of those minimum age school leavers in manual or lower management occupations, 73% cite reduction of pre- and during - holiday effort as the major decision criterion. Only 40% of those in higher management occupations (after education beyond the minimum school leaving age) do so, greater importance instead being attached to the cost and value of packaged travel.

It is surprising to find that income fails to fulfil a significant role. This is readily explained, however, by reference to holiday cost. If this is related to income (and there is little evidence to suggest this is not the case), a high income earner is expected to purchase a more expensive package holiday than a lower income earner. Given differing financial status, perceived cost and value is therefore unlikely to vary. To the wealthy participant, an expensive fortnight for two in a five star hotel may seem as equally good value as a budget villa is to the holidaymaker of lesser financial means. Thus, it is unlikely that cost and value varies between income classes as a reason for opting for packaged travel.

Little variation is incumbent upon differing participant life-styles. In the case of work and leisure life-styles, this may well be due to the conceptual chasm between weekly leisure or daily work activities and the annual holiday. The magnitude/frequency contrast between both variable sets is too great to sustain associative meaning. Holiday life-styles are more closely attuned to behavioural variation, however, since they too are founded on a yearly rather than weekly or daily basis. The lack of correlation between this and package holiday choice criteria, however, offers some interesting interpretative leads.

Previous package holiday experience is unlikely to affect the reasons for choosing another package tour. If criteria remain constant, despite variation in previous relevant holidaymaking experience, then the reason for taking a package holiday is unlikely to be a function of that experience. In theory, first time package holiday buyers might be expected to take this option on account of the lack of required planning. Equally likely though, is the 'pull' exerted by apparent cost and value.

Greater experience with the package holiday product may well discount this quality as many of the 'hidden extras' in package holiday cost are encountered (such as airport surcharges, tax charges and insurance fees). Amongst these experienced travellers it might be argued that a reduction in planning prior to departure is no longer important, for planning worries should be displaced by experience. Alternatively, of course, once sampled, freedom from responsibility may well be further valued.

Reasons for packaged travel are therefore not quite so easily explained as first thought. There is little systematic variation between decision criteria and the respondent's characteristics. In conceptual terms this may be ascribed to a mis-match between decision specificity and behavioural generality: that is, the behaviour measured is so general that a conscious decision to take a package holiday in preference to alternative behaviours (non- or independent holidaymaking) is not made. For many respondents the package holiday may well be an "automatic choice". Asking for specific reasons why this preference is made may therefore provide misleading and inappropriate information, for respondents are asked to reflect on a decision they do not consciously make. The decision to take a package holiday may not consciously exist, as such, in the mind of the respondent. This provides some interesting behavioural and marketing implications, not least of which is that choosing a package tour to realise holiday travel is an habitual action for many people. Rarely do they consider the reasons behind this preference, nor indeed alternative behaviours. In theory, this effectively places a behavioural constraint on such individuals - one that clearly demands extensive and well-targetted effort to break down.

Alternatively, the lack of association may well be an outcome of employing profile measures which are insufficiently sensitive to support significant correlation. If such ties exist, they may well be disguised by overriding mainstream profile measures. There may well be some truth in this argument. In the preceding account, the absence of correlation is frequently attributed to two or more equally applicable reasons why a particular type of respondent might justifiably act on any one of the several decision criteria analysed. One theoretical explanation is invariably countered by another. Though this may not foster interpretative clarity, it nonetheless provides a few valuable clues as to the nature of the decision to opt for package travel. If multiple explanatory themes exist, and each possesses valid reasoning, then decision criteria are unlikely to be simply random. The very fact that meaningful ties may be called upon suggests the existence of structural links within the data. What is lacking, which if available might determine bias in favour of one explanation or another, is a set of more sensitive measures to represent both participant characteristics and decision criteria. Preference for packaged travel may be more an outcome of personal and highly individual factors which demand particularly detailed analysis. Information of this ilk might be assimilated by extensive qualitative research into holiday aspirations, felt need, and how this is satisfied by the package holiday. A closer grasp is needed of the individual's perception of package tours and their associated meaning. There clearly remains much scope for such study, though this is beyond the bounds of the current research given its focus on destination choice and behaviour.

Thus, in no way should amorphous association between decision criteria and participant characteristics tarnish a first-cut attempt to understand

package holiday preferences. Rather, some interesting elements of this decision are uncovered. The possibility of semi- or unconscious choice is the first finding worthy of contemplation. Preferences for package holidays may operate on such a generalised behaviour level that no conscious decision to embark on such action is made, and no alternatives even considered.

If a structured decision is made, then the criteria previously outlined indicate the qualities of package travel that attract patronage, in particular the lack of required planning prior to departure. Though this provides a welcome framework, the apparent lack of correlation (seemingly due to two or more opposing explanations) suggests further systematic variation awaits disclosure by more sensitive tracking measures. Given the nature of the parameters unsuccessfully used to date, it is likely that the decision to opt for a package holiday is a function of highly personalised factors of a particularly individual nature.

Without recourse to specific research to clarify this issue, both possibilities must be carefully considered. Clues as to the preferred explanation may well be uncovered by investigating some of the more detailed elements of the package holiday. Clearly, a close examination of the role of destination choice in the explanation of locational patterns of package holidaymaking requires equally specific decision process information and behaviour measures. Correlation here may well assist judgement over the relevance of the argument that there is a mis-match between specific decision criteria and the rather general (even habitual) behavioural preference for packaged travel. Before these possibilities are explored however, the role of the destination in overall holiday

choice must be determined. This in turn promotes the need for a thorough understanding of all non-spatial elements of package holidaymaking (referred to hereafter as holiday 'habits'), for the destination is just one of many components of the holiday overall. The holiday must be fully appreciated in its entirety, and the links between the many constituent parts wholly understood, before one component is extracted and analysed in greater detail.

CHAPTER SEVEN

PACKAGE HOLIDAY HABITS

7.1 OVERVIEW

7.1.1. Coverage and perspectives on behaviour

'Holiday habits' is the generic term used in this thesis to cover all those elements of the package holiday that are not spatial and strictly tied to destination patterns. The holidays examined are largely represented by six measures; size and composition of the holiday party, transport and accommodation services, and the timing and duration of the holiday.

These are the 'core' ingredients of the holiday 'mix'. However, the holiday is not just a single event in time. For this reason interrogation is broadened by including several behavioural indices that actually pre-date the holiday. These are booking behaviour, and two measures of familiarity with the package tour itself; loyalty to the tour operator, and previous experience of the chosen destination.

To complement these, behaviour whilst actually on holiday is represented by two additional measures; the activities undertaken, and the distances travelled on day trips away from the host destination. Their purpose is two-fold, for they are both interesting elements of behaviour in their own right, and yet also provide a valuable retrospective viewpoint with which

to assess holiday preferences.

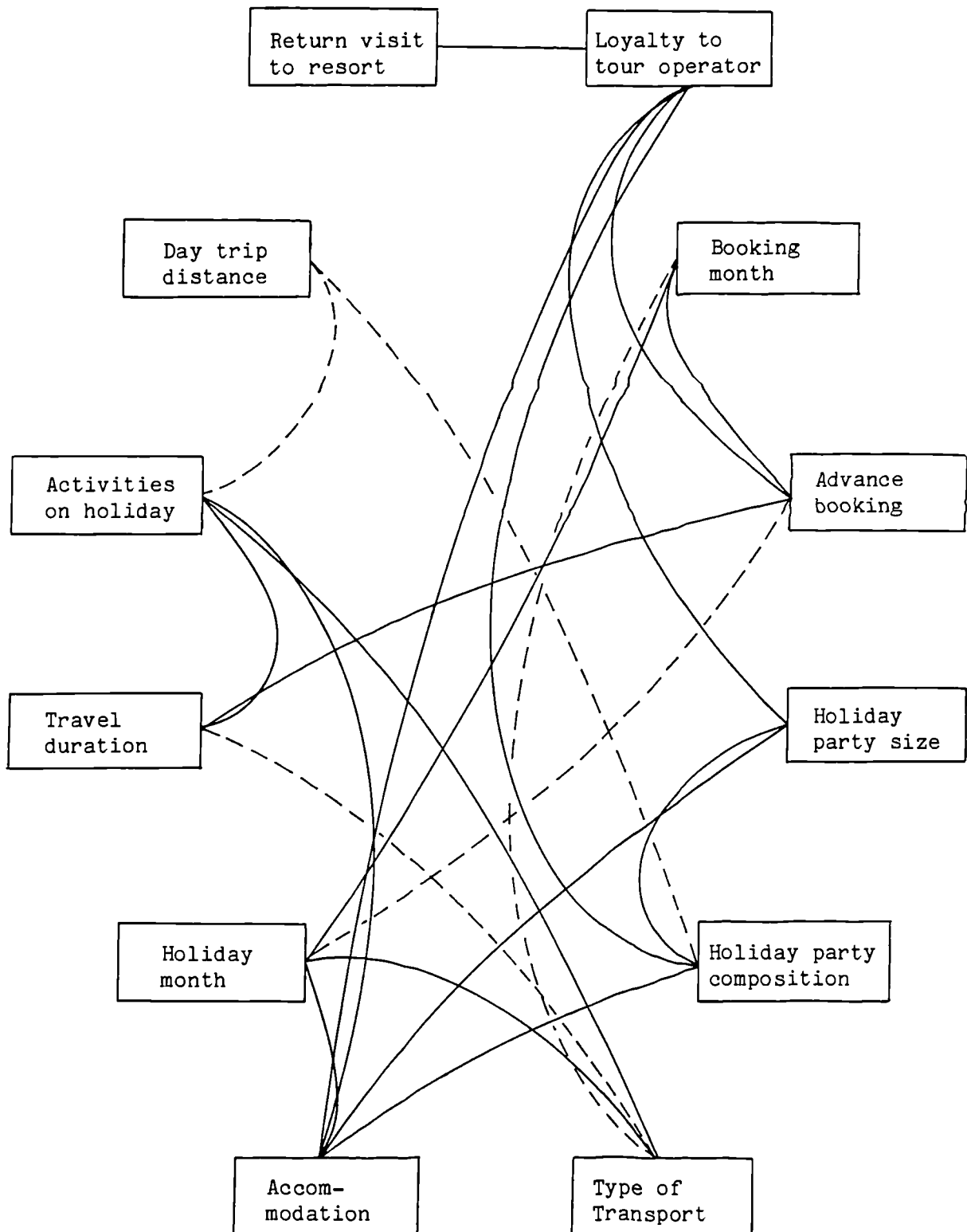
Package holiday habits are therefore portrayed by a wide range of measures. This helps to ensure that insight into specific components of the holiday rests in a wider appreciation of behaviour. Indeed, the holiday is an agglomeration of many varied elements, the links they share contributing towards a general description of the holiday habits of the interviewed sample. These links are shown on diagram 20.

7.1.2 Data patterns; dissecting the holiday 'mix'

Not all package holidaymakers seek outright novelty each time they travel, for many favour a degree of familiarity in their chosen holiday. Over one quarter of all package holidaymakers visit a familiar destination (diagram 21). Rather more loyalty is exercised over choice of tour operator; 44% choose an operator with whom they have previously travelled. The greater incidence of loyalty towards tour operators than towards destinations simply reflects the larger number of destinations available. Both are very closely related ($p = 0.0000$). Three quarters of all holidaymakers visiting a familiar resort do so courtesy of the services of a familiar tour operator. These individuals also tend to book their holidays long in advance, travel in small groups, are rarely accompanied by children (below 16 years), and prefer serviced to self-catering accommodation.

Holiday bookings peak in January and February, and tail-off throughout the remainder of the year. It is interesting to note that the booking rate is

Diagram 20 : Linkage between package holiday habit measures

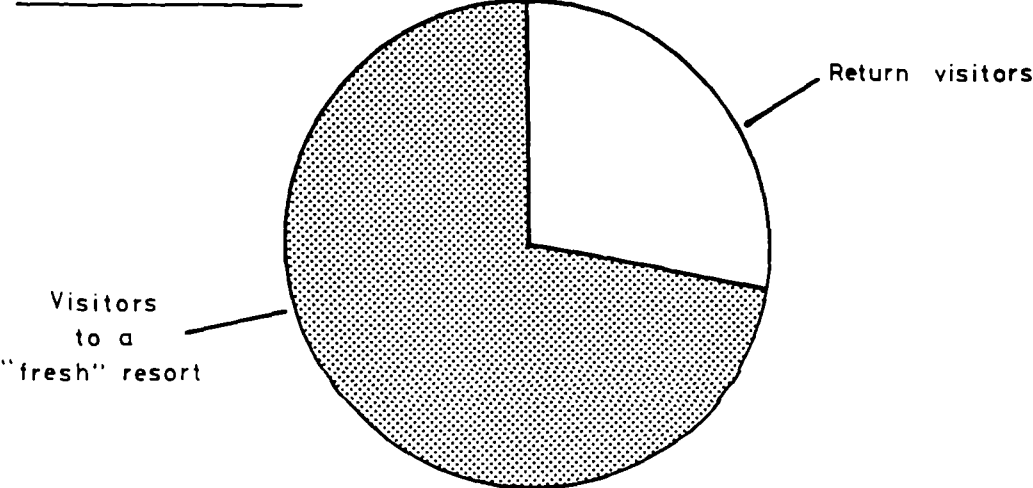


Significant at 5% level ———

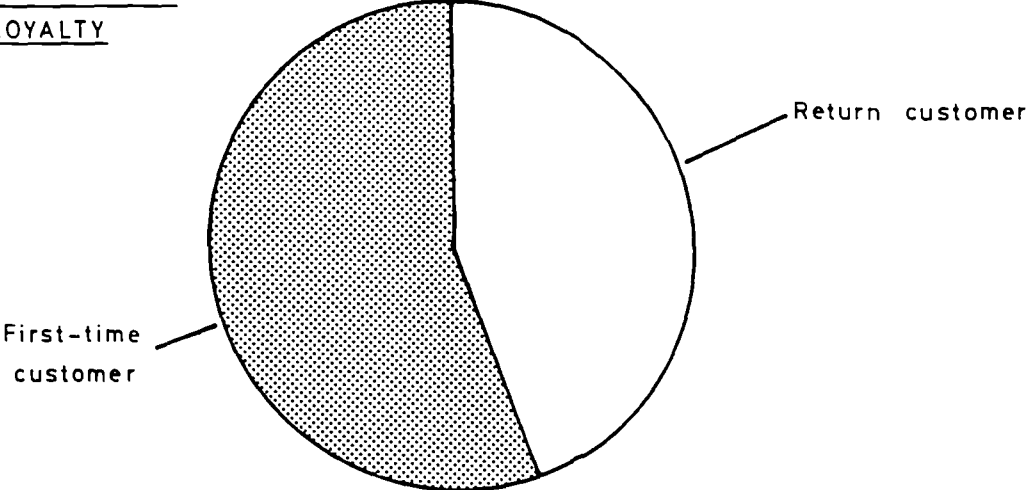
Significant at 10% level - - - - -

Diagram 21 : Holiday familiarity

1: RESORT ALLEGIANCE



2: TOUR OPERATOR LOYALTY



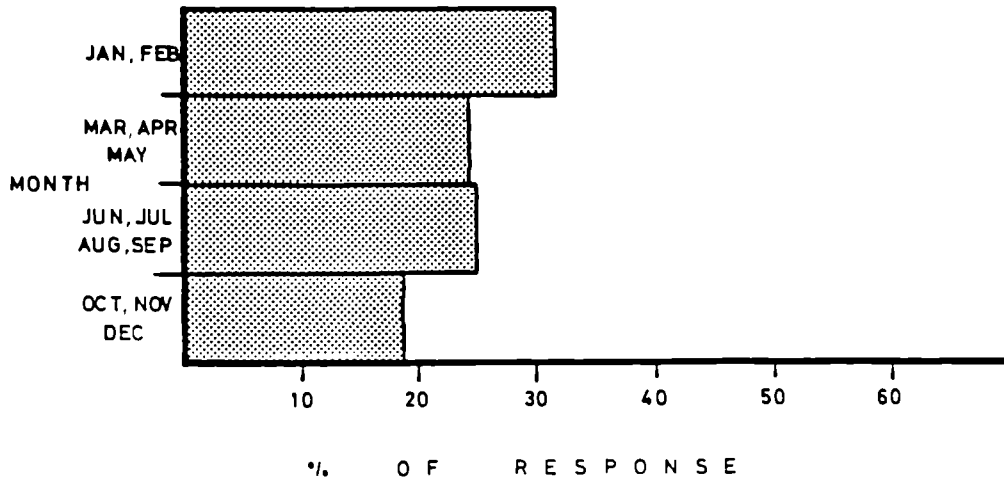
only slightly lower during the summer holiday months than it is during January and February (see diagram 22). This may be partly accountable to last-minute discounting by tour operators, each eager to fill as many places as possible. One quarter of all bookings are in fact made within a month of the holiday departure date. The majority however (57%), are made four or more months in advance. These tend to be those made in January and February (83% of bookings during these two months). Conversely, 86% of the bookings in June, July and August are made only one month in advance, further demonstrating the simple relationship between booking date and booking lag ($p = 0.0000$).

A similarly close link exists between the size and composition of the holiday party ($p = 0.0006$). The parties interviewed are fairly evenly split between those comprising one or two members, and those containing three or more (see diagram 23). Clearly, larger parties are those including children (in 95% of all cases). They are also more likely to take self-catering arrangements, but are less likely to undertake extensive day trips; of those necessitating one-way journeys of 51 km or more, 90% are taken by single or paired travellers over the age of 16 years. Conversely, 69% of those holiday parties not straying from their host destination contain young children.

Package holidays by air are more common than those by bus or coach (diagram 24), although coach travel is often the only practical link between the airport and the destination. Air travel is evenly distributed throughout the year between summer high season (July and August), summer low season (June and September) and October to May (off-season). Coach travel, however, is largely restricted to the four summer months (86%).

Diagram 22 : Booking behaviour

1: BOOKING MONTH



2: ADVANCE BOOKING

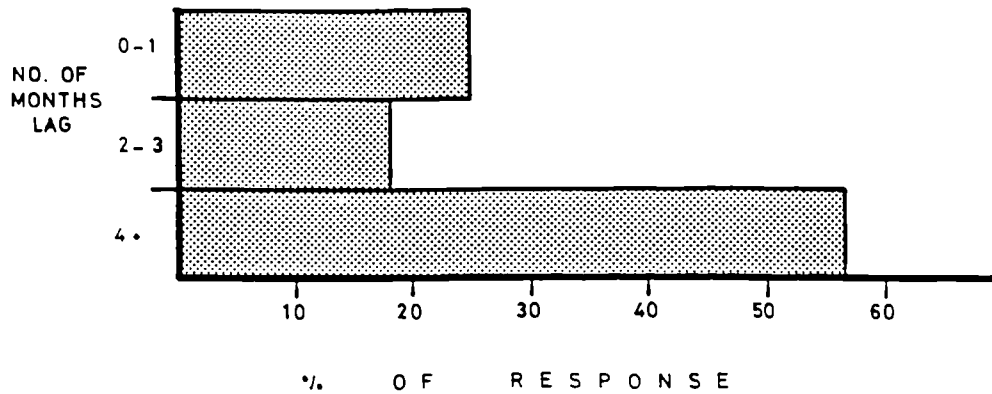
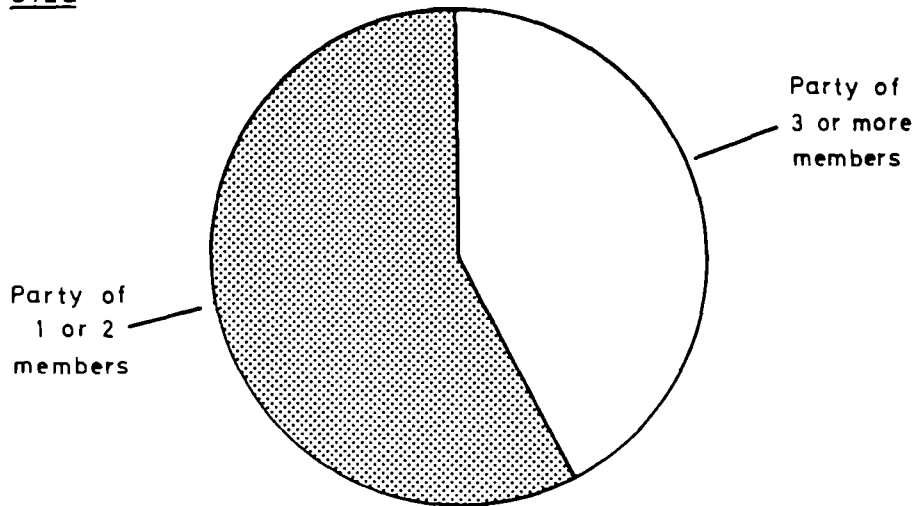


Diagram 23 : The holiday party; size and composition

1: SIZE



2: COMPOSITION

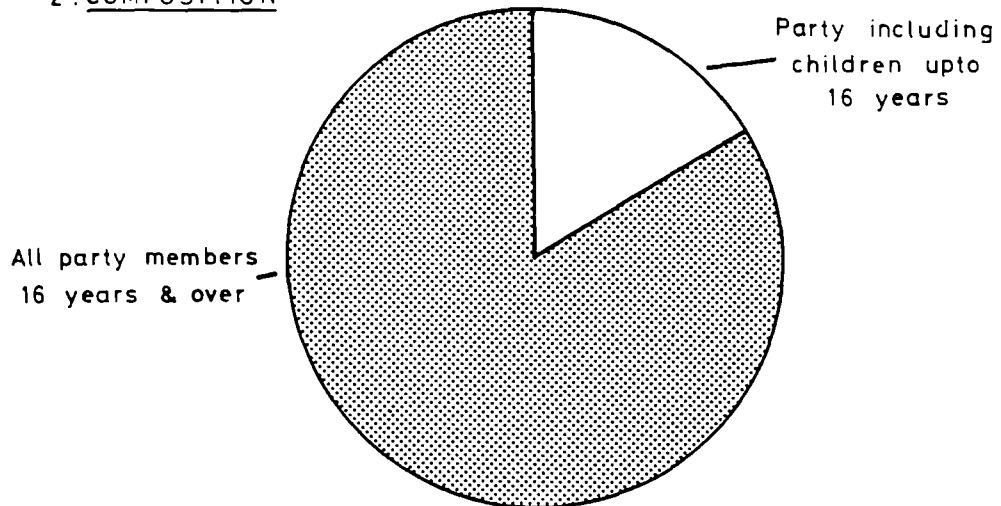
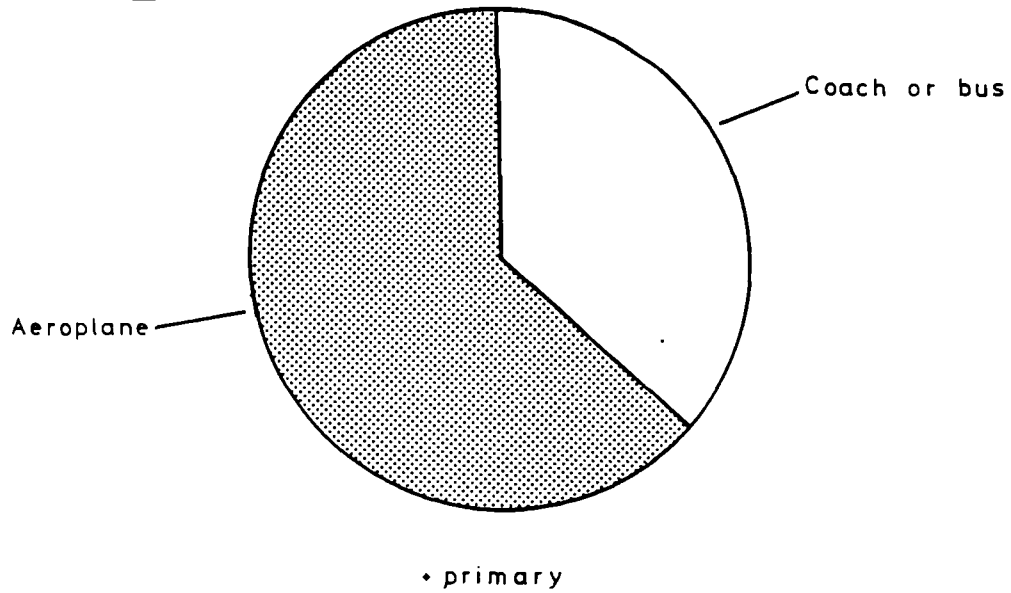
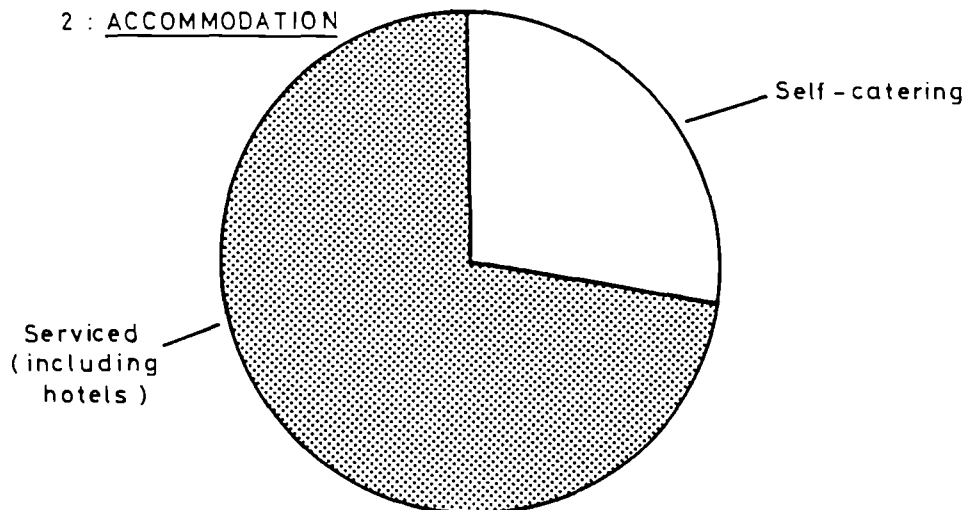


Diagram 24 : Holiday services; transport and accommodation

1 : TRANSPORT *



2 : ACCOMMODATION



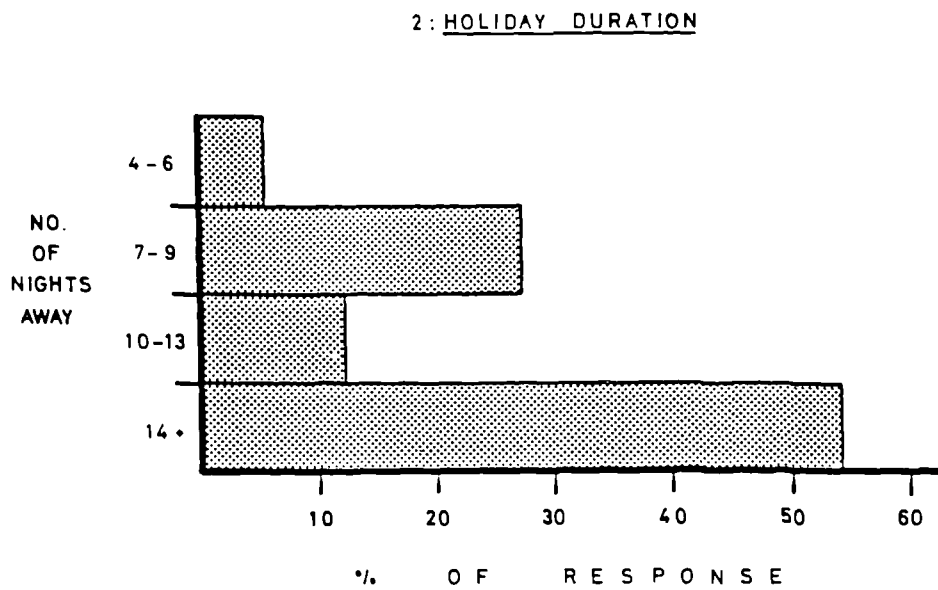
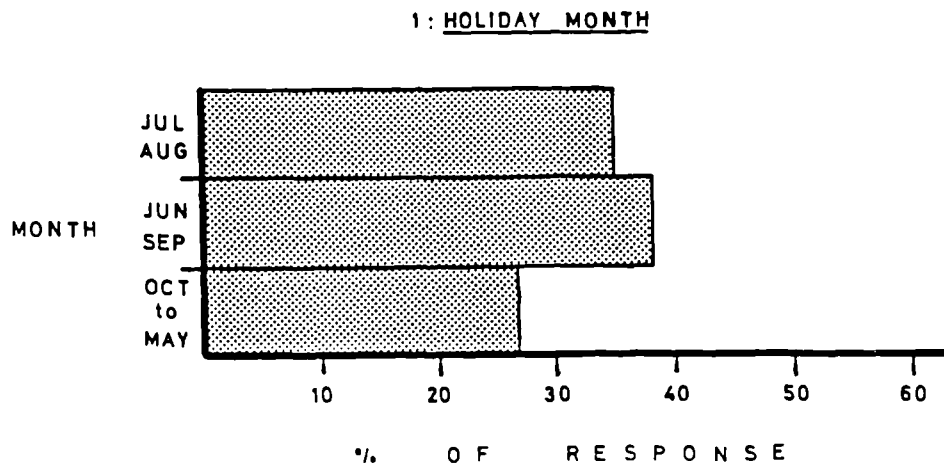
Coaches dominate short break market, whilst 74% of holidaymakers away from home for a fortnight or more travel by air. This may well be on account of air travel being preferred for longer journeys, whilst coach travel is better suited to shorter trips simply because a change in travel mode is not required.

The hotel is still the staple diet of the package holidaymaker (see diagram 24). Many of these have been built specifically to cater for the needs of mass tourism, offering efficiency, convenience, and value for money. Only 28% of package holidaymakers cater for themselves. These arrangements are particularly popular with young families in summer, though they have failed to make a notable impact 'out of season'; only 17% of holidays taken between October and May use self-catering facilities.

This is a trend that helps highlight the seasonal nature of package holidaymaking (see diagram 25). Some 73% of the holidays sampled are in either June, July, August or September. It is interesting to note that more holidays are taken in June and September than they are in the traditional peak summer months of July and August. The 'off-season' trough between October and May is readily observed. By conducting a survey in the autumn, examining the "most recent main holiday taken", the research design may well have exaggerated the seasonality trend. The winter months are primarily a period of booking activity; 80% of early bookers (most of whom book in January and February) take their package holidays in summer. This is probably stimulated by the greater demand for travel in summer.

Most package holidays are of at least two weeks duration (55%). Of these,

Diagram 25 : Temporal holiday elements



a large proportion (82%) are for a fortnight. This implies that the main annual holiday is the primary market for tour operators. Lesser inroads have been made into the short break market, for only 6% of package holidays last between four and six nights (diagram 25). Longer breaks are clearly planned further ahead. Whilst 51% of all short breaks are booked less than one month in advance, 66% of holidays for two weeks or more are booked at least four months prior to departure. Short breaks are more

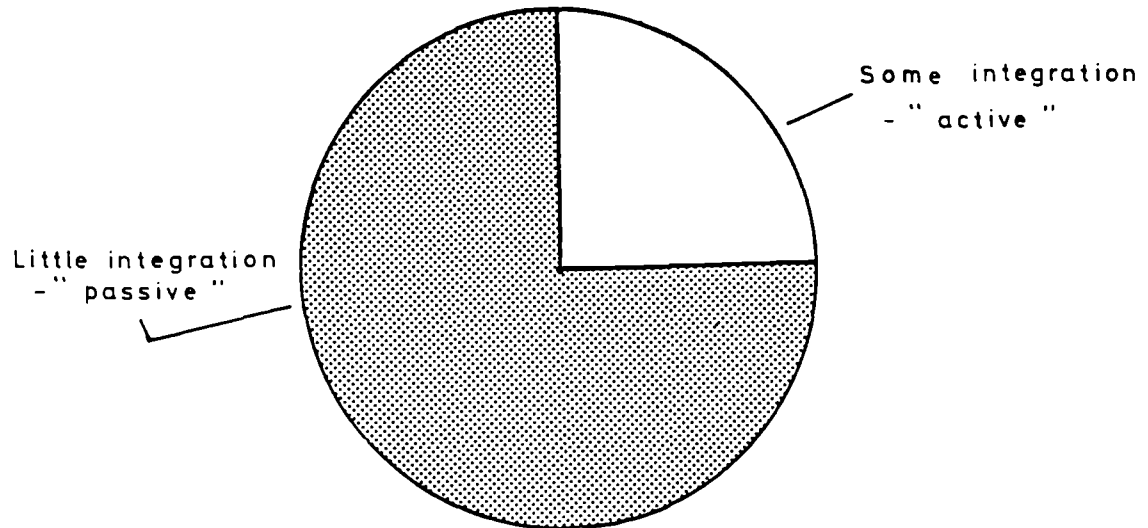
readily accommodated than holidays of two weeks duration or more, and as such are more likely to be a spontaneous purchase. Longer holidays have to be more carefully planned in advance. This may be due to the numerous arrangements that need to be made before being away from home for a considerable length of time.

The short break and the annual fortnight away differ further according to the activities undertaken whilst on holiday. Twice the proportion of holidaymakers on short breaks indulge in active pursuits whilst on holiday (typified by walking, rambling and visits to tourist attractions) than do those away for a fortnight or more, many of whom (86%) undertake 'passive' activities (including sunbathing, swimming, relaxing and resting). This points to some interesting qualitative elements of travel that are considered further in the following chapters.

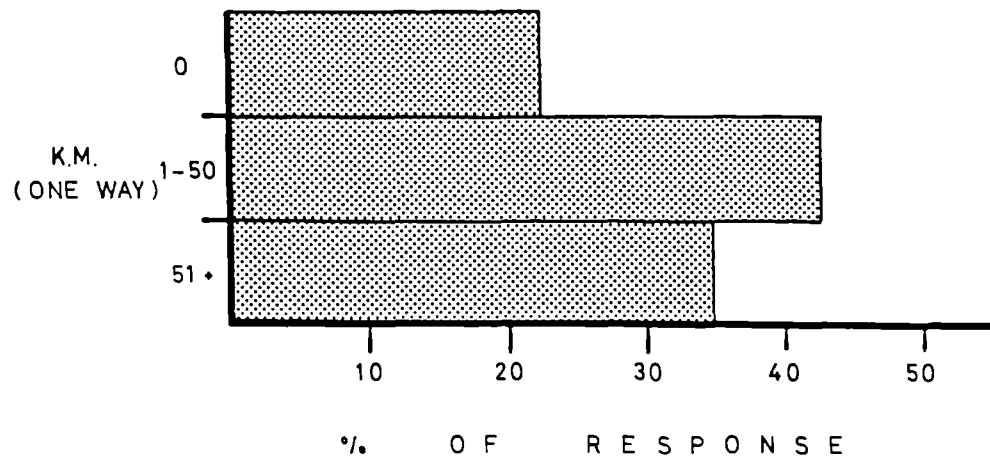
These activities are just one means of characterising behaviour whilst on holiday (see diagram 26). Passive pursuits clearly dominate, for only 25% of package holidaymakers indulge in active pastimes. This is reflected in the distances travelled on day trips. Some 23% of holidaymakers fail to stray from their host destination. A further 42% travel upto 51 km, though their average day trip distance is only 5.1 km. Not surprisingly, of the 35% travelling more than 51 km, a greater proportion (47%) indulge in active pursuits than do non-movers (13%). Thus, behaviour on holiday may be effectively represented by the type of activities undertaken and the distances travelled on day trips. This is just one of many instances where an appreciation of the interplay between various components of the holiday 'mix' helps promote a more comprehensive interpretation of the package holiday habits now examined.

Diagram 26 : Measures of behaviour whilst on holiday

1: ACTIVITIES ON HOLIDAY



2: DAY TRIP MOVEMENT - DISTANCE



7.2 PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE AND PRODUCT FAMILIARITY

7.2.1. Resort allegiance

At first sight, resort allegiance is a spatial measure of behaviour, and would appear to be better placed during the examination of locational patterns of package holidaymaking in Chapter Nine. It is covered here for two reasons. Firstly, it is alien to the structure employed in the analysis of destination choice, largely because it does not specifically relate to the decision-making process that fashions current behaviour patterns. More importantly, by tidily combining with tour operator loyalty to provide a measure of familiarity with the chosen holiday, resort allegiance ensures current holiday behaviour is viewed in the context of previous behaviour, and not as a single, isolated event. By doing so, it introduces the valuable element of continuity through time, together with an additional perspective with which to evaluate behaviour.

A simple distinction is made between outright newcomers to a resort, and those with one or more previous visits. To qualify as a 'repeat visitor', the respondent must have visited the nominated resort (and not just the surrounding area) over a four day period or longer. Of course, this does not distinguish between occasional and regular (almost habitual) repeat visitors. However, given the great number of resorts from which to choose, the simple distinction between newcomers and repeat visitors is considered a valid one.

These two categories of traveller do not differ according to sex

($p = 0.7411$), marital status ($p = 0.6998$) or family status ($p = 0.7501$). However, there are significant differences when the effect of age is considered ($p = 0.0045$). Over 80% of young travellers (between 16 and 29 years of age) visit an 'unfamiliar' resort. This proportion steadily falls as age increases, such that less than half the pensioners interviewed visited their most recently chosen resort for the first time. As age increases, so does the tendency to exercise resort loyalty. This may simply be an outcome of greater experience of older holidaymakers, who, having travelled for many more years than youngsters, are more likely to have previously visited any given resort. However, the almost infinite number of possible holiday destinations means this explanation will not suffice. For whatever reason, resort loyalty is an element of behaviour more readily exercised by older travellers. Further explanatory clues are uncovered when other contributory factors are examined.

In general, economic factors are not very helpful. Education imparts no significant influence on resort loyalty ($p = 0.1590$), and neither do occupation ($p = 0.2913$) nor paid leave ($p = 0.2152$). The effect of income is not so clear-cut. 'High' (over £8000 p.a.) and 'low' (below £8001 p.a.) income earners do differ in respect of their resort loyalty ($p = 0.0914$). This relationship is only significant at the 10% level, but strengthens when four income categories are used ($p = 0.0749$). Greater resort loyalty is demonstrated by lower income earners. This is unlikely to be due to a greater range of destinations available to higher earners, simply because there are many different destinations to choose from even for those on a restricted holiday budget. However, there may well be some psychological value in this explanation. The low income earner may well perceive his or her choice as restricted, simply as a function of imposed cost constraints, which may prematurely curtail the subsequent search for

a suitable destination. Under such circumstances, the natural course of action may well be to consider only familiar holiday options which the decision-maker knows are affordable. The low-budget traveller may not wish to be exposed to tempting holiday options which hold much appeal, but which carry too high a price. As a subconscious mechanism, this search amongst familiar holiday options seems to be manifested in greater resort loyalty amongst low income earners. Informal jottings certainly support this suggestion. Indeed, many of these holidaymakers seemed almost resigned to the fact that they had two options; a tried and tested holiday each year (which they knew they could afford), or no holiday at all. They seemed largely unaware of new and interesting possibilities that required only a change in outlook rather than any additional financial outlay.

This attitude was prevalent amongst older respondents. Indeed, many younger travellers on a restricted budget seemed eager for a new experience each time, for they were determined to make the most of the limited resources available to them. Is the predictive role of income therefore a genuine one? Log-linear analysis shows the correlation between income and resort loyalty is spurious, largely on account of the intervening role of age. When all three variables are analysed simultaneously, no relationship exists between income and loyalty when the effects of age are considered ($p = 0.2919$). Conversely, the correlation between age and loyalty is maintained ($p = 0.0064$) when income is taken into account. Resort loyalty is thus an outcome of the fundamental differences between young and old travellers, irrespective of their income.

These differences are further highlighted when the role of life-style

measures are examined. Given that many older respondents are retired, it is not surprising to find that qualitative descriptors of the work life-style are not significant. Neither is the leisure life-style measure ($p = 0.7001$). By comparison, the explanatory contribution of holiday life-style measures is abundant. Visitors returning to a familiar resort tend to be experienced package holidaymakers ($p = 0.0502$) - a relationship maintained between resort loyalty and the type of holiday taken on the two most recent occasions ($p = 0.0016$ and $p = 0.0417$ respectively). These ties strengthen as age increases; 74% of repeat visitors over the age of 64 have previously taken a package holiday, compared to 48% of 16 to 29 year olds.

Once again, explanation turns to respondent age. This is the critical factor in understanding resort loyalty. The tendency of older travellers to visit a familiar resort may well be a function of perceived risk and holiday satisfaction. If perceived risk increases with age, the counter-strategy of the older traveller may well mean choosing a familiar resort, since this reduces the 'unknown elements' in holiday decision-making. Satisficing principles seem to dominate. The opportunity for making a fresh choice each time, in the quest for an optimal holiday experience, is outweighed by the greater risk of disappointment this involves, and the availability of a known holiday option offering a near guaranteed level of satisfaction. This is a prime example of the conflict, in the mind of the traveller, between the comfort of the known and the novelty of the unknown. For many older travellers in particular, the comfort of the familiar is dominant. In an extreme form this is not just manifested in resort loyalty, for return visits to the same accommodation (and even room) each year are certainly undertaken. Familiarity here is maximised, and novelty is at a minimum. Some of the

attitudes prevalent in this kind of approach to holiday choice are evident in the following extract taken from an account of an informal discussion with a retired couple who recently took a package holiday in Bournemouth:

In earlier years, Mrs Eaves and her husband had travelled widely with their two sons, often touring Scotland and the borderlands. During the past 15 years or so they had taken their holidays unaccompanied, and since 1982 had travelled by coach to Bournemouth for their annual summer holiday. They were proud of their knowledge of Bournemouth acquired over time, and enjoyed the company of old friends they met there each summer. Every year the hotel extended its usual welcome, and they were keen to point out their friendship with the proprietors. They saw no reason whatsoever to alter these arrangements, and were happy to take the same holiday year after year. After all, if they changed their plans they could not be assured of finding something better.

7.2.2 Tour operator loyalty

As the closely correlated sister measure of familiarity ($p = 0.0000$), it is not surprising to find that the significant factors behind tour operator loyalty are broadly similar to those accounting for resort allegiance (see table 35). As in the case of the repeat resort visitor, so the holidaymaker travelling with a familiar tour operator is likely to be older than average (and often a pensioner) and to have previously taken a package holiday. However, it must be noted that the

Table 35 : Significant single effects on tour operator loyalty

FACTOR	PROBABILITY
Age	0.0216
Previous package holiday experience	0.0019
Holiday type : most recent holiday	0.0011
: most recent holiday but one	0.0148

correlation between tour operator loyalty and previous package holiday experience is not statistically robust owing to the presence of a structural zero in the contingency table used for analysis: it is clearly impossible for individuals with no previous experience of package holidays to travel with a familiar tour operator. Nonetheless, this is unlikely to totally invalidate the link, such is the strength of correlation between these two measures.

When other contributory factors are considered, log-linear analysis once more confirms the central predictive role of age. When combined with family status, employment status, income and leisure life-style, age is the only variable to maintain significant correlation with tour operator loyalty ($p = 0.0145$, 0.0074 , 0.0145 and 0.0242 respectively).

This kind of three-way analysis also uncovers some further relationships. The nature of daily work exerts an influence over tour operator loyalty, for the measures 'routine' ($p = 0.0268$) and 'physically strenuous' ($p = 0.0428$), when the effects of both are combined with occupation. Occupation alone is not a significant factor ($p = 0.1363$), suggesting qualitative dimensions of work offer explanatory insight beyond that provided by simple occupational categories. The nature of their association is difficult to unravel at first sight, but it is important to do so bearing in mind the opportunity it presents to uncover evidence of a work/leisure relationship, albeit in a limited context.

Of those travelling with a familiar tour operator, 41% are engaged in manual occupations, and 59% perceive their work as largely 'routine'. Included in the remainder, only 29% of managers and professionals

describe their work in this way. Conversely, amongst those travelling with an unfamiliar operator, 58% are managers, of whom 73% do not see their work as routine. The evidence here therefore favours the extension hypothesis; that is, variety at work is extended into variety during leisure time, according to the choice of tour operator. The tendency to narrow down holiday options by choosing a familiar tour operator is greatest amongst manual labourers whose work is largely repetitive and routinised. Managers and professionals in more varied occupations are more likely to vary their choice of tour operator. Since manual occupations are also likely to be physically strenuous ($p = 0.0000$), these findings are fully supported by analysing the same relationships using 'physically strenuous' as the qualitative work descriptor.

The preference of regular package holidaymakers for a familiar tour operator has already been noted. The term 'regular' here is a key one, for there is much correlation between the average number of holidays taken annually and tour operator loyalty (see table 36). Loyalty is most prominent amongst those taking at least one holiday per year, particularly

Table 36 : Annual holidaymaking frequency and tour operator loyalty

FACTOR	SIGNIFICANT EFFECT	PROBABILITY
Annual holidaymaking frequency with:		
- Most recent holiday location	Both	0.0122
- Occupation	Annual holiday frequency only	0.0001
- Income	Annual holiday frequency only	0.0021
- Days of paid leave	Annual holiday frequency only	0.0155
- Education	Annual holiday frequency only	0.0021

to destinations abroad. As shown in the 'significant effect' column on table 36, loyalty is greatest amongst regular annual travellers irrespective of a number of economic factors. No matter what their occupation nor income, for example, the holidaymaker travelling at least once every year is more likely to choose a familiar tour operator than the more sporadic traveller. This may well reflect the tendency of such individuals to establish rapport with either the travel agent or the tour operator simply on account of the frequency of their contact. Familiarity, it seems, breeds further product allegiance. Once secured, this may well have a 'knock-on' effect over the choice of remaining elements of the holiday 'mix', particularly for elderly and regular package holidaymakers.

7.3 BOOKING BEHAVIOUR

7.3.1 Descriptive and explanatory measures

Two variables are used to represent booking behaviour; booking month, and the extent of advance booking (measured in months between the date on which the holiday is booked and the holiday departure date). Of the two, only advance booking is investigated further. This is because explanatory insight can only be gained by examining the booking date in relation to the holiday departure date, and not the calendar year. The actual month of booking fulfils only a descriptive function, showing the expected cyclical pattern throughout the year. Valid variation here, in explanatory terms, is dependent on the month during which the holiday is actually taken. Behaviour is therefore analysed according to the

quantitative difference between the booking date and the holiday date.

7.3.2. Advance booking

Booking intensity peaks during January and February, and tails-off throughout the rest of the year (see diagram 22, section 7.1.2.). This is clearly influenced to a large extent by the traditional promotions and brochure launches of major tour operators during the Christmas period, though the search for competitive gains has meant earlier launches, which in turn have stimulated earlier *booking activity*+. However, this practice only first gathered momentum in the autumn of 1985, post-dating the interview survey.

Beyond this descriptive level, 'booking lag' is the main explanatory measure. Over half the respondents (57%) booked their holiday four or more months prior to departure, though one quarter booked within a month. The first factor to consider is holiday departure date, for the greater demand for holidays between June and September ensures they are booked earlier in advance. In the face of stiff competition for holiday places, early booking is the most effective way of securing preferences.

Booking behaviour is also a function of the holidaymaker's characteristics. Informal discussion with elderly folk hinted that, amongst those taking a similar holiday each year, no sooner do they return home than the following year's holiday is booked. A feeling of security

+ personal communication with Peter King, Personnel Manager, Thomsons Holidays - March 25th, 1986.

is imparted by this rather marked tendency for continuity from one holiday to the next. Statistical evidence fails to support these qualitative findings; age and booking lag are not significantly related ($p = 0.6720$). This may well be further evidence of the balancing forces of supply and demand. If the assumption is made that pensioners are unlikely to take a mainstream Mediterranean package tour (that is, one centering on sun, sea and sand), then they may well experience less competition for holiday places than the younger, sun-bound traveller. The weaker the demand, the less the need to book early. This assumption will be confirmed or disputed in Chapter Eight, but if reliable, may account for the smaller proportion of early bookers amongst older travellers than expected. If so, booking behaviour is a clear-cut function of variation in the demand and supply of holidays.

The effect of competition is likely to intensify as the number of holiday places required increases. The unaccompanied couple on holiday are far easier to accommodate than a family of six, and so they are faced with a far wider range of holiday options. Preferences are easier to secure. Advance booking may help alleviate the problems of the travelling family - indeed, booking lag and family status are closely linked ($p = 0.0501$). Though significant, closer interrogation of the contingency table reveals a reversed trend; fewer unaccompanied holidaymakers (25%) book within one month of the start of their holiday than do those accompanied by infants below the age of six (31%). Conversely, advance booking four or more months prior to departure is more commonly practiced by unaccompanied adults (59%) than by young family travellers (31%). This may be partly explained by the provision of extra beds for infants in standard adult accommodation (usually a double room extended to a triple room), wherein substantial cost savings can be enjoyed, and preferences are easier to

secure.

A further role may be ascribed to finance. If a room is not shared in this manner, parents with young children face much greater holiday expenditure than unaccompanied travellers, simply on account of the need to purchase extra holiday places for their children. The cost of a holiday for a family of five or six is far greater than the cost for a couple without children. Furthermore, this is likely to occur at a stage in the life cycle when alternative expenditure (for example, home improvements, child welfare) is high. Therefore, despite the reasoning that families book earlier in order to have a better chance of gaining their first choice of holiday, in reality families often book late in order to benefit from late, discounted holiday offers. This may significantly reduce the family's holiday expenditure. For families with infants upto the age of six, this presents few problems. Once children reach the age where school commitments have to be considered, the opportunities to benefit from late discounts diminish, since tour operators are less likely to make these offers at a time when demand runs high (that is, during school holidays). Thus booking lag correlates significantly with family status according to the presence of infants up to the age of six ($p = 0.0501$), but not when children up to 16 years are included ($p = 0.7333$).

The drawing power of family discounts implies booking behaviour is a function of income. Though this factor lacks predictive power as a single item ($p = 0.1683$), its joint effect with education on booking lag is significant ($p = 0.0343$). The influence of late discounting has already been noted. However, the motive this provides for booking late is

probably common to all holidaymakers, irrespective of their income. Late bookers are therefore not just low income earners, eager to make more savings. Indeed, nearly twice the proportion (25%) of high earners with the benefit of further education book within one month of departure, than do those of more modest financial and educational standing (14%). Thus, explanation turns full circle once more, away from income per se, and towards the effects of market forces. Demand is greater for budget package holidays. They are clearly a favourite of those with relatively limited financial resources at hand, who therefore have to book early in order to secure their first choice of holiday. The intervening effect of supply and demand explains why low income earners tend to book early rather than late, largely overriding the drawing power of late discounts.

The predictive roles of leisure life-style and work life-style are not significant. Neither is booking behaviour attributable to holiday life-style, be it according to previous package holiday experience ($p = 0.8979$), experience of foreign holidays ($p = 0.5959$), or annual holiday frequency ($p = 0.5674$). Of these, previous package holiday experience is expected to play an influential role. Fieldwork jottings record several disgruntled respondents who recalled meeting people on holiday who had paid much less than themselves for a similar package tour, simply by taking advantage of discounted bookings a short time before departure. Many commented that, as experienced package holidaymakers, they would book late on the next occasion. This is not evident in the statistical ties examined. This may reflect a counter-trend, and one that would not necessarily prompt specific mention from the interviewee; experienced package holidaymakers, with the benefit of hindsight concerning disappointing second or third choice holidays, are well aware of the importance of securing their first choice of holiday. To do so, they book

well in advance of the holiday date.

Thus, late bookers cannot be strictly identified according to their previous experience of package holidaymaking, for experience may work in two opposing ways. The financial benefits of late discounts are only really reflected in the tendency of young families to book late, for the larger the holiday party, the greater the discounted savings. All other factors tend to be overridden by the effect of competition for holiday places. Variation in the demand for different types of package holiday accounts for the tendency of older travellers and high income earners to book late, younger holidaymakers and those on a tighter budget preferring instead to book well in advance of their holiday. All these findings tend to rest on one assumption; the household 'unit' (according to its members) is also the 'unit' that travels as a single party on holiday. This assumption is examined further, albeit briefly, before other elements of the holiday are investigated.

7.4 THE HOLIDAY PARTY

7.4.1 Analysis

A restricted range of predictors are discussed, since only a few are logically expected to influence the holiday party. Irrespective of the factors used to represent population characteristics, the holiday party (be it according to size or composition) usually bears a strict resemblance to the household unit from which it is derived. Since the findings are similar for both size and composition, they are presented together.

7.4.2 Size and composition

Family status is closely correlated with both holiday party size ($p = 0.0000$) and composition ($p = 0.0000$). Members of the same household usually travel together, young families clearly forming larger and younger holiday parties than retired couples. Aside from this rather expected finding, however, there are several instances of variation from this general trend that warrant further attention. These are:

1. Nearly one quarter (23%) of households containing children upto the age of 16 years comprise holiday parties of two members or less. This suggests that either some parents travel separately, or that a small number of parents may take a package holiday and leave their children at home. It may also be an outcome of single parent families on holiday.
2. Over 35% of individuals with no children below the age of 16 form holiday parties of three or more members. These additional travel companions are either children older than 16 years, or are other family members and friends. In either case the holiday seems a powerful means of drawing people together.
3. Income acts as an intervening factor, both according to holiday party size ($p = 0.0083$, for the combined effect of income and car ownership) and composition ($p = 0.0277$, income alone). Quite simply, as household incomes rise, so too does the probability that a holiday can be afforded for all the members of the household. Given that holiday cost rises as the number of people travelling increases, low income earners are most likely to leave their children behind when taking a package tour holiday. The ability to afford a holiday for all members of the household is an important element in holiday choice, and is the only real factor to disturb the otherwise

infrangible relationship between the household and the holiday party.

7.5 HOLIDAY SERVICES

7.5.1 The main form of transport

By purchasing a package tour, the traveller secures two services central to both the holiday and the tour operator's schedules; transport and accommodation facilities. Taken purely in chronological order, choice of transport is considered first, to highlight the differences between holidaymakers travelling by air (64%) and by coach (36%). Only the main form of transport is used, for many air tours use coaches to carry their passengers from the air terminal to the resort.

As age increases, so does the preference for coach travel. This may be because coach travel is less stressful; no change of mode is required. Once on board a coach, travellers rarely have to worry about reaching connecting services in time, whilst their luggage may remain untouched until they arrive at their destination. These advantages benefit older travellers in particular. However, the relationship between age and the preference for coach travel is not linear. Indeed, it is dependent on the age categories used. The preference for coach travel emerges at a threshold operative in late-middle age rather than at retirement age, unlike many of the elements of behaviour discussed so far. Type of transport differs significantly for those above and below 44 years of age ($p = 0.0105$). The same distinction is not so significant for holidaymakers above and below 64 years ($p = 0.0882$). Therefore, there

must be other factors that influence transport choice, and which explain why the preference for coach travel becomes prominent in late - middle age rather than during retirement.

The first of these is a function of the supply of holidays. Many tours derived specifically for older people make extensive use of coach travel (SAGA holidays are a good example). Since such tours do not permit young children, the argument resting on variation in the supply of holidays requires supportive statistical ties between transport mode and family status, either individually or in conjunction with age. Unfortunately, such correlation is not forthcoming ($p = 0.4206$ and 0.9511 respectively). In any event, this is unlikely to fully explain the significance of the 44 year age threshold.

Explanation therefore turns to psychological factors. Recent marketing promotions by British Airways in 1986, offering free flights for potential passengers needing to overcome a fear of flying, suggest this psychological fear is prevalent amongst many non-flyers. Qualitative survey findings fully support this view; of those package holidaymakers travelling by air for the first time, 46% admitted to a previous fear of flying. This had caused them to take other forms of transport in the past.

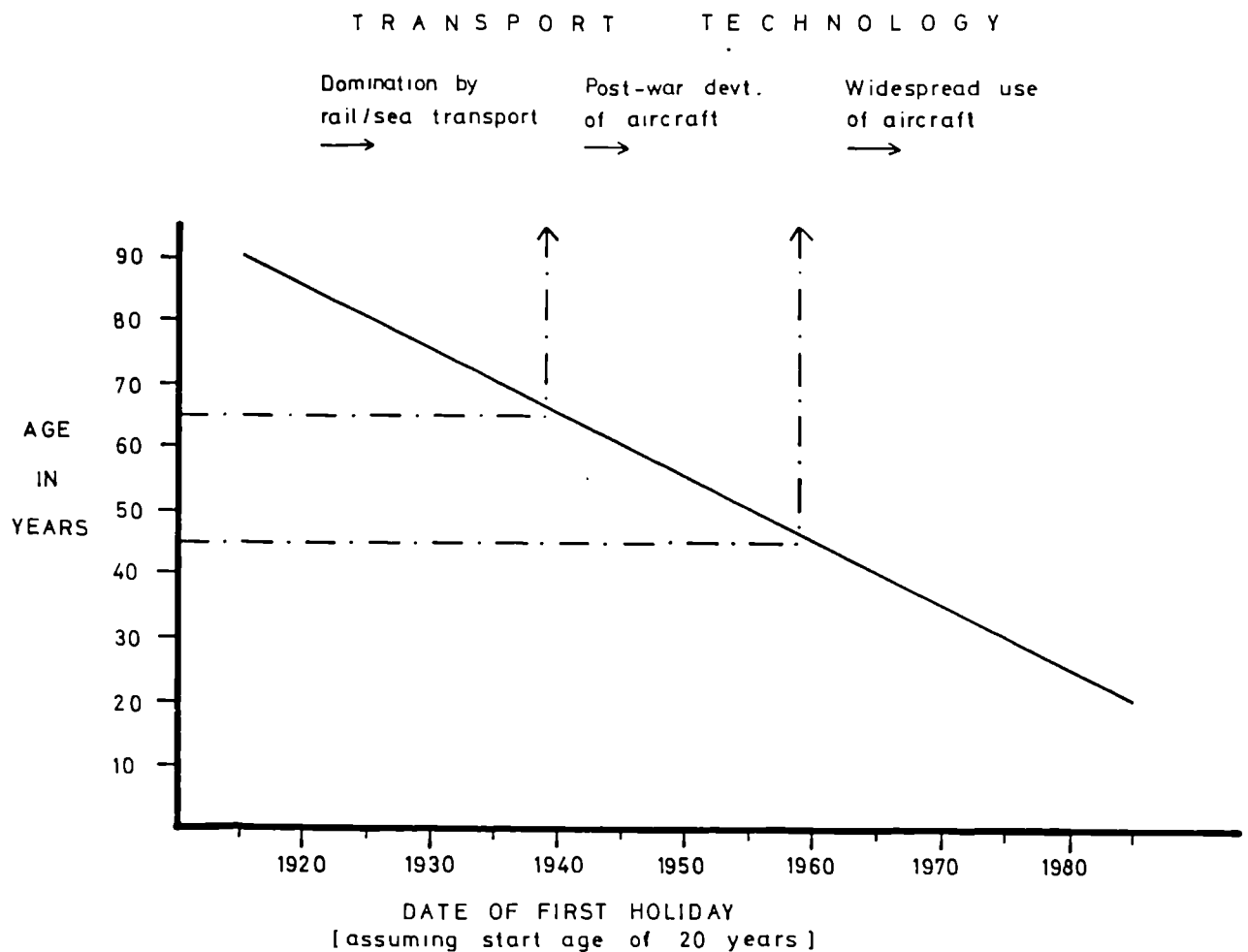
It is reasonable to assume that as age increases, so too does the fear of flying, which is subsequently manifested in a preference for coach travel. Why does this preference become significant for holidaymakers in their mid-forties? The answer lies not in absolute age, but in age relative to transport technology. Over the last twenty five years, air travel has

become increasingly popular, such that today it is the tour operator's primary means of transporting passengers to their holiday destinations. For the young holidaymaker, there is nothing unusual in air travel. If travelling abroad by package tour, it is fairly unlikely they will have travelled by any other means on such a trip. The majority, brought up on a supply of annual summer holidays to the Mediterranean, are accustomed to air travel. They are therefore not as prone to experiencing a fear of flying.

By contrast, the older holidaymaker is likely to have embarked on a holiday 'career' prior to the widespread adoption of air transport for pleasure travel. During their early, formative years as holidaymakers, they are more likely to have travelled by road, rail or sea. To these individuals, air travel is a recent development which has prompted a change in behaviour. Accordingly, they are more likely to experience a fear of flying. As shown on diagram 27, assuming the average holidaymaker first takes a holiday of their own choice at the age of 20 years, respondents currently 45 years old will have taken their 'first' holiday in 1960 (taking 1985 as the base year). Older travellers will have embarked on their holiday 'career' before 1960, and younger travellers since then. 1960 also marks the advent of air travel in the package holiday trade. This explains why the over 44's display a significant preference for coach travel, for during their early days as holidaymakers they took to the railways, the roads and the sea. They have since modified their behaviour to accommodate the great advances in air-inclusive tours. Conversely, younger travellers (below 45 years) have been brought up on air travel since 1960. They are less likely to experience a fear of flying, and this is expressed in their preference for air travel. Though a tentative interpretation, this best explains the

significance of the 44 year old threshold. Age relative to transport technology is the key item. This is in turn dependent on the notion of holiday 'careers'; a progression of behaviour through time which, as in any

Diagram 27 : The relationship between age and transport technology



career, largely reflects the formative years during which it was founded. This implies that current behaviour is a function of the past behaviour to which the traveller has become accustomed. Habitual preferences are hard to break down. Thus, the over 44's are not likely to opt for coach travel simply because of their age per se, but because many of the holiday experiences early in their holiday 'careers' were gained when travel by air was uncommon.

This explanation is bolstered by considering the predictive role of holiday life-styles, for these are inexorably tied to the notion of holiday careers. Fewer coach travellers (71%) have experience of holidays abroad than air travellers (92%). Type of transport is in fact closely correlated with previous experience of holidays abroad ($p = 0.0018$), previous package holidaymaking experience ($p = 0.0000$), and these two factors combined ($p = 0.0009$). According to both these measures, the previous experience of the coach traveller is more restricted than that of the air traveller. Table 37 illustrates this point further in terms of the destination chosen for the last two main holidays. In many cases,

Table 37 : Air and coach travellers; previous holiday location

LOCATION	TRANSPORT TYPE	
	Coach	Air
Most recent holiday (%) - UK	63.6	31.5
	- Abroad	68.5
Most recent but one holiday (%) - UK	70.4	28.1
	- Abroad	71.9

therefore, a knowledge of past behaviour provides an accurate guide to current preferences.

If this is entirely true, coach travel will be replaced by air travel altogether by the 21st Century. This is unlikely to happen owing to intervening factors, in particular the pricing policy of tour operators. Coach holidays are invariably cheaper than holidays by air⁺. Foremost on the agenda for further analysis must be household income. As anticipated, income and transport type are closely related ($p = 0.0033$). The high income earner (over £8000 per annum) is more likely to travel by air than the low income earner (below £8000 per annum). A similar trend is exhibited by all the significant measures of economic well-being shown on table 38. Each offers a slightly different interpretation of transport

Table 38 : Transport mode and measures of economic well-being

FACTOR	PROBABILITY
Income	0.0033
Education	0.0096
Occupation	0.0081
Car ownership	0.0599
Paid leave	0.9447

preferences, though all operate under the umbrella of behavioural response to tour operator pricing structures. Education has a role, since this is likely to help break down psychological barriers to air travel. Similarly, professionals and managers are likely to travel by air on business, some of which includes visits to foreign countries. This may further alleviate the fear of flying. Non car-owners are likely to prefer coach travel simply because the coach departure terminal is far more accessible than most airports. Manchester Ringway Airport, the nearest major terminal to North Humberside, is clearly difficult to reach without access to a car. So too are East Midlands and Leeds/Bradford Airports,

+ a random selection of summer holidays from 8 brochures showed that coach holidays were cheaper than air holidays in 98% of cases examined .

though they are a little more accessible.

Choice of travel mode therefore seems largely dependent on two primary factors; age in relation to transport technology, and economic well-being. The first of these is largely a function of holiday careers through the life cycle and psychological barriers to travel. Economic factors are important simply on account of the significant cost advantage of coach travel over air tours.

7.5.2 Accommodation facilities

In many ways, the factors that effectively distinguish between holidaymakers in self-catering accommodation and those in hotels, are expected to be similar to those accounting for transport preferences.

This is because :

1. Self-catering accommodation is a relatively recent addition to the tour operator's arsenal. The role of change therefore provides scope for the effect of holiday 'careers' to be measured.
2. Self-catering accommodation is generally cheaper than serviced accommodation, thereby opening up respondent choice to the influence of financial factors.

Once again, there is further support for the notion of holiday 'careers' (table 39). As a recent development, it is not surprising to find that self-catering arrangements are preferred by younger travellers. The 44 year age threshold is more significant than the 64 year threshold. In this instance, rather than personal inertia in the face of technological developments, the main mechanism behind behavioural continuity through

time is simply the powerful influence of habit. Those accustomed to serviced accommodation tend to stick to these arrangements. This is particularly true for older travellers who return to the same resort each year, travelling with the same tour operator. A series of follow-up interviews with elderly travellers uncovered a great deal of qualitative bias towards altering arrangements with which they were familiar. Over three quarters (77%) stated that they would never even consider

Table 39 : Accommodation preferences and parameter
surrogates for holiday 'careers'

FACTOR	PROBABILITY
Age (above and below 44 years)	0.0012
Age (above and below 64 years)	0.0244
Previous package holiday experience	0.0370

self-catering accommodation, regardless of the savings to be made. These people clearly possess a great deal of personal inertia to unforced changes in their holidaymaking habits.

Domestic factors are also important in choosing suitable accommodation, for this correlates closely with family status, be it according to the presence of either infants upto the age of six years ($p = 0.0003$), or children upto the age of 16 ($p = 0.0004$). Family status also maintains a significant effect when combined with age ($p = 0.0018$). The young family on holiday ideally prefers self-catering accommodation (81%), since this is flexible (particularly in terms of eating and other domestic arrangements) and cost-effective. Apartments and villas are particularly suitable, especially where privacy is easily secured. Older travellers, unaccompanied by young children, usually visit hotels and staffed chalets.

It is probably to the benefit of both that their preferences differ!

Few economic factors are significant predictors of accommodation choice (see table 40). Fewer individuals in employment (67%) than those not employed (84%) choose serviced accommodation. This is surprising in view of the price differential between serviced and self-catering arrangements. It is readily reconciled by taking age into account, for 90% of unemployed

Table 40 : Individual economic effects on accommodation type

FACTOR	PROBABILITY
Education	0.5860
Employment status	0.0405
Car ownership	0.0089
Occupation	0.3471
Income	0.7114

package holidaymakers are pensioners, whose accommodation preferences have already been documented. Indeed, log-linear modelling shows the effect of employment status is spurious, for it is not significantly related to accommodation type when age is taken into account ($p = 0.7898$). Age, however, maintains a significant influence on accommodation choice under these multivariate conditions ($p = 0.0239$). The apparent effect of car ownership may be similarly discarded. The only genuine telling factor is age.

The lack of significant association between economic factors and accommodation preferences prompts a closer evaluation of the supposed price differential between self-catering and serviced accommodation. Does it really exist? A randomly extracted sample of 100 holidays from ten summer tour brochures (for 1986) shows that three quarters of all self-catering holidays are between 20% and 30% cheaper than their serviced

equivalent. This in turn demands a second, and closer, inspection of the relationships uncovered in the data. Three-way analysis of age, income and accommodation produces some interesting findings. Within given age categories, serviced accommodation is preferred by high income earners. Amongst 30 to 44 year olds, 64% of high income earners choose the serviced option, whilst 52% of low income earners cater for themselves. This trend strengthens as age increases; of all the respondents between 45 and 64 years, the equivalent proportions are 68% and 60%. However, the overall trend is obscured once those of pensionable age are reached, for these individuals, though low income earners (they fall in the £8000 per year and below category), prefer serviced accommodation for the reasons outlined earlier in this section.

Choice of accommodation provides a suitable working context for assessing the role of work life-styles. This is because they can both be described by similar qualitative parameters. Self-catering accommodation, for example, is characterised largely by decision autonomy, freedom from time-tabled constraints (such as mealtimes), flexibility and independence; all measures equally applicable to a description of work, particularly when represented by the 'supervisory' measure. Indeed, accommodation type is significantly correlated with the degree of supervision at work ($p = 0.0092$). Support here is for the 'compensation' work/leisure hypothesis; those exercising a high degree of supervision in their work tend to opt for serviced accommodation, whereupon they become the 'supervised' (relative, of course, to the outcome had their preference been for self-catering facilities). However, in the light of strong association between occupation and income ($p = 0.0000$ for the entire interviewed population), this apparent relationship immediately arouses suspicion. Surely the preference for serviced accommodation of those in supervisory

positions is simply a function of their occupations (which command a high salary)? This is indeed the case, for when occupation is taken into account, correlation between supervisory status and the chosen accommodation diminishes to an insignificant level ($p = 0.2882$), even though occupation itself is not a significant predictor in its own right. The spurious role of supervisory status is just a misleading surrogate for the effects of financial well-being on the type of accommodation.

Thus, accommodation preferences are largely an extension of transport choice. The price advantage of self-catering accommodation over serviced arrangements underscores the influential role of financial factors once more. In addition, choice of accommodation is also a function of age, particularly where personal inertia prevents a change in behaviour, habit being a contributory factor in the preference of older travellers for serviced accommodation over self-catering units.

7.6 TEMPORAL ELEMENTS

7.6.1 Holiday month

The definitions used to identify the main holiday for investigation (see section 4.1.2) means this research is unashamedly biased towards summer package holidays. Three classes are used to represent holiday month (that is, the month accounting for the largest proportion of the holiday). These are;

1. Summer high season (July and August)
2. Summer low season (June and September)
3. Off-season (October to May)

The results of analysis of a wide range of predictors point to a similar theme; whenever practical, holidaymakers avoid travelling in the high season summer months of July and August. This may well explain why June and September unexpectedly account for more holidays (38%) than the traditional peak summer months (35%). It is probably an outcome of the desire to avoid the high cost of peak season travel and crowding, for many years synonymous with packaged Mediterranean travel. A number of significant predictive factors support this reasoning.

Age and holiday month are closely correlated ($p = 0.0146$). A greater proportion of pensioners (37%) than the under 64's (23%) take a holiday between October and May. This tendency is shown on table 41, together with the more marked preference of pensioners to avoid high season summer

Table 41 : Holiday month preferences of pensioners and non-pensioners

		H O L I D A Y M O N T H		
		No. Summer high season	No. Summer low season	No. Off - season
AGE	less than 64 years	53 (41.1)+	46 (35.7)	30 (23.2)
	64 years or more	9 (18.4)	22 (44.9)	18 (36.7)

+ figures in brackets are percentages of row totals

travel. Only 18% travel at this time, though 41% of those below 64 years do so. Similar variation occurs according to employment status ($p = 0.0627$) and employment status combined with age ($p = 0.0135$), bearing in mind many unemployed respondents are pensioners. These individuals, free from work constraints, prefer to take their holiday at any time other than

during July and August.

Clearly, this implies choice of holiday month is an outcome of the freedom to exercise preferences. What are the constraints which prevent younger holidaymakers from realising these objectives? The type of employment is a critical factor; occupation and holiday month are significantly correlated ($p = 0.0037$). Professionals and managers are more likely to take a holiday between October and May than are manual workers; 34% of professionals and managers travel during these months, compared with only 4% of manual workers (for their main holiday). Conversely, 51% of manual workers travel in July and August, nearly twice the proportion of professionals and managers (28%), who have greater control over their holiday entitlement. The paid leave of manual workers is very often structured around staffing and production arrangements. This is reflected in the qualitative nature of work. In this instance the appropriate descriptive measure is supervisory status, which is closely tied to holiday month ($p = 0.0856$). Sister measures, notably 'mentally demanding' ($p = 0.0813$) and 'routine' ($p = 0.0555$) display a similar trend. Conversely, income plays no part in choice of holiday month ($p = 0.3642$). The role of occupation is therefore a genuine one, and is not just a misleading surrogate for income. Decision autonomy and occupational status are the key factors that determine the degree of freedom exercised over choice of holiday month, itself manifested in the general desire to avoid peak summer season travel. Those that have this freedom do so. Those that do not, notably supervised, manual workers, are often compelled to travel during the busy months of July and August.

Do school children impose constraints on holiday timing? This might be

the domestic equivalent of work constraints, both of which stifle the ability to realise travel preferences. Certainly July and August are the main school summer holiday months, and tour operators generally do not forego the opportunity to charge more for their holidays during this period. However, family status is not necessarily tied to holiday month, according to the presence of infants up to the age of six years ($p = 0.5160$). This relationship strengthens when children up to the age of 16 are considered ($p = 0.2150$), clearly because infants below six years do not attend school. The relationship is still not significant however. The fact that it strengthens is definitely indicative of increasingly important school commitments. Further analysis was therefore carried out to include children between the age of 16 and 20 years, when school commitments are perhaps at their greatest (including Ordinary and Advanced Certificate Examinations). Once again, the relationship with holiday month strengthens ($p = 0.0913$), though it only gains significance at the 10% level.

There are two conclusions to be drawn from these findings. Firstly, the presence of children does not seem to determine the date of the family holiday as rigidly as might be supposed. Some parents are obviously prepared to take their children away from school to avoid the higher costs and other inconveniences of travelling during July and August. Secondly, the tendency to do so diminishes as children reach the age when important examinations are taken, particularly between the age of 16 and 20 years. Once more, the balance between constraints and decision-making freedom is the primary factor in choice of holiday date.

Leisure life-style measures have no effect on holiday month ($p = 0.2045$).

Neither do generic holiday life-style measures (see table 42). The first time package buyer and the experienced package holidaymaker are unlikely to travel at different times of year; 22% and 27% (respectively) take their main holiday between October and May, for example. More importantly, the holidaymaker regularly taking at least one annual holiday over the last two years is just as likely to travel during the peak

Table 42 : Previous holiday life-style and holiday month

FACTOR	PROBABILITY
Previous package holiday experience	0.3743
Previous foreign holiday experience	0.1335
Annual holiday frequency	0.1310

summer months (42%) as those taking fewer holidays (45%). This implies a degree of behavioural continuity through time, which is also evident in the correlation ($p = 0.0000$ in both cases) between the month of the current and the previous two holidays; 74% of those currently travelling in July or August did so on their previous holiday, 78% taking their most recent but one holiday during these two months. Behavioural continuity therefore does not seem to diminish over the admittedly limited time span covered in this research. People tend to travel at the same time each year, probably because the constraints previously mentioned do not vary over such a short time scale.

7.6.2 Travel duration

Travel duration is the term used to represent the length of the holiday, inclusive of all nights away from home (including those spent

travelling). It might be argued that this introduces bias, unless the type of transport is taken into account, for coach holidays may well appear longer than air holidays simply because a greater time is spent travelling. Thus, although the stay at the destination is broadly similar, more nights are spent away from home. Careful choice of the travel duration categories avoids any potential problems of this ilk, because for one, one-and-a-half and two week holidays, the lowest inclusion level is that achieved by air travel. Each successive category is not defined until all the coach holidays theoretically belonging to the previous category have been covered. Thus, seven or eight nights away by air are grouped into the same category as nine nights away on a coach holiday. These are one week holidays. Ten nights away on an air tour, however, fits into the next category; holidays for one-and-a-half weeks.

Travel duration is rarely a function of the holidaymaker's characteristics (see table 43). In addition to four categories (4-6, 7-9, 10-13 and more than 14 nights), two categories were also used (either side of a fortnight's break) and the analysis repeated, but no further correlation was uncovered. Closer examination of the data therefore reverts back to the original four duration categories.

Though enjoyable, holidays are still likely to be a tiring experience, for mental and physical replenishment aside, they create their own stresses and tap energy resources. The very act of travelling often causes tiredness. Stress is often caused by worry; of the unknown, accidents, loosing currency or passports, or leaving the home unattended. This may well be greater for older holidaymakers and those travelling with young children, who are expected to reduce these stresses by taking shorter

Table 43 : Influences on travel duration

FACTOR	PROBABILITY
1. Sociodemographic	
- Sex	0.1107
- Age	0.4316
- Marital status	0.0885
- Family status (infants)	0.2912
- Family status (children)	0.3350
2. Economic	
- Education	0.9319
- Employment status	0.0939
- Occupation	0.5341
- Paid holidays	0.7090
- Income	0.2489
- Car ownership	0.0957
3. Work life-style	
- Boring	0.6749
- Mentally demanding	0.3856
- Involving much travel	0.5955
- Routine	0.6386
- Isolating	0.8764
- Physically strenuous	0.6111
- Supervisory status	0.6645
4. Leisure life-style	
- Clustered activities	0.9358
5. Holiday life-style	
- Past package holiday experience	0.3877
- Past foreign holiday experience	0.1431
- Average annual holiday frequency	0.8657
- Most recent holiday : type	0.8709
: month	0.4465
: location	0.0015
- Most recent but one holiday	
: type	0.1683
: month	0.8926
: location	0.0046

holidays. Unfortunately, travel duration is related neither to age ($p = 0.4316$) nor to family status ($p = 0.3350$). These worries seem to be deflected by the paternal role of the package holiday. The package tourist, free from straddling responsibilities, is less likely to find the holiday a tiring experience. By comparison, a great deal more energy and resilience is needed to sustain two weeks independent travel in a foreign country. By providing a mandate for travel largely free from responsibilities, the package holiday offers those hindered by worries or young children the genuine prospect of a fortnight's holiday without undue stress or anxiety.

Holding all other factors constant, holiday cost and duration increase simultaneously+. Thus, there are sound theoretical grounds for anticipating correlation between economic factors and travel duration. No single predictors are significant however; income ($p = 0.2489$), education ($p = 0.9319$), occupation ($p = 0.5341$) and paid leave ($p = 0.7090$) all fail to reach the 5% (or even 10%) significance level. There are several interesting conclusions to be drawn from these findings.

Low income earners below £8000 per year are just as likely to travel for two weeks or more (56%) as are high income earners (53%). Conversely, they are not necessarily more likely to take a week's holiday or less (33% and 34% respectively). Travel duration fails to act as a responsive behavioural medium for variation in economic well-being. Holidaymaker stratification may well find expression in other elements of the holiday : the wealthy traveller on a two week holiday may choose an exotic

+ $p = 0.0010$, for a random sample of 100 holidays extracted from 10 tour operator brochures for the 1986 summer season.

destination or accommodation facilities. The traveller on a lower budget still travels for a fortnight, their more modest financial means expressed in their choice of destination, accommodation or travel mode. Thus, the two week holiday is a universal item - it is the goal of a wide range of travellers, and one that seems to be part of decision-making subconsciousness. Indeed, it may be an element of behaviour that people take for granted, and as such represents the starting point for holiday choice, after which all the other elements of the holiday are chosen according to the decision-maker's characteristics. This interpretation awaits confirmation in Chapter Eight, when the relative importance of the various elements that comprise the holiday are considered. Whatever the outcome, travel duration is certainly insensitive to variation in financial means.

Of all the predictors examined, close correlation between travel duration and the amount of paid holiday entitlement is most confidently anticipated. This is not forthcoming ($p = 0.7090$); though 57% of respondents enjoying at least 15 days of paid leave take a two week annual holiday, a similar proportion (64%) with fewer than 15 days also do so. It may well be that the two categories used to represent paid leave are too coarse, for given the dominance of two week annual holidays (55%), any detectable behavioural differences would only become apparent in the deployment of remaining holiday entitlement. This anomaly derives from the large number of self-employed individuals who remarked that the only time they could realistically 'close' their business was for a two week spell in summer, when they would take their annual holiday. Shutting down for a week or so, for additional short holidays during the rest of the year, really wasn't worth it. The willingness of such individuals to invest all their 'paid leave' in a single break ably demonstrates the

status of the two week holiday as the peak of the annual leisure experience.

As such, and in accordance with findings in preceding chapters, the holiday may be seen as a risk purchase. This is likely to be countered by previous holiday experience. Though ineffective as single predictors, previous package and foreign holiday experience combine to affect current travel duration ($p = 0.0054$). The first time package holiday buyer is more likely to opt for a shorter vacation (particularly if abroad) than the experienced traveller. Of those away from home for a fortnight or more, 12% have neither previous package nor foreign holiday experience, 3% have no package experience but have previously travelled abroad, 1% have previous package holiday experience but have only travelled in the UK, whilst 84% possess both package and foreign holiday experience. Conversely, only 4% of the latter category of holidaymaker travel for six nights or less. This reflects the greater perception of risk amongst those with no direct previous experience of package holidays abroad.

7.7 BEHAVIOUR WHILST ON HOLIDAY

7.7.1 Activities and contact with the host culture

It is reasonable to assume that the activities undertaken whilst on holiday reflect holiday choice, for this is based on the requirement of the holiday to facilitate these activities. Closer examination of behaviour whilst on holiday therefore provides a potentially valuable post-choice perspective with which to interpret behaviour.

Behaviour on holiday is classified according to 'involvement' parameters; that is, integration and contact with the host community. This does not necessarily mean intimate cultural contact, but rather experience somewhat deeper than the superficiality encouraged by purpose-built tourist facilities. Behaviour whilst on holiday is classified into one of two categories. 'Passive' holidaymakers are those sharing little interaction with their host community. Their behaviour is typified by relaxing and resting, sunbathing and swimming, and visiting purpose-built tourist facilities. Conversely, 'active' travellers participate in historical and cultural visits, and walking and rambling (in addition to shopping trips). Thus, the terms 'active' and 'passive' are not strictly accurate, but are used out of convenience, simply to exaggerate the essential qualitative differences between the two categories of behaviour. Only in the case of the wintersports enthusiast is the term 'active' entirely appropriate. However, wintersports package holidaymakers are excluded from analysis owing to their scarcity in the interviewed sample. Furthermore, these holidays are specifically chosen to facilitate participation in one particular activity (skiing, in all cases), which bears little resemblance to the 'involvement' parameters used to classify the majority of package holidaymakers.

The activities of the old on holiday differ markedly from those of the young ($p = 0.0000$). As shown on table 44, active involvement increases simultaneously with age - a relationship maintained taking into account the effect of employment status ($p = 0.0433$). Given the limiting effect of the ageing process on mobility, this trend is contrary to that expected. Surely more 'active' behaviour is undertaken by younger holidaymakers? It must be remembered, however, that the term 'active'

refers to involvement with the host community rather than physical behaviour (such as playing sport). Even taking this into account, why does active behaviour on holiday increase with age? The answer lies not so much in age per se, but in its role as a central component of the holiday 'career'. Passive behaviour is recorded for younger travellers simply because in the context of the recent vogue for relaxing breaks, based on enjoyment and pleasure with a minimum of effort, it is very

Table 44 : Age and holiday activities

		H O L I D A Y		A C T I V I T Y	
		No. Passive		No. Active	
	16 - 29	27 (93.1)+		2 (6.9)	
AGE	30 - 44	36 (87.8)		5 (12.9)	
(years)	45 - 64	50 (74.6)		17 (25.4)	
	65 plus	16 (45.6)		19 (54.3)	

+ figures in brackets are percentages of row totals

likely that they have been weaned on a diet of similar holidays. Relaxing by the sea is the behavioural norm for many young travellers. By contrast, older travellers tend to involve themselves with the host environment simply because this is the type of behaviour, pre-dating the rush to the sun-soaked Mediterranean coastline, to which they have become accustomed. It is very likely that many trips to historical and cultural sites of interest were made in holidays constituting the formative years of their holiday 'careers'. During informal conversation with elderly holidaymakers, several remarked that these visits were the norm many years ago, and that they would not envisage travelling merely to relax and rest without seeing the surrounding area. Most were well aware how their behaviour contrasted with that of younger generations, whom some saw as lazy and languid. They seemed proud of their greater involvement with the host community. The provision of day tours to local sites of interest on

package holidays for elderly folk suggests tour operators are well aware of the qualitative differences in the needs of the young and the old.

Behaviour on holiday is also an outcome of previous holiday experience - of package tours ($p = 0.0044$) and of trips abroad taking into account the number of previous package tours ($p = 0.0471$). Confidence, as a function of previous experience, determines the types of activity pursued once on holiday. Active involvement with the host culture requires a degree of self-confidence which the first-time package holidaymaker may not possess. Interaction with local inhabitants (possibly when communication difficulties are encountered) may present too daunting a challenge. It may be far more comforting to stay within the familiar surroundings of the hotel and beach.

Behaviour is not a function of family status ($p = 0.8760$). Active involvement is not necessarily curtailed by the presence of children up to the age of 16 years. Indeed, children may provide the motive for visiting local points of interest (such as castles), or for walking and rambling trips; 20% of adults accompanied by children participate in active pursuits on holiday. Conversely, the beach has long been the traditional focus of the family holiday, at least since Victorian times. Over three-quarters of all families behave 'passively' on holiday. Indeed, the beach is the natural setting for relaxing, resting, sunbathing and swimming.

An unusual difference between the sexes occurs in the context of behaviour whilst on holiday ($p = 0.0019$). Men display a tendency for passive behaviour (82%), whilst over half the women decision-makers (58%) prefer

to participate in more active pursuits. A greater proportion of men (77%) than women (49%) in the interviewed sample are in full-time employment. Given the drain of daily work on stamina and energy, the preference for passive activities by men may be explained in terms of their greater need to mentally and physically recuperate whilst on holiday. The proportion of women in full-time employment, together with the equally tiring effects of domestic work for housewives not in employment, means this argument can in no way be substantiated. Men and women are likely to need a holiday for similar reasons. However, variation may be on account of their overall leisure life-styles throughout the year. Active sports activities are more widely pursued by men than women ($p = 0.0008$). The tendency for men to participate in passive holiday activities suggests their leisure behaviour on holiday compensates for their rather more active leisure-time pursuits throughout the rest of the year. Herein lies one of the most significant contributions of leisure life-style parameters - the relationship between leisure activities on holiday and at home. Individual leisure life-style measures are therefore analysed in addition to clustered activities.

Table 45 summarises the relationships between individual activities at home and those undertaken on holiday. Bearing in mind the scarcity of correlation to date, it can be safely concluded that leisure activities on holiday are systematically related to those undertaken more regularly at home. A compensatory link is forged between the two in all five instances where a significant relationship is uncovered. Evidently, the active 'sportsman' or busy 'socialiser' tends to relax and rest once on holiday. Conversely, those following more passive pursuits throughout the year (such as reading) tend towards more active behaviour once on holiday. There is a danger, however, that leisure life-style is simply a misleading

surrogate for age: that is, the elderly tend to participate in passive pursuits throughout the year, which is then tied to more active behaviour whilst on holiday (as demonstrated earlier in this section).

Log-linear modelling refutes this suggestion; even when age is taken into account, clustered leisure activities maintain a significant relationship

Table 45 : Association between home and holiday leisure activities

ACTIVITY	PROBABILITY	NATURE OF RELATIONSHIP
Gardening	0.0047	'C'
Listening to the radio & records	n.s.	-
Reading	0.0192	'C'
Entertaining/visiting people	n.s.	-
Meals out and pub visits	0.0001	'C'
Cinema, dance, disco & theatre	n.s.	-
Car and home maintenance	n.s.	-
Indoor hobbies	0.0000	'C'
Day trips	n.s.	-
Walks and visits to parks	n.s.	-
Water sports	n.s.	-
Indoor sports	n.s.	-
Outdoor sports	0.0328	'C'
Relaxing and resting	n.s.	-

n.s. - not significant
'C' - 'compensation'

with holiday activities ($p = 0.0510$). The link between home-based and holiday leisure activities is therefore a genuine one. The compensatory links forged agree with the more qualitative outcome of informal conversation that revealed how many people, once on holiday, tend to,

" do things which normally they would normally not dream of doing.."+

As such, the holiday is a convenient medium for 'escapism'. Personal

+ Middle-aged teacher, Park Avenue, Hull - December 1984

barriers tend to be withdrawn. People seem to feel at liberty to behave as they like rather than in accordance with the many restrictions imposed by daily life. Inhibitions are generally forgotten - enjoyment becomes paramount. The holiday gives people both the incentive and the opportunity to participate in activities which, for whatever reason, they would normally not be involved with, and as such is undoubtedly a particularly important item in the maintenance of personal welfare.

7.7.2 Day trip movements

Clearly, the activities undertaken on holiday may be translated into day trip distances, for different activities command varying degrees of travel to secure participation. Those in search of historical artefacts, for example, travel further afield than those for whom a day trip is nothing more than a leisurely walk down to the beach.

Explanation of day trip movement is very similar to that accounting for the activities undertaken once on holiday. Economic factors, for example, are not significant (see table 46). Financial disadvantage in no way restricts the day trips made on holiday - a finding to be compared with

Table 46 : Day trip travel as a response to economic controls

FACTOR	PROBABILITY
Education	0.5046
Employment status	0.1870
Car ownership	0.1225
Occupation	0.4958
Income	0.6714
Paid leave	0.9390

the effects of income on the distance travelled to reach the holiday destination (see section 9.2.3). A similar proportion of high (32%) and low income earners (38%) travel beyond 51 km on day trips. The proportions not straying beyond the resort are also comparable (25% and 20% respectively). A similar pattern is expressed using occupation as measure of economic well-being.

Similarly, family status does not significantly influence day trip movement ($p = 0.1094$). However, a degree of variation is discernible which suggests children act as a constraint on day trips; 36% of parties with children do not leave the resort, whilst 23% travel more than 51 km. The equivalent figures for adults without children are 20% and 38% respectively, suggesting unaccompanied adults are likely to travel further on day trips.

Log-linear modelling shows that this tendency is a simple outcome of the high proportion of unaccompanied adults who are beyond 64 years of age, for age and day trip movement are closely related ($p = 0.0325$). The effect of age remains significant when family status is taken into account ($p = 0.0215$). The same is not true for family status when age is considered. Table 47 illustrates the nature of the relationship between day trip journey distances; as age increases, so does the tendency to travel further. This reflects the greater involvement of elderly travellers in host culture. Both are undoubtedly an outcome of the day trip arrangements made by tour operators for the elderly. Day trips by coach are a particular favourite, and are an easy way for the less mobile to see the localities that surround the holiday destination. Once again, this may be attributed to the holiday 'career', for many of the early

Table 47 : The relationship between age and day trip travel

		DAY TRIP DISTANCE (KM)		
		No. Zero	No. 1 - 50	No. \geq 51
AGE (years)	16-29	9 (29.0)+	15 (48.4)	7 (22.6)
	30-44	13 (29.6)	22 (50.0)	9 (20.4)
	45-64	15 (22.4)	24 (35.8)	28 (41.8)
	65 plus	3 (8.6)	14 (40)	18 (51.4)

+ figures in brackets are percentages of row totals

holidays of today's pensioners involved day excursions to local sites of interest. A significant proportion of these elderly travellers have previously taken a package tour ($p = 0.0604$), though they have not necessarily travelled abroad ($p = 0.1193$).

No explanatory role is fulfilled by leisure life-style factors, which is surprising in view of the association between holiday activities and day trip movement ($p = 0.0506$), and the former's close association with life-style stimuli. This is probably because day trip movement and leisure life-style are not complementary measures. Leisure activities at home and on holiday are represented by similar parameters, mainly 'involvement'. Clearly, day trip behaviour is represented by simple physical movement. This is incompatible with the 'involvement' parameters used to describe leisure life-styles. Far from casting doubts over the close association between leisure-time behaviour at home and on holiday,

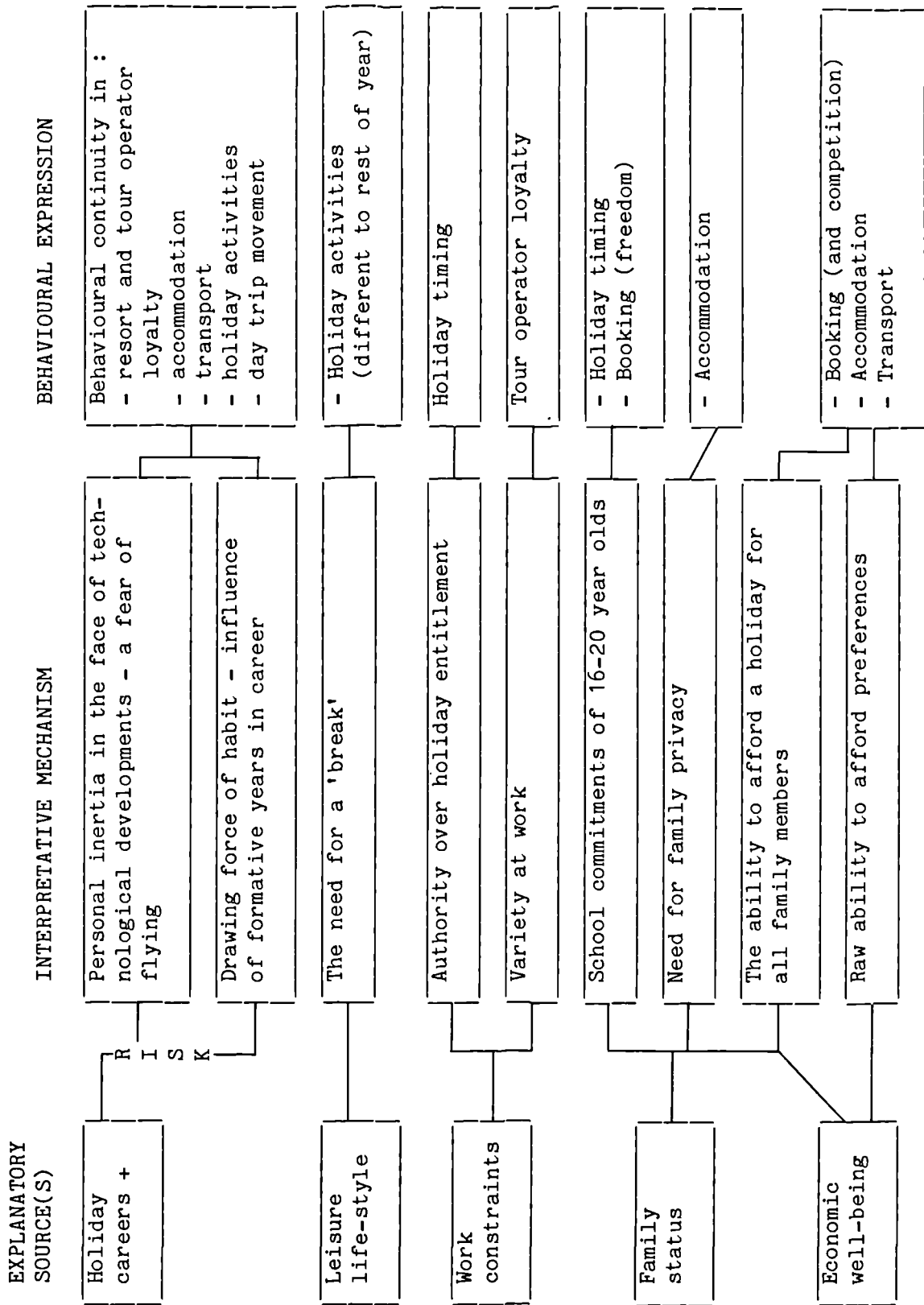
this simply demonstrates that the effective analytical contribution of life-style factors can only be realised when the parameters representing both the governing and response measures complement one another.

7.8 SUMMARY

Though diverse, the explanation of package holiday habits contains numerous cohesive themes. These are summarised on diagram 28.

Encompassing all the links that have been discussed, between population characteristics and behaviour measures, is the relationship between the supply and demand for package holidays. This relationship is a complex one, and its intervening role in the explanation of behaviour according to the decision-maker's characteristics is not uniform. The competition for budget holidays overrules the expected relationship between income and advance booking (taking into account late discounting immediately prior to the start of the holiday). In this instance, supply and demand are the main predictors of behaviour, except for families on holiday, where discounts can mean rather substantial financial savings. Alternatively, instead of a causal role, consideration of supply and demand may assist interpretation of relationships between certain measures; the relatively active and extensive day trip travel of older holidaymakers, contrary to the usual effects of ageing on mobility, may be partly explained by the day-to-day holiday schedules designed by tour operators specifically to cater for these individuals. In many cases however, the supply/demand balance seems neither to suppress nor encourage correlation between the characteristics of holidaymakers and their behaviour. It is in such ties

Diagram 28 : Primary themes in the explanation of package holiday habits



+ Age and holiday life-style

that are embedded a number of themes valuable in the interpretation of package holidaymaking habits.

First and foremost is the role of the holiday 'career', for this explains many behavioural preferences. Structured around a combination of age and holiday life-style predictors, the holiday 'career' represents a gradually changing course of behaviour through time. Continuity is its key element (bar intervening upheaval), for each successive stage in the career is a function of previous behaviour. The influence of behaviour during the formative years of the holiday 'career' cannot be underestimated. This factor explains the relatively active behaviour of older travellers on holiday, for this is very often what they have become accustomed to since their first holidays. This introduces a second element; the force of habit, and personal inertia to change - particularly in the face of developments so dramatic as the advent of jet air travel. Irrespective of means, the explanatory contribution of holiday 'careers' is significant; product type, choice of transport and accommodation and activities on holiday can all be explained by reference to behaviour in the past.

This is accompanied by several important supplementary themes. The nature of work, beyond the contribution of simple occupational status, has a bearing on behaviour. Decision autonomy over holiday entitlement determines when the holiday is taken. Those exercising freedom of choice tend to avoid peak season travel. Furthermore, on a qualitative level, variety and stimulation at work is often extended into holiday choice, as reflected in the tendency of those in routine employment to choose a familiar tour operator each time they go on holiday.

Conversely, leisure activities on holiday tend to differ to those pursued throughout the rest of the year. The need for 'compensation', both mental and physical, explains why the active sportsperson likes to lie on a beach and sunbathe whilst their more 'passive' cousins (at least throughout the rest of the year) actively engage themselves in visits, trips and excursions. For these people, the adage that 'a change is as good as a rest' is strongly supported by this study.

The two remaining interpretative themes are closely tied to the household; family status and economic well-being. Indeed, the two are interrelated, for income determines the ability of the holiday decision-maker to include all the family members in holiday plans. This aside, the holiday party nearly always closely resembles the household from which it is derived. The presence of children is a key factor in accommodation preferences and the need for family privacy. Their other main influence is a function of school commitments, particularly above the age of 16 years. Economic factors, on the other hand, are more closely implicated with the supply of holidays; the effect of financial status generally governs elements of the holiday that are most susceptible to price differentiation. The cost advantage of coach travel and self-catering facilities over air tours and serviced accommodation is a prime example. The one notable exception to this rule is holiday duration, for the annual fortnight away is the preference of all types of traveller, irrespective of their economic well-being.

The themes highlighted on diagram 28 act as an interpretative platform for the analysis of spatial patterns of package holidaymaking behaviour. This is conducted in the two following chapters, using a range of measures

specific to the destination decision-making process. However, the destination is not an entirely independent element of the holiday, and so the detailed analysis of spatial patterns in Chapter Nine is preceded by an investigation of the destination as an integral part of the holiday as a whole.

CHAPTER EIGHT

THE HOLIDAY DESTINATION IN CONTEXT

8.1. DESTINATION PATTERNS

8.1.1. Measurement and description

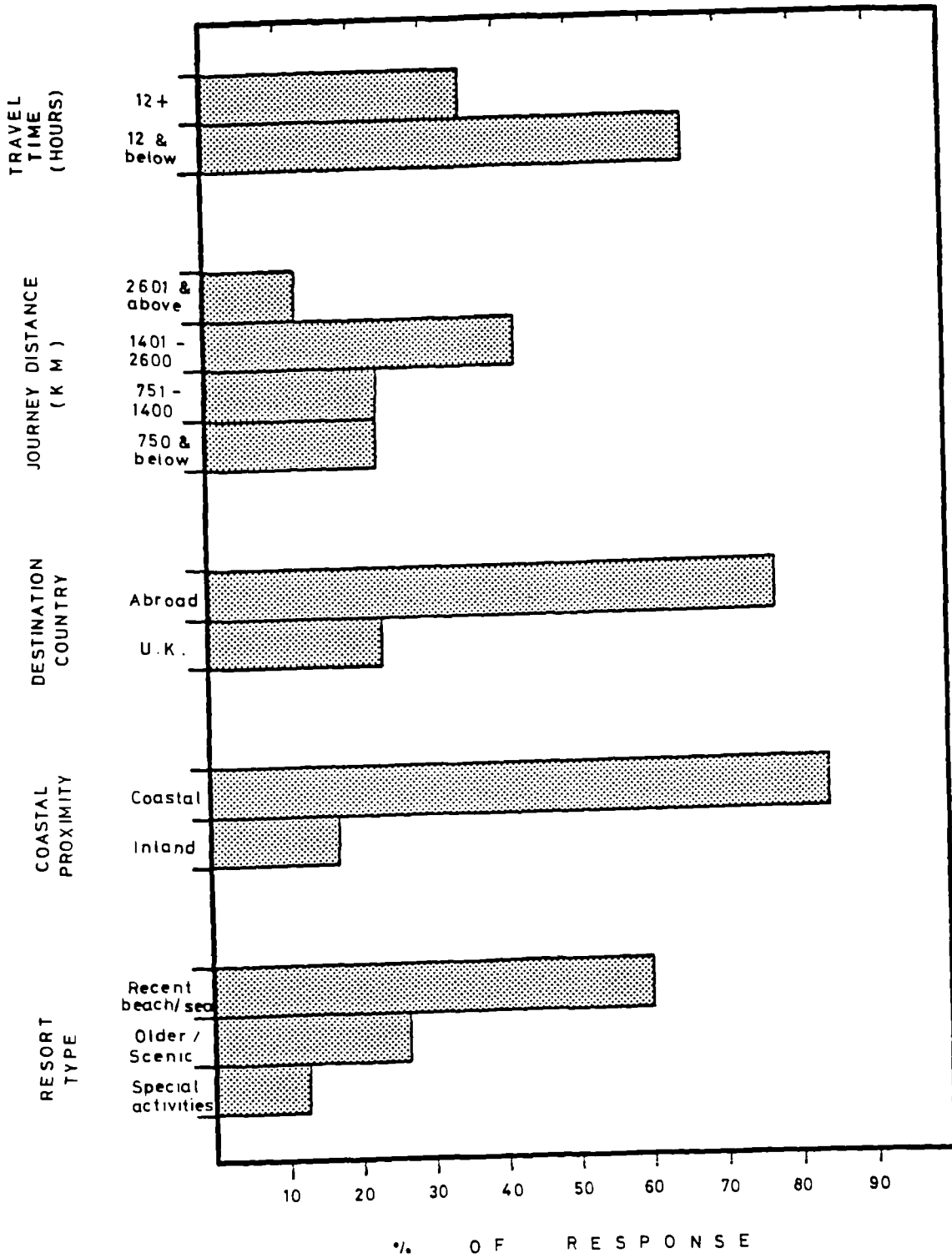
To understand fully the forces shaping spatial patterns of package holidaymaking, a knowledge of the measures representing actual behaviour and relevant decision-making processes is required. Only then can both elements be pooled and insight derived. Furthermore, since the destination is not an autonomous item, it must be assessed in the context of overall holiday choice and behaviour.

The first step is to chart behaviour. Based on questionnaire data, destination patterns are represented by five measures. These are shown on diagram 29, and fall into two main categories:

1. Relative location : travel time
 : linear distance
 : destination country
2. Absolute location : proximity to coast
 : resort type

Travel time and linear distance are straightforward measures of relative location. The location of the holiday destination relative to the home is expressed in terms of the number of hours spent travelling (travel time) or the straight-line kilometer distance between the two (linear distance).

Diagram 29 : Measured destination patterns



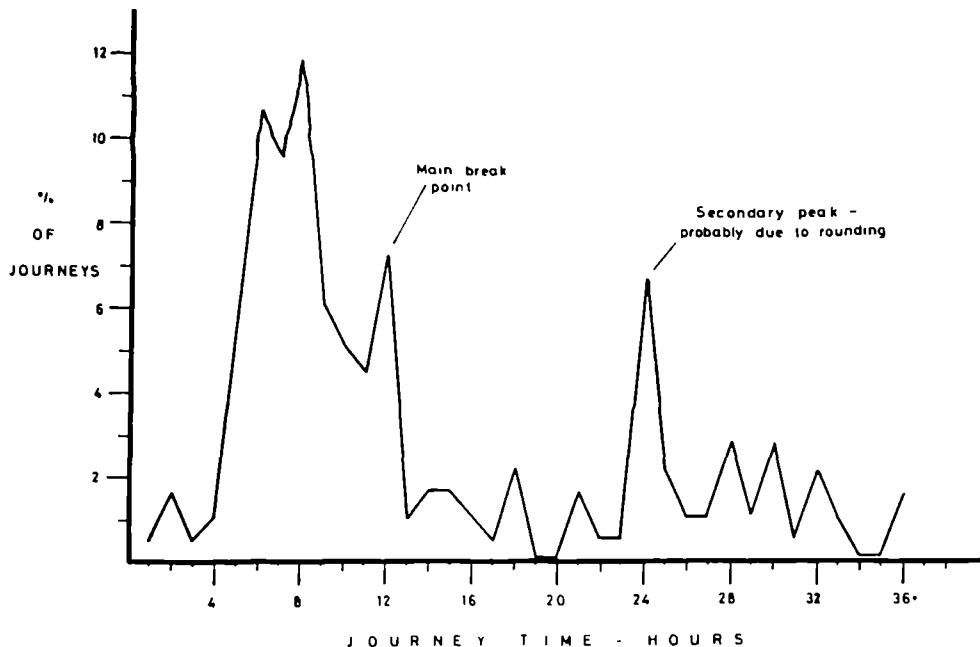
Destination country is not such a clear-cut measure of relative location, although it is grouped as such due to the dichotomy used to represent behaviour; holidays are simply classified as domestic or foreign. The two measures of absolute location refer to the qualities of the destination rather than its co-ordinate location in space. These reflect the destination's proximity to the coast, and its main qualities or characteristics. Each of these measures is now described in turn, along with a justification for the categories used in analysis.

Travel time is defined as the total number of hours between leaving the home and arriving at the specified destination. Most journeys (65%) are completed in 12 hours or less (see diagram 29). For analytical purposes the original ratio data is reduced to just two simple categories. This follows one principle common to all preparation of spatial data : the fewest number of categories to accurately represent the original data are used, simply to maintain a reasonable level of fragmentation when simultaneously analysing all the links between three different variables (population, decision and behaviour measures). This ensures reliable statistical processing.

Accordingly, only two travel time categories are used; 12 hours or less, and more than 12 hours. There are several reasons for this. In raw statistical terms, proximity to the average trip (13.6 hours) means this distinction broadly equates with 'above' and 'below' average journey times. Furthermore, the percentage polygon of travel times provides evidence of a distinct natural break marking the 12 hour journey threshold (see diagram 30). Journeys upto and including this threshold are relatively frequent, but tail-off thereafter; clear evidence of a

time-distance decay function. Most journeys last between five and nine hours (45%), peaking at eight hours. A secondary peak occurs at 24 hours, though this is probably an outcome of rounding by respondents. The same is likely to occur for journeys of 12 hours. This, and the natural break in the data at this point, provide two good reasons for classifying journeys either side of the 12 hour threshold. Further justification may be derived by considering the psychological role of the 12 hour barrier, itself a likely outcome of biological cycles and physiological functions of the human body.

Diagram 30 : A percentage polygon of raw travel times



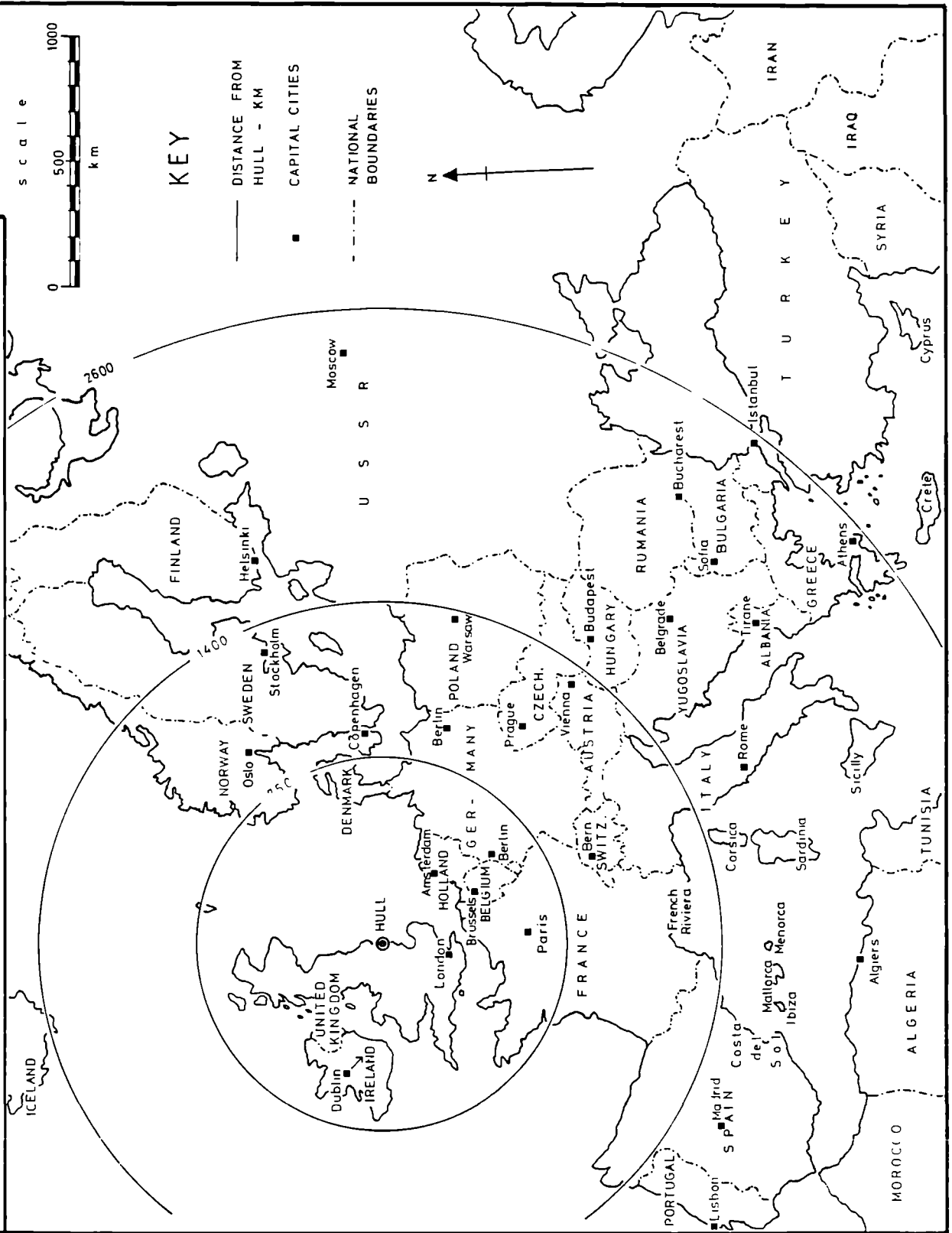
Linear distance from Hull to the holiday destination is a simple measure of euclidean distance (km) between the two. Though actual route distance may differ from this figure, it is likely to be far more accurate than respondents' estimates of the actual distances covered (a fact that became apparent during interviewing, and which would make an interesting exercise in distance perception itself). Euclidean distance is therefore the only feasible, consistent measure available. This provides a set of distance values which are reduced to an ordinal form by drawing concentric rings around Hull designed to highlight logical distance categories. These are shown on diagram 31, and are created after consideration of both the geography of Europe (in particular, the location of tourist areas) and patterns in the original data. The four categories are :

1. The United Kingdom and the immediate continent (less than 750 km)+
2. Europe and the near-Mediterranean (751 - 1400 km)
3. Eastern Europe and the middle - Mediterranean (1401 - 2600 km)
4. The near-East, far-Mediterranean and beyond (greater than 2601 km)

+ This category is not restricted to the U.K. alone because an equivalent distinction is made elsewhere between domestic and foreign destinations.

As shown on diagram 29, the most frequently travelled distance is between 1401 and 2600 km (42%). This is likely to reflect the large number of tourist resorts in a dense band stretching across Eastern Europe and the middle-Mediterranean, including Spain and its Balearic Islands. Fewer respondents travel short distances, although nearly half (46%) travel less than 1400 km, split evenly between the two categories (below 750 km, and 751 to 1400 km). Some 12% travel more than 2600 km to their holiday destination. Over 75% of these travel upto 3000 km. These journeys are

Diagram 31 : Concentric distance rings around Hull to the holiday destination



clearly extensive. The relatively high proportion of respondents prepared to travel such great distances places into perspective the great strides in pleasure travel taken over the last 25 years. The package holiday has no doubt played a significant role in this development.

A simple distinction is made between domestic and foreign travellers. The destination country is merely used to distinguish between holidaymakers staying within the United Kingdom and those travelling abroad. At the heart of this dichotomy lie assumed psychological parameters rather than the more objective measures of travel time or linear distance.

Distinction is founded on the psychological fear that may be tied to foreign travel on account of unfamiliar environments, cultural contrast and barriers to communication. There is also a practical reason for this division. In general, such a broad range of destinations may be found in any one country, that it is of little value to study behaviour according to the country visited. Even if there are any inherent differences between visitors to France, Germany, Greece or India, for example, the extensive fragmentation of the data set involved would undermine reliable statistical analysis. Any theoretical reason for these differences is, in fact, far more likely to be manifested through journey time, distance or the type of resort sought after rather than the destination country per se. Sample restrictions and theoretical reasoning therefore suggest the destination country is most effectively employed simply to distinguish between domestic and foreign holidaymakers. The majority (77%) of package holidaymakers travel abroad. Though over three times the number of domestic package holidaymakers (23%), it is nonetheless surprising to discover that nearly one quarter of all package holidaymakers stay in the United Kingdom, even when suitable accommodation might be booked by one simple telephone call. The package concept seems to have been

successfully applied to home tourism, despite the apparent ease of making individual domestic arrangements compared to bookings abroad. It is unlikely that this market for domestic package holidays has been saturated to date.

The one dimension of behaviour not altered from its original form for analysis is proximity to the coast. Coastal holiday destinations are defined as those within five kilometers of the sea. This is to avoid classification problems with towns and cities, although the distinction is usually obvious, and rarely is such specificity needed. Coastal destinations dominate (84%); further evidence of the enormous holiday appeal of the seaside, be it beaches or scenic coastlines. This clearly reflects the supply of package holidays, for 87% of the resorts featured in the main 1984 summer brochures of three large tour operators are coastal. Admittedly, bias accrues from sampling mainstream summer brochures only, for this tends to exclude special interest holidays and off-season travel (both shown, in a later section, to be less tied to the coast). However, the bulk of the holidays examined in the research are mainstream summer packages, and so the comparison stands.

A complementary picture emerges by further examining the type of resort visited. The first task is to devise a typology according to the qualities of the resort and its salient characteristics. Even under the most ambitious fieldwork plans, irrespective of temporal and financial constraints, this would have been virtually impossible to carry out by first-hand experience. A reliable alternative was therefore needed. This was realised by balancing two sources of information; consultation and discussion with six local travel agents, and the Agents Hotel Gazetteer,

Volume 1 (see Isaacs and Birmingham, 1985). The former gave advice and recommendations to help successfully pinpoint types of destination, whilst the latter proved a more factual source by providing an objective description of the main features and facilities of a large number of tourist resorts. Many of the destinations covered in the questionnaire were listed in this volume (86%). By combining these two sources a workable inventory of primary facilities/characteristics was derived, and resorts subjectively ascribed to one of the following categories:

1. Beach-or sea-based resorts, offering a wide range of recent facilities, particularly those for informal sport or recreation.
2. Sites based on an old infrastructure, often of great character, and possessing a relatively peaceful inland or coastal location.
3. Special activity centres based on historical and cultural sites of interest, or mountain scenery and associated recreation facilities.

Originally a fourth category was used (metropolitan centres with a wide range of attractions), but so few resorts surveyed fitted this description that it was discarded. The main characteristics of each resort were assessed (according to the Agents Hotel Gazetteer and/or the opinion of travel agents themselves) before allocation to one of these categories. It may well be an interesting reflection on package tour resorts that rarely was a destination difficult to classify in this way. Given that allocation was dealt with as fairly and consistently as possible, this also suggests the classification system was an effective one. Resorts

fall into these three categories as follows:

Category 1 - (hereafter referred to as recent beach and sea resorts)	- 61%
Category 2 - (old, quiet destinations)	- 27%
Category 3 - (special activity centres)	- 12%

Recent beach-and sea-based resorts are clearly the dominant type of destination for package holidaymakers. This underscores the traditionally assumed image of the package holiday resort. Nonetheless, it must be noted that one in eight package holidaymakers visit special activity centres; surely evidence of increasing discretion and specialisation of the package tour market, and a figure unlikely to have been matched during the roaring years of the sun/sea/sand formula in the early 1970's.

8.1.2. Cross - correlation between spatial behaviour measures

Although each represents an individual facet of spatial behaviour, the five destination measures are designed to complement one another. The classification systems used to reduce the original questionnaire data are all devised bearing in mind the coverage afforded by sister measures, to ensure a minimum of overlap whilst retaining the opportunity for as flexible an interpretation of behaviour as possible. Thus, it is not surprising to find extensive cross-correlation between the five spatial behaviour measures (table 48). 80% of all cells on this table display significant association. These ties help depict the structure of the spatial data recovered in the survey.

A curious relationship links the two main measures of relative location, for travel time and journey distance do not necessarily increase simultaneously (table 49). This probably relates to the use of

Table 48 : Significant linkages between destination measures

	Travel time	Linear distance	Country	Coastal location	Resort type
Travel time	—	0.0000	0.0009	n.s.	n.s.
Linear distance	—	—	0.0000 cz	0.0004	0.0000
Country	—	—	—	0.0410	0.0000
Coastal location	—	—	—	—	0.0000 cz
Resort type	—	—	—	—	—

Note : probability values shown (n.s. - not significant)
: cz indicates cell zero in contingency table

Table 49 : Travel time and journey distance

TRAVEL DISTANCE (km)	TRAVEL TIME	
	% completed in 12 hours or less	% completed in more than 12 hours
Below 750	87.8	12.2
751 - 1400	26.8	73.2
1401 - 2600	71.6	28.4
Above 2600	76.2	23.8

different forms of transport (see section 8.1.3). Geographical constraints account for the correlation between the destination country and both time and distance measures, although the latter is statistically

invalidated due to the presence of a structural zero in the contingency table : clearly (over-enthusiastic domestic tours aside), no-one travels more than 2600 km to reach their holiday destination in the British Isles.

Long haul travellers predominantly visit coastal locations (table 50). Only a small proportion of holidaymakers travelling more than 1400 km visit an inland location. Conversely, 34% of those travelling upto 750 km do so. This suggests that not only is the beach and sea-seeker prepared to travel further to enjoy such amenities, but also that the United Kingdom is relatively more successful than foreign destinations at attracting visitors to inland locations. Indeed, 29% of domestic holidaymakers (compared to only 13% of foreign travellers) visit inland destinations. The decline of the traditional English seaside resort does not seem to have been partnered by a similar demise of inland centres.

Table 50 : Resort proximity and coastal location

TRAVEL DISTANCE (km)	COASTAL LOCATION	
	% Yes	% No
Below 750	65.9	34.1
751 - 1400	75.6	24.4
1401 - 2600	94.6	5.4
Above 2600	90.5	9.5

Of all visitors to recent beach and sea destinations;

1. Only 10% travel less than 750 km
2. Only 11% travel within the United Kingdom
3. The majority (89%) travel abroad

Alternatively, of those travelling to quieter, older resorts (coastal or inland), over half travel less than 750 km, a similar proportion staying

within the United Kingdom (54% and 52% respectively). These travellers, in direct contrast to beach-seekers, are the mainstay of domestic tourism. The patrons of special activity centres seem to fall inbetween these two extremes; although the majority travel abroad (95%), they do not travel as far as beach-seekers. Only 35% travel 1400 km or more, probably because many of these centres (80%) are found inland, a large proportion of which are located in the high Alps. These fall into the 751 - 1400 km distance band. Mountainous areas therefore seem to dominate destinations founded on recreation amenities, not only for walking, rambling or climbing, but also for specialist activities (including bird watching and water sports). Inland lakes, for example, seem to be preferred over the sea by all but the most accomplished or adventurous sailing and canoeing enthusiasts.

8.1.3 Integration with holiday habits

Relative and absolute resort location are clearly correlated. Certain distinctive features of package tour holidays emerge, particularly bearing in mind distance to the resort, the destination country and the main characteristics of the destination. This alone does not constitute the sole prerequisite to the analysis of locational decision-making. The destination is just one element in the holiday 'mix'. To preserve the notion of the holiday as a complete entity, the links between spatial measures and holiday habits need to be examined. From this a great deal can be learnt about the prevalent factors at play which help shape destination patterns; the trade-off with other elements of the holiday, counter-considerations and the effect of balancing preferences, all of which may be engineered through destination choice and manifested in expressed behaviour patterns.

Table 51 summarises the links between spatial measures and package holiday habits. The tendency towards tour operator loyalty is expected to be a function of journey time, for longer journeys may present more risks, and choosing a familiar tour operator is one means of risk reduction. Although closely related ($p = 0.0326$), the nature of this relationship is in fact reversed. This is probably an outcome of the tendency of tour operator-loyal customers to visit domestic destinations ($p = 0.0154$). A similar pattern emerges for linear distance⁺; 61% of holidaymakers travelling 750 km or less have previous experience of their chosen tour operator, compared with only 38% of travellers covering distances greater than 2600 km. Thus, if distance does exercise a frictional effect over movement (and there are reasons suggesting this may not be the case, particularly given the relative ease of package tour travel), then this is not accountable to the constraining effect of perceived risk when viewed in the context of tour operator loyalty.

The frictional effect of distance may be expressed through more practical constraints, such as the presence of young children in the holiday party. Though correlated at the 10% level ($p = 0.0761$), a greater proportion of journeys over 12 hours are undertaken by parties including children (24%) than those whose members are all above the age of 16 years (12%). This relationship may be distorted by the type of transport used, however. Analysing linear journey distance (more sensitive to such variation) uncovers a threshold of 1400 km, above which the incidence of youngsters on holiday declines after the peak between 751 and 1400 km (table 52). The presence of children only seems to constrain long distance travel.

+ It will be noted that travel time and journey distance are used interchangeably in this section, emphasis being placed on the one which most readily suits the specific context.

Table 51 : Destination measures and the holiday 'mix'

		D E S T I N A T I O N M E A S U R E				
		Travel Time	Journey Distance	Country	Coastal Location	Resort Type
H O L I D A Y ' M I X ' E L E M E N T	Resort loyalty	ns	0.0046	0.0084	ns	0.0941
	Tour operator loyalty	0.0326	0.0425	0.0154	ns	ns
	Booking month	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Booking lag	0.0444	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Party size	0.0470	ns	ns	ns	0.0389
	Party compos- ition	0.0761	0.0767	ns	ns	ns
	Transport mode	0.0002	0.0000 cz	0.0000	0.0337	ns
	Accommod- ation	0.0005	0.0009	0.0166	0.0329	0.0645
	Holiday month	ns	ns	ns	0.0067	ns
	Travel duration	0.0036	0.0000 cz	0.0000	0.0000	0.0072
	Holiday activi- ties	ns	0.0042	0.0065	0.0057	0.0894
	Day trip movement	ns	0.0941	ns	0.0181	0.0108

Note : ns - not significant

cz - cell zero in the contingency table

Short journeys are unaffected.

Table 52 : Holiday composition and journey distance

JOURNEY DISTANCE (km)	PARTY COMPOSITION	
	% including children upto 16 years	% whose members are all over 16 years
Below 750	9.8	90.2
751 - 1400	29.3	70.7
1401 - 2600	14.9	85.1
Above 2600	9.5	90.5

The anomaly between travel time and journey distance (highlighted in the previous section), as anticipated, is explained in terms of the type of transport. Air travel is obviously quicker than coach travel, though this advantage is eroded as journeys become shorter, due to the high proportion of airport waiting time relative to in-flight travel. This is marked by the 1400 km threshold, below which the majority (70%) of journeys are by coach, and above which air travel dominates (88% of trips). A conflicting trend emerges for travel time of course; 60% of all journeys over 12 hours (and 90% over 25 hours) are by coach. Thus, the high proportion of coach journeys between 750 and 1400 km disrupts the otherwise simple relationship between travel time and linear journey distance.

There is no evidence to suggest that long haul travellers (according to either time or distance) take their holidays at different times of the year to short haul travellers. However, differences are clearly expressed in terms of the duration of the holiday. The greater the time spent reaching the destination, the longer the holiday (table 53). Given the high proportion of the cost of a holiday accountable to travel, a long stay at the destination is the most effective way of making the most out

of a holiday in a location which takes many hours to reach.

As linear distance to the destination increases, so too does the likelihood of 'passive' behaviour whilst on holiday ($p = 0.0042$). Holiday activities are measured according to indices of involvement and contact with the host environment. This is far easier for the domestic traveller

Table 53: Travel time and holiday duration

TRAVEL (HOLIDAY) DURATION	TRAVEL TIME	
	% 12 hours and below	% Above 12 hours
9 nights or less	88.1	11.9
More than 9 nights	53.8	46.2

(surrounded by relative familiarity) than for visitors to distant resorts, which explains the decline of 'active' behaviour on holiday from 50% amongst short haul travellers (upto 750 km) to only 14% of holidaymakers travelling 2601 km or more. Day-trip movements exhibit a similar trend; as the distance travelled to the destination increases, so day-trip travel decreases. This dispels the notion that long haul tourists are closely akin to explorers, eager to experience far-away places. In view of events in the history of travel, and assuming that distant destinations present strange customs and cultures, this shows that package tours have so readily overcome the frictional effect of distance that long journeys are no longer the preserve of the traveller genuinely in search of adventure, novelty and even cultural exchange.

Correlation between holiday activities and destination country supports this view ($p = 0.0065$). Far more domestic holidaymakers (51%) than foreign holidaymakers (16%) indulge in 'active' behaviour, which may be

due to confidence, and the ability to converse and gain local information prior to participation. Domestic travellers also tend to take shorter holidays than foreign travellers (table 54). Further differences between

Table 54 : Destination country and holiday duration

DESTINATION COUNTRY	NIGHTS	AWAY	FROM	HOME (%)
	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 13	14 plus
U.K.	13.2	76.3	7.9	2.6
Abroad	3.6	14.4	13.5	68.5

domestic and foreign travellers emerge in their choice of transport and accommodation. Domestic holidaymakers characteristically travel by coach to stay in serviced accommodation (usually hotels). The self-catering tourist, particularly travelling by air, normally takes a holiday abroad. This is likely to reflect the ageing tourist accommodation sector in the United Kingdom. Nonetheless, the domestic package tourist is also more likely than the foreign traveller to be resort and tour operator loyal. The difference between domestic and foreign holidaymakers is thus reflected in a wide range of ancillary elements of the holiday which represent several varied aspects of holidaymaking behaviour.

Self-catering accommodation is more popular amongst visitors to coastal resorts than to inland centres ($p = 0.0337$). This may be due to the traditional stronghold of hotels abroad in upland areas, typified by the mountain villages of Interlaken, Engelberg and Zermatt, set deep in the Swiss Alps. Inland centres such as these do not suffer from seasonality as markedly as many Mediterranean coastal resorts : holiday month and coastal proximity are closely related ($p = 0.0067$), partly because many inland centres turn to the wintersports holiday trade between late

November and early April. Half the holidays to inland centres are actually taken between October and May. These holidays tend to be shorter than summer seaside holidays, for 60% last from four to six nights only. Conversely, the summer seaside holiday is generally a fortnight or longer. Further differences between inland and coastal resorts accrue when considering behaviour whilst on holiday (table 55). Inland visitors

Table 55 : Holiday behaviour of inland and coastal visitors

A : Activities		ACTIVITY PARTICIPATION	
COASTAL VISITOR		% 'Passive'	% 'Active'
Yes		81.6	18.4
No		42.9	57.1

B : Day Trips		DAY TRIP MOVEMENT (KM)		
COASTAL VISITOR		% Zero	% 1 - 50	% 51 plus
Yes		23.1	46.3	30.6
No		20.0	23.3	56.7

become more closely involved with their host environment, and travel further (on a daily basis) to achieve this. Coastal visitors, on the other hand, are largely characterised by passive behaviour once they reach their destination.

A similar pattern is exhibited according to the type of resort. The majority of visitors to special activity centres (70%) embark on day trips of 51 km or more - a degree of movement commensurate with their more specialised holiday interests, and not matched by visitors to recent beach/sea resorts or to older, quieter locations (a significant difference, for $p = 0.0108$). Similar variation is expressed in the activities undertaken on holiday, though this is significant only at the

10% level ($p = 0.0894$). Just over one third (37%) of all those travelling to special activity centres partake in 'active' behaviour; fewer than expected, but comfortably more than visitors to either recent beach/sea resorts (17%) or older, quieter centres (27%).

Not surprisingly, resort type and holiday duration are closely correlated ($p = 0.0072$). The majority (68%) of holidays in recent beach/sea resorts are of two weeks duration, or longer. Only 35% of trips to older, quieter locations last this long, whilst visitors to special activity centres express no durational preferences. Conversely, half the trips to older, quieter centres are for one week only. This is also the usual preference of wintersports package holidaymakers (though their number in the sample means this cannot be statistically proven).

The inclusion of wintersports travellers partly accounts for the greater proportion of visitors to special activity centres (85%) than to beach/sea resorts (67%) who opt for serviced accommodation. As mentioned previously, mountain areas are a traditional stronghold for hotel accommodation, although their dominance is being eroded by apartment developments, particularly in the high French Alps. Those in the purpose-built villages of Flaine, Courchevel, Tignes and Avoriaz are a good example.

Trips to special activity centres, by their very nature, are not the preserve of the traditional family holiday; 85% of visits are by small parties of up to two individuals. Recent beach/sea resorts largely cater for families. They are also more likely to attract the same holidaymaker on more than one occasion (table 56). For the beach/sea-seeker, an

assured climate and convenient beach may well be all that is required to secure a second visit. Those with more specific holiday intentions (historical archaeologists and wintersports enthusiasts, for example) seem to require a wider range of experience, the desire to sample different resorts and facilities manifested in the greater tendency to visit somewhere new each time.

Table 56 : Resort allegiance and primary characteristics

RESORT CHARACTERISTICS	RESORT LOYALTY	
	% Returning to a familiar resort	% Visiting a new resort
Recent beach/sea	31.9	68.1
Older, quieter, scenic	25.6	74.4
Special activity centres	10.0	90.0

Cross-correlation between the various elements of the holiday 'mix' (both between different spatial measures, and between spatial measures and holiday habits) helps to highlight the main characteristics of the holidays examined. The two-week summer air tour to a beach/sea resort is a good example, and seems a popular option with young family holiday parties. Once at the destination, interaction with the host environment and day trip movement are largely restricted. Most of these resorts necessitate one-way journeys of between 750 and 2600 km. Conversely, holidays to special activity centres tend to be shorter, less prone to seasonality, and more likely to make use of hotels, particularly if inland. Behaviour is usually active, and fairly extensive day trips are undertaken. Visits to quieter, older locations, which also tend to utilise serviced accommodation, are usually domestic trips.

Studying the type of resort is not the only means of highlighting holiday

differences. The other major comparison lies between domestic and foreign travellers. Domestic holidaymakers are more loyal to their destinations and tour operators than are foreign travellers, make greater use of serviced accommodation and coach travel, and tend to travel for shorter periods. Most of their destinations are less than 750 km from home. The domestic traveller is also more likely than the foreign traveller to interact with the host environment.

These are the two main differences that emerge when analysing the links between each of the elements of the holiday 'mix'. There are numerous ancillary links of course, but none are so recurrent, nor do they foster such consistent grounds for comparison. Their cumulative effect, however, is to provide a thorough appreciation of the spatial patterns of package holidaymaking recorded by the questionnaire survey, and their ties with remaining elements of the package holiday. Before spatial behaviour is explained further, the destination decision itself must undergo a similar investigation.

8.2. THE DESTINATION DECISION

8.2.1. Status in overall choice of holiday

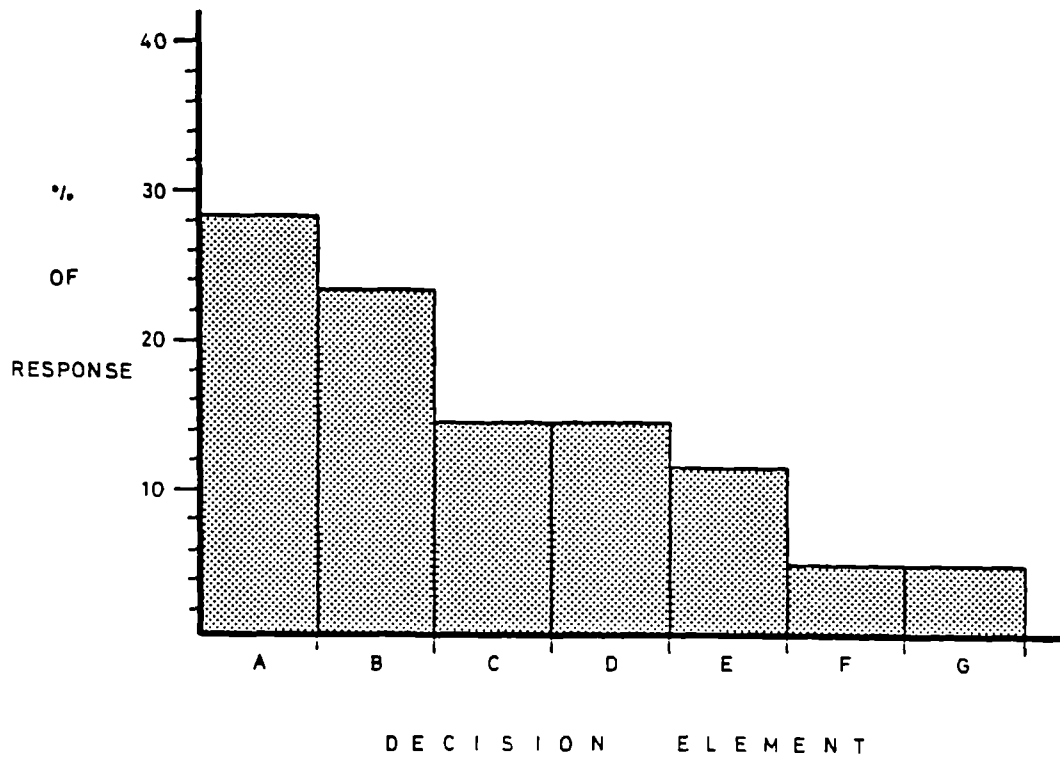
Just as spatial patterns are closely integrated with other elements of the holiday 'mix', so the destination decision is just one of a number of decisions that collectively constitute holiday choice. The status of the destination decision relative to these other decisions must be determined.

Assuming the importance of any one element can be equated with its likelihood of preference-attainment, then the ordering of holiday choice elements may provide clues as to the nature of the holiday decision. The more important the element, the more likely it is that the preferences for that particular aspect of the holiday are secured. These elements may well act as a framework for holiday choice; key components in the decision profile. Less important elements may well act as 'infillers', their contribution towards overall choice of holiday governed more by their association with primary elements than by any deterministic function of their own.

The most important single aspect of overall holiday choice is the destination (diagram 32). This supports the original hypothesis. It also provides comforting justification for the study of tourism from a geographical perspective, for spatial choice parameters are paramount. Next in importance is holiday cost, followed by timing and accommodation. Choice of tour operator and transport are rarely viewed as important elements.

To some extent secondary holiday choice elements are similar (diagram 33). Again, far greater significance is attached to timing, location and cost than to the tour operator or type of transport. This underscores the dominant role of the destination and cost, the former the more important of the two. However, despite their importance both overall and as primary elements alone, they are cited as the main secondary element less frequently than accommodation. Comparing the two graphs shows that accommodation is an unusually important supplementary element of holiday choice. It is more a secondary than a primary consideration - possibly an

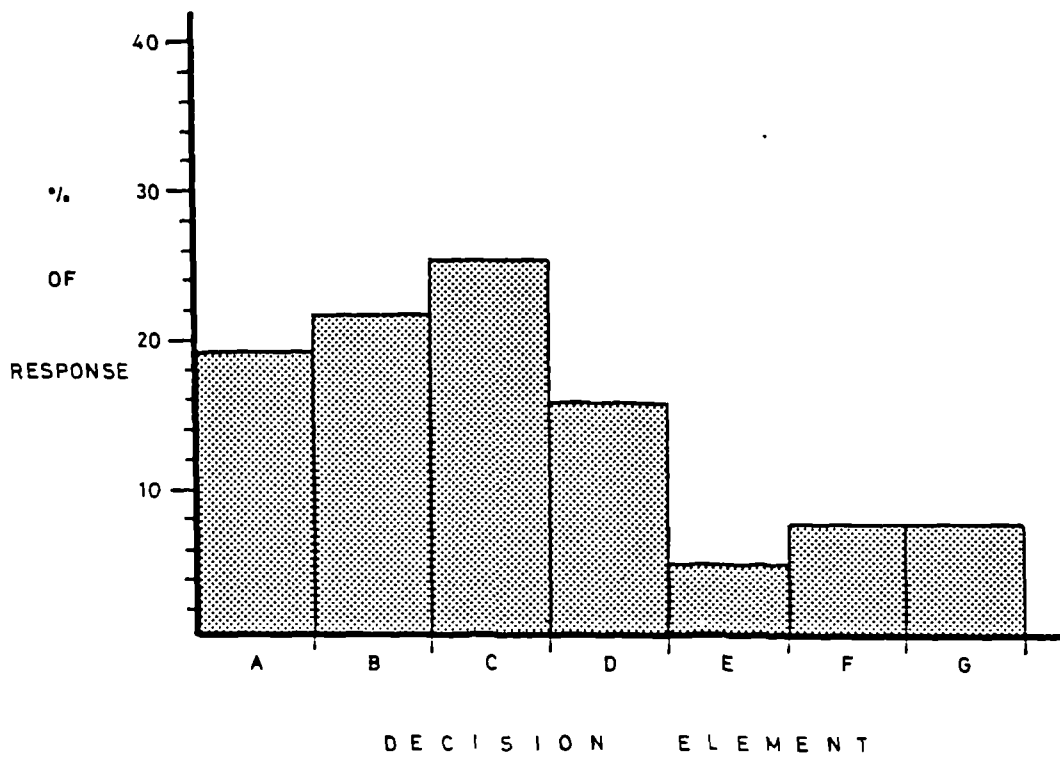
Diagram 32 : Primary components of overall holiday choice



WHERE :

- A - Location
- B - Cost
- C - Accommodation
- D - Timing
- E - Travel companions
- F - Tour operator
- G - Means of transport

Diagram 33 : Secondary components of overall holiday choice



WHERE :

- A - Location
- B - Cost
- C - Accommodation
- D - Timing
- E - Travel companions
- F - Tour operator
- G - Means of transport

enforcer rather than a leading factor in holiday decision-making.

These findings cast some interesting reflections on holiday choice, particularly if decision hierarchies are assumed to reflect the relative importance of single elements of the holiday. Location and cost are commonly at the forefront of holiday choice, and as such may frequently fashion the entire decision-making process. Many travellers, it seems, either pin-point a destination (be it a country or a specific resort), and/or set themselves a budget, thereby creating a premise within the confines of which all subsequent decisions are made. These two elements may influence all those that follow. They represent the cornerstone of holiday decision-making, other aspects of the holiday simply falling into place according to the destination chosen and the constraints of the holiday budget.

Once these are established, choice of accommodation is the most common secondary consideration. Its secondary status is closely allied to the nature of accommodation services. A traveller is unlikely to have a specific preference for a particular hotel as a prime holiday objective, for example. This is borne out in the results on table 32 and 33. However, the accommodation is one element of the holiday with which the traveller experiences a great deal of contact. It therefore plays a significant role in holiday satisfaction; good accommodation may make an enjoyable holiday even more rewarding, though poor accommodation may equally tarnish the holiday experience. This explains the far more significant role of accommodation as a secondary element of choice than as a primary factor.

The role of remaining elements is less readily discerned. The timing of the holiday is mentioned by 30% of respondents as either a primary or secondary consideration. This is simply likely to reflect constraints over the choice of holiday dates, although individual preferences for particular weeks may be gained. The remaining elements are largely background factors that are only mentioned in a few cases. Not surprisingly, choice of transport seems to largely be taken for granted : it is simply a means of achieving the desired holiday, and is rarely valued in its own right. The only exception to this rule are package tourists taking a cruise or overland tour, where travelling is an important and integral part of the overall holiday experience.

Similarly, although loyalty to tour operators is by no means uncommon, choice of tour operator rarely stands as a significant decision in its own right. It is more likely to be an outcome of the appropriate provision of services, at the right time, to the right destination and at the right price - all of which are more important elements of overall holiday choice. The tour operator offering the most attractive blend of these elements is usually selected. Only at this point are preferences between equally suitable tour operators likely to be exercised.

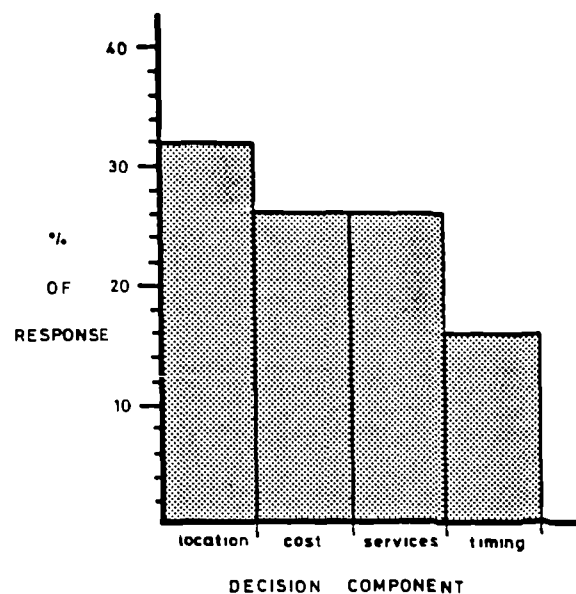
To summarise these findings so far, the destination is the most important single item in the holiday decision-making process. This is closely followed by cost, and is supplemented by accommodation as the main secondary factor. Decision 'infilling' is generally achieved through the choice of tour operator, transport and travel companions, an intermediary role played by holiday timing. Clearly, however, the relative importance of these various decisions is not the same for all types of traveller.

The status of each of the individual elements of holiday choice varies according to the decision-maker's characteristics.

Before ties can be drawn, sample restrictions and statistical requirements dictate reduction of the original seven elements of holiday choice to a more manageable number. Straightaway 'holiday companions' is discarded. Though not initially uncovered during pilot interviews, it rapidly became apparent that this was not generally viewed as an element of holiday choice. It bears little association with the holiday product (qualities of the actual holiday rather than of those taking the holiday), and is often taken for granted. Holiday location, cost and timing remain as individual elements, for they share no mutual attributes. The three remaining elements of holiday choice (tour operator, transport and accommodation) are grouped together as 'holiday services', for this summarises the essential property common to each.

The relative importance of these four categories is shown on diagram 34.

Diagram 34 : Grouped primary components of the overall holiday decision



It should be noted that the destination remains the most important element of holiday choice, despite the grouping of holiday services. These four categories are then cross-correlated with the decision-maker's characteristics in order to determine if different types of traveller vary in the importance they attach to the various primary components of holiday choice. Only a small number of significant ties emerge (see table 57). The typical holiday decision outlined earlier (founded on the dominance of the destination and cost) seems relatively common to all types of traveller. To substantiate this, the ties between decision-maker

Table 57 : Significant predictors of the primary element of holiday choice

PREDICTOR	PROBABILITY
Sex	0.0994
Age	0.0288
Education	0.0123
Occupation	0.0800
Income	0.0710
Occupation with previous foreign holiday experience	0.0200

characteristics and a dichotomous response variable (simply distinguishing between those who identify the destination as the major component of the holiday, and those who don't) are further examined. Only one significant relationship is uncovered ($p = 0.0198$, where the predictor variable is marital status). All other ties fail the 10% significance level. The dominant role of the holiday destination therefore seems to be almost universal, and characterises the overall decisions of a large number of different types of traveller. Its importance should not be underestimated.

However, reverting back to table 57, there are a few decision differences to discuss at a general level. The results presented here are based on

the analysis of primary elements of holiday choice, although the results analysing secondary factors are very similar. The discussion therefore largely applies to both.

The essential difference between male and female decision-makers lies in the importance they attach to the holiday location relative to cost. Amongst male decision-makers the primary element of holiday choice is location (36%) more frequently than cost (22%). Female decision-makers display a counter-tendency (18% and 40% respectively). This may be due to either :

1. The greater preference for sports activities amongst men, under which circumstances the location is obviously important for it must possess the right facilities.
2. The tendency for many women decision-makers to be elderly or out of employment. Financial resources are therefore restricted, and holiday cost is therefore paramount.

The first interpretation is a dubious one bearing in mind the compensation relationship between leisure activities throughout the year and those on holiday (see section 7.7.1.). The active sportsman at home is not always equally active once on holiday. Indeed, the evidence suggests they generally prefer simply to relax and rest, and to enjoy physical and mental recuperation at a leisurely pace. Explanation therefore turns to financial status.

This theme is supported by considering the role of the four remaining significant predictors (three of which are pure 'economic' factors). As age increases, so does the importance placed on holiday services and

location at the expense of holiday timing and cost. This significant trend ($p = 0.0288$) is a gradual one evident through progressive age categories (table 58), and is not just a function of age extremes. The timing and cost of the holiday are usually most important to younger

Table 58 : Age and primary elements of overall holiday choice

AGE (Years)	PRIMARY FACTOR - % indicating			
	Services	Timing	Location	Cost
16 - 29	17.4	30.4	17.4	34.8
30 - 44	15.0	22.5	27.5	35.0
45 - 64	33.3	12.7	33.3	20.7
65 plus	32.3	3.2	45.2	19.3

travellers, probably because they are more likely to consider school holidays, and because of their relatively modest financial resources at a stage in the family life cycle when there may be many competing financial commitments. As age increases (and so too the probability that the holiday is taken unaccompanied by children, thereby making it more affordable - see section 7.4.), so these financial and temporal constraints on choice are relaxed. This gives the decision-maker more freedom to exercise locational preferences. Although incomes amongst pensioners decline once more, they are typified by the importance they attach to services and the holiday location. This may well be because their holiday intentions, in terms of the destination, become more modest, and thus more affordable. This is discussed further in the next chapter.

Compared to minimum age school-leavers, respondents educated to sixth form standard and above attach greater importance to the timing of their holidays, and less to holiday services ($p = 0.0123$). Both categories regard the location as the most important element of holiday choice.

Similar results accrue by using occupation as the predictor ($p = 0.0800$); as economic status increases, so does the importance attached to holiday timing. Only 12% of manual workers indicate that when they take their holiday is the primary factor. This compares with 25% of professional and managerial respondents, whose greater freedom over the decision when to take their paid leave (see section 7.6.1) is reflected in the importance they attach to the timing of their holiday. This relationship is maintained when previous foreign holiday experience is *considered*.

Analysis of incomes reveals a similar trend, though not surprisingly the status of holiday cost is a more readily observed outcome; over $1\frac{1}{2}$ times the proportion of low earners than high earners identify cost as the main element of holiday choice. This is a significant difference, particularly bearing in mind the cost of a holiday is really relative to the decision-maker's income.

Work and leisure life-style factors do not have a significant effect on the importance of elements in overall choice of holiday. Neither do holiday life-style measures, though it is interesting to note that 29% of all experienced package holidaymakers regard holiday services as the primary decision element, compared to only 6% of first-time package tourists. Familiarity with package tours seems to result in greater importance being attached to holiday services, again indicative (as in the case of the role of accommodation noted earlier) of extensive 'contact' prompting high perceived value in any one aspect of the holiday. However, though this is true for holiday services, it is not necessarily relevant to the holiday destination. Despite the lack of 'contact' (resort-loyal visitors aside), the destination is still the main element of holiday

choice, for all types of traveller. Only in a few cases do economic constraints, albeit sometimes indirectly, dispossess the destination of its status as the primary element in the overall choice of holiday.

8.2.2. Measures representing the decision-making process

Four parameters are used to measure destination choice. These are used in constructing a framework to support understanding of the destination decision-making process. A clear insight into choice and behaviour is achieved by combining the strict statistical structure this provides, together with qualitative information derived from informal comments during interviewing .

Consumer behaviour emphasises several essential elements of the purchase decision; sources of information, the range of alternatives and product attributes. Accordingly, the following four measures are used to represent the holiday destination decision:

1. The primary source of information.
2. The number of resorts considered.
3. Spatial specificity and locational preference.
4. Preferred resort characteristics.

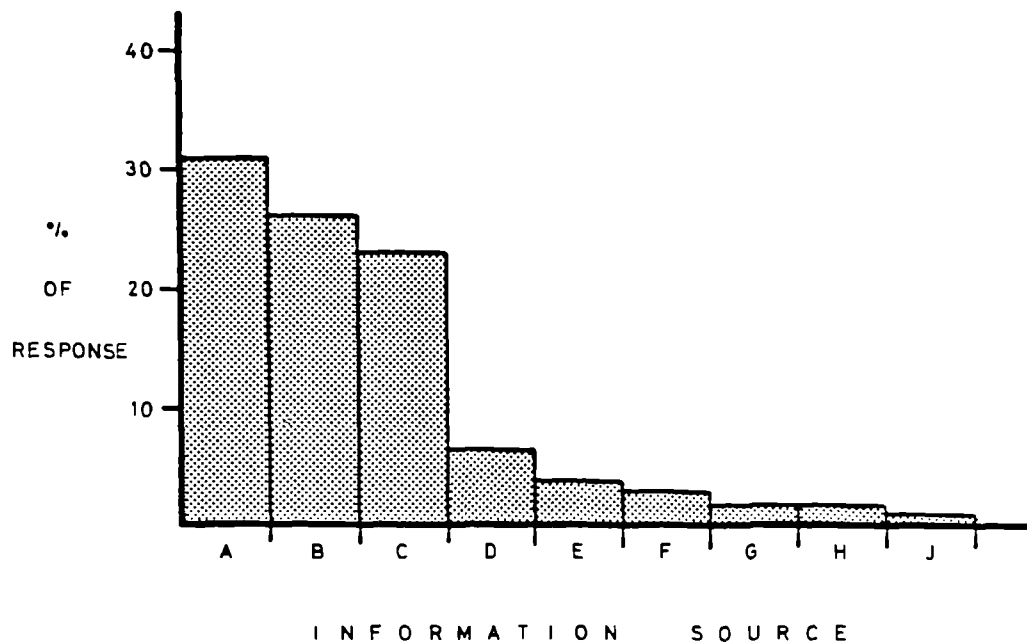
Each of these is considered in turn, together with a brief summary of the response they generated in the questionnaire survey.

1. PRIMARY INFORMATION SOURCE

Decisions are based on whole or partial information. The quality of this information is a difficult and notoriously unreliable parameter to measure. Different sources of information are more readily recorded, and

may assist the interpretation of choice and behaviour on account of their varying characteristics. A checklist of items was used to identify the primary information source (see diagram 35).

Diagram 35 : Primary sources of destination information



WHERE :

- A - Tour operator brochures
- B - Friend's advice
- C - Personal experiences
- D - Advice of travel agents
- E - Magazines and books
- F - Newspapers
- G - Advertisement in travel agents' window
- H - Tourist Board publications
- J - Television

The most frequently cited is the tour operator's brochure, probably on account of accessibility; the brochure is a readily available source, acquired at no cost, and facilitates easy comparisons between prospective resorts. It is also a valuable aid to planning, for it includes a wealth of detailed holiday information regarding travel, accommodation, price, insurance and the resort. It is therefore likely to occur at some point in the majority of destination decisions. This is reflected in the response secured (32%), which seems to justify the expenditure incurred by tour operators in the preparation and circulation of brochures.

These aside, the two remaining sources that are widely used both display a personal bias; the advice of family and friends, together with the traveller's own experiences, account for nearly half the response (49%). Much dependence is placed on these 'informal' sources, probably because they are often credited with greater reliability and authenticity than more formal sources (see Nolan, 1974). It is perhaps only their limited availability that restricts their use relative to tour operator brochures. All three sources are used in later analysis. So rarely are any of the other categories mentioned (collectively accounting for only 17% of response) that they are excluded from further investigation. The adjusted response to the use of brochures, the advice of family and friends, and personal experience is 39%, 33% and 28% respectively.

2 THE NUMBER OF RESORTS CONSIDERED

If information sources are used to construct a factual base on which destination decisions are founded, then the number of resorts considered reflects the selection process from the alternatives this process generates. The term 'considered' is an ambiguous one however, for it fails to distinguish between a fleeting glance and an in-depth appraisal. This became apparent during fieldwork. To avoid misinterpretation, the

data collected is categorised in the most simple fashion. Respondents are divided into those considering only one resort (45%), and those for whom there was more than one 'worthy' alternative (55%). Clearly, this depends on how specific the initial decision is, and so overlaps with the following sister measure which categorises the degree of specificity prior to the final assessment of options. This is the dominant and more widely used measure of the two.

3. SPATIAL SPECIFICITY AND LOCATIONAL PREFERENCE

This measure is indicative of the holidaymaker's initial stance prior to their evaluation of alternative resorts. It may seem ambiguous, but in practice many respondents were able to ascribe themselves to one of the following four categories :

- i Resort - specific
- ii Region - specific
- iii Country - specific
- iv Non - specific

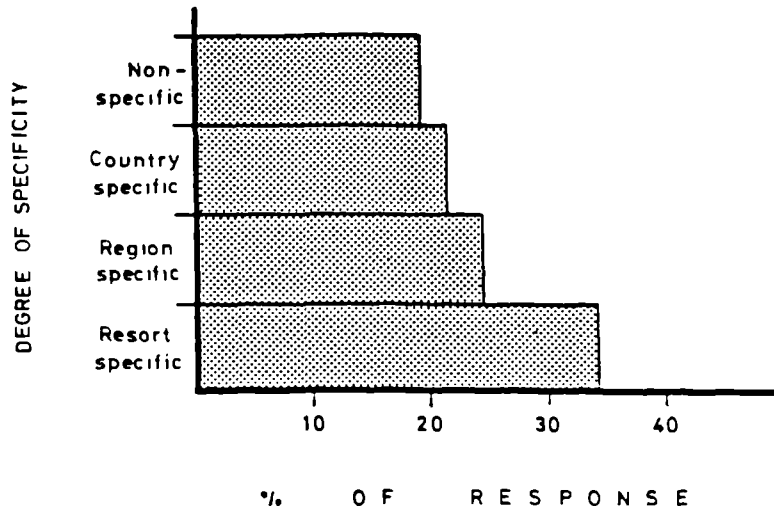
They readily acknowledged the stage in the decision-making process that was referred to in the questionnaire; that is, after initial felt travel desire, but before specific options were compared and assessed. As shown on diagram 36, there is a general tendency towards specificity; 34% of respondents are resort-specific (that is, they have a specific resort in mind). Response declines as specificity weakens (diagram 36), such that only 20% are classified as non-specific. These individuals have no set locational preferences prior to the assessment of various options. They do not have a preference for any particular country, let alone a region or a resort. In such circumstances it is logical to assume that it is the characteristics of the destination, rather than its strict location, that assume prominence.

4. PREFERRED RESORT CHARACTERISTICS

The final decision parameter measures the resort attributes (qualities) sought after. A checklist of 16 items was originally used,

which were later reduced to just three categories by cluster analysis

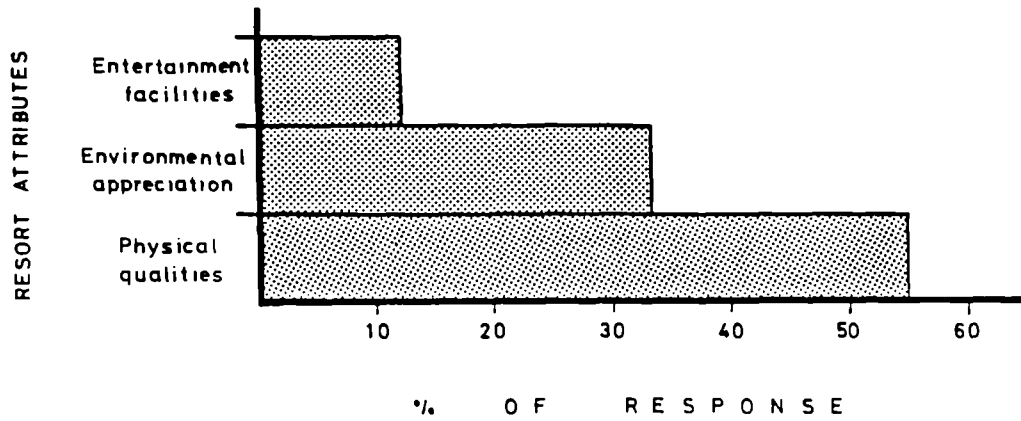
Diagram 36 : Spatial specificity and destination choice



(see section 5.4.1). The adjusted frequencies of these three categories are shown on diagram 37. Physical attributes are dominant. The majority (55%) of package holidaymakers travel in search of a destination offering sun, sea and sand. Next in popularity is the cluster of attributes under the collective term 'environmental appreciation' : 33% seek a destination rich in local flavour, and scenic, peaceful surroundings. Only one in eight travel in search of entertainment facilities (typified by busy, lively resorts with plenty of nightlife, and good shopping facilities by day). These are largely artificial facilities designed and created by man. They may increase a resort's popularity, but are not generally a major attraction in their own right. The key to location patronage therefore seems to be largely a function of the indigenous characteristics of natural surroundings (that is, the seascape and landscape, particularly where they join), which are not readily supplanted by derived attributes.

Of the criteria (qualities) used to choose a resort, physical characteristics are therefore dominant.

Diagram 37 : Desired resort characteristics



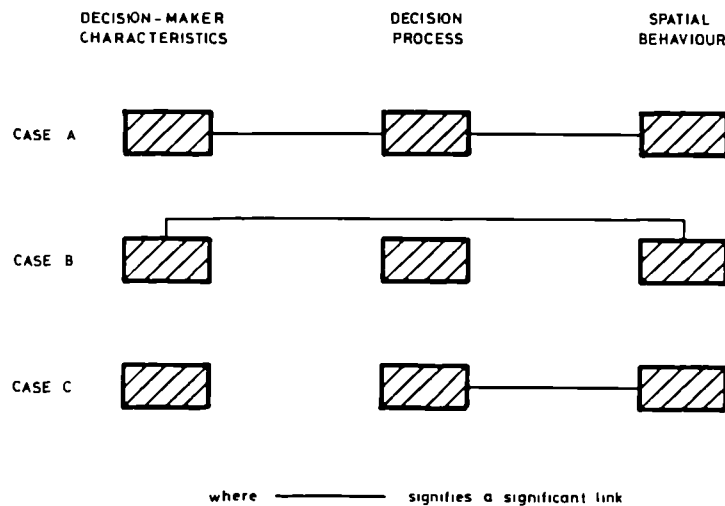
CHAPTER NINE

THE DESTINATION DECISION AND SPATIAL PATTERNS OF PACKAGE HOLIDAYMAKING

9.1 GUIDELINES FOR ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The aim of this chapter is to explain the spatial behaviour of package holidaymakers by examining both their characteristics and destination decisions. Three types of variable are therefore analysed, and it is the arrangement of correlation between these that is the core of explanation (see diagram 38). Log-linear modelling is used almost exclusively, because it tests for multivariate correlation

Diagram 38 : Correlation arrangement and the explanation of spatial package holidaymaking patterns



simultaneously. The three forms of association shown on diagram 38, are:

1. Case A. Behaviour is explained according to both the destination decision and decision-maker characteristics. All three elements are significantly linked, such that different individuals undergo differing

decision-making processes, which is reflected in measured destination patterns.

2. Case B. Here variation in behaviour is only accountable to the participant's characteristics. The decision process fails to distinguish between different individuals and their contrasting behaviour. Under such conditions, respondent X may choose to visit resort Y for the same reasons an entirely different character, Q, visits a contrasting resort R.

3. Case C. This is an equally valid form of correlation, for the explanation of behaviour rests more with the destination decision than with the holidaymaker's characteristics.

A fourth category exists of course; correlation between decision-maker characteristics and the destination decision, where spatial patterns remain independent. This is rarely used. The lack of linkage with behaviour measures means spatial patterns are not explained, whilst it also encourages undue emphasis to be placed on the decision itself. This is not in keeping with the ultimate aim of the research, nor its geographical provenance.

9.2 RELATIVE DESTINATION LOCATION

9.2.1 Representation

Two variables are used to represent relative location; travel time (hours) and distance (km). These are measured between the home and the holiday destination (defined here as the resort visited). Since one

of the main facets of tourism is the movement of people, relative location is assumed to be important. By examining both measures, the dominant constraint on movement may be uncovered. This is particularly interesting in the case of the package holiday, because it has generally made movement easier through the provision for ready-made travel and accommodation. Control over movement may well be a function of journey time and not just linear distance.

9.2.2 Travel time

Those factors exercising a significant effect on travel time are shown on diagram 39. Bearing in mind the correlation between travel time and transport mode (see section 8.1.3.), it must be noted that travel time here does not take into account the type of transport used.

Travel time is generally an outcome of holiday careers (that is, age and previous holiday experience, both according to the destination decision), and economic controls (which are not reflected in destination choice). Rarely are other explanatory leads recovered.

As travel time increases, the likelihood of destination choice resting on direct resort experience declines. This may be because distant destinations are less likely to have been visited previously. Under such conditions alternative information sources are employed - usually the tour operator brochure. This is contrary to expected findings when the effect of perceived risk is considered, for if risk is assumed to be positively related to journey time, then the risk tied to long journeys is expected

Diagram 39: Elements in the explanation of travel time

DECISION FACTOR

	IN	:	INFO	:	RESORT:	PLACE	:	RESORT	:	:	PROFILE	:
	COMBINATION	:	SOURCE:	:	RANGE	:	SPECIF-	:	QUALITIES:	:	FACTORS	:
	WITH	:	:	:	:	:	ICITY	:	:	:	ACTING	:
		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	ALONE	:
	SEX	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	AGE	:	*	:	:	:	+	:	:	:	+	:
P	MARITAL STATUS	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
O	FAMILY STATUS	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	+	:
P	DECISION TYPE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
U	EDUCATION	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	+	:
L	OCCUPATION	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	*	:
A	PAID LEAVE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
T	INCOME	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
I	CAR OWNERSHIP	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
O	WORK QUALITY Ø	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	* AB	:
N	LEISURE LIFE-	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	STYLE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	PPHE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	*	:
	PFHE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	AAHF	:	*	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	*	:
	H1 TYPE	:	+	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	*	:
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WHERE Ø : particular work quality member specified
 PPHE : previous package holiday experience
 PFHE : previous foreign holiday experience
 AAHF : average annual holiday frequency (over the last 2 yrs)
 H1/H2: previous main holiday/previous main holiday but one
 * : significant at the 5% level
 + : significant at the 10% level
 A : physically strenuous
 B : supervisory status

to be displaced by dependence on 'internal' information sources, i.e. those lacking the commercial orientation of the brochure, and which are more readily trusted. Risk, therefore, does not necessarily affect behaviour in this way, and, despite Nolan's (1974) findings, it may be that information sources do not vary in their reliability and credibility. Alternatively, as previously mentioned, proximity of the destination to the home may determine the use of direct experience in destination choice. This is an explanation favoured when the predictive role of holiday careers is further examined, particularly as represented by age.

Holidaymaker age, primary information source, and journey time are all significantly related ($p = 0.0275$). There is a tendency to use informal information sources (the advice of friends, and the participant's own experience) for journeys lasting less than 12 hours. As journey times increase, so does the use made of brochures. This trend is not similar for travellers of all ages, however; it is much more noticeable for younger travellers than for older travellers. Of those below 29 years who travel for more than 12 hours, 70% rely on commercial brochures for resort information. Amongst those of a similar age travelling less than 12 hours, far less dependence on brochures is exercised (table 59). From this table the greater use of personal experience by pensioners should be noted (53%). Unlike the younger traveller, this proportion does not decline significantly as journey time increases: 43% of pensioners travelling more than 12 hours still use this source. Although the proportion of under 29 year olds travelling for 12 hours or less (68%) is not markedly greater than the proportion of pensioners (60%), these differences are significant when the information sources used are taken into account. Additionally, the holidaymaker travelling for more than 12 hours is usually a young individual choosing a destination on account of

Table 59 : Age and information sources of those travelling
for less than 12 hours

Primary Info. Source (% using) :	AGE	
	16 - 29 year olds	Pensioners over 64 years
Brochures	35.3	31.6
Own experiences	23.5	52.6
Friends/relatives advice	41.2	15.8

information provided in brochures. A smaller proportion (40%) of pensioners behave in this way. Alternatively, many holidaymakers travelling for 12 hours or less tend to be pensioners dependent on their own experiences. The greater proportion of younger travellers dependent on this source (24%) than amongst those travelling for 12 hours or more (3%) is an important finding. It shows there is a willingness to use informal information sources whenever possible. The young holidaymaker travelling to distant locations may not have access to such information, and so turns to the tour operator brochure. This seems an enforced preference, for once 'closer' resorts are visited (which the respondent is more likely to have previously visited), then the young traveller tends to draw on his/her own experiences (although still not as frequently as the brochure). The greater travel experience of older holidaymakers explains why this trend declines amongst pensioners, though it is also a function of their greater tendency to travel less than 12 hours. This may well be due to the lack of directly applicable experience. That is, in the absence of informal information about time - distant locations, the young traveller is prepared to rely on the information provided by brochures. Pensioners are less prone to do so, for it seems they are less likely to place their trust in brochures. Their lack of confidence may well be represented in journey times. This tentative suggestion is clarified by comparing the place specificity of both young and old travellers. Age,

specificity and journey time are significantly correlated ($p = 0.7000$), systematic variation most pronounced for holidaymakers completing their journey in 12 hours or less. Amongst these travellers, the tendency towards place specificity increases with age; 86% of pensioners are resort specific, compared with only 24% of those below 29 years of age. These differences are less evident amongst holidaymakers travelling for more than 12 hours, who are typified largely by their tendency to be region or country specific. This is true for all age groups. However, amongst those who are resort specific, 80% are over 45 years of age. Conversely, 64% of those expressing no preferences whatsoever fall into a similar age group. Clearly then, holidaymakers travelling for more than 12 hours are not so easily categorised.

This variation might be explained by reference to the information sources used, for it is likely that the majority of pensioners travelling for more than 12 hours, who are resort specific, are those who base their decisions on their own previous experiences. This is a logical assumption, though one that cannot be statistically proved due to the very large sample required for such dataset fragmentation. Nonetheless, it seems that direct knowledge of the holiday destination is likely to prompt a specific preference to visit that destination. This is a process experienced by more elderly travellers who choose a destination reached within 12 hours, than by those visiting a destination more than 12 hours away. Their decision process seems a very deliberate one; it rarely relies on outside information, but places greater trust on personal experience. If this is interpreted as a strategy for risk reduction by elderly holidaymakers, then this is further supported when it is considered that a specific preference for a particular, known resort, is likely to be exercised.

The decision process of those prepared to travel for more than 12 hours, particularly amongst younger travellers, owes far less to the accommodation of risk. The information sources used, and place specificity exercised, reflect this trend. Age affects this relationship by determining breadth of previous holiday experience. Though there is a willingness to substitute brochures for informal and seemingly more trustworthy information, this is not commonly an option open to younger travellers on account of their relatively restricted previous travel experience. Their lack of resort specificity suggests that a shortage of direct personal experience detracts from the ability to maintain strict locational preferences over holiday choice. Familiar amongst young holidaymakers whose chosen destination can only be reached in 12 hours or more, this represents a decision process in direct contrast to that exercised by the older traveller, specifically visiting a resort with which they are familiar, and which generally requires less than 12 hours travel.

Explanation so far is clearly dependent on a progression of holiday careers through the life cycle. In addition to age, this contains a second element; previous holiday life-style. This has already been referred to during the previous discussion. Excluding specific past information, the following generic holiday life-style measures and destination choice information combine to influence journey time:

1. Annual holiday frequency and information sources ($p = 0.0469$).
2. Annual holiday frequency and desired resort characteristics ($p = 0.0363$).
3. Past package holiday experience and desired resort characteristics ($p = 0.0327$).

1. HOLIDAY FREQUENCY AND SOURCES OF INFORMATION

In line with the assumption that as breadth of travel experience and holiday frequency increase, so too does the likelihood of destination choice based on direct personal experience, it is not surprising to find that the majority of holidaymakers using their own experience have taken at least one holiday every year since 1982. This is a tendency more frequently encountered amongst those travelling more than 12 hours (95%) than those travelling for less than 12 hours (84%). Conversely, regular annual holidaymakers choosing a destination within 12 hours travel show a greater propensity to act on the advice of friends (96%, compared to 77% of time-distant travellers). Less use of these informal sources is made by infrequent holidaymakers, who display greater dependence on tour operator brochures. This confirms the logical assumption that holidaymakers travelling at least once every year, on account of their greater travel experience, are more likely to use this experience when choosing their holiday destination.

2. HOLIDAY FREQUENCY AND RESORT CHARACTERISTICS

There is a tendency for holidaymakers travelling for more than 12 hours to do so in search of a favourable climate and attractive beach/sea amenities. Though those in search of a destination centered on entertainment facilities (nightlife and shopping in particular) show little variation, those in search of a quiet, scenic location generally undertake shorter journeys (see table 60).

This trend is exaggerated amongst non-regular holidaymakers, of whom 95% travelling for more than 12 hours do so in

Table 60 : Travel time, desired resort characteristics and the regular annual holidaymaker

TRAVEL TIME	DESIRED RESORT CHARACTERISTICS - % SEEKING		
	Favourable climate, beach/sea facilities	Busy resort, nightlife, entertainment	Scenic, peaceful, with 'local' flavour
12 hours or less	43.9	13.5	42.6
More than 12 hours	60.4	10.4	29.2

search of a favourable climate and good beach/sea facilities (c.f. 60% of regular holidaymakers, as shown on table 60). The destination requirements of regular travellers are better balanced between the three categories. It may well be that those taking a holiday once every two years or more require longer journeys on account of their more ambitious holiday plans, which their financial resources will support only biennially. Their greater propensity for journeys lasting 12 hours or more, in search of a good climate and beach/sea facilities, supports this suggestion.

3. PACKAGE HOLIDAY EXPERIENCE AND RESORT CHARACTERISTICS

Alternatively, irregular travellers are less likely to have taken a package holiday in the past ($p = 0.0801$). The first-time package holiday buyer seems most likely to choose a mainstream tour operator product (those unashamedly based on climate, beach and sea facilities). This type of destination, by the very nature of the facilities on offer, takes longer to reach: almost twice the proportion of

holidaymakers travelling for more than 12 hours, seeking a good climate and beach/sea facilities, have no previous package holiday experience (24%), than do those travelling for 12 hours or less (14%). Travel time is therefore a function of previous package holiday experience, and the effect this has on desired resort characteristics. The outcome, as represented in expressed behaviour patterns, underscores the role of the resort offering a good climate and beach/sea facilities as a convenient and often used entry-point for first-time buyers in the package holiday market.

Correlation amongst specific previous holiday measures supports these findings; journey time is largely a function of the holiday career. In short, previous travel experience determines the information sources used, place specificity and desired resort characteristics, which is then often reflected in journey times.

Single predictors provide additional perspectives on behaviour. Despite assumptions to the contrary, the presence of young children does not seem to constrain the time spent travelling. In fact, though correlated ($p = 0.0685$), there is a tendency for shorter trips to be conducted by holiday parties without children. This is not a function of young parents desiring a warm climate and good beach/sea facilities, even though this is the traditional focus of the family holiday. If indeed this is the case, it is not manifested through journey time ($p = 0.2151$), though this may become apparent when resort type is examined. Even though the type of holiday may depend on family status, the relative ease of packaged travel means that young children are no longer a reason for avoiding long

journeys over 12 hours. It is hard to envisage a similar situation amongst independent travellers, irrespective of the resort qualities sought after. Greater convenience, and the provision of in-travel services, seems to have released family package travel from the traditionally assumed constraints on travel times imposed by the presence of young children.

Both education and occupation are related to journey time ($p = 0.0786$ and 0.0131 respectively). The better educated, and indeed professional persons and managers, display a tendency for trips lasting less than 12 hours (see table 61). In the absence of any intervening association with

Table 61 : Travel time and economic parameters

A : EDUCATION	TRAVEL TIME (%)	
	12 hours or less	More than 12 hours
Minimum age school leavers	59.4	40.6
Sixth form stayers and beyond	73.6	26.4
B : OCCUPATION		
Professionals and managers	76.4	23.6
Manual workers	57.4	42.6

decision variables, it is likely that this trend is simply a function of the preference expressed by these individuals for air, rather than coach, transport (see section 7.5.1.). The next section examines the effect of these two measures on journey distance, and supports this explanation. This aside, it is important to note that this is the first of many instances where spatial behaviour patterns are an outcome of economic factors which seem to by-pass the decision-making process - a finding to

be discussed further in the remainder of this chapter. For the time-being, it is useful to recap on the main determinants of journey time according to age and previous holiday life-styles. In general, older people possessing a wide range of previous holiday experience are likely to use this in their choice of destination. This facilitates greater specificity, and is often associated with journeys completed in less than 12 hours. Previous package holiday experience is the norm. According to holiday life-style measures, a relatively high proportion of such travellers seek peaceful, scenic destinations, or, to a lesser extent, those offering a wide variety of entertainment facilities. Overall, the elderly holidaymaker is characterised by modest and conservative holiday plans.

The relatively restricted previous experience of younger travellers, together with their more ambitious plans, promotes a different decision-making process, largely characterised by dependence on tour operator brochures (though informal sources are used whenever possible) and a subsequent loss in specificity. These travellers tend to take longer journeys, probably on account of their desire for a favourable climate and good beach/sea facilities. This is particularly true for travellers (of all ages) who fail to take an annual holiday each year.

9.2.3. Journey distance

Linear distance (km) is the measure of relative location most frequently used in population movement studies. Four categories are analysed here, measuring straight line distance from Hull to the chosen holiday destination; upto 750 km, 751 - 1400 km, 1401 - 2600 km and over

2601 km. Distance variation is largely accounted for by age, and, to a lesser extent, previous holiday life-style. Economic predictors are also significant, though again they by-pass decision-making measures. Journey distance and travel time therefore share similar explanation. This is apparent on diagram 40, which outlines the predictive factors behind journey distance.

Age, primary information source and journey distance are all significantly correlated ($p = 0.0008$). For journeys below 750 km, over half of those holidaymakers relying on the advice of friends are below 44 years of age (55%). Only 14% of those over 45 years rely on this source, personal experience being most widely used. As distance increases, so too does dependence on brochures for information, particularly amongst younger holidaymakers. The young long distance traveller is far more dependent on brochures than older long distance travellers, who generally make use of personal experience or comments passed from friends and relatives (see table 62). This reflects either variation in the previous experience that

Table 62 : Long haul travellers+ and their information sources

INFORMATION SOURCE (%) using	AGE	
	16 -44 year olds	over 45 year olds
Brochures	63.3	30.9
Own experience	15.6	30.9
Friends	21.1	38.2

+ those travelling 1401 km or more

can be called on, which generally increases with age, or the greater trust and familiarity with tour operator brochures enjoyed by younger travellers. Whatever the reason for this variation, the simultaneous

Diagram 40: Elements in the explanation of journey distance

DECISION FACTOR

	IN	:	INFO	:	RESORT	:	PLACE	:	RESORT	:	:	PROFILE	:
	COMBINATION	:	SOURCE	:	RANGE	:	SPECIF-	:	QUALITIES	:	:	FACTORS	:
	WITH	:	:	:	:	:	ICITY	:	:	:	:	ACTING	:
		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	ALONE	:
	SEX	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	AGE	:	*	:	+	:	:	:	*	:	:	+	:
P	MARITAL STATUS	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
O	FAMILY STATUS	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	*	:	:	*	:
P	DECISION TYPE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
U	EDUCATION	:	:	:	:	:	+	:	:	:	:	:	:
L	OCCUPATION	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	*	:
A	PAID LEAVE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
T	INCOME	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	*	:
I	CAR OWNERSHIP	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	*	:
O	WORK QUALITY Ø	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
N	LEISURE LIFE- STYLE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	PPHE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	PFHE	:	:	:	:	:	+	:	:	:	:	*	:
	AAHF	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	H1 TYPE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	H1 LOCATION	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	H2 TYPE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	*	:
	H2 LOCATION	:	*	:	*	:	+	:	:	:	:	:	:
	DECISION FACTORS:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	ACTING ALONE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	*	:	:	:	:

WHERE Ø : particular work quality member specified
 PPHE : previous package holiday experience
 PFHE : previous foreign holiday experience
 AAHF : average annual holiday frequency (over the last 2 yrs)
 H1/H2: previous main holiday/previous main holiday but one
 * : significant at the 5% level
 + : significant at the 10% level

decline of brochure use and journey distance suggests the brochure acts only as a substitute where informal sources are unavailable.

The previous section (9.2.2) has already shown that previous direct experience determines the ability to exercise resort specificity in holiday choice. Here this finding is fully endorsed: 80% of the over 45's travelling 2601 km or more consider only one resort. Amongst holidaymakers below 30 years of age, only 11% are so specific. As distance to the resort decreases, so too does the strength of this trend (see table 63). The young traveller seems most prone to the effect that increasing journey distance has on the likelihood of previous direct experience, and the subsequent lack of place-specificity this implies.

Table 63 : Age, journey distance and the number of resorts considered

DISTANCE TO RESORT (km)	% OF 16-44 YEAR OLDS PINPOINTING ONE RESORT ONLY
≤ 750	44.0
751 - 1400	23.8
1401 - 2600	17.8
≥ 2601	11.0

The findings so far are strengthened by the fact that as single items, age and journey distance are related ($p = 0.0743$); as age increases, so the distance travelled to reach a holiday destination decreases. Bearing in mind the associations outlined so far, this may be due to the preference of older holidaymakers to use their own travel experience rather than information provided in brochures, and to be more specific in their choice of destination. This may well be a risk reduction strategy in response to perceived holiday risk. Alternatively, variation in journey distance may be due to the type of resort sought after.

This is certainly true for all travellers (see table 64), for desired resort characteristics and journey distance appear closely related ($p = 0.0000$).

Table 64 : Desired resort characteristics and journey distance

QUALITIES SOUGHT AFTER	DISTANCE TO RESORT (%)			
	≤ 750	751 - 1400	1401 - 2600	≥ 2601
Favourable climate, beach and sea	9.5	25.0	57.2	8.3
Varied nightlife, busy, and shopping facilities	47.3	15.8	31.6	5.3
Local flavour, scenic and peaceful resort	43.1	27.5	19.6	9.8

Those in search of a warm climate and good beach/sea facilities generally travel furthest. The majority (57%) travel between 1401 and 2600 km, indicative of the location of many Mediterranean resorts in this band which offer these amenities. Only a small proportion travel either less than 750 km or more than 2600 km. Holidaymakers in search of busy, lively resorts offering a wide range of entertainment largely fall into two bands; upto 750 km (47%) and between 1401 and 2600 km (32%). These two categories are very likely to include traditional British and Mediterranean seaside resorts, respectively, where man-made entertainment facilities are numerous. By contrast, the holidaymaker in search of a scenic, peaceful location rich in local flavour, tends to find suitable resorts far closer to home: 71% travel less than 1400 km, 61% of these reaching their destination within 750 km.

The relationship between desired resort characteristics and journey

distance is maintained when both the effects of age ($p = 0.0099$) and family status ($p = 0.0124$) are considered. Taking age first, younger holidaymakers prefer resorts offering attractive beach/sea facilities, and which enjoy a warm, sunny climate. They are apparently prepared to travel further to enjoy these facilities. The following subsidiary trends also emerge in the evaluation of distance categories:

1. Holidaymakers travelling upto 750 km are dominated by those in search of scenic, peaceful locations, of whom all are over 45 years of age (27% of these being pensioners). The majority in search of entertainment facilities are also pensioners (56%), representation within this category falling with a decrease in age. There is a similar trend amongst holidaymakers seeking an attractive climate and beach/sea facilities, for older travellers clearly perceive they can enjoy such facilities without travelling more than 750 km. This is not the case amongst younger holidaymakers.
2. A similar trend represents the behaviour of those travelling between 751 and 1400 km. However, 72% of those seeking a warm climate and good beach/sea facilities are below 45 years of age. This therefore marks a major shift in the composition of these travellers.
3. Amongst those travelling between 1401 and 2600 km, the preference of elderly holidaymakers for scenic, peaceful locations is maintained. There are two further interesting points worthy of mention. The profile of sun/sea/sand-seekers shifts once more, for many are late middle-aged (46%). This compares with 16 - 29 year olds (15%), 30 - 44 year olds (25%) and pensioners (14%). Contrary to previous

results, the majority of holidaymakers seeking entertainment and nightlife facilities are less than 30 years old (67%). Thus, there emerges two distinct categories of mainstream Mediterranean package holidaymaker in this distance band : the young individual mainly in search of lively, entertaining resorts, and the middle-aged holidaymaker seeking a favourable climate and beach/sea facilities.

4. Very few long haul holidaymakers travelling more than 2601 km seek entertainment facilities. Middle-aged holidaymakers tend to visit warm resorts with beach/sea facilities, whilst those in search of local flavour tend to be below 30 years old (60%). The long haul package tourist travelling in search of indigenous local environments, according to both landscape and culture, is usually the young holidaymaker. They probably represent the closest form of package tourist to Cohen's (1972b: 49-50) 'explorers and drifters' (see section 3.2.1.).

The distance travelled to reach a holiday destination is also a function of family status ($p = 0.0010$), for 63% of all holidaymakers accompanied by infants upto the age of six travel between 751 and 1400 km. Travellers without infants tend to visit either a destination within 750 km or between 1401 and 2600 km from home. Few (19.3%) travel between 751 and 1400 km, which curiously enough represents that band of resorts most commonly visited by families with infants. This is partly explained by the resort qualities sought, for young families have a strong preference for resorts offering a good climate and beach/sea facilities, and accordingly travel more than 751 km. Package holidays have therefore

effected a shift in the traditional seaside family holiday, away from nearby UK destinations towards more distant Mediterranean locations. Destinations closer to home are only attractive to the young family seeking a scenic, peaceful location: 63% in search of these amenities travel less than 750 km. The presence of young children does not restrict journey distance. Indeed, the reverse is true. This is a function of the resort facilities sought after by most young families on holiday. There is a suspicion, however, that the unaccompanied adult in search of sun, sea and sand avoids similar resorts which may be frequented by young families. Since the latter tend to travel between 751 and 1400 km (63%, regardless of desired resort characteristics, but 40% of those in search of sun, sea and sand), the majority of those travelling between 1401 and 2600 km to secure such facilities are unaccompanied adults. The resort popular with young families is thus likely to be avoided by those without young children. This is almost certainly due to a conflict of interests.

In comparison with the evidence accumulated for travel duration, holiday life-style measures fulfil only a secondary role in the explanation of journey distance (see diagram 40). Nonetheless, the story told by those relationships that are significant remains the same; greater previous holiday experience allows a specific choice of destination early in the holiday decision-making process, particularly for long haul travellers over 45 years old. Of more interest is the close correlation between journey distance and previous but one annual holiday location, via the following decision measures :

1. primary information source ($p = 0.0461$)
2. number of resorts considered ($p = 0.0398$)
3. place specificity ($p = 0.0722$)

Most holidaymakers currently travelling less than 750 km took their last

but one holiday in the UK, and base their resort-specific decisions on personal experience. It is interesting that there is no similar correlation between distance and previous annual holiday location. The three instances of association with most recent but one location suggests a genuine link that does not occur by chance. This finding prompted a further set of enquiries by telephone with a small sample of 30 individuals exhibiting the link. Just under half (43%) indicated that they could only afford their 'main' holiday only once every two years. The intervening annual holiday was seen as a cheap alternative which would preserve savings and still allow a holiday to be taken. This is more frequently encountered amongst 'low income' earners (57%) than high income earners (31%). This allows a first choice of holiday every two years, and is indicative of alternating biennial behaviour. Unfortunately, it cannot be substantiated without more detailed holiday information stretching back several years, but for the time-being remains an interesting, if tentative, finding.

In general, the more distant the destination, the greater the cost of the holiday+. There is much scope in theory, therefore, for economic factors to exert a considerable influence over journey distance. This they do, though it is not manifested in different decision-making processes. The only exception to this is the role of education. Non-significant as a single predictor ($p = 0.4700$), education combines with place specificity to influence journey distance significantly ($p = 0.0644$). As distance increases, so too does the proportion of non-specific travellers who have received higher education (see row 1, table 65). Conversely, as distance increases, so minimum age school leavers are more likely to be resort

+ $p = 0.0449$ for a random sample of 200 holidays selected from the 1985 summer brochures of five tour operators.

Table 65 : Education, place specificity and journey distance

TRAVELLER TYPE	DISTANCE (KM)			
	≤ 750	751 - 1400	1401 - 2600	≥ 2601
A : % of non-specific decision-makers in each distance category who have received higher education	0	12.5	28.6	33.3
B : % of minimum age school leavers in each distance category who are resort specific	50	23.8	38.6	46.2

specific (row 2, table 65). The high figure recorded for journeys upto 750 km may be due to spatial proximity and familiarity. If knowledge and awareness of the world increase with more advanced education, which should subsequently prompt greater place specificity, these findings are contrary to those expected. This is not readily explained. It may, however, be due to the information sources used. The well-educated traveller may choose a distant location which is known only through past academic encounters, which create location awareness rather than specific knowledge. The less-educated traveller, in the absence of such awareness, may need to turn to more specific information sources, including the tour operator brochure , or the advice of friends. These two sources are certainly more frequently used by the less-educated, long distance traveller; of journeys above 1401 km, 70% of all those using brochures or the advice of friends are minimum age school leavers. However, as awareness through education is not recorded as an information source, this explanation cannot be further explored in this study.

The effects of remaining economic factors on journey distance, without recourse to decision measures, are easier to quantify. Occupation, car ownership and income are all significantly correlated with journey

distance ($p = 0.0415$, $p = 0.0021$ and $p = 0.0418$ respectively). Each displays a similar trend; as economic well-being increases, so too does journey distance. There is no logical reason why car owners per se should travel further on holiday, so this is dismissed as a surrogate measure for income. The effect of occupation is similarly discarded. Although a greater proportion professional respondents and managers (22%) than manual labourers (6%) travel more than 2601 km, the only logical reason for this is on account of their greater income. It might be argued that this may be due to the greater international travel experience of professionals and managers through business, which helps to break down mental barriers associated with long haul travel, or stimulates interest in far-away places. If so, this should be reflected either in the information source used, or in place specificity. Neither display any significant three-way correlation with occupation and journey distance ($p = 0.1391$ and $p = 0.8445$ respectively).

Income therefore emerges as the primary single economic influence behind journey distance. High income earners are likely to travel further to reach their holiday destination than low income earners (see table 66). This is obviously a function of rising holiday cost with increasing distance to the holiday destination. It is interesting, however, that this is not manifested in the holiday decision-making process. Whilst

Table 66 : Journey distance and income

INCOME	DISTANCE (%)			
	≤ 750 km	751 - 1400 km	1401 - 2600 km	≥ 2601 km
≤ £8000/year	31.5	21.8	38.0	8.7
≥ £8001/year	14.1	24.7	45.9	15.3

generally travelling further, the high income earner is no more specific

than the low income earner. Neither are different information sources employed in holiday choice. Most important of all, neither traveller differs on account of the resort qualities sought after. The wealthy holidaymaker generally travels further in search of the same amenities than the less wealthy traveller (see table 67). Obviously, this reflects the choices available to the two different types of decision-maker, for the high income earner is more likely to be able to afford expensive holidays to distant locations.

Table 67 : Journey distance, income and desired resort characteristics

DISTANCE (KM)	INCOME CATEGORY (%)							
	A		B				C+	
	Above £8000 pa	Below £8000 pa	Above £8000 pa	Below £8000 pa	Above £8000 pa	Below £8000 pa	Above £8000 pa	Below £8000 pa
≤750	33	67	41	59	0			100
751 - 1400	38	62	64	36	50			50
1401 - 2600	48	52	60	40	50			50
≥2601	52	48	100	0	0			100

A % in each income category seeking sun, sea and sand

B % in each income category seeking a scenic, peaceful location

C % in each income category seeking entertainment facilities

+ The figures in this column are unreliable due to very low cell frequencies which may distort patterns in the data.

This explanation is not entirely watertight, for it does not explain why the wealthy respondent travels further (and therefore incurs greater expenditure) when lower income holidaymakers choose an equally suitable destination that is much nearer to hand. Unless financial considerations are of no consequence whatsoever, this behaviour is irrational, for there is no reason for additional expenditure given the destination solution of low income earners. Psychological factors may play a role here. There may well be a distance below which the holidaymaker does not feel that he or she is "getting away from it all". There is good reason to accept this notion, since in many cases local amenities are rejected in favour of

similar facilities whose only tangible advantage over the home location is their greater distance from the everyday environment. Informal discussion supports this notion; 73% of those going on holiday to secure a sun tan admitted they would still go should suitable weather be guaranteed at home. This critical psychological distance threshold is a function of holiday intentions, itself an outcome of the respondent's perception of the type of holiday that is affordable. Holiday aspirations are thus a function of income. The respondent with a very limited budget in search of sun, sea and sand is likely to be content with a suitable destination closeby. For the more wealthy traveller, knowing that a more distant resort could be chosen (and is affordable), is likely to significantly reduce the satisfaction derived from visiting this nearby destination. Income therefore determines purchasing power, which in turn influences the traveller's critical perceived distance limit. In order to exceed this threshold, and therefore optimise the holiday experience, the high income earner, accompanied by more ambitious holiday aspirations, travels further than the lower income earner to reach the holiday destination, even though both may seek similar facilities. Thus, income may influence journey distance without appearing to correlate with decision measures. This may well constitute 'status' behaviour.

9.3 HOLIDAYS AT HOME AND ABROAD

As shown on diagram 41, the elements explaining choice of destination country (used here to distinguish between domestic and foreign holidays) are more numerous and complex than those influencing either travel time or journey distance. The simple domestic/foreign dichotomy used means that destination country is effectively a measure of

Diagram 41: Elements in the explanation of destination country

DECISION FACTOR

	IN COMBINATION WITH	INFO SOURCE	RESORT RANGE	PLACE SPECIFICITY	RESORT QUALITIES	PROFILE FACTORS ACTING ALONE
	:	:	:	:	:	:
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	SEX	:	:	:	:	:
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	AGE	:	*	:	:	*
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
P	MARITAL STATUS	:	:	:	:	:
O	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
P	FAMILY STATUS	:	:	:	:	:
U	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
L	DECISION TYPE	:	:	+	*	*
A	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
T	EDUCATION	:	:	:	*	+
I	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
O	OCCUPATION	:	*	:	:	:
N	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	PAID LEAVE	:	:	:	:	*
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	INCOME	:	*	+	:	:
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
C	CAR OWNERSHIP	:	:	:	:	:
H	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
A	WORK QUALITY Ø	:	:	:	:	:
R	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
A	LEISURE LIFE-STYLE	:	:	:	+	:
C	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
T	PPHE	:	:	:	*	:
E	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
R	PFHE	:	:	:	*	:
I	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
S	AAHF	:	:	:	:	*
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
C	H1 TYPE	:	+	:	:	:
S	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	H1 LOCATION	:	:	+	:	:
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	H2 TYPE	:	:	:	:	:
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	H2 LOCATION	:	*	*	+	*
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	DECISION FACTORS:	:	:	:	:	:
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	ACTING ALONE	:	:	:	+	*
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WHERE Ø : particular work quality member specified
 PPHE : previous package holiday experience
 PFHE : previous foreign holiday experience
 AAHF : average annual holiday frequency (over the last 2 yrs)
 H1/H2: previous main holiday/previous main holiday but one
 * : significant at the 5% level
 + : significant at the 10% level

relative location (whilst possessing sufficient interpretative meaning of its own for individual analysis), so it is not surprising to find that age and holiday life-styles exercise an important explanatory role. Rather than explaining relative location in terms of travel time or journey distance, the main purpose here is to outline the fundamental characteristics that distinguish the domestic package holidaymaker from the foreign package holidaymaker. Given the dominance of foreign package tours, this may well yield valuable information about the potential market for domestic packaged travel.

Examining the decision process only, destination country is significantly correlated with both *place specificity* ($p = 0.0547$) and *desired resort characteristics* ($p = 0.0001$), though not with primary information source ($p = 0.2142$). A similar proportion of domestic and foreign travellers use tour operator brochures as the primary source of information (36% and 37% respectively), although personal experience is more often cited by the domestic holidaymaker (36% compared with 26%). The domestic traveller, however, tends to be more specific over destination choice (see table 68), probably because the probability of familiarity increases with resort proximity. These travellers are very different from foreign holidaymakers on account of the resort characteristics they seek. Foreign holidaymakers tend to travel in search of a good climate and beach/sea facilities. The domestic tourist is more inclined to seek scenic, peaceful locations offering plenty of local charm and 'flavour' (see table 69)

These tendencies vary according to the holidaymaker's age. Domestic package holidays are generally the preserve of the elderly; 85% of respondents over 45 years visit a resort in the U.K. (just under half of

these are pensioners). By comparison, 90% of individuals aged between 16 and 29 years take a holiday abroad. These differences are reflected in their decision-making processes. The patterns here are very similar to those accounting for variation in travel time and journey distance. Three-way correlation links age and destination country through both primary information source ($p = 0.0247$) and desired resort characteristics ($p = 0.0333$). Quite simply, the older, domestic traveller tends to choose

Table 68 : Destination country and place specificity

SPECIFICITY (% who are :)	DESTINATION	
	U.K.	ABROAD
Resort specific	42.2	29.8:
Region specific	36.8	22.6
Country specific	10.5	25.0
Non-specific	10.5	22.6

Table 69 : Destination country and desired resort characteristics

DESIRED RESORT CHARACTERISTICS (% seeking :)	DESTINATION	
	U.K.	ABROAD
Favourable climate, beach/sea	19.4	63.6
Entertainment, nightlife, busy	19.4	9.1
Local flavour, scenic, peaceful	61.2	27.3

a resort according to previous experience of that location, whilst the majority of younger, foreign travellers use tour operator brochures. Swapping roles, the younger domestic traveller acquires informal information through friends, whilst for pensioners at least, even if travelling abroad, the preference for personal experience is maintained. Once more a substitute role may be ascribed to the brochure in the absence of informal information. Amongst older travellers, rarely is even this status achieved, which implies a lack of trust, and with it a preference

for a satisfying holiday experience in a known locality. The chance for optimising, in an unknown resort which may well prove more enjoyable than those visited to date, is dismissed on account of the greater risk involved because no personal experience can be called upon to assist the holiday decision. The older traveller seems more cautious, and accordingly is more likely to visit known locations, which in turn leads to domestic travel. Other factors are at play however. Older folk visit domestic destinations because these offer the resort qualities they seek. They have no need to travel further afield. The majority seek scenic, peaceful locations, many of which can be found in the U.K. Conversely, many younger travellers seek a good climate with beach/sea facilities, which leads 94% to destinations abroad. An equal proportion of all age categories seek entertainment facilities; 70% of those over 45 years find a suitable resort within the U.K., whereas 83% of those 44 years and younger (of whom three-quarters are between 16 and 29 years) travel abroad. This is probably due to the different type of entertainment offered at home and abroad. In U.K. resorts this is largely traditional, and is founded on stage shows, cabaret and dance. The entertainment offered in foreign resorts, particularly along the Mediterranean coast, is of a very different nature. Here, nightclubs, informal sporting events and bustling bars are often the norm. It is these ingredients which account for much of the success of tour operators catering specifically for young travellers abroad. Club 18 - 30 holidays are a prime example.

Constituting further evidence of the primary explanatory role of holiday careers, generic holiday life-style measures are closely correlated with

destination country. The main links are with :

1. Past package holiday experience and place specificity (p = 0.0279).
2. Previous foreign holiday experience and place specificity (p = 0.0075).
3. Annual holiday frequency and desired resort characteristics (p = 0.0377).

These findings are not discussed at length, for they are similar to those outlined in section 9.2. In general, greater previous package holiday experience (in terms of type and location) facilitates greater choice specificity, particularly amongst domestic travellers. The holidaymaker who has only ever travelled within the U.K., however, is not as place specific as the foreign holidaymaker with previous experience of trips abroad; 38% of U.K. holidaymakers who have not been abroad are resort specific, whereas 87% of foreign travellers with previous experience abroad specify one resort. This may well reflect the greater financial risk tied to foreign travel. Curiously, 56% of travellers abroad for the first time are country specific. Few are either non-specific (6%) or resort specific (22%). This yields some interesting clues as to the nature of their holiday decision-making process. Identifying a country they wish to visit may assist holiday choice by narrowing options down from the large number of holidays on offer. It essentially adds a degree of certainty (or manageability) to holiday choice. Their lack of relevant experience, however, means more specific preferences are only acquired later, when various alternatives are considered. By specifying a country, the first-time traveller abroad creates a framework through which many of the unknown elements of holiday choice, not least of which is the enormous range of alternative destinations, are sorted.

Analysis of specific holiday life-style measures uncovers one consistent

finding; current choice of destination country appears more closely correlated with the previous but one holiday location than the location visited on the most recent occasion (see diagram 41). The most recent but one location correlates with destination country alone ($p = 0.0001$) and jointly with several decision measures; primary information source ($p = 0.0355$), the range of resorts considered ($p = 0.0429$) and place specificity ($p = 0.0706$). Travellers currently visiting the same destination as on the previous but one occasion tend to use personal experience on which to base their more specific choice of destination. This constitutes further evidence of biennial holiday location behaviour, whilst again highlighting the need for specific information over a much longer period of time before such results can be substantiated.

The findings so far are similar to those already outlined in section 9.2. Analysis by destination country also reveals additional correlation which helps distinguish the domestic package holidaymaker from the package holidaymaker abroad. The first of these is decision type. Individual decision-makers are more likely to be resort specific if travelling abroad (see table 70). Joint decision-makers reverse this trend, which may well be due to perceived risk and the insecurity felt when surrounded by the unfamiliar. A travel companion may well nullify these feelings when abroad. The single holidaymaker, however, may find similar support from acquaintances made during the journey. Though independent, and to some extent socially confident, it is easier to make such contact when there are no language or cultural barriers. The assurance that this type of contact will be readily encountered means the single holidaymaker remaining in the British Isles can afford to be less specific. Indeed, they may well wish to wander freely, safe in the knowledge that there are few barriers to communication. Without these assurances, the strategy of

the single traveller abroad is to visit a specific destination. This explanation is endorsed by looking at the resort characteristics

Table 70 : Destination country and place specificity of individual decision - makers

A: TRAVELLERS ABROAD	INDIVIDUAL TRAVELLERS
SPECIFICITY (% WHO ARE :)	
Resort specific	24.0
Region specific	21.0
Country specific	6.4
Non-specific	10.7
B: DOMESTIC TRAVELLERS	
SPECIFICITY (% WHO ARE :)	
Resort specific	0
Region specific	14.3
Country specific	2.5
Non-specific	50.0

sought by individual travellers; 43% to domestic locations seek entertainment facilities, though only 18% to foreign destinations do so. True, this may reflect the climatic appeal of foreign countries, but it also suggests that the confidence required of single travellers has a social parallel in the resort characteristics they seek. Resorts offering a wide variety of entertainment facilities are perhaps more conducive to the social contacts the single traveller feeds off. They are more likely to be resorts within the U.K. simply on account of barriers to communication in resorts abroad.

As uncovered in the previous section, spatial patterns of package holidaymaking are partly influenced by economic factors. A notable difference here is that correlation is dependent on the intervening role of decision measures. The previously outlined relationships between economic factors and journey distance appear to by-pass holiday choice. This may well be due to the differing sensitivity of the behaviour measures used. The domestic/foreign dichotomy representing destination country uncovers correlation that might otherwise be confused if three or four destination categories were used. This suggests the simple separation of domestic and foreign package holidaymakers is particularly valid. There appears no need to classify according to continent, or individual country. Instead, the real distinction lies between package holidaymakers at home and abroad. This reveals valuable information about destination choice.

The effect of education on destination country is channelled through place specificity ($p = 0.0389$) and desired resort characteristics ($p = 0.0796$). The mechanisms behind association between education and specificity are similar to those proposed for similar correlation in section 9.2.2., and are not discussed further. Education alone fails to significantly influence destination country ($p = 0.4190$). However, the difference between holidaymakers in the U.K. and abroad is significant when resort characteristics are considered. A similar proportion of those in search of sun, sea and sand who travel abroad are either minimum age school leavers (88%) or have received higher education (94%). However, a greater proportion of minimum age school leavers who seek entertainment facilities (67%) travel abroad than do those with higher education qualifications (41%). This may well reflect the type of entertainment provided in continental package holiday resorts, and the type of customer they

attract. Conversely, the 'better' educated in search of scenic, peaceful locations of great character are more likely to travel abroad (80% do so) than their less-educated counterparts (51%). Thus, entertainment facilities and scenic, peaceful qualities are those resort characteristics which help distinguish the domestic traveller from the foreign traveller according to education. The domestic holidaymaker rarely seeks sun, sea or sand, but typically comprises 'less' educated individuals in search of quiet, scenic surroundings, or 'better' educated travellers in search of entertainment facilities. This does not reconcile with the assumed profile of patrons of the traditional British entertainment-based resort (particularly those by the sea), because those travelling either to large cities (such as London) for a holiday (which is well-served by a wide range of entertainment and shows, including theatres), or to special cultural events such as the Edinburgh Festival, are included in the analysis of domestic tourists.

Correlation between paid leave, resort characteristics and destination country ($p = 0.0417$) provides some interesting information about the status, and nature, of the annual holiday. If time off work is restricted, the most common means of recuperation is the Mediterranean holiday; 82% of those with less than 15 days paid leave seek the sun, sea and sand when they take a foreign holiday. This is the main outlet for such individuals. Those with more time off follow this 'standardised' route less frequently (in 64% of all cases), for they clearly have more scope to experience different types of holiday in different surroundings. Being able to take time off at other times in the year suggests they are under less pressure to experience a complete change in environment during their main annual holiday. Accordingly, many domestic holidaymakers are those with more than 15 days paid leave, of whom three-quarters are in

search of peace and quiet in scenic surroundings, without undue need for particularly warm, sunny weather.

Using occupation and income as working measures of economic well-being, it is statistically misleading to depict the foreign traveller at economic advantage to domestic holidaymakers. As single predictors of destination country, occupation and income are not significant ($p = 0.1923$ and $p = 0.1087$ respectively). Take into account the information sources used, and such a distinction can be statistically supported ($p = 0.0077$ for occupation, and $p = 0.0423$ for income). An equal proportion of manual labourers and professionals or managers use their own experience if travelling to destinations in the U.K. (approximately half in each case). Amongst foreign travellers a different pattern emerges. Manual workers abroad are three times as likely to use operator brochures than if travelling in the U.K., whilst only 18% base their decisions on personal experience. Conversely, 66% of foreign holidaymakers using personal experience are professionals and managers. Once more this suggests that informal sources dominate, the brochure fulfilling a substitute role when this is not available.

This variation may be due to the effects of income. Professional and managerial respondents are likely to enjoy higher incomes, which is likely to increase the probability of them having previously visited a specific resort, through the greater opportunities for foreign travel that a higher income facilitates. Analysis of income and information sources shows this is unlikely to be the case, for it is not evident in the relationship between the use of personal experience and destination country (see table 71). Variation in destination country according to occupation and

information sources used is not a function of income. The most likely explanation therefore is that professional and managerial occupations are more likely to involve international travel than manual occupations. This may well include visits to, or trips through, locations to which the respondent returns for a holiday. This accounts for variation in the

Table 71 : Income, information source and the holiday destination

A: FOREIGN TRAVELLERS		INFORMATION SOURCE (% citing :)		
Income		Friends	Brochures	Personal Experience
< £8000		38.9	31.5	29.6
> £8001		34.7	43.5	21.8
B: DOMESTIC TRAVELLERS				
Income				
< £8000		14.3	72.7	13.0
> £8001		60.0	30.0	10.0

the information sources used, and the significant difference between manual workers using brochures, and professional and managerial decision-makers using direct personal experience, to help choose a foreign holiday destination. It also provides some interesting implications concerning the effects of business travel on holiday travel.

Finally, destination country is an outcome of the combined effect of leisure life-style and place specificity ($p = 0.0860$). Amongst domestic travellers, those whose leisure activities are focused on the home tend to be place specific. Conversely, individuals spending much of their leisure time socialising and getting out of the home to meet people, are characterised by their lack of specificity when choosing a foreign holiday (49% are non-specific). There seem to be certain parallels between an individual's personality (according to their leisure time

activities) and their approach to holiday choice. The gregarious, sociable decision-maker seems to have a flexible, open-minded approach to holiday choice. This goes hand-in-hand with a preference for foreign travel. The home-based leisure seeker, possibly less adventurous and socially orientated in their choice of leisure activities, has a more conservative and 'failsafe' approach to the choice of holiday destination. They prefer the certainty and assurances provided by specifying a resort or area early in the decision-making process. Given this background, it is not surprising to find that they are also less likely to travel abroad.

The explanation provided above is clearly a tentative one. Nonetheless, the message it contains is amply founded in logic; that is, attitudes towards leisure choice, as interpreted from other forms of leisure behaviour, influence the holiday decision-making process and subsequent travel behaviour. This type of explanation has a great deal in common with the psychological basis for distinguishing between the domestic and foreign holidaymaker. Whereas journey distance is founded on objective categories according to strict linear distance, the domestic/foreign holidaymaker dichotomy is a more subjective one. The meaning of this classification, in real terms, seems partly dependent on personal inertia towards foreign travel. This is due to cultural and linguistic differences, which together with geographical contrast, confronts the traveller abroad with unfamiliarity that may threaten the feeling of personal security. This tests the traveller's confidence. Rarely does the domestic holidaymaker encounter these challenges. It is subjective factors such as these (i.e. the very stigma attached to going abroad on holiday), which may have historical roots in the U.K.'s isolated location as an island, that play a part in the effect exerted by age, previous holiday experience, business travel and attitudes towards travel, on the

decision to take a domestic or foreign holiday.

9.4 DESTINATION CHARACTERISTICS; ABSOLUTE LOCATION

9.4.1 Holidays on the coast and inland

The coastal/inland destination dichotomy is largely an experimental one. Coastal and inland resorts generally offer the holidaymaker different facilities. Coastal resorts often provide a unique combination of sea bathing and beach amenities. Scenic coastal stretches are numerous in Europe (particularly in Greece and Yugoslavia), as well as around the United Kingdom, but sandy beaches and bathing facilities dominate the resorts catered for by tour operators. The package tourist in search of natural, scenic countryside is better served by the inland resorts on offer. There is a danger here, however, that interpretation strays too far from the behaviour measures on which it is founded. If explanation of inland or coastal preferences should turn to the different type of facilities offered, then this is covered in the following section (although the resort categories used do not ensure complete overlap). This strips the coastal/inland dichotomy of its most accessible source of explanation. Given the coverage provided in the following section, the analysis here only attempts to uncover any raw differences between the coastal visitor and the traveller inland. These are simply described. On completion, an alternative interpretation is presented, prior to straightforward analysis of resort type, which caters for the possible distinction between holidaymakers by the sea and inland according to destination facilities.

From diagram 42 it is apparent that coastal and inland holidaymakers rarely differ according to their profile characteristics, decision processes, or a combination of both. In particular, correlation significant at the 5% level is largely restricted to single predictors.

These are :

1. desired resort characteristics (p = 0.0000)
2. education (p = 0.0286)
3. occupation (p = 0.0273)
4. work quality - 'routine' (p = 0.0102)

The strict correlation between desired resort characteristics and the coastal/inland split simply supports the approach adopted by this section. It directs emphasis towards the type of resort rather than explaining the distinction between inland and coastal destinations without recourse to the facilities offered. This correlation is therefore considered more closely in the following section.

The three variables listed above are further evidence of predictive economic factors by-passing the decision process. If it is assumed that higher education, professional and managerial status, and varied occupations, are all indicative of economic well-being, then inland resorts are more likely to be visited by holidaymakers enjoying relative economic advantage. Coastal resorts ^{are} more frequently visited by those of lesser economic status (see table 72). These preferences are not significant when either education or occupation are examined taking desired resort characteristics into account (p = 0.6886 and p = 0.3550 respectively).

In fact, very few profile measures exert a significant influence on the coastal/inland dict^{ho}omy when decision measures are considered (see diagram 42). Most noticeable by its absence here is the explanatory role of

Diagram 42: Elements explaining the coastal/inland dichotomy

DECISION FACTOR

	IN	:	INFO	:	RESORT	:	PLACE	:	RESORT	:	PROFILE	:
	COMBINATION	:	SOURCE	:	RANGE	:	SPECIF-	:	QUALITIES	:	FACTORS	:
	WITH	:		:		:	ICITY	:		:	ACTING	:
		:		:		:		:		:	ALONE	:
	SEX	:		:		:		:		:		:
	AGE	:		:		:	+	:		:	+	:
P	MARITAL STATUS	:		:		:		:		:		:
O	FAMILY STATUS	:		:		:	+	:		:		:
P	DECISION TYPE	:		:		:		:		:		:
U	EDUCATION	:		:		:		:		:	*	:
L	OCCUPATION	:		:		:		:		:	*	:
A	PAID LEAVE	:		:		:		:		:		:
T	INCOME	:		:		:	+	:		:		:
I	CAR OWNERSHIP	:		:		:		:		:		:
O	WORK QUALITY Ø	:		:		:		:		:	*A	:
N	LEISURE LIFE-	:		:		:		:		:		:
	STYLE	:		:		:		:		:		:
	PPHE	:		:		:		:	+	:		:
	PFHE	:		:		:		:		:		:
	AAHF	:		:		:		:		:		:
	H1 TYPE	:		:		:		:		:		:
	H1 LOCATION	:		:		:		:		:		:
	H2 TYPE	:		:		:		:		:		:
	H2 LOCATION	:		:		:	*	:	+	:		:
	DECISION FACTORS:	:		:		:		:		:		:
	ACTING ALONE	:		:		:		:	*	:		:

WHERE Ø : particular work quality member specified
 PPHE : previous package holiday experience
 PFHE : previous foreign holiday experience
 AAHF : average annual holiday frequency (over the last 2 yrs)
 H1/H2: previous main holiday/previous main holiday but one
 * : significant at the 5% level
 + : significant at the 10% level
 A : routine

holiday careers. Amongst generic holiday life-style factors, only past

Table 72 : Three measures of economic well-being, and expressed preference for coastal or inland holiday destinations

RESORT LOCATION (% expressing preference for) :		
A : EDUCATION	Inland	Coastal
Minimum age school leaver	11.3	88.7
6th form school and above	25.0	75.0
B : OCCUPATION		
Manual	2.1	97.9
Managers and professionals	18.4	81.6
C : WORK QUALITY		
Routine	1.9	98.1
Varied	19.7	80.3

package holiday experience, in combination with desired resort characteristics, registers a significant effect ($p = 0.0548$). First-time package holiday buyers typically visit coastal resorts in search of sun, sea and sand. A greater proportion of inland holidaymakers are repeat buyers, many of whom travel in search of entertainment or peaceful, scenic surroundings. The warm, sunny resort by the sea, with an accessible beach, seems the most effective tool for the tour operator to attract new customers. Whether or not these individuals have previously travelled abroad, or how frequently they take their holidays, does not seem particularly important.

Age too, previously a primary explanatory factor, plays a diminished role. The coast appeals equally to all age groups, though a greater preference for inland destinations is expressed by pensioners (see table 73). Apart from this decline late in the life cycle, the seaside resort enjoys a

ubiquitous appeal to travellers of all ages. Its popularity is almost universal. Taking into account changes in behaviour through the

Table 73 : Inland and coastal resorts, and holidaymaker age

AGE (in years)	RESORT LOCATION (% expressing a preference for:)	
	Inland	Coastal
16 - 29	12.9	87.1
30 - 44	11.4	88.6
45 - 64	14.7	85.3
≥ 65	31.4	68.6

life cycle, the charm and drawing power of coastal resorts is unlikely to decline given the wide range of current visitors to the coast. Amongst such visitors, the elderly are more specific; 63% of coastal visitors over the age of 64 are resort specific, whilst only 15% of 16 to 29 year olds exercise such specificity. This is likely to be a simple function of resort proximity (already outlined in sections 9.2.3. and 9.2.4.), for the coastal resorts visited by the elderly tend to be close to home, often within the U.K. Resort-specific choice is therefore an outcome of the increased likelihood of previous visits. Conversely, younger travellers tend to be more specific than older travellers when visiting inland locations. This is because the older holidaymaker may simply travel in search of a peaceful, scenic setting. The younger traveller, however, may well seek particular facilities in line with specific holiday objectives, such as rock-climbing and mountaineering.

A further predictive role may be ascribed to specificity with both family status ($p = 0.0531$) and income ($p = 0.0859$). In the case of the latter, inland visitors are strongly represented by place-specific, high income earners. Again, this may well be a function of specific holiday objectives : the wintersports package holidaymaker readily springs to

mind. A similar explanation may account for the greater proportion of resort specific families visiting inland locations (75%) than coastal resorts (25%). This suggests that specific intentions are not a characteristic of the traditional family holiday by the sea. Indeed, there is little reason to suspect that the package holiday has diminished this function. Correlation between family status alone, and the inland/coastal resort dichotomy, is not significant ($p = 0.7020$), simply because the rising popularity of coastal resorts with unaccompanied adult travellers obscures the fact that so many (87%) young families on holiday visit the coast.

So far, highlighting differences between coastal and inland holidaymakers has not been accompanied by a thorough interpretation of results. This is because the bulk of explanation naturally seems dependent on the facilities offered by each type of resort. These are discussed in the following section. Are there any further intrinsic differences between the coastal and inland resort that explain the contrasting type of holidaymaker they attract? Resort popularity and crowding seems to provide one plausible theme for interpretation. It is true that this overlaps with desired resort characteristics, but not to the extent of rendering this explanation invalid. Consider the main facilities frequently found in a coastal resort. A sandy beach and suitable waters for bathing are often very close to the resort they serve. Convenience is a key factor. Purpose-built resorts are often sited as close to these facilities as possible. Entertainment and shopping facilities also bow to convenience, and are frequently located near to the centre of the settlement. In short, many facilities constituting the main appeal of the coastal resort are highly clustered. Accordingly, there tends to be a marked spatial concentration of visitors who travel to enjoy these

facilities.

The appeal of inland resorts tends to be spatially diffuse. Aside from urban centres, the very appeal of many such resorts lies in the solitude they offer. The mountain village is a good example. Apart from essential stores, the main facilities offered are the hills and mountains that surround the villages. By their very nature these tend to be scattered, and a similar pattern is generally exhibited by visitors to the locality. Thus, resort crowding is a function of the spatial spread of tourist facilities. Greater holidaymaker concentrations are found at coastal than inland resorts simply due to the clustering of attractions. However, this is only a general rule. There are many stretches of coastline more desolate than popular inland destinations. As local centres for the Bernese Oberland, the mountain villages of Grindlewald and Lauterbrunnen suffer badly from congestion during the peak summer months. These exceptions apart, the coastal visitor is more likely to experience crowding than the inland traveller. A desire to either secure or avoid the company of fellow travellers, whilst on holiday, may well account for the differences between coastal and inland visitors outlined in this section.

9.4.2 Resort qualities

Resorts covered in the research are placed into one of the following three categories for analysis :

1. Beach and sea centres, offering a wide range of recent facilities for sport and entertainment.

2. Resorts based on an old infrastructure, in quiet locations - coastal or inland.
3. Special activity centres, based largely on historical and/or cultural points of interest, or mountains and tied facilities for recreation.

Elements playing an influential role in the choice of resort type are shown in diagram 43. Amongst single predictors, two trends are apparent; the strong association between desired resort characteristics and resort type ($p = 0.0001$), and the greater significance of economic factors when decision measures are not taken into account. The first of these is expected. The majority (74%) of holidaymakers in search of a favourable climate and beach/sea facilities visit resort type one (hereafter referred to as recent seaside resorts). These same resorts tend to be the destination of travellers seeking entertainment and varied nightlife (53%). Curiously, one quarter of visitors to these resorts travel in search of scenic, peaceful surroundings.

More traditional resorts (often peaceful and served by an ageing infrastructure), which may provide a wealth of local character, are most often visited by the traveller requiring a peaceful, scenic holiday location. Resort qualities sought after, and those prevalent at the resort actually visited, are therefore significantly connected, despite the fact that the categories by which they are represented are not strictly comparable. However, the overlap of categories also suggests a degree of mis-perception, for there are holidaymakers in search of quiet, peaceful locations who actually visit recent seaside resorts with their wealth of 'socialising' and entertainment facilities. Rarely may these be termed 'quiet' or 'peaceful'. Either perception of the resort's

Diagram 43: Elements in the explanation of resort type

DECISION FACTOR

	IN	:	INFO	:	RESORT	:	PLACE	:	RESORT	:	PROFILE	:
	COMBINATION	:	SOURCE	:	RANGE	:	SPECIF-	:	QUALITIES	:	FACTORS	:
	WITH	:		:		:	ICITY	:		:	ACTING	:
		:		:		:		:		:	ALONE	:

	SEX	:		:		:		:		:		:

	AGE	:		:		:		:		:		:

P	MARITAL STATUS	:		:		:		:		:		:
O		:		:		:		:		:		:
P	FAMILY STATUS	:		:		:		:		:		:
U		:		:		:		:		:		:
L	DECISION TYPE	:		:		:		:		:		:
A		:		:		:		:		:		:
T	EDUCATION	:		:		:		:		:	*	:
I		:		:		:		:		:		:
O	OCCUPATION	:		:	+	:		:		:	*	:
N		:		:		:		:		:		:
	PAID LEAVE	:		:		:		:		:		:

	INCOME	:		:		:		:		:		:

C	CAR OWNERSHIP	:		:		:		:		:		:
H		:		:		:		:		:		:
A	WORK QUALITY Ø	:		:		:		:		:	*A	:
R		:		:		:		:		:		:
A	LEISURE LIFE-	:		:		:		:		:		:
C	STYLE	:	*	:		:		:		:		:
T		:		:		:		:		:		:
E	PPHE	:		:	+	:		:		:		:
R		:		:		:		:		:		:
I	PFHE	:	+	:	*	:	*	:		:		:
S		:		:		:		:		:		:
T	AAHF	:		:		:	*	:		:		:
I		:		:		:		:		:		:
C	H1 TYPE	:		:		:		:		:		:
S		:		:		:		:		:		:
	H1 LOCATION	:		:		:	*	:		:		:

	H2 TYPE	:		:		:		:		:		:

	H2 LOCATION	:	*	:		:	*	:	+	:	*	:

	DECISION FACTORS:	:		:		:		:		:		:
	ACTING ALONE	:		:		:		:	*	:		:

WHERE Ø : particular work quality member specified
 PPHE : previous package holiday experience
 PFHE : previous foreign holiday experience
 AAHF : average annual holiday frequency (over the last 2 yrs)
 H1/H2: previous main holiday/previous main holiday but one
 * : significant at the 5% level
 + : significant at the 10% level
 A : supervisory status

personality is inaccurate , or to some travellers these resorts may actually be perceived as scenic! This mis-match is encountered too frequently to be ignored. In a significant proportion of cases, however, the resort qualities sought after and those actually at the location visited, are similar. This does not often vary according to the decision-maker's characteristics. The appeal of different types of resort is ubiquitous; the young visit recent seaside resorts for the same reasons as the elderly, and the rich for the same reasons as the poor.

Reverting back to the possibility of mis-perception, examining correlation more closely reveals anomalies that require further investigation. Three population variables are extracted for this purpose; age, family status and income. Irrespective of the holidaymaker's characteristics, desired destination qualities correlate closely with resort type ($p = 0.0001$), a relationship not maintained, however, when age, family status or income are considered ($p = 0.7703$, $p = 0.2123$ and $p = 0.4998$ respectively). This in itself is acceptable. On their own, however, all three population measures display significant correlation with desired resort qualities, these being :

Age	($p = 0.0353$)
Family status	($p = 0.0458$)
Income	($p = 0.0023$)

Now, holidaymaker characteristics correlate with desired resort qualities, and desired resort qualities are related to resort type, but all three are not linked in a systematic manner. Though appearing illogical, there are two possible reasons for this. Either it is a statistical quirk due to the lack of complete overlap representing desired destination characteristics and resort type, or it may be indicative of variation in perception of the holiday destination according to the decision-maker's

characteristics. As table 74 shows, perceptual variation is the most likely cause. As age and income increase, so too does the proportion of holidaymakers seeking either a warm climate, beach and sea facilities, or tranquility and local flavour, who actually visit a resort characterised by these qualities. Visitors to special activity centres are not analysed, because this has no strict equivalent in decision criteria information. It is no coincidence that as age and income increase, so too does the tendency to rely on personal experience as the primary source of information on which the destination decision is based (see sections 9.2.2., 9.2.3. and 9.3.)

Table 74 : Age, income and resort perception

POPULATION MEASURE	% of travellers in search of sun, sea and sand, actually visiting a suitable resort * in each age and income category	% of travellers in search of local flavour, scenery and tranquility, actually visiting a suitable resort + in each age and income category
AGE (in years)		
16 - 29	64.7	20.1
30 - 44	73.3	14.3
45 - 64	75.0	42.9
≥ 65	79.7	43.2
INCOME		
< £8000	70.1	21.4
≥ £8001	79.7	57.9

* i.e. a recent sea/beach resort

+ i.e. a quiet resort with an old infrastructure

Mis-perception of resort qualities is most common amongst those members of the population most likely to rely on brochures for destination choice; younger travellers and low income earners, since both are constrained by relatively limited travel experience to date. A similar trend occurs

amongst holidaymakers taking a package holiday for the first time. The holiday decision made according to brochure information is therefore more likely to result in a mis-match between those qualities sought, and those actually prevalent at the destination, than that based on personal experience. Whilst possessing far-reaching implications for tour operators, this variation in resort perception accounts for the lack of three-way association between a number of population measures, and choice criteria and resort type, when simple two-way association between these measures is commonplace.

Though choice criteria may be similar, it does not necessarily follow that outright behaviour does not vary according to the holidaymaker's characteristics. Indeed, economic factors again seem to by-pass the decision process altogether; resort type is a function of education, occupation and supervisory job status ($p = 0.0091$, $p = 0.0317$ and $p = 0.0139$ respectively). All three measures tell a similar tale; as economic well-being increases (taken in this instance as higher education, and professional and managerial occupations with supervisory status) so the tendency to visit a recent seaside resort decreases. This is illustrated on table 75, where occupation is the example predictor. The recent seaside resort is the most popular destination for minimum age school leavers, manual labourers, and those whose jobs do not involve a great deal of supervision. Proportionately, the most likely destination of professionals and high grade managers are special activity centres; historical/cultural centres in summer, and wintersports resorts during the winter. It is only recently that these holidays have gradually filtered down to reach the mass holiday market, just as summer package holidays did in the 1960's and early 1970's. If the consumer's reception is now as

Table 75 : Occupation and resort type

OCCUPATION	R E S O R T T Y P E (% visiting :)		
	Recent seaside	Older, peaceful	Special activity centres
Manual	73.9	21.7	4.4
Lower management	60.0	25.7	14.3
Upper management and professional	54.1	24.3	21.6

enthusiastic as it was for these summer holidays, then resort type differentiation according to economic factors is unlikely to be as significant once these markets mature. Currently these differences are maintained. Furthermore, place specificity is most likely to be exercised by economically advantaged visitors to special activity centres ($p = 0.0924$, where economic status is represented by occupation). Three quarters of all professionals and managers visiting special activity centres consider only one resort. Only 38% and 29% of similar individuals visiting recent seaside resorts or quiet, scenic locations, do so. Conversely, 72% of manual workers visiting recent seaside resorts do not have a specific destination in mind. This may well be accountable to holiday intentions. The specific, possibly hobby-based objectives of the traveller to activity centres is reflected in their place specificity. Intentions, choice and resort qualities are equally specific, for each is closely tuned to the finely honed purpose of the holiday. Rarely does the beach-goer exercise such well-targetted holiday objectives.

The argument in support of holiday intentions is further validated by the lack of significant correlation between resort type and income ($p = 0.1299$). High income earners do not necessarily exhibit the same tendencies as professionals, managers or the better educated. It is

therefore an intrinsic quality of education and occupation that accounts for observed variation in choice of resort. They are not simply misleading surrogates for income.

Leisure life-style, primary information source and resort type are all significantly linked ($p = 0.0094$), although analysis must be treated with caution on account of the low cell frequencies encountered. This effectively dismisses visitors to special activity centres from further investigation. However, there is undoubtedly a link between the amenities accessible from home (in terms of their use during leisure time) and holiday amenities (according to resort qualities). A greater proportion of visitors to recent seaside resorts are classified as 'social mixers' (51%) than either solitary leisure seekers (31%) or those spending much of their leisure time around the home (18%). Alternatively, half the visitors to older, quieter resorts spend much of their leisure time alone. Only 27% are 'social mixers'. Thus, the type of resort visited is reflected in the amenities used by the holidaymaker, throughout the rest of the year, for their leisure time activities. Furthermore, 'social mixers' destined for modern seaside resorts are nearly three times as likely to use brochures than solitary leisure followers in search of equally peaceful resorts. Many (81%) of these individuals use their own experiences. This might readily be dismissed as a simple function of age, for the age profile of visitors to recent seaside resorts is generally younger than visitors to peaceful, scenic locations. However, as a single factor, age is not significantly associated with resort type ($p = 0.3208$), which suggests a real link lies between leisure-time amenities used at home, and their equivalent in resort characteristics that are sought after at the holiday destination.

The lack of any association between age and resort type (see diagram 43) does question the explanatory value attached to holiday careers as a consequence of extensive association uncovered in earlier sections. It is curious then, that previous holiday life-style measures are so frequently correlated with resort type. This anomaly may well be an outcome of the time-scales involved, and represents one instance where age and holiday life-style parameters can be genuinely treated as separate factors rather than combined to further the explanatory role of holiday careers. The notion of careers emphasises behavioural change through time, according to age and holidaymaking experience. Different behaviours are attributable to levels at different stages in the holiday career, which therefore assumes a dynamic explanatory tag; one which is essentially based on change through time. Generic holiday life-style measures, on the other hand, merely summarise holidaymakers according to past holiday behaviour. There is no continuity, no progression of change, implied here, but simply a summary statement of holiday experience to date. The two are conceptually different. This may well explain imbalance in the explanatory roles ascribed to age and holiday life-style. Resort type is influenced by past holiday experience, without necessarily implicating a progression of change through the life cycle.

A greater proportion of visitors to special activity centres have previous package holiday experience (97%) than either seaside visitors (80%) or those travelling to peaceful locations (82%). The special activity traveller with previous package holiday experience is also most likely to be place specific. Again, this further supports the view that the 'typical' package holiday (that is, in a recently built resort by the sea with a good beach) is the most often used entry point for first-time buyers in the package holiday market. Product experience then may

facilitate more precisely formulated holiday objectives, together with greater specificity and patronage of special activity destinations.

Different types of traveller may be further identified according to the frequency of their annual holidays, particularly when place specificity is taken into account ($p = 0.0971$). The beach visitor is less likely to take a holiday every year than the traveller to special activity centres. Once again, holiday experience is then reflected in choice specificity, for rarely are the inexperienced place specific. A similar pattern distinguishes between holidaymakers who have previously travelled abroad, and those whose holiday experiences are limited to the United Kingdom. Table 76 illustrates the tendency for visitors to special activity centres to be more specific than seaside trippers (though this relationship just fails to register significance at the 10% level, for $p = 0.1041$). It also shows that this trend strengthens for those with previous experience of holidays abroad. In short, according to a wide range of generic holiday

Table 76 : Foreign holiday experience, place specificity and resort type

RESORT TYPE	S P E C I F I C I T Y		
	% Resort specific	% Non-specific	% who are resort specific amongst those with previous foreign holiday experience
Recent seaside	30.4	22.5	63.9
Peaceful, traditional	39.1	17.4	80.1
Special activity centres	40.8	15.0	93.3

holiday life-style measures, the holidaymaker visiting recent seaside resorts is more likely to be a relatively inexperienced traveller than

either the visitor to traditional, scenic locations, or in particular, to special activity centres. Holiday experience thus seems one means of fostering more specific holiday intentions. If so, this is manifested in choice specificity and the more finely tuned demands made on resort facilities.

9.5 DESTINATION CHOICE AND BEHAVIOUR : AN OVERVIEW

Though diverse, the explanatory strands extracted from this chapter constitute a systematic pattern to portray destination choice and behaviour. The main, generalised themes are shown on diagrams 44 and 45. These illustrate the structure of the most important links, and summarise the mechanisms or channels that influence the decision-making process, albeit in a subjective manner. They are intended to provide a greater 'feel' for the destination decision beyond that provided by the matrix of statistical correlation alone.

In summary, the main trends representing the findings in this chapter are as follows :

1. The notion of holiday careers plays a major role in the explanation of destination patterns, according to both age and previous holiday life-style (frequently used as a surrogate for overall travel experience). These factors act both individually, and in combination with decision process measures; primary information sources and place specificity in particular. Only relative location, however, is a clear-cut function of holiday

Diagram 44 : Destination behaviour and explanatory themes; relative holiday location

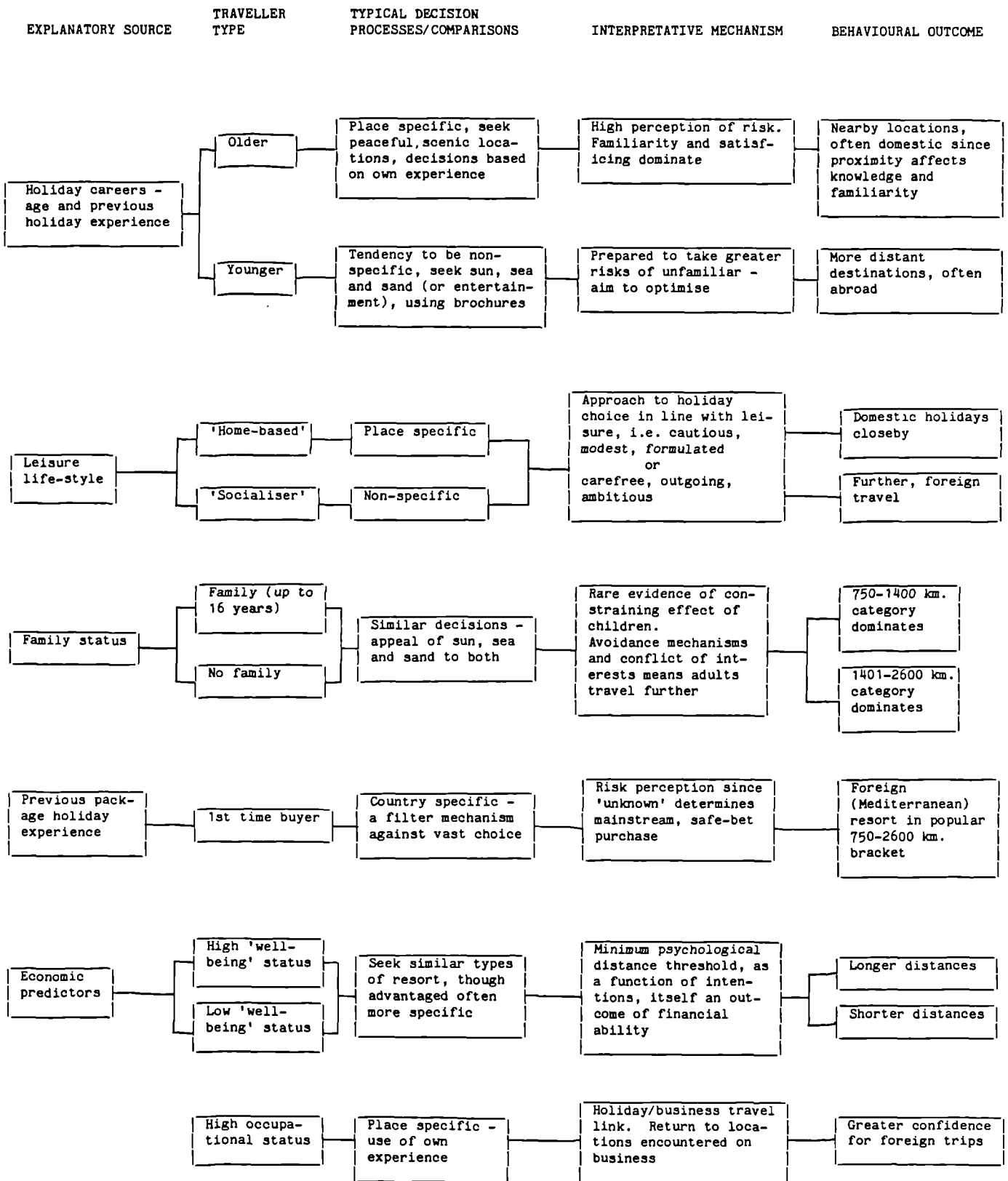
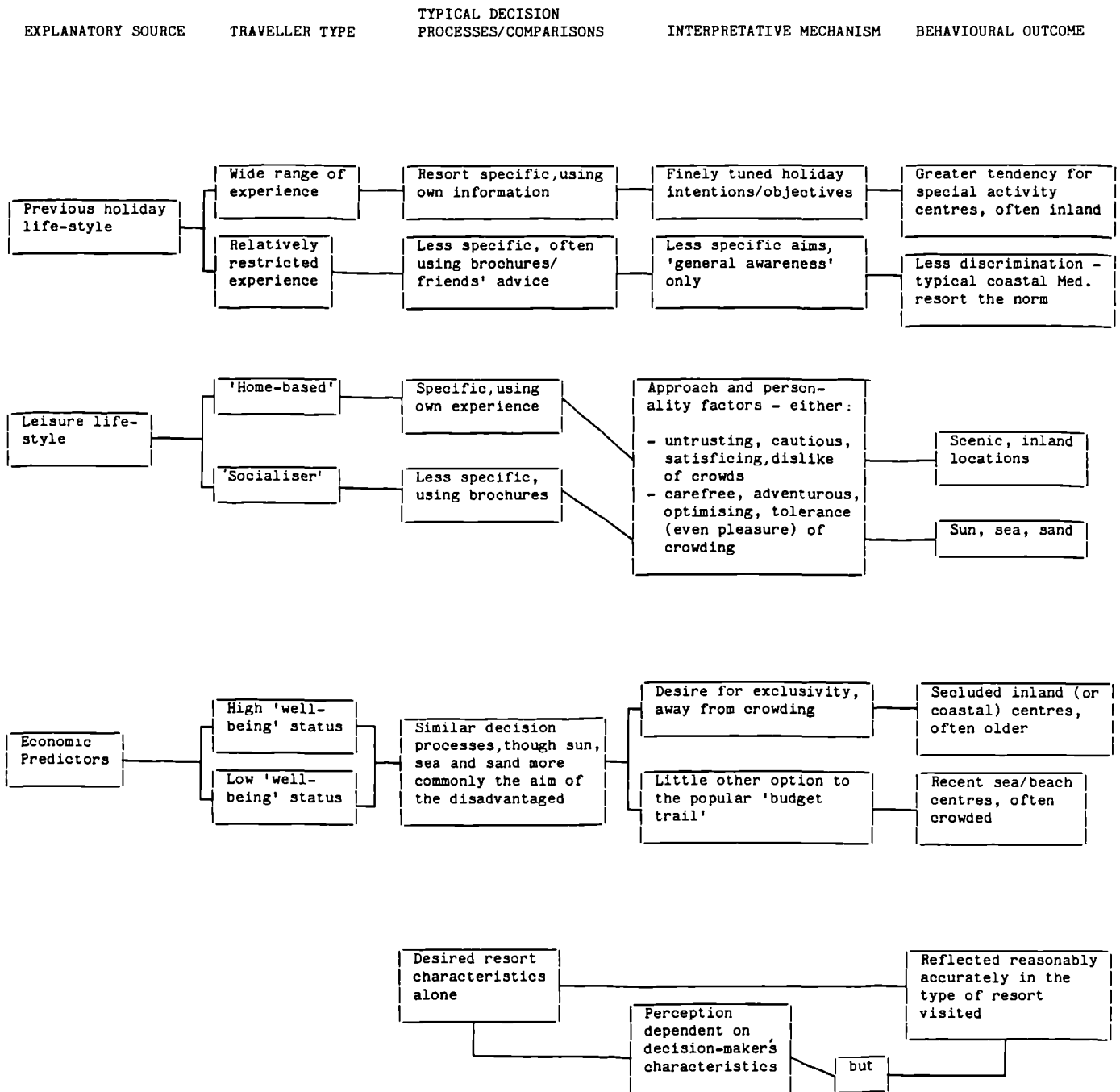


Diagram 45 : Destination behaviour and explanatory themes; absolute holiday location



careers. That is, the career influences spatial movement to the holiday destination more than the type of destination actually visited. This is because one of the main elements of previous holiday experience (familiarity) is largely a function of spatial proximity, for both increase simultaneously. Clearly, this improves the chances of correlation between holiday career measures and relative destination location, for both share a common element; the role of proximity.

2. In most instances, economic measures do influence behaviour, but appear to by-pass the decision-making process. Rarely is three-way association encountered. The decision-making processes of the economically advantaged and disadvantaged seem to follow similar routes; often the same resort qualities are required, for example. Behaviour does vary with economic status however. Greater travel is usually undertaken by higher income earners. There may well be deep-set psychological reasons for this, given the destination solutions of those of lower economic status, and the fact that both may share similar decision criteria. In particular, financial standing determines holiday intentions, which then define a premise that affects resultant behaviour. The minimum psychological distance threshold is a good example, for this is set according to holiday aspirations, themselves driven by the knowledge of what is, and is not, affordable.
3. The most powerful behavioural distinction lies between

domestic and foreign package holidaymakers. Travel time and journey distance are important, as are destination characteristics, but none seem as valid as a method of market segmentation (according to the product) as that distinguishing between domestic holidaymakers and travellers abroad. Many differences separate the two, according to both the holidaymaker's characteristics, and the decisions they make. This suggests that the package holiday has not entirely broken down the aura of foreign travel. It also suggests that national identities may have been blurred by the package holiday, though the distinction between home ground and foreign soil remains a very real one. This may be partly due to perception of holidaymaking abroad, and personal inertia in the face of the unfamiliar. It also serves to underscore a theme recurring throughout the analysis; the prominent role of perceived risk in holiday choice.

4. Relative location appears more valuable in the explanation of behaviour patterns than absolute location (according to the characteristics of the destination). This directs attention towards the significance of spatial proximity, despite the relative ease of packaged travel. In general, movement to the destination seems to be the essence of behaviour, not the type of destination visited. This needs further qualification, however, for the lack of significant correlation controlling absolute location measures may well be an outcome of variation in the perception of a

destination's characteristics according to the type of decision-maker. If so, this undoubtedly obscures many plausible cases for association that are not actually retrieved.

5. Current destination behaviour is more closely associated with the location of the previous but one annual holiday than the most recent holiday location. Though there are several instances of this, amply supported by follow-up qualitative information, the suggestion that behaviour fluctuates biennially (for certain types of holidaymaker, particularly those of lower economic status), requires more exhaustive research covering past holiday histories.
6. Some interesting conclusions may be drawn concerning the tour operator brochure. Though used extensively, there is evidence to suggest that it largely fulfils a substitutive role when more informal sources of information are not available. The exception to this is when it is used in a strictly factual capacity to support finely tuned holiday objectives (for example, as exercised by many visitors to special activity centres). It is a little disturbing to note that the holiday brochure is implicated with the mis-perception of a resort's characteristics more frequently than informal information sources. It must be stressed, however, that this is by implication only, and is not according to strict statistical evidence, though the logic behind this is sound and is based on other statistical relationships uncovered during the course

of analysis.

Thus, the factors at play in the choice of holiday destination are numerous. As evident in diagrams 44 and 45, there are many themes in the interpretation of behaviour. Some of these are substantive; the effect of holiday careers on destination choice and behaviour is a prominent feature of straightforward statistical analysis. Economic factors play an equally significant role, though their interplay with the decision process is not as evident. Other elements of the interpretation presented here are less tangible; personality, attitudes, intentions and the approach to holiday choice all make a valuable, if somewhat less accessible, contribution. The qualitative insight they offer into decision mechanisms, together with the more structured framework of statistical cross-correlation, ensures a thorough appreciation of destination choice, its controlling factors, and the role it plays in the explanation of destination behaviour patterns.

CHAPTER TEN

CONCLUSIONS

10.1 INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

" An explanation cannot stand by itself unrelated to any other knowledge. Indeed more often than not an explanation consists of linking familiar ideas into a new ensemble which accounts for more of observed reality than could the ideas taken individually."

(Anderberg, 1973:21)

These conclusions draw together a wide range of ideas and knowledge that collectively provide a valuable insight into package holidaymaking. Input accrues from diverse literature fields covering a broad remit of different behaviours. Alternatively, the type of information may vary, from informal qualitative comment on the one hand, to strict statistical association on the other : the tentative suggestion may be partnered by unequivocal evidence underscored many times over. Whatever their source, and regardless of the nature of their input, these elements all play a role in the explanation of holidaymaking behaviour. The conclusions here attempt to synthesise these findings into an integrated whole. To do this, the six original hypotheses are first assessed in the light of correlation uncovered during statistical analysis. This leads on to further evaluation of several qualitative themes central to the study of holiday choice. These two forms of information, covering a wide range of literature fields, provide a comprehensive overview of the package holiday; the participant, decision-making processes and their ultimate expression in observed behaviour. This provides a useful platform from which to explore the

implications of these findings (the practical and the theoretical), prior to some final comments about the research and the package holiday trade.

10.2 THE OUTCOME OF HYPOTHESIS TESTING

10.2.1 Holistic hypothesis : Variation in expressed package holidaymaking behaviour is attributable to the differing characteristics of participating individuals.

The response to such an all-encompassing proposal is a necessarily generalistic one. In short, behaviour does vary according to participant characteristics. The original hypothesis is thus accepted. The package holidaymaker and independent holidaymaker can be distinguished to broadly the same extent as home-stayers and all types of traveller, though the means to achieve this are not strictly similar. Likewise, different elements of package holidaymaking behaviour are explained by a variety of distinguishing factors. All clearly warrant further discussion.

Economic and holiday life-style measures provide the principal means of identifying the traveller from the home-stayer (diagram 46). Both are interlinked, suggesting financial constraints on holiday travel are often permanent. Holidaymakers frequently possess higher incomes, and more comprehensive past holiday life-styles, than those staying at home.

'Personal enabling conditions' therefore fulfil a critical role. This is reflected in the frequency with which a 'lack of money' is cited as the main reason for not taking a holiday, a finding in agreement with those of

Diagram 46 : Primary factors in the explanation of holiday participation

PROBABILITY RANGE	H O L I D A Y P A R T I C I P A T I O N			
< 0.01		Income		pphe pfhe
0.01 < p < 0.05	Age ± 70 yrs	Income with pfhe		
0.05 < p < 0.1				
Not significant, but assisting explanation	Family status			

SOCIO DEMOGRAPHIC	ECONOMIC	WORK LIFE- STYLE	LEISURE LIFE- STYLE	HOLIDAY LIFE- STYLE
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P R E D I C T O R G R O U P

WHERE

pphe : previous package holiday experience
 pfhe : previous foreign holiday experience

Morton - Williams (1973 : 5) and Sauran (1978). There is evidence to suggest that if the 'straightjacketing' effect of such financial constraints can be overcome, then the traditionally assumed limiting factors such as the presence of young children, age (at least up to 70 years) and to some extent ill health, may, given willingness on behalf of the participant, fail to play a restrictive role in the decision to take a holiday. There is an important distinction to be made here between palpable and insubstantial obstacles to travel. The former provides no alternative to remaining at home, whilst the latter may be displaced if the will to travel is great enough. It is important to note that insufficient funds may render redundant all other possible secondary reasons for not taking a holiday. Of these, risk is prevalent.

The constraining effect of economic factors is less productive in generating a distinction between independent travellers and package holidaymakers (see diagram 47). This is because the enormous flexibility inherent within self-made arrangements provides great scope for both the most restricted, and extensive, holiday budgets. Freedom of choice provides the most powerful incentive to travel independently. This appeal is reflected in the profile of independent travellers, many of whom are young parent families with young children. A further high proportion are car owners and recipients of educational training beyond the minimum school leaving age; a seemingly important consideration governing 'awareness' of places beyond the everyday home environment, and the unattended execution of travel initiatives. All independent travellers, irrespective of their background, are more loyal to the independent medium than package holidaymakers are to inclusive travel. These findings generally support the original premise on which the distinction between independent and packaged travel was founded; that independent travel is

Diagram 47 : Primary factors in the explanation of holiday type

PROBABILITY RANGE	H O L I D A Y P A R T I C I P A T I O N			
< 0.01	Family status			pphe pfhe
0.01 < p < 0.05		Education		H1 type H2 type
0.05 < p < 0.1				
Not significant, but assisting explanation	Age	Car ownership Occupation Income *		

SOCIO		WORK	LEISURE	HOLIDAY
DEMOGRAPHIC	ECONOMIC	LIFE- STYLE	LIFE- STYLE	LIFE- STYLE

P R E D I C T O R G R O U P

WHERE

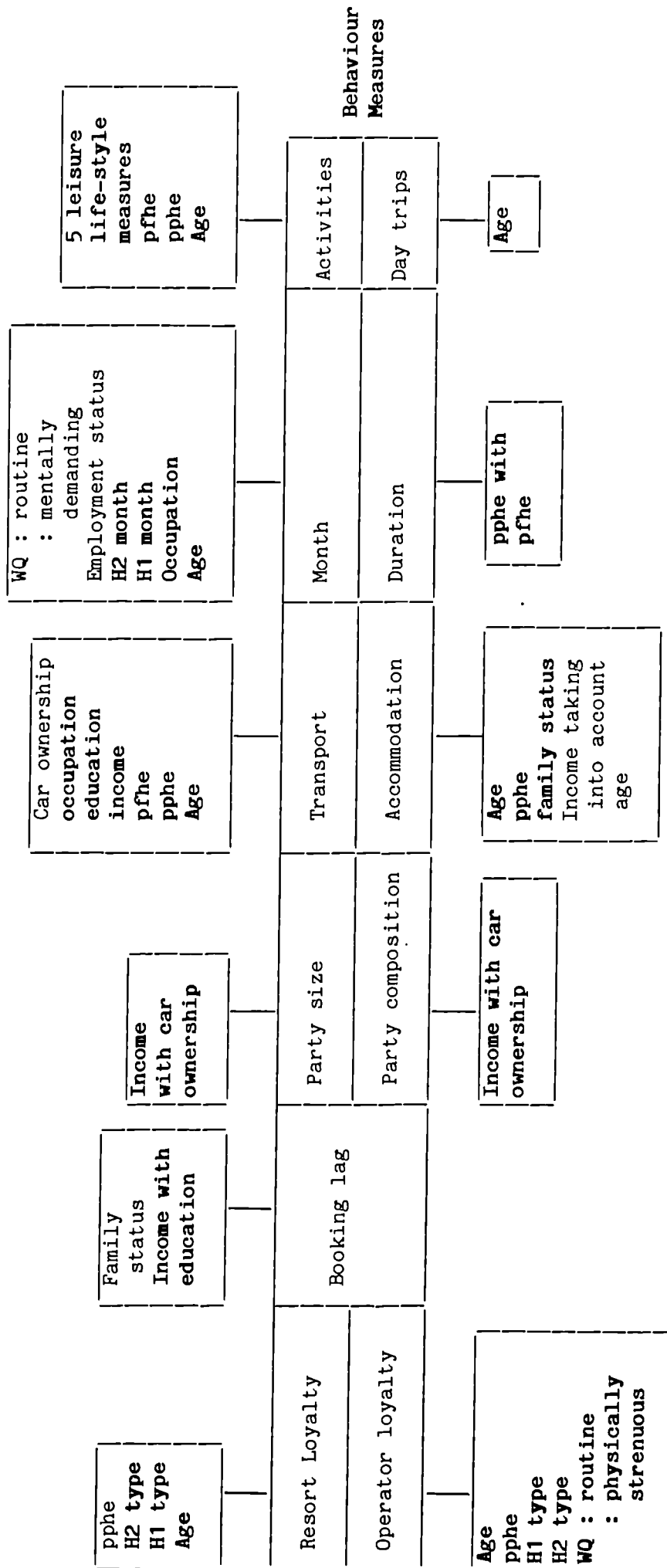
pphe : previous package holiday experience
 pfhe : previous foreign holiday experience
 H1 type : type of holiday taken on last occasion
 H2 type : type of holiday taken on last but one occasion
 * : disregarding 'U' curve relationship

typified by freedom, a lack of choice constraints, and the opportunity to tailor the holiday to the traveller's specific requirements.

By contrast, the package holiday is a much more readily accessible 'product'; all the essential elements of the holiday can be secured in one relatively straightforward purchase. Only minor embellishments are usually available with which the traveller may 'personalise' his or her chosen holiday. Nonetheless, the range of package holidays remains vast. All share one major attribute : by dispensing with the need for extensive (possibly time-consuming) planning before and during the holiday, and by ensuring responsibilities are transferred away from the traveller, the package holiday scores heavily on grounds of convenience. This is reflected in decision criteria. Once again, however, a secondary role is fulfilled by risk. Though not a prime reason for not taking a holiday, or for taking a package tour in preference to independent travel, risk certainly acts as an enforcer in these decisions. This has several important implications which are discussed later in the qualitative evaluation of holiday choice.

The package holiday market is largely characterised by its 'mediocrity'. Even when taking a large number of diverse parameters to encompass all social extremes, the package holidaymaker invariably occupies the median categories. This is typified by the even distribution of occupations, incomes and leisure life-styles. Most package holidaymakers are married, in mid to late middle-age, own a car and receive 15 or more days of annual paid leave. Nonetheless, it is still possible to attribute variation in package holidaymaking behaviour to the characteristics of participating individuals (see diagram 48).

Diagram 48 : Primary factors in the explanation of package holiday habits



WHERE : Factors significant at the 5% level are in bold type
 Factors significant at the 10% level are in normal type
 pphe - previous package holiday experience
 pfhe - previous foreign holiday experience
 H1 - holiday on last occasion
 H2 - holiday on last but one occasion
 WQ - work quality

Resort and tour operator loyalty (the latter the more common) generally pervade amongst older holidaymakers and, not surprisingly, those with previous package holidaymaking experience. Taken together, both forms of loyalty are simply an expression of product familiarity. This may well act as a strategy for risk reduction, reflecting the role of personal inertia to uncharted options, and the pull of force of habit, in holiday choice where risk is perceived.

Booking behaviour is largely an outcome of income and the demand for holiday places. Both trade off against each other. Until recent marketing initiatives taken by Thompsons and Intasun (which largely post-dated this research), 'late' booking immediately prior to holiday departure dates attracted the greatest discounts. Low income earners would be expected to take advantage of this. A larger proportion in fact book early simply on account of the greater demand for budget than up-market package holidays. Conversely, families, in theory, should book early in order to secure all the places they require. Two individuals are often easier to accommodate than five or six. An equal proportion of families book 'late' however, in order to take full advantage of discounting by tour operators. The finely balanced supply and demand relationship therefore means that competition for places determines booking behaviour, over which is superimposed the role of income and the attraction of holiday discounts.

Income, too, is the only intervening factor in the otherwise symbiotic relationship between the household unit and the holiday party. Financial status simply determines the ability to include all household members in the holiday party, for expenditure rises with an increase in the number of

travelling individuals (discounts for children aside, which again have become much more common in the last two years). Unlike more frequent leisure activities, which are often characterised by fragmentation, the holiday usually attracts the entire family household.

Choice of transport is not just a function of age, although the preference of older travellers for coach travel may well be due to the fewer 'changes' involved. This does not entirely explain why this preference emerges amongst 45 year olds and above. Also important is personal inertia in the face of technological developments in transport. A 'fear of flying' is most prominent amongst individuals over the age of 45 simply because, unlike younger travellers, their holiday habits were established at a time when civilian aviation was not a common means of holiday travel. The influence of holiday life-style and education measures endorses this conclusion. Superimposed over this basic pattern is the effect of income, largely on account of the price advantage held by coach transport over air travel. Similar factors may be largely used to explain accommodation options, though economic factors give way to the enhanced role of domestic considerations, illustrated by the preference of families with young children for self-catering arrangements. In the same way that such families often opt for independent travel, it is likely this is a function of the need for outright flexibility.

Freedom over choice of holiday month seems the vital factor in holiday timing. Correlation with occupation and 'supervisory' work status (but not income) demonstrates the importance of decision autonomy enjoyed by professionals and managers. This freedom provides the opportunity for off-peak travel. Pensioners, and those not in employment, exercise a similar preference. Parents even seem prepared to take children off

school to avoid the peak summer holiday period. The tendency to do so decreases as offspring reach the age when examinations are taken that may substantially influence their futures. This simply shows that where freedom pervades the choice of holiday dates, off-peak periods are preferred. Those tied by rigid work shift schedules, or educational commitments, have little option but to travel during the peak summer months. This suggests that package holidays seem to have diminished the importance of travelling in July and August, to enjoy fine weather, by making sunny locations available all year round.

Travel duration provides a valuable insight into holiday decision-making. Despite the relationship between holiday cost and duration, few population measures act as significant predictors of travel duration. The two week break is ubiquitous; it is the preference of nearly all types of holidaymaker. In part, this may be explained as a function of tradition, for it is a behavioural 'norm' or 'standard'. If the holiday overall is an outcome of differing participant characteristics, then other elements of the holiday 'mix' first register variation in the decision-maker's characteristics before the two week holiday is surrendered or extended. The annual two week holiday, it seems, is a deep-set and powerful component of our leisure-time behaviour, firmly rooted in our decision-making subconsciousness.

Behaviour whilst on holiday (the activities undertaken and the distances travelled on day trips) is an outcome of age and previous holiday experience. This reflects holiday intentions. For example, the elderly are more active when away from home simply because they indulged in similar activities whilst on holiday many years ago, at an earlier stage

in the life-cycle, when greater emphasis was placed on visiting strange places and becoming familiar with local surroundings. By contrast, the travel education of today's young tourist often displays a greater bias towards passive behaviour, reflecting the staple diet of relaxing Mediterranean holidays in the sun offered by tour operators since the 1960's. This education process influences holiday expectations and intentions, and is subsequently manifested in behaviour whilst on holiday. The greater provision of coach tours and day trips for older people in part refutes this argument, but tour operators are unlikely to vary these opportunities without first being aware of the different requirements of old and young travellers. In addition, the significant role of holiday life-styles further underpins this explanation. The more active behaviour of older individuals whilst on holiday may well be a reversal of their behaviour during daily leisure time throughout the rest of the year. Analysis of leisure life-styles supports a similar finding; behaviour on holiday generally contrasts with weekly leisure time behaviour. The holiday, as a break, may well provide the opportunity to indulge in activities which otherwise would not be undertaken. This seems to play a significant part in the fulfilment and personal replenishment enjoyed by taking a holiday.

10.2.2 Component hypothesis 1 : The decision processes and criteria constituting holiday destination choice vary according to decision-maker characteristics, such that the two in combination provide an effective explanation of locational patterns of package holidaymaking.

This is really a component of the holistic hypothesis. It is presented

and analysed as a separate proposal for two reasons. Firstly, the inclusion of specific decision-making information, commensurate with the more detailed level of description, provides a different structure for the analysis of results. Secondly, separate treatment helps to highlight the focus of the research, and emphasises the spatial themes it contains, not least of which is the holiday destination.

The original hypothesis, in general, is accepted. Variation in spatial behaviour is largely accountable to destination choice, itself a function of the decision-maker's characteristics. Diagrams 44 and 45 (see section 9.5) summarise these findings. There are several noteworthy reservations however, and so step-by-step evaluation of the five spatial behaviour measures is required. This ensures a more accurate grasp of factors prevalent in the choice of holiday destination.

The location of the holiday destination relative to the home is represented by two measures; travel time and journey distance between the two. Both are assessed simultaneously, for they share similar explanatory factors. For the sake of clarity the term 'distance' is used to refer to both linear distance and the number of hours spent travelling. Of the two, straight line distance is the most rigorous measure, simply because the type of transport used distorts travel time patterns. The fact that both share a similar set of predictors suggests holidaymakers perceive the location of destinations relative to their homes in terms of linear distance rather than travelling time. However, the ease of packaged travel means that journey hours are, in theory, of more practical significance than the distance covered. Such perception may therefore be irrational and mis-placed.

Notwithstanding the preference of older folk for coach travel, journey distance decreases with an increase in age. Similarly, as age increases so previous holiday experience generally increases. Both measures influence journey distance through intervening decision-making variables. Whenever possible, destination choice is based on informal sources of information, particularly direct personal experience (if available). This is in turn closely allied to the proximity of the destination to the home, for there is clearly a greater likelihood of having previously visited nearby resorts than far-distant locations. Greater dependence on personal experience means *older holidaymakers travel shorter distances than younger holidaymakers*, many of whom show less reluctance to use tour operator brochures. Along with familiarity comes specificity. Holiday choices made from brochures are generally less specific than those founded on personal experience. This is further reflected in the holiday life-style of participants. Previous experience of package holidays, foreign trips, and evidence of regular annual trips, all foster the specific decision based on personal encounters in the past. This seems to represent satisficing behaviour.

Decision criteria play an equally important role; the type of amenities sought after determines the distance travelled. Those in search of sun, sea and sand generally travel furthest, bolstered by the large number travelling to established Mediterranean resorts between 1401 and 2600 km from the home. Again, these resorts tend to be visited by brochure-users. Those in search of entertainment facilities sometimes travel similar distances, though a significant proportion don't travel as far. Short haul package holidaymaking, however, is largely the preserve of the traveller seeking peaceful, scenic and characterful surroundings. These qualities are best appreciated by direct personal experience of the

locality. Sun, sea and sand are attributes far easier to portray in the holiday brochure. These subtle differences are manifested in the sources of information used.

The behavioural 'norms' of sun, sea and sand-seekers are breached on two occasions. The young family travels less than unaccompanied adults to reach such facilities. So too do older folk when compared with young, single individuals. This may well mark the mutual desire of both types of traveller to seek compatible companions on holiday rather than risk experiencing a conflict of interests.

Journey distance is also a function of economic factors. This is not surprising, since as distance increases, so too does the cost of a holiday. Neither decision processes nor choice criteria account for this variation. Information sources, specificity and desired amenities do not vary according to economic well-being. This strips the explanation of journey distance, according to economic status, of any rational basis. If they undergo similar decision-making processes, and seek similar destinations, why should the high income earner travel further than the low income earner, given the latter's destination solution? Surely there is no reason for the additional expense this incurs? Certainly the more distant resorts are more exclusive, simply because they are more costly to visit. This is probably sufficient to ensure crowds are kept at bay. Similarly, far-distant resorts may well offer a more exotic blend of sun, sea and sand than mainstream Mediterranean locations closer to home. Objectively, both destinations would be considered similar, though in more subjective terms they may well differ. Given that the tangible rewards to be gained from visiting such resorts are broadly similar, this behaviour

seems 'exceptional'; that is, a form of Mason's (1984) 'conspicuous consumption'. The more distant resort is favoured simply on account of its perceived value as a demonstration of relative wealth. This may be partly fuelled by holiday aspirations, themselves a function of economic well-being. The psychological necessity to maximise the distance travelled, within financial constraints (in order to optimise the holiday experience), should not be underestimated.

The most telling distinction with which to tackle the explanation of spatial holidaymaking patterns is, in effect, a quasi-measure of relative location. Package holidaymakers at home and abroad differ according to a wide range of profile characteristics and decision-making parameters.

The first of these are very similar to those which account for journey distance; age and holiday life-style measures play a significant role. Domestic travellers tend to be more specific than foreign holidaymakers, because they are more likely to have previously visited their chosen location. Specificity is a function of familiarity. Personal experience is commonly used, in contrast to the greater dependence of foreign travellers on holiday brochures. These domestic visitors tend to be 45 years and older, with a wide range of previous holiday experience, seeking either peaceful, scenic resorts or entertainment facilities. When seeking the latter, younger travellers are more likely to travel abroad, as indeed they do when in search of sandy beaches, the sea and the sun.

At this point the domestic/foreign holiday dichotomy offers some interesting further perspectives on behaviour. The influence of economic factors is exercised through decision-making measures. The greater number

of travel time and linear distance categories used may either simply obscure this trend, or may fail to generate correlation of this kind because they lack the weight of meaning behind the distinction between holidays at home and abroad.

The proportion of sun-seekers travelling abroad does not necessarily vary with economic status. The appeal of compatible foreign resorts is widespread. Amongst travellers in search of scenic, peaceful locations, however, as the level of education received increases, so too does the tendency to travel abroad. This may well be driven by motives for 'conspicuous consumption', underpinned by the desire for more exclusive views and tranquility. Alternatively, those of higher educational status seeking entertainment facilities are more likely to stay within the U.K. than minimum age school leavers. This may well reflect the mass-market nature of facilities in foreign resorts which are purposely designed to meet the demands of package holidaymakers.

Occupation is a further exponent of economic well-being. The greater tendency for professionals and managers to base their plans for foreign holidays on direct personal experience implies an interesting set of links between business and holiday travel. This needs further research. The status of the holiday relative to business travel would seem to justify more detailed analysis. Certainly the status of the foreign holiday seems to override that of the domestic break; two weeks enjoying the sun, sea and sand (in a foreign destination) is the overriding prerogative of those limited to a maximum of 15 days of annual paid leave. The domestic holiday fails to command such priority when the time available for pleasure travel is limited.

The domestic/foreign holiday dichotomy is clearly dependent on qualitative factors, particularly bearing in mind the psychological ethos tied to travelling abroad. Perpetuated by the role of risk, the package holiday has not yet broken down the perceived difficulties of foreign travel. This is reflected in different approaches to holiday choice as revealed by analysis of leisure life-styles. Indeed, the approach to leisure activities and holidaymaking may well share similar attributes. A significant proportion of domestic travellers undertake home-based leisure activities and have a specific choice of destination in mind. Caution is the keyword here. Alternatively, many foreign package holidaymakers basing their leisure time on socialising, tend to be less specific. The mutual elements of leisure and holiday choice here are confidence, flexibility, and a relatively care-free approach. Though a small component of correlation overall, these findings accurately represent the qualitative differences in attitude and approach to holiday choice that emerged during informal conversation with respondents. This is an incisive means of distinguishing between domestic and foreign travellers.

In many ways the location of the holiday destination relative to the home, be it measured according to travel time, journey distance or nationality, is an outcome of the participant's characteristics and the decisions they make. Decision processes (that is, information sources and specificity) and criteria (the resort characteristics sought after) are equally important. Variation in travel behaviour in terms of spatial movement may therefore be labelled largely as systematic. Explanation rests on the predictive factors already discussed. Such systematic patterns in the data are not so easily recognised when the destination's absolute location is analysed (that is, not the location relative to the home, but elements of the outright location, such as proximity to the

coast and the main characteristics of the resort). This is because the most frequently visited type of package holiday resort (coastal, with a good beach and bathing facilities) appeals to a very wide range of travellers. However, there are instances where this does not hold true. Without recourse to resort qualities, the preference of professionals, managers and recipients of higher education for inland locations may be best explained by the desire to avoid crowded resorts. Crowding is a function of the spatial concentration of tourist amenities, which tend to be more scattered inland, particularly in mountainous areas. Once again this is not reflected in differing decision-making processes. Not surprisingly, visitors to coastal resorts are more likely to seek sun, sea and sand than inland travellers, most of whom seek quiet, peaceful and scenic settings. However, these contrasting holiday motives (and the behaviour they precipitate) are constant across all types of traveller. The appeal of the coast, per se, is almost universal.

An almost identical explanation may be assigned to behaviour according to resort qualities. Once again economic factors appear to by-pass decision-making measures. Modern beach and sea-based resorts largely attract relatively low income earners; their appeal lies in the guarantee of 'fun and sun' which they offer to travellers without generous holiday budgets and the ability to literally 'buy' a greatly satisfying experience. Those with more discretionary income show a greater tendency to purchase more specialised holidays to resorts designed to support specific activities. Wintersports centres are the prime example. Not surprisingly, this is manifested in greater choice specificity, which in turn provides further clues as to the role of intentions, and the purpose of the holiday, in explaining choice of destination. Rarely are these

specific travellers first-time package holiday buyers; increasing experience is commensurate with the ability to make more specific decisions. A relatively greater proportion of such folk visit special activity centres than recent sea and beach-based resorts (often the destination of travellers making their maiden package tour, particularly if they have no prior experience of foreign holidays). The effect of these generic holiday life-style measures is not implicated with holiday careers, because the lack of compatible correlation between age and resort qualities means a succession of changing behaviours through time cannot be identified.

Unfortunately, all the explanatory leads discussed so far in the context of resort qualities are not maintained when the resort characteristics sought after are examined. Despite the lack of entirely compatible categories, the characteristics sought are generally similar to those of the destination actually visited. There is some evidence of mis-perception however, and this is implicated (by association rather than strict statistical correlation) with dependence on tour operator brochures for information supporting destination choice. The portrayal of resort qualities in brochures may not be entirely accurate therefore, though error may also be traced to the decision-maker's interpretation of the information provided. Perceptual variation is the most plausible explanation for the correlation between participant characteristics and decision measures, and between decision measures and behaviour, when all three factors are not systematically related. This is probably compounded by the fact that although desired and actual resort qualities often tally, they do so for a wide range of different types of decision-maker. This is particularly true for sun, sea and sand-seekers who visit modern coastal resorts. The mainstream package holiday, notwithstanding the particular

appeal it holds for the low-budget traveller, is sufficiently popular to secure the patronage of all types of holidaymaker.

Thus, whilst spatial behaviour patterns may be readily explained according to movement and the location of the destination relative to the home, the forces at play which determine the characteristics of the resort visited are not so easy to discern. The original hypothesis may therefore be only partially accepted in earnest.

Component hypothesis 2 : The explanatory contribution of
life-style measures equals or transcends that of
'traditional' economic and socio-demographic factors.

In the context of the current study, which encompasses a broad remit of behaviour, the explanation generated by life-style measures does not transcend the input provided by economic and socio-demographic factors. More accurately, the latter provide a framework for life-style factors (see also Perreault, Darden and Darden, 1977; Schewe and Calantone, 1978). However, whilst true for work and leisure life-styles, and the influence of personality on decision-making, holiday life-style measures combine with age to form one of the most powerful predictors of behaviour; the holiday 'career'. This attracts a separate hypothesis and is discussed in the following section.

Significant work life-style measures tend to focus on the distinction between the relative freedom and decision autonomy enjoyed in managerial /professional occupations, and the more time-structured and routine tasks prevalent in manual labour. This is manifested in both holiday type (package or independent) and timing, which tend to positively reflect the

qualities of daily work. The 'extension' hypothesis therefore prevails in this instance.

A similar relationship links leisure life-styles and resort type according to the facilities used. Unfortunately, this is not maintained when behaviour whilst on holiday is studied. Indeed, a counter-trend emerges; activities are undertaken on holiday which compensate for those during the rest of the year. Thus, the active sportsman is more inclined to take a restful holiday than the passive year-round leisure seeker, who may well join in 'activity' holidays. These contradictory findings are hard to reconcile. Either there is no link between leisure life-style and holidaymaking behaviour, or what participants intend to do (as reflected in the type of resort they visit) does not necessarily bear strict resemblance to what they actually do whilst on holiday (according to holiday activities).

In contrast to the frequently encountered role of holiday careers, the pattern of correlation between work and leisure life-style measures with holidaymaking behaviour is sporadic. Overall, economic and socio-demographic factors predominate; their application is ubiquitous, and as such their contribution towards explanation is far more comprehensive. Within this framework, some interesting conclusions concerning the role of life-style measures may be drawn by assessing the incidence of their input. These are:

1. The conceptual parameters used to represent life-style and behaviour must be congruent. This is particularly true where qualitative parameters are used; 'involvement' is an element shared by both leisure life-styles and holiday

behaviour in the explanation of activities undertaken whilst on holiday.

2. Correlation is more common where quantitative parameters are used to partner life-style and behaviour measures. Work and leisure life-style parameters are often qualitative; 'involvement' and 'attitudes' are two typical examples. Holiday life-styles, however, are represented by more substantive facts (for example, the number of holidays taken abroad). This is reflected in their greater explanatory role.

3. The magnitude/frequency parameters of both factors studied must be reasonably similar. This explains the minor role of work and leisure life-styles (based on daily or weekly visits) relative to holiday life-styles (measured on an annual cycle), when the holiday behaviour under investigation is a high magnitude/low frequency activity. Association may not necessarily bridge the annual holiday with high frequency/low magnitude activities undertaken continually throughout the rest of the year.

4. The role of life-style measures is largely dependent on the nature of research. Unlike socio-demographic and economic factors, life-style measures are not a general tool for analysis. As implied in paragraphs one to three above, they must be carefully tailored to suit the context in which they are to be applied. Thus, they are more suitable to particularly in-depth studies of very specific elements of behaviour (case studies over time are a good example). The wide range of behaviour covered in the current study clearly

favours the more flexible and accessible traditional factors.

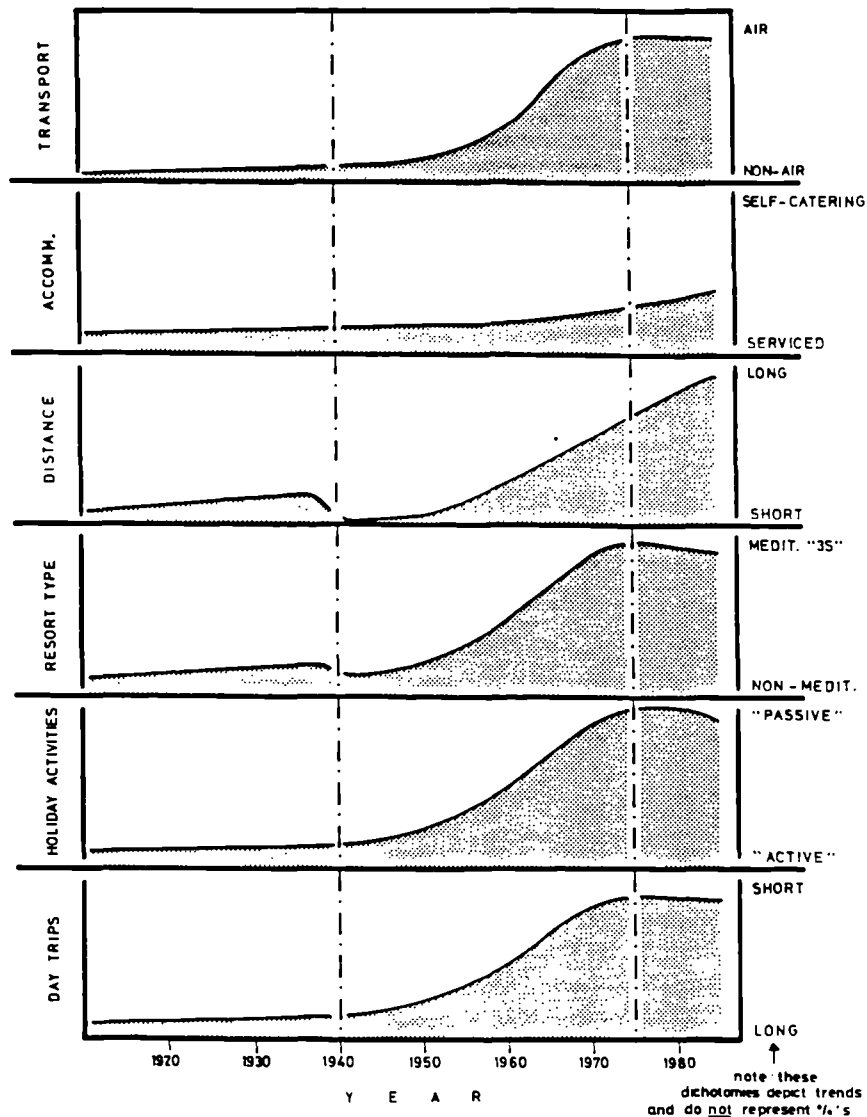
Component hypothesis 3 : As an outcome of previous holiday experience, vacation behaviour may be partly explained by reference to a progression of holiday 'careers' through the life cycle.

The implications of this hypothesis reach far deeper than the simple summation that old and young package holidaymakers behave differently. This is certainly true, but more important is the identification of a progression of changing behaviour through time according to a predetermined starting point. This is the real meaning of the holiday 'career'.

As with any career, barring major disruptions, each successive stage is influenced by the preceding stage. The young package holidaymaker, today, commences on a very different holiday career to that embarked on by older people, then of an equivalent age, many years ago. There is widespread evidence supporting the view that the current behaviour of older folk is not necessarily a function of their age per se, but rather is an outcome of their holidaymaking behaviour and experiences (that is, their career) in the past. This in itself is an outcome of then-contemporary transport and accommodation facilities, and the surrounding social environment which in part fashions behaviour. The relative ease of packaged travel further ~~is~~ ^{is} explanation simply according to age.

The evidence for holiday careers is widespread at all three levels of analysis; general holiday participation, package holiday 'habits', and spatial patterns of package holidaymaking. In each case the outcome is similar; current behaviour is a function of previous holiday experience, the nature of which is dependent on behaviour undertaken during the formative years of the holiday career (see diagram 49). A genuine explanation of behaviour patterns today cannot be constructed, therefore, without recourse to past patterns of behaviour. In terms of spatial patterns this is largely expressed through the information sources used and place specificity. A good example is journey distance. Older package holidaymakers travel shorter distances than younger tourists on account of the distances they usually travelled on previous occasions (particularly before the advent of air-inclusive tours), and due to their preference for resorts with which they are now familiar. The young package holidaymaker, weaned on tour operator brochures, is more likely to trust these brochures as a sufficiently reliable source of information, which in turn futhers potential visiting horizons. The ease of packaged travel means this is unlikely to be a function simply of age. Further support for the notion of 'careers' is evident in several other instances, including the preference of older folk (especially the over 45's) for coach travel and serviced accommodation, particularly bearing in mind the timing of recently introduced services. The greater propensity for active behaviour whilst on holiday, entirely contrary to the assumed effects of ageing, provides even more incisive evidence. This is the type of behaviour many older travellers became accustomed to early in their holiday careers. The notion of rest and physical inactivity is essentially a recent one which has largely conditioned younger travellers, hence their contrasting behaviour whilst on holiday. This, together with many other instances of sympathetic correlation, means the original

Diagram 49 : A generalised profile of the package holiday 'career'



EXAMPLES :

1. A holidaymaker 65 years of age (in 1985) would embark on his/her career in 1940*. Typical behaviour - longer day trips, active involvement, non-Mediterranean resort closeby, hotel, non-air transport.
2. A holidaymaker 30 years of age (in 1985) would embark on his/her career in 1975*. Typical behaviour - shorter day trips, passive involvement, Mediterranean-type resort, long journey, greater likelihood of self-catering accommodation, air travel.

* Assuming trips of own choice taken from an average of 20 years old (despite family holidays when younger).

hypothesis is wholeheartedly accepted.

Component hypothesis 4 : The primary element of overall holiday choice is the destination decision.

Overall, the holiday destination is the most frequently cited primary or secondary element of holiday choice. As such it is the single most important element of the holiday 'mix', thus supporting the hypothesis above. This is not necessarily true for all holidaymakers however. Those most likely to state the destination as the most important factor are the over 45's, males, managers and professionals, married couples and experienced package holiday travellers; a comprehensive, though by no means exhaustive, list. For the remainder, cost is commonly the most important primary factor. This certainly is more in-line with the advertising campaigns of major tour operators, many of whom place great emphasis on price competitiveness. This is a view shared by current affairs writers (see, for example, Ferguson, 1987 : 19). There is a possibility that this emphasis is mis-placed. Indeed, many up-market destinations have not been affected in any way by the cost-cutting wars of the last five years. Given the value attached to the destination then, there certainly seems scope for more advertising based on location. This is discussed in a later section.

However, there is the nagging doubt that response to questioning over the importance of the different elements of the holiday may not accurately take account of subconscious decisions made by the holidaymaker. In pure statistical terms, the holiday destination is the most important single factor. Contextual evidence suggests there is one other factor at play, namely holiday timing (though this fails to register comparable response when questioned directly). The reason for this doubt is that very few

profile characteristics are correlated with holiday duration; the two week annual holiday is commonplace. Given that holiday cost, risk and other ramifications increase as the duration of the holiday increases, there are no logical reasons for the almost universal appeal of the two week holiday. Evidence in Chapter Seven, however, suggests that the fortnight's break is such a high priority item that the effect of decision-maker characteristics is first manifested in variation in other elements of the holiday 'mix'. Certainly the annual fortnight away has long been the traditional break. There is a danger that this is taken for granted (most probably subconsciously), whereupon respondents fail to register 'timing' as the major element of holiday choice. Given the nature of correlation previously outlined, this is only a speculative comment, designed not so much as to discredit acceptance of the original hypothesis, but rather to encourage a wider view of the overall elements of holiday choice. The destination is certainly the most important single registered factor (of which the participant is aware). The two week holiday, however, may well have become such an integral part of behaviour that it has sunk deep into subconsciousness, and is no longer recognised as an element of holiday choice.

Component hypothesis 5 : Owing to the relative ease of inclusive tour travel, spatial patterns of package holidaymaking do not conform with wider explanations of population displacement behaviour.

This hypothesis is founded on the premise that distance represents friction, which together with the principle of least effort (see Zipf, 1949), means the minimisation of movement to achieve set goals. Clearly this depends on the motives for movement; a shopping journey may be kept as short as possible simply on the grounds of cost, time and convenience.

Alternatively, travel may represent an important part of the experience sought after. The Sunday recreation day-tripper will want to travel a certain distance to make the experience worthwhile, and would certainly not wish to minimise the distance travelled. However, it is unlikely the same recreation tripper would deliberately travel many miles in excess of those that are required to meet certain objectives. By contrast, the migrant in search of a 'fresh start in life' may do so. Indeed, travelling great distances may be the only way of achieving this. Thus, the need to minimise journey distance is entirely dependent on the motives for travel.

This means it is unrealistic to judge spatial patterns of package holidaymaking, alongside wider explanations of displacement behaviour, solely in the context of the desire to minimise journey distance. Indeed, Chapter Nine uncovers a reverse trend, for there seems to be a minimum psychological travel distance below which holidaymakers do not feel they are "getting away from it all". This threshold is a function of holiday aspirations and the financial ability to meet these aspirations. The journey may even be seen as an important component of the overall holiday experience, and as such is to be savoured and enjoyed rather than pared down to a minimum. For the genuine tourist, the journey is in fact the holiday, for there is no end destination. Thus, holidaymaking may well differ from work and work-related travel in the sense that the journey is not necessarily minimised.

However, this does not differentiate the holidaymaker from either the recreation tripper, nor necessarily the migrant. Neither does it distinguish the package holidaymaker from the independent traveller. This

may at least be achieved by studying the actual distances travelled. The migrant remains a separate behavioural entity, for this is a form of behaviour driven by fundamental, functional motives with far wider ranging implications than the forces prompting pleasure travel.

Space is a relative phenomenon. The ease of packaged travel has shorted the intervening role of space by altering the traditional relationship between transport technology and journey distance. This it has achieved by introducing two further significant factors in travel which are particularly uppermost in the mind of the package holidaymaker; cost and convenience. This is largely manifested in a change of attitude towards travel time, and in the greater distances travelled for any given transport technology. The package holiday has made commonplace 12 - 24 hour coach journeys, which before were a rare, and no doubt unmissed, commodity. Greater journey times are acceptable on account of the ease of travel and freedom from responsibilities. The same is true for air inclusive tours. The result is that greater distances are travelled to reach the holiday destination than those which might be predicted by simply studying the transport technology/distance relationship without recourse to the intervening factors of cost and convenience. This may well explain why more than one in ten package holidaymakers travel over 2601 km to reach their vacation destination.

Thus, the scale of travel has shown a marked increase. The nature of space as a obstacle to travel remains unchanged however, as reflected in the constraining effect of shallow holiday funds. Though the distances travelled by holidaymakers operating under such constraints are considerable (in outright terms), they are still rather modest in

comparison with the distances travelled by package holidaymakers fortunate enough to enjoy relative decision-making freedom. It is only once vast distances are examined that any formal distance-decay function may be identified amongst package holidaymakers. Together with the intervening role of cost and convenience in the transport technology / journey distance relationship, this suggests the original hypothesis is accepted.

10.2.3 Contextual hypothesis : In the absence of literature specific to package holidays, relevant explanations of package holidaymaking choice and behaviour can be found in a variety of peripheral sources

This hypothesis investigates the value of viewing the package holidaymaker as a leisure-seeker, recreationalist and consumer, and as a model outlet for psychological drives. Does this contribute to our understanding of package holidaymaking behaviour?

Before each of these peripheral sources is assessed, the relevance of tourism research in general to package holidaymaking must first be established. There can be little doubt that examination of tourism literature provides a useful basis for interpreting the package holidaymaker's behaviour, for both share many predictors. Age is a good example amongst profile characteristics (e.g. see Gitelson and Crompton, 1984), whilst the drawing power of a favourable climate is common to package and independent holidaymakers alike (see Morton-Williams, 1973 : iv, English Tourist Board, 1976a : 7; Ritchie and Zins, 1978; Kaynak and Yavas, 1981). Tourism research, however, provides only the starting point

for a package holiday study, for as illustrated in Chapter Six, once established, several significant differences may be made between independent and package holidaymakers. What is needed is a fresh set of ideas, theoretical constructs and perspectives with which to tackle the analysis of package holidaymaking behaviour. These are provided, to varying degrees, by leisure and recreation research, psychological work and consumer studies.

The main theoretical input of leisure and recreation literature is the explanatory value of the life-style measures. Unfortunately, due to the need for further work on the parameters with which work life-style / holidaymaking relationships are measured, the role of these factors cannot be accurately assessed. It is likely that magnitude/frequency differences between daily or weekly activities and the annual holiday represent a conceptual chasm that meaningful association is unable to bridge. If so, many of the findings to date covering the work/leisure relationship may well be inapplicable.

A far more valuable contribution is exercised by the extensive body of literature investigating leisure careers. Many of the components of holiday careers presented in this research are founded on ideas originating in studies of leisure behaviour (for example, see Sofranko and Nolan, 1972; Yoesting and Burkhead, 1973; Kelly, 1977; Roberts, 1978; Osgood and Howe, 1984) and recreation (see Lime and Lucas, 1977; Krumpel, 1979; Lucas, 1981; Roggenbuck and Berrier, 1981). Most important is the role of surrounding society on an individual's behaviour (see Stover and Garbin, 1982), 'conditioning' during childhood participation (see Young and Willmott, 1973 : 15) and the way this influences information

processing. By providing a theoretical basis for the notion of the holiday career, leisure and recreation studies realise their most profitable explanatory contribution to the analysis of package holidaymaking behaviour. The remainder of their input is largely secondary : the study of recreation gravity models, for instance, is a stepping stone to the finding that distance minimisation is not a prerequisite for the package holidaymaker. Elsewhere, input is less tangible, but centres on the attention given to qualitative factors in decision-making analysis.

The contribution of psychological work is complementary rather than creative; it breaks no new ground, but bolsters our understanding of certain elements of behaviour. The psychologist's research into the relationship between weather, mood and behaviour largely accounts for the climatic priorities of package holidaymakers. This is an important component of the 'happy holiday', for there is a physiological and biological basis for the benefits to be gained from warm, sunny conditions. The positive mood this helps foster may well explain why individuals often indulge in activities on holiday which they normally show no interest in throughout the rest of the year. The weather/mood/behaviour relationship thus explains why, as a 'break', the holiday induces many instances of unfamiliar behaviour.

Unfortunately, fashion theory is insufficiently developed to make a significant contribution to this project, though the research emphasis itself provides little scope for such contribution. There can be little doubt that the holiday destination is a fashionable item, and that this may well exert an influence over holiday choice. Clearly this is

difficult to detect, let alone quantify by any means. The significant role played by tour operators, who have the ability to promote new destinations, suggests mass-market fashion theory is applicable here (for example, see King, 1963). Alternatively, the gradual encroachment of mass package holidays onto traditionally exclusive holiday territories (wintersports packages are a good example) suggests upperclass leadership fashion theory (see Sproles, 1981a) is equally applicable. Whatever the nature of propagation, the holiday destination seems to be a fashionable item. One reason for this is that it is a highly 'visible', if intangible, purchase; one that fellow purchasers are often well aware of. This in turn implicates package holidaymaking with 'conspicuous consumption', one of the more valuable concepts borrowed from consumer behaviour research.

Indeed, consumer activity is the most valuable peripheral source of material. Viewing the package holidaymaker, in raw theoretical terms, as a consumer, helps our understanding of holiday choice and behaviour in many ways. These may be grouped as the role of personality in choice, risk and risk-reduction strategies, and 'conspicuous consumption'.

Personality is a mainstream, if contentious, element of consumer behaviour research. It certainly seems to affect holiday choice though its influence over attitudes and approach to holiday decision-making. These are covered in the following sections; suffice to say that much of the theoretical backing behind the assessment of personality in holiday choice is derived from consumer behaviour studies.

The same is true for the role of risk in holiday choice. Risk is an

important component of purchase decision-making (for example, see Barnes 1977; Midgley, 1983), and is manifested in many ways (see Jacoby and Kaplan, 1972). An equally important element of consumer decision-making is 'conspicuous consumption' (see Mason 1981; 1984), and there is a generous body of evidence to suggest that this is prevalent in holiday choice. The most noticeable instance occurs in the choice of destination. The minimum psychological distance threshold is a good example. Given that both high and low income earners seek similar facilities, and bearing in mind the destination solution of the low income earner, one of the contributory reasons why the higher income earner travels further (and therefore incurs more cost) is because of the high perceived value of more distant destinations. These may well fulfil a similar role to nearby resorts, but the social value of travelling further on holiday attaches greater status to the more distant destination.

Thus, the contextual hypothesis is accepted. The most important contribution of leisure and recreation research is the theoretical input this provides in constructing a clear-cut notion of holiday careers. A similarly incisive, though more qualitative input, is provided by consumer research regarding the role of personality, risk and 'conspicuous consumption' in consumer decision-making. In addition, reference to psychological work provides valuable supportive explanation of the importance of climate to tourism, and the effects this has on behaviour.

10.3 QUALITATIVE ELEMENTS OF HOLIDAY DECISION-MAKING

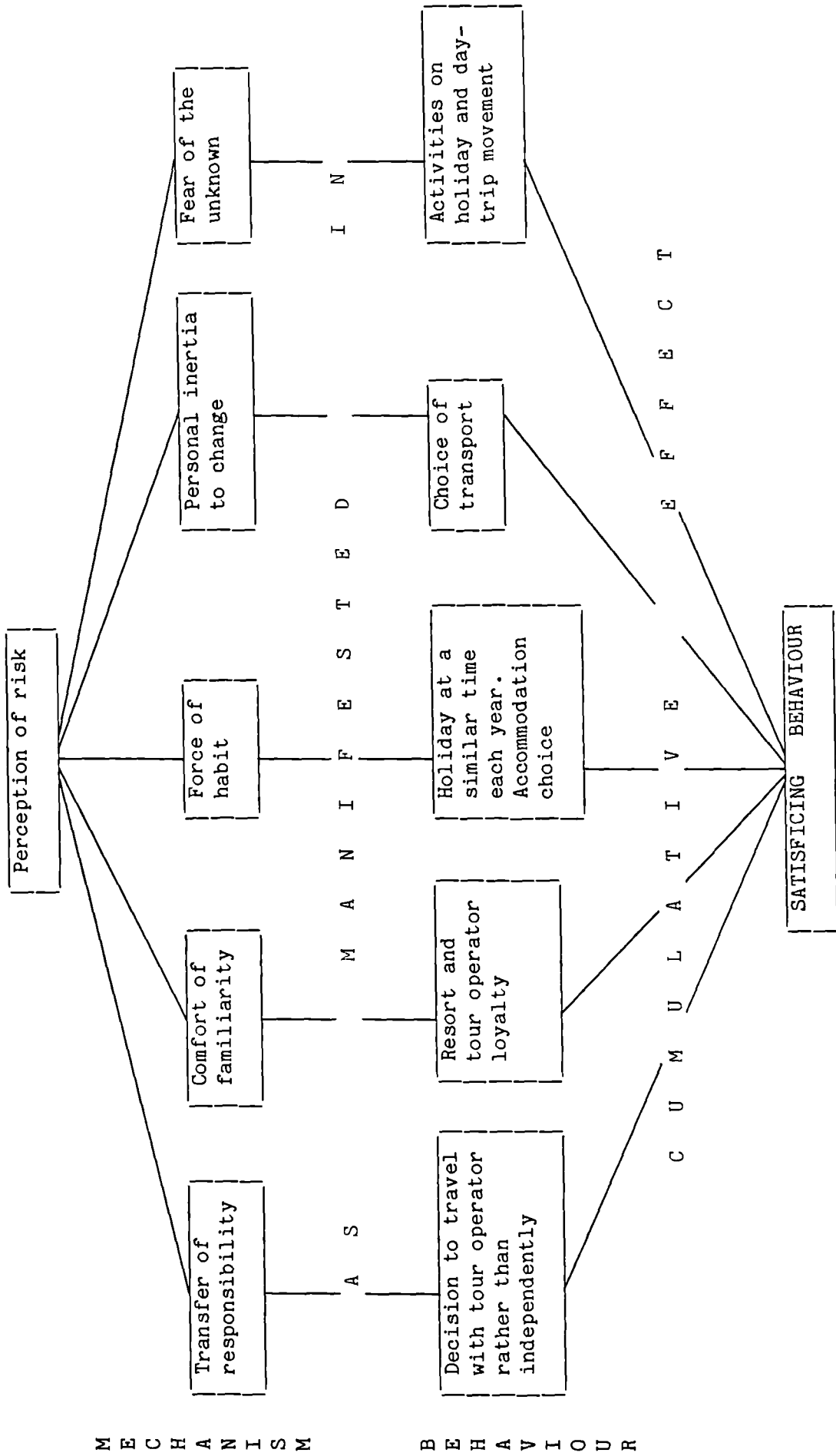
10.3.1 Risk; manifestation and reduction strategies

Risk is a major component in consumer choice (Barnes, 1977; Midgley, 1983). Perceived risk increases with the cost of purchase, for in financial terms alone, more is at stake in a high cost purchase. Likewise, extended inter-purchase time imparts a greater perception of risk (see Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1968). Displaying all these attributes, it is not surprising to find that one of the main components of holiday choice is risk. The holiday is an infrequent, costly item which offers no immediate return on investment, and which, in many instances, may not be directly sampled prior to the purchase. This is manifested in many ways (see diagram 50). Risk acts as an enforcer in the decision not to take a holiday. A similar function bolsters the decision to take a package holiday rather than an independent trip. Package holidaymaking behaviour itself is often a response to the accommodation of risk in overall choice of holiday. This is on account of the various strategies which the decision-maker may use to reduce perceived risk. The outcome is invariably satisficing behaviour.

The prime method of risk reduction is to retain as much familiarity as possible in the final chosen holiday. This tendency is certainly exercised more frequently by older holidaymakers than younger travellers (economic factors do not play a particularly significant role). The preference for familiarity has many implications for holiday choice.

A high risk purchase is likely to foster brand-loyal behaviour (Cunningham, 1967a : 513-4). Loyalty to both the destination and tour

Diagram 50 : The components of risk, and holidaymaking behaviour



operator is one way of achieving this familiarity, particularly amongst elderly travellers. This simply reduces the unknown element in holiday choice.

Similar benefits may be secured by relying on personal experience to choose a suitable destination, rather than the alternatives presented in tour operator brochures. Personal sources are certainly seen as being more reliable and accurate (see Nolan, 1974). Indeed, tour operator brochures are implicated with the mis-perception of resort qualities. Person-to-person communication (widely held as the most effective : see Katz and Lazarfeld, 1955; Schmoll, 1977 : 59; Vogeler, 1977) is therefore the most efficient and trustworthy source of information. There is evidence to suggest this is often preferred to brochures. Except for detailed holiday information (such as that required by the skiing enthusiast, where factual resort details are needed, including the number of runs and the lift network), the brochure fulfils a largely supportive role. This is because personal experience and person-to-person communication are more dependable sources of information. As such, their use may be seen as a risk reduction strategy, though dependence on personal contact naturally limits the range of destinations considered. A side-effect of using personal experience is the greater place specificity this facilitates. Being able to pinpoint a destination seems a further way of reducing the risk involved in holiday choice.

Personal inertia and resistance to change is a manifestation of perceived risk. Again, this is largely experienced by older holidaymakers. It is an important component of holiday careers too. The preference of travellers over 45 years for coach transport and serviced accommodation

is, in part, a function of habit and resistance to change in the face of developments in these services. The extreme example of this, of course, is the holidaymaker who returns to the same hotel year on year, and sometimes even to the same room. This is clearly familiarity in an exaggerated form. For these people there is a fear that a change from the known to the unknown may bring about disbenefits.

Behavioural continuity certainly reduces risk. This too is achieved by maintaining certain holiday 'standards', be it sometimes subconsciously. One means is to take a summer holiday during the same month each year. The two week annual holiday is a further example. These elements of behaviour are predictable. They are maintained by the holidaymaker since they are a known quantity, thereby reducing perceived risk.

Familiarity is therefore a key risk reduction strategy. It may be secured in a variety of ways, and at least ensures that there are elements of holiday choice over which a degree of certainty may be exercised. The holidaymaker may then trade-off this security in order to take greater risks in other aspects of the holiday.

Perception of risk is often a function of personality. The extrovert, care-free decision-maker is unlikely to perceive as much risk as the rather more cautious, introvert traveller. This type of comparison accounts for the different tendencies of 'home-based' and 'socialising' leisure-seekers to travel domestically and abroad.

Confidence is a further personality trait worthy of consideration. Its

most valuable contribution is the role it plays in attitudes and the approach to decision-making. Again this may be implicated with risk. Confidence helps break down personal inertia in the face of the unknown. Thus, the experienced package holidaymaker is more prepared to stray off the tourist's beaten path than the first time buyer. Previous experience often provides the confidence to do so. Similar forces explain the central role of education (alone, and not according to other economic parameters) in distinguishing independent travellers from package holidaymakers. As an outcome of higher education, together with greater knowledge and awareness comes confidence, an important attribute of individuals travelling independently.

Risk is therefore an important consideration in holiday choice. The relatively high cost, infrequency and 'hidden' nature of the package holiday purchase emphasises its role. This is expressed in a variety of risk reduction strategies, the most noticeable of which is the preference for familiarity. Clearly, where prevalent, these tendencies act as a compromise on behaviour. The opportunity to gain the optimum holiday experience may well be discarded in the interests of risk reduction and satisficing behaviour. This seems true for many package holidaymakers. The traveller thus suffers contradictory feelings; the desire for adventure and novelty on the one hand, and for familiarity and security on the other. Perceived risk swings the balance towards the latter. Similarly, another conflict may be experienced; a conflict of interests between different types of traveller with different objectives and intentions. This in turn means 'avoidance mechanisms' (to side-step these conflicts) are an important consideration in holiday choice.

10.3.2. Avoidance mechanisms and the conflict of interests

There are several instances where the desire to avoid a conflict of interests determines the type of holiday chosen. These mechanisms are important if the holiday is to be an enjoyable experience. They are manifested in many ways. Domestic considerations account for the preference of young families for self-catering accommodation. The flexibility of such arrangements, and their greater independence from fellow travellers, explains this popularity. Similarly, the presence of young children influences the distance travelled to reach resorts offering sunshine, sea and sandy beaches. Unaccompanied adults travel further than young families. Given that the destination facilities do not differ greatly, this is likely to be a function of the desire to avoid a conflict of interests due to the presence of young children. Alternatively, of course, it may be a simple outcome of the constraining effect of children on travel, though the ease of packaged travel means this is unlikely to be the sole factor.

The very popularity of package holidays (and by implication, package holiday resorts) leads to a further conflict of interests, particularly concerning resort crowding. The 'ideal' destination (according to the facilities it offers) may be unsuitable due to its popularity on account of these same qualities. This conflict leads to off-peak travel, especially by those with the decision freedom to do so. This includes pensioners, managers and professionals with direct control over holiday dates, and parents prepared to take their children off school. There is clear-cut evidence to suggest that peak season travel is avoided whenever time, work or family commitments allow.

10.3.3 The supply/demand environment

There are several interesting features of the supply/demand environment that contribute towards a comprehensive understanding of holiday choice, and without which the interpretation of behaviour would be incomplete.

The supply of holidays in any one season is not infinite. There is generally a set number of holidays available. Furthermore, the composition of these holidays is largely fixed, though tour operators may adjust their schedules during the season. The supply of package holidays therefore, though flexible to a limited degree, operates within fixed parameters. This means there will always be competition for package holiday places, dependent on the strength of demand relative to availability. Booking behaviour may well reflect this competition. Despite discounts immediately prior to departure, many 'low' income earners, for example, book early, simply on account of the high demand for budget holidays and the need to secure a reservation. Other elements of the holiday may also be affected, particularly if the competition for places is such that the first holiday preference cannot be met. Analysis of the alternatives chosen, however, reveals that very often the second preference is similar; the resort and date often remain unchanged. Holiday cost is also comparable, though the accommodation (the venue, not the standard) may differ. Holiday choice may well be a compromise therefore, but the strength of the supply of package holidays means that rarely is the overall behavioural outcome significantly altered. Individual components, however, may vary.

The demand for holidays operates in a high profile market; that is,

package holidays are a particularly 'visible' product. Unlike the purchase of a freezer, or new carpet, which may go unnoticed by all but the purchaser's immediate contacts, the purchase of a package holiday has a wide audience. This is because the annual holiday very often forms a topic for conversation, both beforehand in anticipation, and afterwards, when experiences can be relived and any tangible benefits displayed (of which the sun tan is most prominent). Furthermore, a great deal of publicity surrounds package holidays - a function of press coverage, particularly of grievances and unfulfilled holiday promises, and extensive advertising campaigns in a wide range of media. The cumulative effect of all these factors has led to the development of a sensitive market, typified by the high awareness levels of many participants. In a maturing market characterised by increasing discrimination, this may influence behaviour in many ways. The high social profile of package holidays means they are particularly vulnerable to the market forces of 'conspicuous consumption'. A great deal of status is often attached to the annual holiday. Bearing this in mind, the package holiday therefore seems particularly prone to the forces of fashion, especially regarding choice of destination. If it were not for this factor, many fashionable resorts could not carry the cost premiums that they do. Most importantly, high awareness levels means extensive 'cross-talk' pervades over the package holiday market, buoyant with a proliferation of personal recommendations, relived experiences, and person-to-person communication. Fed by such a large and informal information field, package holiday choice occurs in the context of a myriad of recommendations and disuasion that seem to accentuate the rather individualistic nature of holiday decision-making.

10.4 THE APPLICATION OF RESULTS

10.4.1 Theoretical issues

The results of this study highlight several major theoretical issues which seem to warrant further research. The four main areas are:-

1. Qualitative elements of choice
2. Awareness and decision-making
3. The retrospective role of behaviour whilst on holiday
4. Biennial behaviour

1. Qualitative elements of choice

Though the traditional factors influencing holidaymaking behaviour are well charted, both here and elsewhere, there is a danger that the simplicity this engenders veils some of the more qualitative elements of holiday choice. The first such area concerns life-style measures, the temperamental nature of which suppresses widespread application.

Traditional economic and socio-demographic factors, on the other hand, are more readily, and generally, applied. The true value of life-style measures can only be assessed in the context of a study to which they are carefully tailored. Parameters for comparison, particularly on a conceptual level, must be sufficiently similar to at least facilitate association, if indeed this exists. A better understanding of magnitude/frequency parameters is required, especially bearing in mind the relationship between weekly (or daily) activities of a modest standing, and the rather more grand, but less frequent, nature of holidays.

Three elements of decision-making also may benefit from closer attention. Risk is clearly a major component in holiday choice. This awaits a more detailed inspection; the perception of risk, the forms that it assumes, reduction strategies and the bearing this has on behaviour. A related topic is conflict : conflict in the mind of the traveller, between the opposing desires for familiarity and novelty. Similar elements to those covering risk are required, particularly bearing in mind the high cost, intangible and 'unseen' nature of the holiday purchase. Reference might also be made here to the role of distance perception. The notion of a minimum psychological distance threshold below which travellers do not feel that they are "getting away from it all" is clearly a vital element for consideration, and one that calls for more detailed research.

2. Awareness and decision-making

Given the rather substantial evidence in support of holiday careers, and the importance this attributes to the formative years of the life cycle, there seems a great deal of scope for finer analysis of the effects of education and upbringing on awareness of the world. This seems to be a powerful influence on behaviour. A similar effect is exercised later in life through business travel. Just what are the links between business and holiday travel? Are, in fact, the two systematically related in any way? There is evidence to suggest they are; business travel affects knowledge of the world, in a similar fashion to education. Both provide information about places previously alien to the holiday decision-maker, be it specific or just general 'awareness'. The nature of this relationship requires closer investigation, together with the creation of a suitable working context within which this input may be assessed.

3. The retrospective role of behaviour whilst on holiday

To what extent may behaviour whilst on holiday be used to interpret preceeding holiday choice? A retrospective view offers great scope for furthering our understanding of behaviour, providing behaviour on holiday accurately reflects the original purpose of the holiday, itself naturally embedded in the decision-making process. There are many intervening factors that may quench this association; ill health, an alteration in family or financial circumstances, or even a simple change in personal outlook and motivation. In addition, it may be wrong to make the assumption that what individuals set out to do, is in fact what they actually do whilst on holiday, irrespective of a change in circumstance. This may well be more a simple function of human nature. Issues such as these first need clarifying before any worthwhile assessment can be made of the retrospective relationship between behaviour on holiday and holiday choice.

4. Biennial behaviour

One of the more tantalising prospects emerging from this research is the possibility of biennial holidaymaking behaviour. Though an ambitious proposal, it is securely founded on a multitude of links uncovered between the holiday examined and that on the previous but one occasion, rather than with the most recent holiday. A wide range of evidence suggests individuals, particularly those with strict budgets, are prepared to forego their holiday preference every other year, in order to afford that same preference every two years. Qualitative interviews support this view. For these individuals, though a 'substitute' or "fill-in" vacation may be taken in the intervening years, the annual holiday is really a biennial holiday.

An alternative interpretation is that biennial behaviour is a risk reduction strategy. By choosing a similar holiday every alternate year, the monotony of a similar holiday experience year on year is avoided. Alternating behaviour introduces variety, whilst retaining a degree of familiarity and security.

Whichever explanation is finally favoured, the possibility of biennial holiday behaviour clearly calls for further research. Substantive evidence can only be gathered by studying a smaller number of individuals over a longer period of time than those covered in the current research. Reliable behaviour patterns can only be interpreted from a span of at least ten years. This favours a case study approach. Indeed, all the theoretical issues discussed in this section might be effectively resolved through an in-depth, qualitative assessment of the behaviour of a small set of holidaymakers.

10.4.2. Practical implications; the package holiday market

Clearly, to organisations meeting the demand for package holidays, many of the results which provide an insight into the mechanisms behind behaviour patterns may be of value. To attempt to assess these would effectively be to re-summarise material already covered in earlier sections. Therefore, only more general market implications are covered here. These fall conveniently under two headings;

1. Communication between tour operators and the traveller
2. Marketing opportunities

1. Communication between tour operators and the traveller.

This is an important topic, for it marks the interface between holiday supply and demand. Though the market has matured since the momentum-gathering years of the early 1970's, when the sun-sea-sand formula flourished (at least prior to the collapse of Clarksons), the package holiday industry still seems to suffer from a rather tarnished image. The stigma attached to packaged travel remains, particularly in the minds of non-participants. The "cattle-herding" image has not yet been suppressed, and this, at least, seems a major obstacle to gaining patronage from up-market customers. Wintersports package holidays have gone some way towards remedying this problem. Long haul packages and special interest tours (wine-tasting trips are a good example) have further contributed towards a shift of image. Their inclusion under the term 'mass tourism' is warranted only on the grounds that they constitute a small part of what is a very large market.

The tour operator may further prompt a shift of image by carefully controlling communication with the market. Despite the great strides made recently to improve brochure content, particularly authenticity, there will always be a greater danger of mis-perception through formal, indirect sources than through direct, personal experience. There can be little doubt that the reliability of information in brochures has steadily improved, however, if only as a result of poor publicity when cases to the contrary have been made known. Given this standpoint, the brochure may be used as a valuable tool to more vividly portray national identities, and to attempt to further breakdown perceived risk in holiday choice. The latter is important because it often results in compromised choice; an undesirable feature in any market. More incisive national boundaries may

well assist in decision-making. The holidaymaker, faced with a vast array of holiday options, often seeks a starting point from which to follow several alternatives. A strong national identity might mean that at least 'the country' fulfils such a function. Advertising campaigns could further boost these images : the importance of the destination in overall choice of holiday suggests there is scope to surrender part of the thematic domination of cost and value for money in travel advertising. A comparable switch has already been partly achieved in recent years through the efforts made to further brand differentiation between tour operators.

2. Marketing opportunities

Improving communications between the tour operator and the traveller, be it to stem the compromising role of risk or to promote national identities, would be clearly beneficial to all package holiday markets. There are several market segments, however, that briefly warrant closer inspection. These are divided according to the type of product and the characteristics of the holidaymaker.

The two week sun/sea/sand holiday beside the Mediterranean is the mainstream diet of the package holiday market. It represents the tour operator's core trade, and is very unlikely to be displaced. Major inroads into the market are therefore likely to be made elsewhere, particularly through specialist holidays. This is a current development, and one that is unlikely to falter in the short term. Specialist holidays are usually built around hobbies or interests, sports or pastimes, of which 'theme' holidays represent an extreme form.

Exclusivity is a powerful factor in the sale of holidays, particularly to up-market clientele. This is closely tied to the development of new specialist holidays, for if a new destination or holiday theme is marketed by one company alone, then that product may be termed 'exclusive'. Until rival operators catch up (and even in the fast-moving world of large tour operators, this may take several seasons to achieve fully), the market leader can expect a wealth of benefits.

Brand loyalty, however, is unlikely to be a long term benefit of such marketing initiatives. Yet, achieving brand loyalty is the most effective means of maintaining market share. It is surprising, therefore, that tour operators have been slow to introduce re-booking incentives. Travellers with a particular company, for example, may be offered discounts or other incentives to re-secure their custom for the following year. Brand loyalty is certainly not currently so widespread as to devalue this suggestion.

Further specialisation, together with loyalty incentives, therefore represent the two most important marketing opportunities according to the package holiday product. Assessing the characteristics of holidaymakers also highlights the scope for potentially valuable marketing initiatives.

The first of these requires evaluating the relative status of the basic package holidaymaking population. Current non- and independent holidaymakers represent a major market opportunity, provided their conversion can be successfully secured. Given the factors at play in the decision not to take a holiday, principally those on economic grounds, the non-holidaymaking population seems to offer little scope for market share

gains. The holiday trade operates above a distinct economic baseline. This is not easily manipulated.

Independent holidaymakers, on the other hand, seem to represent an enticing proposition for tour operators. Any approach to gain their patronage should also bear in mind their main distinguishing characteristics : the independently travelling population is typified by both high and low (but not medium) income earners, car owners, those in higher education and families with young children. Bias towards the upper reaches of the market means the problem of a tarnished image must first be addressed. Secondly, the reasons for travelling independently need examining, of which the main one is freedom. Given sensitive handling of the market, and finely balanced package holiday schedules, there is no reason why a greater degree of freedom should not be built into package holidays, particularly those aimed up-market and at young families on holiday. This might be achieved by increasing the perceived discriminatory power of prospective purchasers. *À la carte* holiday schedules are already offered. There seems no doubt this activity could be profitably extended. 'Independence' is most highly valued whilst on holiday . Offering this quality by *granting the traveller complete* freedom and autonomy once the destination has been reached, whilst still maintaining responsibilities during the journey and before departure, seems the most likely means of attracting independent holidaymakers.

The package holiday, however, by its very nature, will never be able to truly rival the flexibility of the independent holiday. This means that at any one point in time a certain proportion of holidaymakers will travel independently. This limits the immediate prospects for market share gains

by tour operators. Long term gains, however, may be secured by forward planning to take account of changing holiday careers. These predict that an increasing proportion of package holidays will be taken in foreign destinations; not only will an increasing number of older package holidaymakers have direct experience of holidays abroad (and will therefore be accustomed to foreign travel), but also the gradually maturing market is likely to gain in confidence, which should overcome the stigma attached to foreign travel. It is easy to forget that the mass package holiday trade, at least in its current form, is only a quarter of a century old. As the market gradually inherits greater assurance, so air travel will become yet more popular, as will adventure holidays. However, the domestic package holiday still has an important role to play, even if on cost grounds alone. Similarly, work and family commitments mean the fortnight's annual holiday is unlikely to be displaced by trips of three weeks duration or more.

Most of the marketing opportunities identified here are an outcome of evaluating the package holiday product, the make-up of independent travellers (the principal alternative form of holiday travel) and the characteristics of package holidaymakers themselves. Developments which skilfully encompass and blend each of these three elements are likely to realise the most successful marketing initiatives.

10.5 FINAL COMMENTS

The marketing implications previously discussed provide a practical justification for the research. Theoretical justification is found in the multitude of factors which are shown to influence

holidaymaking choice and behaviour. Some of these are straightforward and simply confirm intuitive thinking. Others rely on somewhat more complex association to explain influences traditionally assumed to be simple in their effect. Several original items also emerge. All contribute to the worth of this research by providing an insight into holiday decision-making, particularly the choice of destination, which hitherto has not received the attention it deserves.

Behaviour is often fashioned by economic parameters, be it participation in holidaymaking, the type of transport and accommodation, or the distance travelled. Such influences are already well-documented in existing tourism literature, and need no further comment here. However, the research offers several more novel findings which help generate an understanding of holiday decision-making. The two main elements are the role of risk, and holiday 'careers'.

Though readily assumed to have an effect on holiday choice, the research further uncovers, in some detail, the nature of the part played by risk; its components (health, financial and the unfamiliar), its manifestation (personal inertia in the face of technological developments, a fear of foreign travel and the pull of habitual action) and counter risk-reduction strategies (dependence on personal information or the advice of friends, and eagerness for the comfort and security of familiarity). These tendencies clearly conflict with the need for a break on holiday, for novelty and change. Though varying according to the type of traveller, the nature of the compromise reached determines the extent of satisficing in holiday choice. Risk is invariably an enforcer rather than a prime factor in such decisions, even though its intervening role is

commonplace.

The contribution of holiday 'careers' is equally valuable, and is the second main theme emerging from the research. Holidaymaking behaviour today is a function of the past. A progressive succession of behaviours can be identified, dependent on early experiences during the formative years of the life cycle when benchmarks for behaviour are established. Continuity is the key element of the 'career', behavioural norms therefore stepping from year to year.

A wealth of other valuable factors are also uncovered, which cannot be fully discussed without recourse to repetition of results presented previously. Nonetheless, several are worthy of brief mention. The minimum psychological distance threshold is an interesting finding, and constitutes rare evidence to support Mason's (1984) notion of consumer 'conspicuous consumption'. The fortnight away is unequivocally found to be the standard for most main annual holidays - for all types of holidaymaker, irrespective of their make-up. It is undoubtedly a powerful component of our leisure time subconscious. Similarly ubiquitous is the appeal of the sun, sea and sand, against which is pitched the more accessible appeal of scenic locations. Specialist resorts are visited by a smaller number of holidaymakers generally displaying a commensurate degree of specificity in their holiday decisions. Attitudes and the approach to holiday choice are also shown to influence behaviour, as does the desire to seek either solitude or the security of crowds. Additional input is provided by life-style factors. The nature of the holiday often reflects the nature of work (according to decision autonomy and freedom), though there is ample evidence of the valuable role of the holiday as a

break, when inhibitions are forgotten, personal barriers withdrawn and when unfettered enjoyment becomes paramount.

It is the qualitative findings that provide most clues as to the lessons to be learned from this research if a follow-on study were to be made. Many of the themes uncovered could be followed up in greater detail by more in-depth questioning of the current and past behaviour of a smaller number of holidaymakers. The findings here might be profitably applied to provide a working structure for analysing their choice of holiday. The current research largely identifies the main themes in decision-making, leaving them ripe for selective investigation in finer detail. This cannot be achieved without a firm grounding in the basic parameters fashioning behaviour, and key elements in the overall decision-making process.

It would also be interesting to conduct further research in the relatively wealthy suburb of a prospering town, preferably in the South West or South East, to compare with the findings of the Hull study. Indeed, the conclusions drawn from research based in Hull must not be necessarily assumed applicable to package holidaymakers elsewhere, for Hull is a city with more than its fair share of privation, both social and economic. Personal enabling conditions, outlook and approach are all likely to vary between different localities. Though this would probably be reflected in the characteristics of the sample used for analysis, these differences are only likely to be manifested in the holidaymaking patterns measured, and not in the explanation of these patterns. The main themes in the interpretation of behaviour, together with principal elements of decision-making, are probably applicable to all package holidaymakers,

irrespective of where they live. Package holiday choice is largely an individualistic process of qualitative considerations set in a fairly relaxed framework of more objective parameters. To attempt to generalise over individual findings runs the risk of over-simplification and misinterpretation. Insight is best gained by appreciation of several primary themes. Each of these has an important part to play in the explanation of choice and behaviour in the Hull study, and these are unlikely to be any^{less} applicable to research conducted elsewhere. The explanation derived is therefore a transferable commodity, whilst the behaviour measured is a much more study-specific element of the research.

From being a select activity, the holiday has evolved to become a widespread, high profile component of society. To many people it is a particularly valuable item of their leisure time, and indeed their lives. The holiday is a much more permanent experience that either its intangibility or transcendence suggests. Its benefits are now realised as being far-reaching. The package tour has made a substantial contribution to this evolution in two ways. Firstly, it has largely ensured that the 'happy holiday hordes' comprise a wide range of almost all members of society, whose behaviour collectively constitutes a spatial phenomenon of considerable significance. The development of popular tourism is clearly a function of inclusive tours. Secondly, the package holiday has stamped its identity squarely on the nature of pleasure travel. The appeal of the coast, fine weather, convenience and value have all served to promote the Mediterranean region as one of the most valuable resources of the tourism

trade. Though developments in the fiercely competitive tour operating business are notably rapid, mass participation and the appeal of Mediterranean destinations are always likely to remain the two essential characteristics of package holidaymaking, and an appropriate reminder of the pioneering work of Thomas Cook and Pedro Orts.

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APPENDIX 1A

BEHAVIOUR VARIABLES USED IN ANALYSIS

BEHAVIOUR VARIABLES

LEVEL ONE : General participation (non-, independent and package travel)

LEVEL TWO : Package holiday habits

Familiarity - repeat resort visit
- *previous experience of tour operator*

Booking - month of booking
- extent of advance booking

Holiday party - size
- composition

Services - transport mode
- accommodation type

Temporal elements - date of holiday
- number of nights away

Behaviour whilst on holiday - day time activities
- day trip travel (km)

LEVEL THREE : Spatial patterns

Relative location - journey length (hours)
- linear km from home to destination
- country

Absolute location - coastal or inland
- resort qualities

APPENDIX 1B

POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS USED IN ANALYSIS

POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

- 1 : SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC
 - sex
 - age
 - marital status
 - family status
 - decision type (filter)

- 2 : ECONOMIC
 - education
 - car ownership
 - employment status
 - occupation
 - income
 - number of days of paid leave

- 3 : WORK LIFE-STYLE
 - boring
 - mentally demanding
 - involving much travel
 - routine
 - isolating
 - physically strenuous
 - involving much supervision

- 4 : LEISURE LIFE-STYLE
 - clustered leisure groups
 - see question 39 in Appendix 2E for original inventory

- 5 : HOLIDAY LIFE-STYLE
 - past package holiday experience
 - previous foreign holiday experience
 - number of holidays taken over last twelve and twenty-four months
 - type, location and date of most recent holiday
 - type, location and date of most recent but one holiday

APPENDIX 1C

DECISION MEASURES USED IN ANALYSIS

DECISION MEASURES

- LEVEL ONE : The two main reasons for -
- not taking a holiday (see Q 1, Appendix 2F)
 - taking an independent holiday (see Q 1, Appendix 2G)
 - taking a package holiday (see Q 1, Appendix 2E)
- LEVEL TWO : No specific information
- LEVEL THREE : Destination choice in context
- primary element in overall choice of holiday
 - secondary element in overall choice of holiday
- : Destination information and influences
- party members having influence
 - two most important sources of information
- : Alternatives and evaluation
- number of resorts considered
 - place specificity
- : Destination features as criteria
- clustered desired resort characteristics (see Q 29, Appendix 2E for original inventory)

APPENDIX 2A

THE PRE-PILOT QUESTION FORM



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ANL/JAP

FIELD NO.....
CODE NO.....
ADDRESS.....
AREA CODE.....

THE FOLLOWING REFERS TO HOLIDAYS (THAT IS,BREAKS AWAY FROM HOME) OF AT LEAST 4 NIGHTS,AND TAKEN IN BOTH U.K. AND OVERSEAS DESTINATIONS.

Q.1. Have you,or any member of your family household been on holiday in the last 12 months ?
(i) Yes Y
(ii) No N

IF (ii),CHECK,THEN TERMINATE
IF (i),THEN GO TO Q.2.

Q.2. Which of the following 2 types was this holiday?
(i) Independent,making all your own travel and accomodation arrangements I
(ii) A package holiday (by that I mean travel and accomodation bought as a package for 1 inclusive price) PH
Other...Specify..... O

OBSERVATION RECORD

1.ESTIMATED SOCIAL CLASS
UPPER U
MIDDLE M
LOWER L
2.TYPE OF HOUSE
COUNCIL C
TERRACED T
SEMI -DETACHED . SD
DETACHED D

APPENDIX 2B

THE PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE FORM

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

PILOT SURVEY OF HOLIDAYMAKING

All information given will be completely confidential and the identity of particular individuals or parties not used in analysing the results.

Field No.	
Code No.	

1. INSTRUCTIVE:

Respondent name

Respondent Address

Area

Interview date

Interviewer initials

2. RECORD OF CALLS:

	Date	Time	Outcome, i.e. arranged interview
1			
2			
3			
4			

3. REASONS FOR NOT SECURING INTERVIEW:

- 1. Moved
- 2. Address vacant
- 3. Address not found
- 4. Not known at this address
- 5. Refused

4. REFUSAL BIAS ESTIMATES:

- 1. Age
- 2. Class (L, M, U)
- 3. Family status (F, NF)
- 4. Car ownership (Y, N)
- 5. House type (C, T, SD, D)

5. HOLIDAY TYPE (in last 12 months):

- 1. No holiday
- 2. Independent holiday
- 3. Package holiday

SECTION ONE: ACTIVITY VARIABLES

The following refers to holidays (that is, a break away from home of 4 or more nights) to both U.K. and overseas destinations in the last 12 months where:

1. A Package Holiday is one where travel and accommodation were bought for one inclusive price from a single organisation.
2. An Independent Holiday is one where travel and accommodation arrangements were paid for separately.

Q1 IN THE LAST 12 MONTHS HAVE YOU HAD:

- | | | |
|---------------------------|--|----------|
| 1. No Holiday | | Go to Q2 |
| 2. An Independent Holiday | | Go to Q3 |
| 3. A Package Holiday | | Go to Q4 |

(If more than one holiday in the last 12 months, take the most recent one)

Q2 WHAT WERE THE THREE MOST IMPORTANT REASONS (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE TO YOU) WHY YOU DID NOT TAKE A HOLIDAY?

Unprompted (coded)

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SHOW CARD 1A

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|-----|--|
| 1. No transport | | |
| 2. Work commitments | | |
| 3. Home ties, e.g. health, infants | 1st | |
| 4. Too risky | 2nd | |
| 5. No desire | 3rd | |
| 6. Lack of money | | |
| 7. Poor holiday in past | | |
| 8. Holiday booked up | | |
| 9. Other (specify) | | |

NOW GO TO Q32

Q3 WHAT WERE THE THREE MOST IMPORTANT REASONS (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE TO YOU) WHY YOU CHOSE AN INDEPENDENT HOLIDAY?

Unprompted (coded)

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SHOWCARD 1B

1. Enjoy planning holiday
2. No confidence in Tour Operators
3. Wider holiday choice
4. Cost and value
5. Freedom and independence
6. Package chosen but fully booked
7. Greater prestige element independently
8. Poor package holiday in past
9. Other (specify)

1st
2nd
3rd

.....
NOW GO TO Q32

Q4 WHAT WERE THE THREE MOST IMPORTANT REASONS (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE TO YOU) WHY, IN GENERAL, YOU CHOSE A PACKAGE HOLIDAY?

Unprompted (coded)

--	--	--

SHOWCARD 1C

1. Little planning needed
2. Friends advice
3. To meet people
4. Special package features, e.g. provision for the elderly
5. Cost and value
6. 'looked after', i.e. less risk
7. Makes places accessible
8. Enjoyable package holidays in past
9. Other (specify)

1st
2nd
3rd

.....
NOW GO TO Q5 (DETAILS OF THIS PACKAGE HOLIDAY)

Q5 DO YOU THINK OF THIS AS BEING YOUR MAIN ANNUAL HOLIDAY?

1. Yes
2. No

--

--

Q6 CONCERNING YOUR HOLIDAY PARTY, DID YOU GO ALONE?

1. Yes Go to Q9
2. No Go to Q7

--

--

Q7 HOW MANY PEOPLE (INCLUDING YOURSELF) WERE IN YOUR HOLIDAY PARTY?

Q8 TICK ONE OF THE NINE BOXES BELOW TO INDICATE YOUR PARTY COMPOSITION

Age	Family	Friends	Family & Friends
Inc. Persons <6 yrs	1	2	3
Inc. Persons 6-16 yrs	4	5	6
Persons all over 16 yrs	7	8	9

Q9 WHAT FORM OF ACCOMMODATION DID YOU USE?

1. Apartment or Villa
2. Hotel or other serviced accommodation
3. Camping
4. Caravan
5. Other (specify)

Q10 WHAT WAS THE MAIN FORM OF TRANSPORT FROM THE DEPARTURE POINT OF THE HOLIDAY TO THE HOLIDAY DESTINATION?

1. Car or Van
2. Coach or Bus
3. Train
4. Boat
5. Plane
6. Other (specify)

1st

2nd

Q11 HOW LONG DID THE JOURNEY TAKE TO REACH THE HOLIDAY DESTINATION FROM

- a) The Holiday Departure Point? HRS
- b) Your own House ? HRS

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Q12 WHEN DID YOU BOOK YOUR HOLIDAY?

Q13 WHEN DID YOU DEPART ON HOLIDAY?

Q14 WHEN DID YOU RETURN FROM HOLIDAY?

--	--	--

--	--	--

--	--	--

Q15 WHICH PLACE(S) DID YOU SPEND 4 OR MORE NIGHTS IN?

Resort	Country

--	--	--

--	--	--

--	--	--

--	--	--	--

--	--	--

Q16 HAVE YOU EVER VISITED ANY OF THESE RESORTS BEFORE?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

--	--	--	--

Q17 HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU TRAVELLED WITH THIS TOUR OPERATOR BEFORE?

- 1. None
- 2. 1-3
- 3. >3

Q18 WHAT WERE THE MAIN ACTIVITIES YOU PARTICIPATED IN WHILST ON HOLIDAY? (PROBE - WITH WHOM?)

(a) DURING THE DAY

.....

(b) DURING THE EVENING

.....

--	--	--	--

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SECTION TWO: PLACE CRITERIA

Q19 WAS THE PACKAGE HOLIDAY YOU WENT ON THE ONE OF YOUR FIRST CHOICE?

- 1. Yes Go to Q21
- 2. No Go to Q20

Q20 WHAT WAS YOUR FIRST HOLIDAY?

- 1. Place
- 2. Date
- 3. Accommodation

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Q21 IN ADDITION TO YOURSELF, WHICH, IF ANY, MEMBERS OF YOUR PARTY HAD A MAJOR INFLUENCE ON YOUR CHOICE OF HOLIDAY DESTINATION?

- 1. Spouse
- 2. Friends
- 3. Children
- 4. Other (specify)

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Q22 ON THE TABLE BELOW, WHICH WERE THE 3 SOURCES OF INFORMATION (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE) WHICH HAD THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON YOUR CHOICE OF HOLIDAY DESTINATION?

SHOWCARD 2

- | | | |
|--|-----|--------------------------|
| 1. Friends advice | 1st | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Holiday brochures | 2nd | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Newspaper advertisements and articles | 3rd | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. TV advertisements and programmes | | |
| 5. Travel Agents advice | | |
| 6. Tourist Board publications | | |
| 7. Magazines/other publications | | |
| 8. Your own experiences | | |
| 9. Other (specify) | | |

Q23 ON THE TABLE BELOW, TICK THOSE FACTORS HAVING A MAJOR INFLUENCE ON YOUR CHOICE OF HOLIDAY (TICK ANY NUMBER)

SHOWCARD 3

Q24 FOR THOSE YOU HAVE TICKED, PLEASE RANK THEM IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE TO YOU.

Q25 AGAIN FOR THOSE YOU HAVE TICKED, INDICATE IF THEY WERE A CONSTRAINT ON YOUR CHOICE (- SIGN) OR A PREFERENCE (+ SIGN).

CRITERIA	Q23 TICK	Q24 RANK	Q25 - or +
1. People you went with			
2. Which Tour Operator			
3. Type of Accommodation			
4. Transport type			
5. Holiday timing			
6. Where to go			
7. Holiday cost			
8. Other (specify).....			

Q26 WHICH WAS MOST IMPORTANT TO YOU?

- | | | |
|---|-----------|--------------------------|
| 1. Visiting a specific resort | GO TO Q29 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. The general characteristics of the holiday destination | GO TO Q27 | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Q30 WHICH WERE THE 3 MOST IMPORTANT FACTORS (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE TO YOU)?

1st		2nd		3rd	
-----	--	-----	--	-----	--

Q31 WHAT WAS THE MAIN REASON WHY YOU INITIALLY WANTED TO TAKE THE HOLIDAY?

.....

SECTION THREE: POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

I'd now like you to tell me a few things about yourself.

Q32 TO WHICH CATEGORY DO YOU BELONG?

- 1. Single
- 2. Married
- 3. Divorced
- 4. Separated
- 5. Widowed
- 6. Other (specify)

Q33 DO YOU HAVE ANY CHILDREN?

- 1. Yes GO TO Q34
- 2. No GO TO Q35

Q34 HOW MANY CHILDREN DO YOU HAVE IN THE CATEGORIES BELOW?

- 1. <6 years
- 2. 6-16 years
- 3. >16 years

Q35 AT WHAT STAGE DID YOU FINISH YOUR FULL-TIME EDUCATION?

- 1. At minimum school leaving age
- 2. After staying on at school
- 3. After higher education
- 4. Continuing

Q36 AT THE TIME YOU BOOKED YOUR HOLIDAY, WERE YOU IN ANY KIND OF EMPLOYMENT?

- 1. Yes GO TO Q37
- 2. No GO TO Q41

Q37 WHAT WAS YOUR OCCUPATION?

Q38 HOW MANY DAYS OF PAID LEAVE DO YOU RECEIVE EACH YEAR?

- 16. Meals out and pub visits
- 17. Walks and visits to parks
- 18. Day trips out
- 19. Watching sport
- 20. Playing indoor sport
- 21. Playing outdoor sport
- 22. Water sports
- 23. Other (specify)

Q42 TICK ANY OF THE WORDS BELOW WHICH BEST DESCRIBE YOUR

- (a) HOME ENVIRONMENT, THEN
- (b) HOLIDAY ENVIRONMENT (IF APPLICABLE)

SHOWCARD 7

HOME

- 1. Peaceful
- 2. Close to shops & entertainment
- 3. Cosy
- 4. Enclosed
- 5. Natural
- 6. Noisy
- 7. Scenic
- 8. Open
- 9. Remote from shops & entertainment
- 10. Busy
- 11. Bleak
- 12. Developed
- 13. Ugly
- 14. Quiet

HOLIDAY

Q43 HOW MANY HOLIDAYS HAVE YOU HAD

- (a) IN THE LAST 12 MONTHS?
- (b) IN THE LAST 24 MONTHS?

Q44 WHAT HOLIDAYS HAD YOU TAKEN BEFORE YOUR MOST RECENT ONE?

Holiday	Location	Month/Year	Type (I/PH)
1. Most recent but one			
2. Most recent but two			

Q45 IN WHAT WAYS DID THESE TWO HOLIDAYS INFLUENCE YOUR CHOICE OF MOST RECENT HOLIDAY? (HOLIDAY NUMBER IN BRACKETS AFTERWARDS)

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

Q46 AT THE TIME OF YOUR LAST HOLIDAY, DID ANYONE IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD HAVE USE OF A CAR?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No.

Q47 WOULD YOU PLEASE GIVE ME YOUR DATE OF BIRTH?

DAY		MONTH		YEAR	
-----	--	-------	--	------	--

--	--

Q48 WOULD YOU PLACE YOURSELF IN ONE OF THE FOLLOWING (ANNUAL INCOME) CATEGORIES?

- 1. £ <4000
- 2. £4001-£8000
- 3. £8001-£12,000
- 4. £12,001-£16,000
- 5. £16,001-£20,000
- 6. >£20,000

FINALLY, JUST SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR ATTITUDES AND FEELINGS

Q49 THERE ARE TIMES WHEN I DON'T FEEL IN THE RIGHT MOOD TO SEE ANYONE:

- 1. Very rarely (0)
- 2. Quite often (2)
- 3. In between (1)

Q50 IF I AM CALLED IN BY MY BOSS, I:

- 1. Make it a chance to ask for something I want (0)
- 2. Fear I have done something wrong (2)
- 3. In between (1)

Q51 I FIND IT EMBARRASSING TO HAVE PRAISE BESTOWED UPON ME:

- 1. Yes (2)
- 2. No (0)
- 3. In between (1)

Q52 IF ACQUAINTANCES TREAT ME BADLY AND SHOW THEY DISLIKE ME:

- 1. It doesn't upset me a bit (0)
- 2. I tend to get a bit downhearted (2)
- 3. In between (1)

Q53 ONCE IN A WHILE I HAVE A SENSE OF VAGUE DANGER I DON'T UNDERSTAND:

- 1. Yes (2)
- 2. No (0)
- 3. In between (1)

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP

APPENDIX 2C

FILTER SURVEY CLASSIFICATION FORM



THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

Department of Geography
The University
Hull HU6 7RX

Professor J. A. Patmore, B.Litt; M.A.
Professor J. H. Appleton, M.A; M.Sc; Ph.D.
Professor R. C. Ward, B.A; Ph.D.

Telephone: 0482 46311

JAP/ANL

September 1984

FIELD NUMBER.....

CODE NUMBER.....

HOUSEHOLD ADDRESS.....

AREA (WARD)

THE FOLLOWING DEFINES A HOLIDAY AS A BREAK AWAY FROM HOME OF 4 NIGHTS OR MORE, TO ANY U.K. OR OVERSEAS DESTINATION, AND STARTED BETWEEN 1st OCTOBER 1983 AND 30th SEPTEMBER 1984.

Q1 HAVE YOU, OR ANY MEMBER OF YOUR FAMILY HOUSEHOLD, BEEN ON HOLIDAY IN THE 12 MONTHS BETWEEN 1st OCTOBER 1983 AND 30th SEPTEMBER 1984 ?

TICK

- 1. Yes GO TO Q2
- 2. No CHECK, THEN TERMINATE

<input type="checkbox"/>	Y
<input type="checkbox"/>	N

Q2 WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING TWO TYPES WAS THIS HOLIDAY ? (IF MORE THAN ONE HOLIDAY HAS BEEN TAKEN, THE MOST RECENT ONE IN THE STATED TIME PERIOD SHOULD BE TAKEN)

- 1. AN INDEPENDENT HOLIDAY (ONE WHERE TRAVEL AND ACCOMMODATION ARRANGEMENTS WERE MADE AND PAID FOR SEPARATELY)
- 2. A PACKAGE HOLIDAY (ONE WHERE TRAVEL AND ACCOMMODATION WERE BOUGHT FOR ONE INCLUSIVE PRICE FROM A SINGLE ORGANISATION)

IH

PH

Note : All coach tours, cruises etc. are to be regarded as a package holiday.

REMARKS (IF NEEDED)
.....

APPENDIX 2D

EXPLANATORY INTERVIEW LETTER



THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

Department of Geography

The University

Hull HU6 7RX

Telephone: 0482 46311

Professor J. A. Patmore, B.Litt; M.A.
Professor J. H. Appleton, M.A; M.Sc; Ph.D.
Professor R. C. Ward, B.A; Ph.D.

JAP/ANL

October 1984

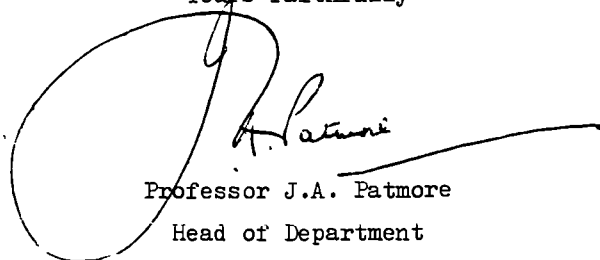
Dear Sir/Madam,

Several days ago you will have been visited by a field worker from the University of Hull. This is part of a three year survey of holidaymaking being carried out in the Department of Geography at the University.

The project is one of the first such programmes of research of its kind in this area. It aims to reveal the factors affecting participation in all forms of holidaymaking, and to study the ways in which people actually choose whether or not to go on holiday. The findings from this survey will hopefully help identify demand for new and different types of holiday.

In the next few days you will be contacted with a view to arranging an appointment, at your convenience, for an interview. This lasts no more than 15 minutes and is anonymous. You have been chosen by a scientific method from the total population of North Humberside. It is very important that a true cross-section of both holidaymakers and non-holidaymakers is obtained, and with this in mind I would be most grateful for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully



Professor J.A. Patmore
Head of Department

APPENDIX 2E

**THE MAIN SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FORM
(PACKAGE HOLIDAYMAKERS)**

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL
SURVEY OF HOLIDAYMAKING

All information given will be completely confidential and the identity of particular individuals not used in analysing the results.

FIELD No.	
CODE No.	

1. INSTRUCTIVE:

Household address.....
 Decision-maker name*.....
 Respondent name.....
 Area.....
 Interview date.....
 Interviewer initials.....

* Note: In the case of joint decisions the main household income earner is to be taken as the decision-maker. After name, indicate "I" (individual) or "J" (joint) decision in brackets.

2. RECORD OF CALLS:

	Date	Time	Outcome, i.e. arranged interview
1			
2			
3			

3. REASONS FOR NOT SECURING INTERVIEW:

- 1. Address vacant
- 2. Address not found
- 3. Refused
- 4. Other (specify).....

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
--------------------------	--------------------------

4. REFUSAL BIAS ESTIMATES:

- 1. Age
- 2. Class (L,M,U)
- 3. Family status (F,NF)
- 4. Car ownership (Y,N)
- 5. House type (C,T,SD,D)

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

SECTION ONE : ACTIVITY VARIABLES

The following refers to holidays (that is, a break away from home of 4 or more nights) to both U.K. and overseas destinations started between 1st October 1983 and 30th September 1984. A Package Holiday is one where travel and accommodation were bought for one inclusive price from a single organisation.

If, in the period stated above, more than one holiday has been taken, the interview should be concerned with the most recent one.

Q1 WHAT WERE THE TWO MOST IMPORTANT REASONS (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE TO YOU) WHY, IN GENERAL, YOU CHOSE A PACKAGE HOLIDAY ?

Unprompted (coded)

--	--

- 1. Little planning needed
- 2. Friends advice
- 3. To meet people
- 4. Special package features, e.g. provision for the elderly
- 5. Good value
- 6. Looked after, i.e. less risk
- 7. Makes places more accessible
- 8. Enjoyable package holidays in past
- 9. Other (specify)

1st	
2nd	

NOW SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR MOST RECENT PACKAGE HOLIDAY

Q2 DO YOU THINK OF THIS AS BEING YOUR MAIN ANNUAL HOLIDAY ?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

Q3 CONCERNING YOUR HOLIDAY PARTY, DID YOU GO ALONE ?

- 1. Yes GO TO Q6
- 2. No GO TO Q4

Q4 HOW MANY PEOPLE (INCLUDING YOURSELF) WERE IN YOUR HOLIDAY PARTY ?

<input style="width: 40px; height: 20px;" type="checkbox"/>	<input style="width: 40px; height: 20px;" type="checkbox"/>
---	---

Q5 TICK ONE OF THE NINE BOXES BELOW TO INDICATE YOUR PARTY COMPOSITION

Age	Family	Friends	Family & Friends
Inc. persons below 6 yrs	1	2	3
Inc. persons 6-16 yrs	4	5	6
Persons all over 16 yrs	7	8	9

Q6 WHAT FORM OF ACCOMMODATION DID YOU USE ?

1. Apartment or villa
2. Hotel or other serviced accommodation
3. Camping
4. Caravan
5. Other (specify)

Q7 WHAT WAS THE MAIN FORM OF TRANSPORT FROM THE DEPARTURE POINT OF THE HOLIDAY TO THE HOLIDAY DESTINATION ? (IF A TOUR, THEN INDICATE TOUR MODE)

1. Car or van
2. Coach or bus
3. Train
4. Plane
5. Other (specify).....

Q8 HOW LONG DID THE JOURNEY TAKE TO REACH THE HOLIDAY RESORT DESTINATION FROM LEAVING YOUR HOUSE ?

HRS

Q9 WHEN DID YOU BOOK YOUR HOLIDAY? (month/year)/.....

Q10 WHEN DID YOU DEPART ON HOLIDAY? (month/year)/.....

Q11 FOR HOW MANY NIGHTS WERE YOU AWAY FROM HOME ?

Q12 WHICH PLACE(S) DID YOU SPEND 4 OR MORE NIGHTS IN ? (FOR TOURS, INDICATE PLACE OF LONGEST STAY)

Resort	Country

--	--

--

--

--	--	--

Q13 HAVE YOU EVER VISITED ANY OF THESE RESORTS BEFORE ?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

Q14 HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU TRAVELLED WITH THIS TOUR OPERATOR BEFORE?

- 1. None
- 2. 1-3
- 3. More than 3

Q15 WHAT WERE THE MAIN ACTIVITIES YOU PARTICIPATED IN (DURING THE DAY) WHILST ON HOLIDAY ? (TICK ANY NUMBER)

- 1. Shopping
- 2. Visiting friends and relatives
- 3. Relaxing and resting
- 4. Land sports, e.g. tennis
- 5. Historical/Cultural visits
- 6. Seeing other tourist attractions
- 7. Walking and rambling
- 8. Sunbathing and swimming
- 9. Mixing with local people
- 10. Water sports, e.g. sailing
- 11. Other (specify).....

Q16 WHAT WERE THE TWO MOST IMPORTANT ACTIVITIES (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE TO YOU) ?

1st	
2nd	

Q17 DURING YOUR HOLIDAY, DID YOU EVER TRAVEL MORE THAN 5 MILES AWAY FROM THE RESORT ?

- 1. Yes GO TO Q18
- 2. No GO TO Q19

Q18 APPROXIMATELY HOW FAR AWAY WAS THE FURTHEST PLACE YOU VISITED ?

 MILES

--	--	--

--	--	--	--

--	--	--	--

SECTION TWO : PLACE CRITERIA

Q19 WAS THE PACKAGE HOLIDAY YOU WENT ON THE ONE OF YOUR FIRST CHOICE?

- 1. Yes GO TO Q21
- 2. No GO TO Q20

Q20 WHAT WAS YOUR FIRST CHOICE OF HOLIDAY ?

- 1. Place.....
- 2. Date.....
- 3. Accommodation.....

Q21 HOW MANY DIFFERENT RESORTS DID YOU CONSIDER ?

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
--------------------------	--------------------------

Q22 IN ADDITION TO YOURSELF, WHICH (IF ANY) MEMBERS OF YOUR PARTY HAD A MAJOR INFLUENCE ON YOUR CHOICE OF HOLIDAY DESTINATION ?
(TICK ANY NUMBER)

- 1. Spouse
- 2. Friends
- 3. Children
- 4. Other (specify)

<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>

Q23 WHICH WERE THE TWO SOURCES OF INFORMATION (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE TO YOU) WHICH HAD THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON YOUR CHOICE OF HOLIDAY DESTINATION ?

Unprompted (coded)

- 1. Friends advice
- 2. Holiday brochures
- 3. Newspaper advertisements & articles
- 4. TV advertisements and programmes
- 5. Travel Agents advice
- 6. Tourist Board publications
- 7. Your own experiences
- 8. Magazines / other publications
- 9. Other (specify).....

1st	<input type="checkbox"/>
2nd	<input type="checkbox"/>

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q24 ON THE TABLE AT THE TOP OF THE NEXT PAGE, TICK THOSE FACTORS HAVING A MAJOR INFLUENCE ON YOUR OVERALL CHOICE OF HOLIDAY
(TICK ANY NUMBER)

Q25 FOR THOSE YOU HAVE TICKED, INDICATE WHICH WERE THE TWO MOST IMPORTANT FACTORS (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE TO YOU)

Factor	Q24 Tick	Q25 Rank		
1. People you went with				
2. Which Tour Operator to use				
3. Type of accommodation				
4. Means of transport				
5. Timing of holiday				
6. Where to go				
7. How much it was to cost				
8. Other (specify).....				

Q26 BEFORE CHOOSING YOUR HOLIDAY, DID YOU HAVE A SPECIFIC PREFERENCE TO VISIT ONE PARTICULAR RESORT ?

1. Yes GO TO Q29

2. No GO TO Q27

Q27 DID YOU HAVE A SPECIFIC PREFERENCE TO VISIT A PARTICULAR PART OF A COUNTRY ?

1. Yes GO TO Q29

2. No GO TO Q28

Q28 DID YOU HAVE A SPECIFIC PREFERENCE TO VISIT A PARTICULAR COUNTRY?

1. Yes

2. No

Q29 TICK THOSE CHARACTERISTICS WHICH, BEFORE THE HOLIDAY, YOU FELT TO BE OF MAJOR IMPORTANCE IN THE CHOICE OF YOUR HOLIDAY DESTINATION (TICK ANY NUMBER)

Unprompted (coded)

1. Facilities to suit all the family				
2. Varied nightlife				
3. Busy and lively resort				
4. Good shopping facilities				
5. Local flavour				
6. Cheap resort in which to stay				
7. Scenic area				
8. British connections (i.e. beer, language)				
9. Historical/Cultural sites of interest				
10. Sports facilities				
11. Accessible (i.e. within 24 hrs travel)				
12. Favourable climate				
13. Peaceful place				
14. Beaches / sea swimming				
15. Resorts reputation				
16. Other (specify).....				

Q30 WHICH WERE THE TWO MOST IMPORTANT FACTORS (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE TO YOU) ?

1st	
2nd	

SECTION THREE : POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

I'D NOW LIKE YOU TO TELL ME A FEW THINGS ABOUT YOURSELF .

IMPORTANT : WHERE THE DECISION-MAKER AND THE RESPONDENT ARE THE SAME PERSON, QUESTIONS ARE AS WRITTEN. IN THE CASE OF JOINT DECISIONS, AND WHERE THE RESPONDENT AND THE IDENTIFIED DECISION-MAKER ARE DIFFERENT, QUESTIONS MARKED "DM" REFER TO THE DECISION-MAKER AND NOT TO THE RESPONDENT. IN SUCH INSTANCES THE RESPONDENT MUST ANSWER ACCORDINGLY.

Q31 TO WHICH CATEGORY DO YOU BELONG ? (DM)

1. Single
2. Married
3. Divorced
4. Separated
5. Widowed
6. Other (specify).....

Q32 DO YOU HAVE ANY CHILDREN ? (DM)

1. Yes GO TO Q33
2. No GO TO Q34

Q33 HOW OLD ARE YOUR CHILDREN ? (DM)

--	--	--	--	--	--	--

--	--	--

Q34 AT WHAT STAGE DID YOU FINISH YOUR FULL-TIME EDUCATION ? (DM)

1. At minimum school leaving age
2. After staying on at school
3. After higher education
4. Continuing

Q35 AT THE TIME YOU BOOKED YOUR HOLIDAY WERE YOU IN ANY KIND OF EMPLOYMENT ? (DM)

1. Yes GO TO Q36
2. No GO TO Q39

If retired then indicate by coding "R" with previous occupation in brackets afterwards.

Q40 HOW MANY HOLIDAYS HAVE YOU HAD IN THE

(i) Last 12 months ? (DM)

(ii) Last 24 months ? (DM)

Q41 HAVE YOU EVER BEEN ON A PACKAGE HOLIDAY ? (DM)

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

Q42 HAVE YOU EVER BEEN ON A HOLIDAY ABROAD BEFORE ? (DM)

- 1. Yes GO TO Q43
- 2. No GO TO Q44

Q43 HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU BEEN ABROAD ON HOLIDAY ? (DM)

--	--

Q44 WHAT HOLIDAYS HAD YOU TAKEN BEFORE YOUR MOST RECENT ONE ? (DM)

Holiday	Location	Month/year	Type I/PH
1. Most recent but one			
2. Most recent but two			

Q45 AT THE TIME OF YOUR LAST HOLIDAY, DID ANYONE IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD HAVE USE OF A CAR ?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

Q46 WOULD YOU PLEASE GIVE ME YOUR DATE OF BIRTH ? (DM)

Day		Month		Year	
-----	--	-------	--	------	--

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Q47 PLEASE CONSIDER YOUR TOTAL ANNUAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME. IN WHICH CATEGORY BELOW DOES YOUR HOUSEHOLD BELONG ?

- 1. Less than £4000
- 2. £4001-£8000
- 3. £8001-£12,000
- 4. £12,001-£16,000
- 5. £16,001-£20,000
- 6. More than £20,000

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

1. Is a holiday seen as a risk ? If so, components of risk probe.
2. Holiday entitlement ?
3. Bargaining structure and holiday choice.
Blend of attributes ?
Attributes retained and attributes traded-off.
4. Choice maximisation ? If not, do satisficer principles apply ?
Is satisficing related to risk and the " safe bet " holiday ?
5. Further destination decision process information
6. Alternatives ?
Is the first suitable holiday found the one that is chosen ?
If not, how are the alternatives considered and evaluated ?
 1. Highest overall score of attributes (i.e. weighting X value)
 2. Superior in all holiday attributes (dominance)
 3. All attributes score over certain threshold (conjunctive)
 4. One attribute score over certain threshold (disjunctive)
 5. Least risky : i.e. highest score for lowest attribute (maximin)
 6. Highest value of highest rated attribute (maximax)
 7. Elimination successively of alternatives by comparative attribute score
(lexicographic)
 8. Elimination by attributes
7. HOME ENVT FEATURES
8. HOLIDAY ENVT FEATURES

APPENDIX 2F

**THE MAIN SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FORM
(NON-HOLIDAYMAKERS)**

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL
SURVEY OF HOLIDAYMAKING

All information given will be completely confidential and the identity of particular individuals not used in analysing the results.

FIELD No.	
CODE No.	

1. INSTRUCTIVE:

Household address.....
 Decision-maker name*.....
 Respondent name.....
 Area.....
 Interview date.....
 Interviewer initials.....

* Note: In the case of joint decisions the main household income earner is to be taken as the decision-maker. After name, indicate "I" (individual) or "J" (joint) decision in brackets.

2. RECORD OF CALLS:

	Date	Time	Outcome, i.e. arranged interview
1			
2			
3			

3. REASONS FOR NOT SECURING INTERVIEW:

- 1. Address vacant
- 2. Address not found
- 3. Refused
- 4. Other (specify).....

4. REFUSAL BIAS ESTIMATES:

- 1. Age
- 2. Class (L,M,U)
- 3. Family status (F,NF)
- 4. Car ownership (Y,N)
- 5. House type (C,T,SD,D)

NOTE : The following refers to people who have not had a holiday
 (that is, a break away from home of 4 nights or more) between
1st October 1983 and 30th September 1984.

Q1 WHAT WERE THE TWO MOST IMPORTANT REASONS (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE
 TO YOU) WHY YOU DID NOT TAKE A HOLIDAY ?

Unprompted (coded)

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1. No transport
2. Work commitments
3. Home ties, e.g. health, infants
4. Too risky
5. No desire
6. Lack of money
7. Poor holiday in the past
8. Holiday chosen booked up
9. Other (specify).....

1st	
2nd	

I'D NOW LIKE YOU TO TELL ME A FEW THINGS ABOUT YOURSELF.

Please turn to the next page

POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

IMPORTANT : WHERE THE DECISION-MAKER AND THE RESPONDENT ARE THE SAME PERSON, THE QUESTIONS ARE AS WRITTEN. IN THE CASE OF JOINT DECISIONS, AND WHERE THE RESPONDENT AND THE IDENTIFIED DECISION-MAKER ARE DIFFERENT, QUESTIONS MARKED " DM " REFER TO THE DECISION-MAKER AND NOT TO THE RESPONDENT. IN SUCH INSTANCES THE RESPONDENT MUST ANSWER THE QUESTION ACCORDINGLY.

Q2 TO WHICH CATEGORY DO YOU BELONG ? (DM)

- 1. Single
- 2. Married
- 3. Divorced
- 4. Separated
- 5. Widowed
- 6. Other (specify).....

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Q3 DO YOU HAVE ANY CHILDREN ? (DM)

- 1. Yes GO TO Q4
- 2. No GO TO Q5

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Q4 HOW OLD ARE YOUR CHILDREN ? (DM)

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Q5 AT WHAT STAGE DID YOU FINISH YOUR FULL-TIME EDUCATION ? (DM)

- 1. At minimum school leaving age
- 2. After staying on at school
- 3. After higher education
- 4. Continuing

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Q6 AT ANY TIME DURING THE STUDY PERIOD (OCTOBER 1st 1983 TO SEPTEMBER 30th 1984) WERE YOU IN ANY KIND OF EMPLOYMENT ? (DM)

- 1. Yes GO TO Q7
- 2. No GO TO Q10

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If retired then indicate by coding "R" with previous occupation in brackets afterwards

Q7 WHAT WAS YOUR OCCUPATION ? (DM).....
(STATE IF SELF-EMPLOYED)

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Q8 HOW MANY DAYS OF PAID LEAVE DO YOU RECEIVE EACH YEAR ? (DM)

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Q9 IN GENERAL, DO YOU FIND YOUR WORK ; (DM)

	Yes	No	Inbetween
1. Boring			
2. Mentally demanding			
3. Requires much travel			
4. Routine			
5. Isolates you from other people			
6. Physically strenuous			
7. Means supervising others			

Q10 DURING THE LAST YEAR WHICH LEISURE ACTIVITIES HAVE YOU GENERALLY PARTICIPATED IN ONCE A WEEK OR MORE OFTEN ? (DM)
(TICK ANY NUMBER)

1. Car and home maintenance		
2. Entertaining and/or visiting people		
3. Indoor games, e.g. cards		
4. Gardening		
5. Indoor hobbies, e.g. crafts		
6. Listening to radio, records etc..		
7. Spending time with children		
8. Pet care activities		
9. Relaxing and resting		
10. Reading books		
11. Water sports		
12. Watching sport (not on TV)		
13. Bingo		
14. Church		
15. Meals out and pub visits		
16. Day trips out		
17. Playing indoor sports		
18. Club meetings		
19. Cinema, disco, dance, theatre		
20. Outdoor hobbies		
21. Walks and visits to parks		
22. Playing outdoor sports		
23. Other (specify).....		

Q11 DURING THE LAST 12 MONTHS HAVE YOU HAD ANY HOLIDAY WEEKENDS AWAY FROM HOME ? (DM)

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

Q12 HOW MANY HOLIDAYS HAVE YOU HAD IN THE LAST 24 MONTHS ? (DM)

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Q13 HAVE YOU EVER BEEN ON A PACKAGE HOLIDAY ? (DM)

1. Yes
2. No

Q14 HAVE YOU EVER BEEN ON A HOLIDAY ABROAD ? (DM)

1. Yes GO TO Q15
2. No GO TO Q16

Q15 HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU BEEN ABROAD ON HOLIDAY BEFORE ? (DM)

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Q16 WHAT ARE THE TWO MOST RECENT HOLIDAYS YOU HAVE TAKEN ? (DM)

Holiday	Location	Month/year	Type I/PH
1. Most recent			
2. Most recent but one			

Q17 DURING THE STUDY PERIOD DID ANYONE IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD HAVE USE OF A CAR ?

1. Yes
2. No

Q18 WOULD YOU PLEASE GIVE ME YOUR DATE OF BIRTH ? (DM)

Day		Month		Year	
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Q19 PLEASE CONSIDER YOUR TOTAL ANNUAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME. IN WHICH CATEGORY BELOW DOES YOUR HOUSEHOLD BELONG ?

1. Less than £4000
2. £4001-£8000
3. £8001-£12,000
4. £12,001-£16,000
5. £16,001-£20,000
6. More than £20,000

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP

APPENDIX 2G

**THE MAIN SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FORM
(INDEPENDENT HOLIDAYMAKERS)**

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

SURVEY OF HOLIDAYMAKING

All information given will be completely confidential and the identity of particular individuals not used in analysing the results.

FIELD No.	
CODE No.	

1. INSTRUCTIVE:

Household address.....

Decision-maker name*.....

Respondent name.....

Area.....

Interview date.....

Interviewer initials.....

* Note: In the case of joint decisions the main household income earner is to be taken as the decision-maker. After name, indicate "I" (individual) or "J" (joint) decision in brackets.

2. RECORD OF CALLS:

	Date	Time	Outcome, i.e. arranged interview
1			
2			
3			

3. REASONS FOR NOT SECURING INTERVIEW:

- 1. Address vacant
- 2. Address not found
- 3. Refused
- 4. Other (specify).....

4. REFUSAL BIAS ESTIMATES:

- 1. Age
- 2. Class (L,M,U)
- 3. Family status (F,NF)
- 4. Car ownership (Y,N)
- 5. House type (C,T,SD,D)

NOTE : The following refers to holidays (that is, a break away from home of 4 nights or more) to both U.K. and overseas destinations started between 1st October 1983 and 30th September 1984. An Independent holiday is one where travel and accommodation arrangements were made and paid for separately.

If, in the period stated above, more than one holiday has been taken, the interview should be concerned with the most recent one.

Q1 WHAT WERE THE TWO MOST IMPORTANT REASONS (IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE TO YOU) WHY YOU CHOSE AN INDEPENDENT HOLIDAY ?

Unprompted (coded)

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1. Enjoy planning the holiday
2. No confidence in Tour Operators
3. Wider holiday choice
4. Cost and value
5. Greater prestige element independently
6. Freedom and independence
7. Poor package holiday in the past
8. Package chosen but fully booked
9. Other (specify)

1st	
2nd	

I'D NOW LIKE YOU TO TELL ME A FEW THINGS ABOUT YOURSELF.

Please turn to the next page.

POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

IMPORTANT : WHERE THE DECISION-MAKER AND THE RESPONDENT ARE THE SAME PERSON, THE QUESTIONS ARE AS WRITTEN. IN THE CASE OF JOINT DECISIONS, AND WHERE THE RESPONDENT AND THE IDENTIFIED DECISION-MAKER ARE DIFFERENT, QUESTIONS MARKED "DM" REFER TO THE DECISION-MAKER AND NOT TO THE RESPONDENT. IN SUCH INSTANCES THE RESPONDENT MUST ANSWER THE QUESTION ACCORDINGLY.

Q2 TO WHICH CATEGORY DO YOU BELONG ? (DM)

- 1. Single
- 2. Married
- 3. Divorced
- 4. Separated
- 5. Widowed
- 6. Other (specify).....

Q3 DO YOU HAVE ANY CHILDREN ? (DM)

- 1. Yes GO TO Q4
- 2. No GO TO Q5

Q4 HOW OLD ARE YOUR CHILDREN ? (DM)

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Q5 AT WHAT STAGE DID YOU FINISH YOUR FULL-TIME EDUCATION ? (DM)

- 1. At minimum school leaving age
- 2. After staying on at school
- 3. After higher education
- 4. Continuing

Q6 AT THE TIME YOU BOOKED YOUR HOLIDAY WERE YOU IN ANY KIND OF EMPLOYMENT ? (DM)

- 1. Yes GO TO Q7
- 2. No GO TO Q10

If retired then indicate by coding "R" with previous occupation in brackets afterwards

Q7 WHAT WAS YOUR OCCUPATION ? (DM).....
(STATE IF SELF-EMPLOYED)

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Q8 HOW MANY DAYS OF PAID LEAVE DO YOU RECEIVE EACH YEAR ? (DM)

<input type="checkbox"/>			
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Q9 IN GENERAL, DO YOU FIND YOUR WORK ; (DM)

	Yes	No	Inbetween
1. Boring			
2. Mentally demanding			
3. Requires much travel			
4. Routine			
5. Isolates you from other people			
6. Physically strenuous			
7. Means supervising others			

Q10 DURING THE LAST YEAR WHICH LEISURE ACTIVITIES HAVE YOU
GENERALLY PARTICIPATED IN ONCE A WEEK OR MORE OFTEN ? (DM)
 (TICK ANY NUMBER)

1. Car and home maintenance		
2. Entertaining and/or visiting people		
3. Indoor games, e.g. cards		
4. Gardening		
5. Indoor hobbies, e.g. crafts		
6. Listening to radio, records etc..		
7. Spending time with children		
8. Pet care activities		
9. Relaxing and resting		
10. Reading books		
11. Water sports		
12. Watching sport (not on TV)		
13. Bingo		
14. Church		
15. Meals out and pub visits		
16. Day trips out		
17. Playing indoor sports		
18. Club meetings		
19. Cinema, disco, dance, theatre		
20. Outdoor hobbies		
21. Walks and visits to parks		
22. Playing outdoor sports		
23. Other (specify).....		

Q11 HOW MANY HOLIDAYS HAVE YOU HAD IN THE

(i) Last 12 months ? (DM)

(ii) Last 24 months ? (DM)

Q12 HAVE YOU EVER BEEN ON A PACKAGE HOLIDAY ? (DM)

1. Yes
2. No

Q13 HAVE YOU EVER BEEN ON A HOLIDAY ABROAD BEFORE ? (DM)

1. Yes GO TO Q14
2. No GO TO Q15

Q14 HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU BEEN ABROAD ON HOLIDAY ? (DM)

--	--

Q15 WHAT HOLIDAYS HAD YOU TAKEN BEFORE YOUR MOST RECENT ONE ? (DM)

Holiday	Location	Month/year	Type I/PH
1. Most recent but one			
2. Most recent but two			

Q16 AT THE TIME OF YOUR LAST HOLIDAY, DID ANYONE IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD HAVE USE OF A CAR ?

1. Yes
2. No

Q17 WOULD YOU PLEASE GIVE ME YOUR DATE OF BIRTH ? (DM)

Day		Month		Year	
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Q18 PLEASE CONSIDER YOUR TOTAL ANNUAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME. IN WHICH CATEGORY BELOW DOES YOUR HOUSEHOLD BELONG ?

1. Less than £4000
2. £4001-£8000
3. £8001-£12,000
4. £12,001-£16,000
5. £16,001-£20,000
6. More than £20,000

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP