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Expectations and Satisfaction in Tourism
An Exploratory Study into Measuring Satisfaction

by Juergen Gnoth

A thesis submitted for the degree of

PhD

at the University of Otago

New Zealand

1994
This dissertation would never have seen a bookshelf if it wasn’t for the tremendous encouragement from my supervisor, Rob Lawson, my wife Kate and our little children, who reminded me of the real world out there.

It was originally set out, and the survey conducted, as the author’s second master thesis. The results and quality of the survey, however, encouraged this author to re-register it as a dissertation for the degree of a PhD.
Abstract

The subject of this dissertation is an exploratory research effort into expectations and levels of satisfaction. The object of a longitudinal study were campervan tourists. A repeat measurement survey was conducted.

The literature on motives, motivation-formation and attitudes is covered. Motivations are defined as the combination of motives and situations. Motives are general, while values are more specific and are aroused in defineable situations. Motivations form the organizing precursors to expectations.

Expectations are tentative assumptions which take the form of attitudes. Attitudes are different from expectations because attitudes are latent dispositions, whereas expectations are temporally forward-directed and awaiting confirmation.

The literature on satisfaction research is reviewed and discussed and includes quality of life, leisure and recreation, tourism and consumer behaviour research.

The two-factor model of satisfaction is scrutinized and used for measuring levels of satisfaction. It states that satisfaction is monopolar and distinct from dissatisfaction. Both form two independent scales: from not dissatisfied to totally dissatisfied and not satisfied to totally satisfied.

Satisfaction research is criticised for not adequately,

1. addressing the role of values and their different dimensions,
2. considering the control a person has over outcomes,
3. including all parameters that impact on satisfaction formation (during expectation formation, experience and satisfaction formation),
4. differentiating between the impacts of tangible and intangible product attributes on satisfaction outcomes,
5. considering the effects of experiences on expectations when measuring expectations post hoc.

The focus of the study are human values as they relate to life’s major roles and Lynn Kahle’s List of Values (LOV) have been used.

Values have been defined as learnt strategies to adapt ones’ environment according to ones’ needs and wants and/or to adapt oneself to the environment in order to achieve satisfaction. Three types of values are distinguished, instrumental, outer-directed expressive and inner-directed expressive values.
Instrumental values are those which can form a premise for logical arguments. Outer-directed expressive values form arguments as if their premises were logical: an object is imbued with subjectively symbolic attributes.

Such values are outer-directed because they target objects outside of the person. The relationship between the person and the object has a strongly cognitive structure, by way of which the person 'knows' that tangible attributes bring about certain inner states.

It is hypothesised that (1) expectations are structurally related to satisfaction (2), outer-directed expressive expectations and experiences correlate stronger with cognitively measurable satisfaction evaluations than do inner-directed expectations and experiences.

Inner-directed expressive values are emotional, come from the self and refer back to the self. Instead of using defined objects that satisfy these values, the person is merely aware of the fact that a class of objects generates this satisfaction. Inner-directed values are hypothesised to, (3) satisfy a person by reducing (emotional) drives and (4), correlate stronger with overall satisfaction, and less strongly with cognizeable satisfaction measures.

All hypotheses are satisfactorily confirmed with the exception of (3). While strong indications for the validity of this hypothesis could be obtained, further research is needed. The Consumer Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Paradigm is criticised.
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Part I
Part I

Chapter 1

I.1.1 Introduction to Expectations and Satisfaction in Tourism

Holiday tourism is an experiential product that depends on services to tourists. Indeed, service is the function that combines all facilitating elements of the tourism experience. These elements are (1) the tourist, (2) the transport that carries her to (3) the attraction, (4) the accommodation the tourist requires and (5) all the infrastructures that support and enhance the tourism experience, such as restaurants and entertainment (see II.5.1). The synergetic effect of all services support and help generate tourists’ experiences.

With the rise of tourism as an industry of major importance, market mechanisms began to impact on its development and progress. Increasing competition now forces market-oriented industries to manage their resources efficiently and either innovate or keep up with the innovations introduced by others, that seek to enhance tourists’ level of satisfaction.

Today, tourist satisfaction has become a major variable that determines the success of a total destination with all its composite elements that provide the service.

Satisfaction is, primarily, a tourist’s response to the the feeling of success, with which expected or desired outcomes have been achieved.

Satisfaction is also a measure of success for the market-driven industry, for which the level of a tourist’s satisfaction represents the adequateness or excellence of the services supplied.

Tourism involves the totality of experiences away from home. Consequently, and from a benefit-marketer’s point of view (Haley, 1977; Mazanec, 1984), causal satisfaction research can assist in three interrelated areas, resource management, product development and branding efforts.

The interdisciplinary nature of tourism indicates the complexity of the industry. Tourism is a geographical, environmental, social and thus economic phenomenon. While, as an industry, tourism is still in its infancy, it has already had a major influence on many a country’s social structures and economic fortunes. In some cases, tourism even had an impact on the ecology as for example in the European Alps, where entire mountain-sides have begun to move after excessive installations of ski-fields.

Tourism is an exceedingly expensive industry. It requires both the contributions from the primary industries in the form of food and other extractable commodities, as well as the secondary sectors which supply buildings and service equipment, for
example, in order to produce the service intended, or as required by customers. Unlike the manufacturing sector, however, tourism cannot ship or store its product; it has to be consumed where it is produced. At the same time, the tourism product is heterogeneous; no two experiences are the same. And lastly, the tourism product is intangible, i.e. it is an experience and thus renders the instrumental facilities that generate the product strangely disjointed from its outcome; the facilities are mostly of a physical nature but the outcome is psychological.

Customarily, one asks, "How were your holidays?" and the answer usually refers to an experience in its entirety, that is, it involves a satisfaction-measurement that encompasses all tourism elements. The tourist thus refers to a Gestalt, a complete whole. Any changes in one of its elements is capable of changing this Gestalt dramatically.

The challenge for resource managers lies with the understanding of this Gestalt and how the tourism elements generate this synergetic effect. This applies to those within one organisation, offering, for example, accommodation and restaurant facilities as well as to those who are involved in policy-making that affects the development of an entire region or country.

Asking, "What is it that pulls tourists to a destination?", is, in part, asking the question as to what motivates tourists. Providing matching services in order to increase market share is the task of product developers, yet, this always has to occur within the boundaries of the existing resources.

While resources such as ‘scenery’ are finite, financial investments in increasingly better and more numerous services that facilitate the enjoyment or enhance the surrounding experiences of this attraction are, potentially, infinite depending on commercial considerations only. Yet, it also impacts on the Gestalt of the attraction.

It is in this sense, that the brand of a destination is very similar to the concept of Gestalt. Gestalt encompasses the subjective perception of stimuli which include the elicitation of reminiscences, inferences and expectations. Developing a brand for New Zealand such as ‘Clean and Green’, thus introduces the task to analyze as to what the Gestalt of ‘Clean and Green’ as a brand actually incorporates in the mind of the tourist.

In the manufacturing industry, the Gestalt of a brand does not equal the product. The product can be altered, improved upon or even exchanged. In tourism, however, an attraction that is not man-made and central to the brand, cannot be exchanged or altered beyond a certain level.

By way of this comparison, branding natural attractions is inseparably linked to resource management. Product development in tourism is thus dependent on the boundaries that are constituted by the Gestalt the resource is capable of generating. Changing the Gestalt, e.g. by overcrowding or ‘enhancement of service facilities’ often brings with it a change of the perception of the brand.

The measurement of satisfaction of a tourism service is one measurement of this Gestalt. An adequate differentiation of this response to an experience (the level of
satisfaction) indicates as to what elements are instrumental in generating it and, more importantly, which elements need to be focused upon in order to enhance a given level of satisfaction.

This dissertation attempts to develop instruments capable of measuring tourism satisfaction by means of enquiring into expectations, experiences, outcomes and their consequences on levels of satisfaction of international tourists to New Zealand travelling by campervan.

This mode of transport offers a number of advantages for such an exploratory enquiry. The van is both transport and accommodation to the tourist thus keeping these services at a constant, as it were, while giving the tourist a maximum level of control over decisions such as itinerary and activities.

According to Heinz Heckhausen (1989), the satisfaction with an object, situation or event depends very much on the expectation and the level of control the agent (here the tourist) has or perceives.

The cognitivist Heinz Heckhausen, of the Max Planck Institute, Munich, until his death in 1989, reviewed the entire history of motivational psychology. In this comprehensive work, satisfaction is always considered to be the goal of behaviour for both cognitivists and behaviourists, yet the goal is never more than a function of preceding situations and occurrences.

At the end of his book, Heckhausen develops an extended model of motivation in which he distinguishes four kinds of expectations, all of which can impact on satisfaction. Following Vroom (1964), Heckhausen distinguishes between the outcome of an action or event and the consequences thereof. While the outcome is the result of an act or event, the consequences represent the actual goal. This is a rationalization of the fact that a goal might be achieved through not just one but by various alternatives. The choice usually depends on an estimation as to which means produces an outcome that generates the highest amount of satisfaction (the goal).

For example, a person might feel tired, bored and exhausted by the treadmill of every-day-life. She is looking for a total reversal of the current situation. While a change of jobs or the pursuit of collecting stamps as recreational pastime might produce an outcome that satisfies the aspired goal to some extent, a holiday in New Zealand, as a third option, might result in much higher levels of leisure and recreation and thus satisfy much more. It is in this way, that actions and their outcomes and consequences of these outcomes are separate concepts.

In the following synopsis of Heckhausen's model, results (R) are meant to be outcomes of actions or events whereas the consequences (C) represent the targeted goal (satisfaction). The difference between the presented kinds of expectations lies with the amount of control an actor has over the event or situation.

1. The 'Situation - Result' expectation (S->R) refers to the subjective degree of probability, that a given situation, without the evaluator's interference, will lead
2. 'Act - Result' expectations (A->R) are those that describe the subjective degree of probability to which an individual believes that s/he can change a situation in an expected manner.

3. The 'Action - by - Situation - Result ' (A-S->R) expectation describes the subjective degree of probability to which external and variable circumstances can increase or decrease the 'Act - Result' expectation thus effecting a final 'Act - Result' expectation.

4. Based on Vroom’s (1964) instrumentality of the result of an action or object to achieve desired consequences, (R->C) refers to the expectation of the consequences of an object that is the result of an act or actions.

\[ \text{S} \rightarrow \text{R Expectation} \]
\[ \text{Situation (S)} \rightarrow \text{Action (A)} \rightarrow \text{Result (R)} \rightarrow \text{Consequences (C)} \]
\[ \text{A-S-R Expectation} \rightarrow \text{A - R Expectation} \rightarrow \text{R - C Expectation} \]

(Heckhausen, 1989:468)

I.1.2 The Rationale of the Thesis 'Expectations and Satisfaction in Tourism'

I.1.2.1 The Aim of this Dissertation

The aim of this dissertation is to explore the constructs of expectation and satisfaction, and to develop and test a value model of satisfaction. The construct of values is scrutinized before they are defined as learnt strategies by which individuals and groups satisfy their felt needs and wants, either by adapting the environment to their needs, or by adapting themselves to the environment. Values are then employed to measure cognitions and emotions (emotion awareness) of international campervan users to New Zealand, before they begin their travels and after they returned their vehicles to the rental company.
1.1.2.2 Theoretical Foundations

At the beginning of this volume (1.2.1.1), the author introduces two models explaining purchase behaviour, in order to exemplify some basic concepts as they are thought to link up in a chain of events. In their totality, these and more recent models have not been tested. Rather, model-building is often achieved in a hypothetico-deductive manner, whereby (a set of) hypotheses are assumed as correct and then used as basis for deductions. In other words, this method works like "Let us assume that if X is true, then Y follows", although (X) itself cannot, as yet, be proven.

The hypothetico-deductive method is central to Sir Karl Popper's construct of 'falsificationism'. It states, that an idea or construct (X) is correct, until it can be veritably refuted, rather than taking a construct as true only, when it can be proven. Until the time arrives, that (X) can be proven, scientists and researchers are urged to build a 'supportive belt' around (X), i.e. construct and test hypothetico-deductive sub-hypotheses which can be tested in their entirety.

Often, a certain consumer behaviour model (X) cannot be tested in its entirety, either because not all information is available or it cannot be validly generated, or simply, because a few links are still missing. At other times, certain behaviours take too long. Such longitudinal studies are then either too expensive, or the logistics to conduct tests are just insurmountable. The consequence is often, that only certain parts of total models can be tested which often appear as 'piecemeal'.

Holiday tourism offers the opportunity to test major parts of a circular model, i.e. a sequence of events with a beginning and end, after which results or 'lessons learnt' become part of new beginnings. In other words, if an international tourist looks forward to enjoying a holiday in New Zealand and, in particular, to certain activities, he is quite likely to engage in such activities again (maybe even in New Zealand), if he has a truly enjoyable experience. It is in this sense, that a behavioural process always constitutes a learning process whereby future actions are guided by past ones.

This complete behavioural circle cannot be traced here either, but this dissertation tries to capture most of it. Certain boundaries have to be pegged and some parts have to be inferred. For example, the motivation to travel can have been aroused long before a researcher can measure that arousal and what can tourists remember of their motives? Likewise, the effects of a holiday can last much longer than the actual sojourn at a destination. Will the physiological improvement and the recreation achievement last as long as the next holidays? What will happen to the feeling of satisfaction?

The motivation process together with its constituting aspects forms the starting-point of this dissertation. Similarly, the final result, the level of satisfaction at the end of a tourists stay at a destination, will be scrutinized. These two fundamental constructs, motivation, as part of the expectation formation, and satisfaction, as the consequence of experiences, form the major contents of this volume. Those motives, that lie between the arousal stage and motivation must be inferred.
The following chapters are a presentation of how researchers of various disciplines approach the indicated complexity of measuring expectations and satisfaction. While all tend to be driven by their particular interests in their respective areas, they reveal a set of theoretical features and measurable characteristics at various levels of penetration. These, in turn, enrich the 'spatial' sphere, i.e. the abstract level on which satisfaction needs to be discussed prior to the development of an approach to satisfaction in tourism.

The term "spatial" is gleaned from G.W. Knight (1960) an eminent Shakespeare scholar. He employs this term to refer to a writer’s convention of having to follow a temporal plot within which characters must be developed. A dramatist might have only two hours play-time within which a whole story has to be unfolded and its effects carefully created. While the spatial plot depends on the temporal one, it groups the characters differently. Indeed, the characters can often become mere arguments and the spatial plot becomes a discussion that lies beyond the confines of time, place, unity of character and all the other conventions of drama.

Satisfaction is a human experience that transcends individual situations and time. The insights gained through reviewing the literature on satisfaction in a variety of disciplines therefore form the spatial sphere, They help improve the discussion on measuring satisfaction with tourism.

1.1.3 Some Concepts Used in the Satisfaction Construct as the Basis for a Working-Hypothesis

Various approaches to the satisfaction construct utilize the concepts of
a) expectations
b) disconfirmation
c) norms, values, standards

As the literature review will show, the current approaches to satisfaction are mainly occupied with explaining satisfaction as the result of a disconfirmation process.

Disconfirmation is assumed to be the consequence of a (positive or negative) mismatch between expected and experienced elements of the satisfaction object.

Some approaches include values, standards or norms, and try to establish a conceptual framework measuring their impact on the satisfaction formation process. While it is often the outcome which is measured, and while actual expectations are often neglected in the measurement process, the value construct itself is mostly taken as a qualitatively static component. In other words, in the flux of behaviour, these approaches assume that values are a stable set of goals according to which people organize their behaviour. In this context, values bear in them the seeds for expectations.

Heckhausen (1989), in his model of motivated action, posits that there are four different kinds of expectations that motivate behaviour as well as control learning
processes. The difference between them lies with the subject - object relationship and the related degree of influence or control the subject has on any outcome in that relationship. The evaluation of the outcome of occurring and/or manipulated experiences poses as the level of satisfaction achieved and is a function of antecedent expectations.

Tourism is commonly understood as a totality of experiences facilitated by the individual's motivation to travel, availability of free time and discretionary income and by the constituting elements of tourism, transport, attractions, accommodation and infrastructures.

Regarding the complexity of the experience of tourism, there are various degrees of influence the tourist can assume or achieve in order to obtain maximum satisfaction.

Firstly, however, it has to be established that there is, indeed, an influence of expectations on the perception of multivariate experiences (parameters). While this recognizes the cognitivists' influence, the behaviourist line of thought requires due acknowledgement.

Secondly, the complexities of the satisfaction outcome have to be revealed in order to utilize relevant parameters explaining this construct.

The overall two main propositions of this dissertation posit,

a) values control motivations and organize perceptions, i.e. values respond to drives and structure expectancies,

b) satisfaction is a complex and total response and a measurement of experiences, the perception of which is guided by the initial values.

1.1.4 Structural Outline of this Volume

Part I deals with expectations, containing a discussion of motivations, values and attitudes. Its outcome is a definition of expectations including the role of values.

Part II presents and discusses the satisfaction literature. At the end, objective structures of the tourism system and the subjective ambience of tourism is developed. It follows a critical review and summary of the motivation literature of Part I and the satisfaction literature of Part II, particularly of the two-factor theory of satisfaction.

Part III opens with the Value Model of Satisfaction which leads to a set of propositions. The methodological part of Part III then develops a detailed approach to expectation and satisfaction measurement of campervan tourists to New Zealand. This is followed by the presentation of survey results, a discussion and an outlook.
Chapter 2

I.2.1. Introduction to the Literature Presentation

I.2.1.1. Behavioural Research

I.2.1.1.1 A Brief Overview

While perusing the contents pages at the beginning of this volume, it would not have escaped the reader that this dissertation takes a strongly psychologically oriented approach. The very reason for this choice lies with the fact that tourism is foremost a behaviour and an experience rather than a tangible product. It therefore appears sensible to utilize sciences and disciplines engaged in understanding behaviour and experiencing.

There are two major sources on which modern research techniques into behaviour are based. One source can be traced back to holistic psychologies inspired by Plato and what came to be known as the School of Gestalt around Wolfgang Köhler, Max Wertheimer and their student Kurt Lewin.

The other, more recent source leads back to Charles Darwin and his work of 'On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection' (London, 1860). This latter work caused the gradual decline of that paradigm which, according to Descartes, separated man from beast, i.e. that man alone enjoys 'Reason' and 'Free Will'.

Darwin's approach to man's evolution was founded on the dual insight of natural selection in the fight for survival and accidental variations in development. This caused the creation of a deterministic mode of enquiry into man's behaviour, i.e. it created the possibility to dissect behaviour into discernable elements open to enquiry. The difference between instinct and rational behaviour was no longer fundamental but gradual.

The endeavour to explain man's behaviour, his or her motives, needs and actions created essentially two approaches that are also of relevance to modern marketing and consumer behaviour research.

Darwin understood instincts as a set of reflexes. Evolution occurred when these reflexes experienced change through adaptation. This basic idea lies at the bottom of Pavlov's physiology and the modern Stimulus - Reaction theories of which Hull (1943), Spence (1956) and Bolles (1967) are some of the more influential representatives. In the marketing discipline, their influence can be found with those marketers who focus on tangible product parameters. Disregarding the 'black box' of the consumer's mind as impenetrable, product-oriented marketing relies on the supply and change of physical stimuli. Responses in terms of consumption behaviour are then seen as the consequences and become a measure of success.
Conversely, the holistic line of enquiry looks back to Freud for theories of personality and psychoanalysis, and Narziss Ach (1910) for ("academic") psychology whose approaches to behaviour generated new theories of personality and will. The latter developed into what is now known as theories of volition and intention (e.g. Atkinson & Birch, 1970; and for social psychology, Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977).

Fundamental concepts of these theories found access to a psychology-based explanation of behaviour through Allport (1937), Murray (1938) and Cattell (1950) as well as through the above mentioned Kurt Lewin.

Murray and Cattell are innovators who turned psychological tests into an accepted and widely used tool in modern psychology and marketing research. The latter, Kurt Lewin, refined the psychological view of antecedents to behaviour and, in the wake of it, influenced the afore mentioned as well as behaviourists, notably E.C.Tolman and V.H.Vroom (see Heckhausen, 1989:33-53).

Motivation research, the bedrock for understanding satisfaction, is generally split into two schools of thought (Porter & Lawler, 1968), i.e. the drive-theoreticians and the expectancy theoreticians. The behaviourists’ approach traces its roots via the above mentioned Darwin, and McDougall’s theory on instincts (1908), to Thorndike’s law of effect (1911) and Hull’s formulation of the drive theory (1943).

The above brief - and by no means comprehensive - introduction into historical aspects of psychology, then, helps justify the approach to 'Satisfaction in Tourism' taken in this volume. The approach can be regarded as holistic in that satisfaction is treated both as a process and as an outcome of human activity and experience.

For the study of behaviour, Kurt Lewin laid down a set of rules in what became to be known as his Field Theory (1942, 1952; Heckhausen, 1989). It is generally along these lines that the scope of this dissertation evolved.

Firstly, the analysis of behaviour has to begin with the total situation it takes place in.

Secondly, determinants of behaviour, whether physical or within the person, have to be explained psychologically. This includes elements that are not perceived by the acting person, yet are nonetheless active in determining behaviour.

Thirdly, the behaviouristic approach which explains behaviour by merely linking stimulus and reaction is regarded as insufficient.

Fourthly, an analysis of behaviour has to be constructive, i.e. it cannot assume that similar behaviour relies on the same predispositions.

Fifthly, behaviour is a function of the present field and cannot be explained out of past or future events.
Sixthly, Lewin maintains that psychological situations should be represented within mathematical terms so as to gain a more objective treatment.

1.2.1.2. Behavioural Models

In order to survey the horizon of this dissertation for the reader, the following paragraphs utilize models of consumer behaviour. This occurs for two reasons. Firstly, consumer behaviour is notably the discipline with the greatest volume of work in the area of satisfaction research (Oliver, 1981). Secondly, these models allow the reader to gain an introduction, at a glance, as it were, to all relevant concepts that require to be presented and are discussed in this dissertation. They are the constructs (Kerlinger, 1973) of motives and motivation, values, attitudes and expectations.

While human behaviour itself is mostly an observable activity, the question as to what causes behaviour as well as to what occurs during and after the observable parts of behaviour in the subject herself, can often only be answered through inferences. In the Western World, such inferences are made under the widely accepted assumption that behaviour is, in fact, dissectable and that man indeed acts out of free will and choice.

1.2.1.2.1 Howard & Sheth's Model of Purchase Behaviour

Eastern philosophies which dispute the existence of a mind aside (see e.g. the Abhidhamma, Narada, 1980), the tentativeness of inferences of what is happening in the 'black box' of the mind is probably best represented in Howard & Sheth’s model of consumer behaviour and decision-making (1969). In this case, behaviour revolves around a branded product but could easily be transposed into referring to many motivated behaviours targeting an object or situation (see Figure 1.2.1).

In this particular behavioural mode, the authors distinguish three planes. Firstly, the P Plane (Product Plane) refers to "observable data relating to stimuli from commercial and social environments", meaning advertising, social reference-group influences and other mostly man-made or man-induced stimuli. While this aspect of the P Plane deals with stimuli which are seen to help cause behaviour, the authors acknowledge the inferred nature of this conclusion. This admittance is also true for "observable data relating to buyers’ responses" such as repeat-purchases which, one might assume, occur because of satisfaction with the product. Both the exposure to stimuli as well as the act of the repeat purchase do not contain the necessary information which would allow a (logical) deductive argument, that clarifies what goes on in a consumer’s mind.

It is for this reason, that Howard & Sheth (1969) subsume the "Input" and "Output intervening variables" together with the "Hypothetical constructs" of "Perceptual subsystem" and "Learning subsystem" under what they call the C Plane (Consumer Plane). These authors thus highlight the inferred nature of inquiries into consumer behaviour, in
this case, consumers' responses to and selection of observable stimuli that impact on activating (motivational, intentional and choice) mechanisms leading to the purchase.

While the model emphasizes the epistemological premise of behavioural research, it does not quite serve our purposes of introducing satisfaction (or dissatisfaction, for that matter) as part of a behavioural cycle.

In the above flow diagram, satisfaction appears to be relegated to a secondary, if not unimportant position. Rather, central to the model are "Motives" and "Choice Criteria" which, under the influence of external stimuli and perceptual bias and attitudes are instrumental in forming an intention to purchase.

To these authors, satisfaction is "the buyer's cognitive state of being adequately or inadequately rewarded for the sacrifice he has undergone" (1969:145).

As the presentation of satisfaction literature will discuss further, this definition is based on a comparative point of view which looks back to antecedent conditions leading up to the purchase of a product or service. Satisfaction deriving from consumption is thus not targeted by the authors. Yet only consumption would close the behavioural cycle. Firstly, since this is the consumer's targeted outcome and, secondly, unless the act of
consumption lies in hoarding goods, only after consumption can there be a reason for renewed purchase.

Thus, the central role of satisfaction is obscured because these authors finish the behavioural process with the purchase rather than with the use of and the response to the product which would reveal the true impact of satisfaction on behaviour. It is in this sense, that the above authors appear to favour the certainties of the S-R approach.

Once it is granted, however, that the purchase and consumption experience has a strong influence on the perception of satisfaction (outcome), then the role of the experience, even in the above model, is immediately central. It helps determine 'Choice Criteria', 'Attitudes' towards products, and the 'Confidence' one has in them. Also, it enforces the intentional strength for repurchase or renewed exposure to this or a similar experience.

I.2.1.2.2 Engel, Kollat & Blackwell's Decision Making Model

In contrast, Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (1969), while not naming it as such, give satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) an overtly central role in their model of consumer behaviour and decision-making. It forms part of stored information of purchase, consumption and the related experiences. Their model highlights the role of past experience as an intervening variable in two ways. (see Figure 1.2.2)

Firstly, past experiences (including levels of satisfaction with an experience) impact on values and attitudes steering the "Central Control Unit" of memory and thinking.

Secondly, the reinforcing energy of satisfaction is stored as information about how one felt during past experiences or how one expects to feel during or after envisaged experiences. It helps form expectations. The influence of this (tentative) knowledge on current and future behaviour is highlighted by the impact it has on loops built into the model. The loops indicate repetition of search and evaluation processes if the search for alternatives and their evaluation does not match the requirements contained in the "Response sets" as issued by the "Central Control Unit".

Since these early attempts, virtually all behaviour models contain a procedural segment in their flow diagrams that links the contents of post-purchase processes and occurring experiences as additional input variables for future behaviour of the same nature (see e.g. Hawkins, Best & Coney, 1983:23). In simple terms, this loop expresses the effect of learning on future behaviour. This sense, behavioural processes become circular.

I.2.1.3. Learning as substance for Expectations

It is with the recognition of learning effects as input for future behaviour, that behavioural research has come full circle. As was the general discipline of psychology in the 1920s and '30s, consumer behaviour in the 1960s and 1970s was heavily concentrating
on motivation research. This pursuit promoted, amongst other topics, research into the importance and effects of attitudes as an explanatory construct for behavioural tendencies, organisation of knowledge and reactions to stimuli.

As indicated above, behaviourists regard learning as habit formation which is helped along by associations of rewards and reinforcing stimuli. Cognitive psychologists, however, see learning as input for anticipatory behaviour.

Generally, behaviourists' attempts to explain behaviour concentrate on situational, i.e. stimuli and reaction processes whereas cognitivists' approaches consider individual characteristics of an actor as well, allowing extraneous, intraindividual influences (e.g. characteristics or traits).

I.2.2 Expectations

I.2.2.1 Introduction to Part I: Tourists' Motivation Process

As mentioned in the introduction, with the concentration on satisfaction research, consumer behaviour research has come full circle. Behavioural cycles commonly begin with a need realisation and end with its satisfaction. There are three major parts to this cycle.

Firstly, there is the motivation process including the information search followed by the decision. Secondly, there is the experience and thirdly, the evaluation with its impact on future behaviour. Different approaches have different categorisations.
last stage can, in fact, be part of the flow of experiences.

The history of tourism research parallels developments in modern consumer behaviour research. It mostly follows the cognitivists' approach and traces what has been called the behavioural cycle above. By implication, it also includes elements of the behaviourists' line of thought. This, however, is not always duly acknowledged.

Holidays and tourism are an historically grown phenomena with strong cultural influences as to form and purpose (Adler, 1989). In the Western World, free time and holidays are inevitably connected to the concept of self-actualization or self-realization, i.e. to (either) redress the stresses and strains from a work-a-day life and (or) to develop mind and body to its full potential (see e.g. Dumazedier, 1967; Parker, 1983).

Vera Grunow-Lutter defines self-realization as a person's dynamic relationship between the real and the ideal self concept. It is not a state but a process of decreasing the distance between these two cognitive systems which themselves are subject to continuous change (Grunow-Lutter, 1983:76).

In line with the consumer behaviour models which we discussed above, the decision to be a tourist can thus be regarded as the outcome of a decision-making process. This process is characterized as one in which a person's real self strives to narrow the perceived gap to the ideal self through a certain, freely chosen set of behaviours. This envisaged process raises expectations of future satisfaction.

The presentation of motivation literature forms the next chapter of Part I while referring, where possible, to the context of international tourists to New Zealand travelling by campervan.

Central concepts discussed in conjunction with expectations are attitudes and their constituting elements (beliefs, affect and intentions), as well as values as learnt strategies to realize individual motives. Expectations are then presented as tentative, forward-directed attitudes which are motivated by underlying needs and associated values. The second major element of expectations is constituted by their underlying drive. It constitutes the emotional charge energizing behaviour and persistence of behaviour.

A major emphasis will be put on the due recognition of the emotional system as opposed to the cognitive system. The latter has dominated both psychology and consumer behaviour research. It is only in recent years, that emotions are more and more acknowledged and integrated in an attempt to generate a comprehensive model of behaviour.

As an initial definition which will be developed further in the following chapters, while cognitions refer to mental representations such as knowledge or beliefs, emotions encompass feelings and instincts. These two systems differ strongly in the degree of control a person has over them, over their generation and manipulation.

Early research centred around the question, 'Why do people travel?'. On one hand, the search for an answer has been tackled via research into motives, on the other, motives
are discussed as distinct from motivations. The following section introduces these two constructs along with relevant material from motivation psychology. The subsequent section then utilizes the distinction between motives and motivations to organize the presentation of the relevant tourism literature.

1.2.2.2 Motives and Motivation

According to Heckhausen (1989:7-16), a motive is a lasting disposition. Each motive has its distinct type of contents in the form of goals of behaviour. 'Contents' here means that a person chooses from a repertoire of learnt or conceived actions while the 'goals' refer to the consequences of one's actions.

Conversely, motivations contain results of situation-person interactions. They are a collective term for processes and effects with a common denominator: a person chooses a certain behaviour for its expected results.

While there appear to be many motives, the question arises as to which one becomes operative and why in any given situation.

For Allport (1937) a personal characteristic constitutes itself by the individual's ability to make many stimuli functionally equivalent and to introduce consistent equivalent forms of action and expression and manipulate their course.

Cattell (1957) regards the individual dispositions of a person as actual reasons for behaviour. He isolated these dispositions in tests via a complex two-step method followed by factor analysis. Generating results from widely differing areas, Cattell extracted covariations of attitudes and interests that indicate individual motive-dispositions.

Murray (1938) elaborated more than Allport and Cattell on person-situation interactions. He observes, people continually interact with their environment and must therefore be characterized with due reference to this environment. Also, while two persons might act similarly, it is the situation that helps determine whether it is indeed a similar action. He continues,

"It is considered that two organisms are dissimilar if they give the same response but only to different situations as well as if they give the same response but only to different situations as well as if they give different responses to the same situation. Also, different inner states of the same organism can be inferred when responses to similar external conditions are different. Finally, the assimilations and integrations that occur in an organism are determined to a large extent by the nature of its closely previous, as well as by its more distantly previous, environments. In other words, what an organism knows or believes is, in some measure, a product of formerly
encountered situations. Thus, much of what is now inside the organism was once outside. (1938:39-40)

Furthermore, Murray developed the hypothetical motive constructs of need and press, the former is associated with the individual while the latter is delineating aspects of the situation. Need can be described via the targeted goal, and it

"organizes perception, intellection, conation and action in such a way as to transform in a certain direction an existing, unsatisfying situation"

(1938:123-124)

While "need refers to an organic potentiality" (1938:61) press is defined as a

"kind of effect an object or situation is exerting or could exert upon the subject. It is a temporal gestalt of stimuli which usually appears in the guise of a threat of harm or promise of benefit to the organism."

(1938:122)

Both need and press combine to form a "thema" or an "equivalent group of behavioural situations" (Heckhausen, 1989), e.g. an organism perceives two different situations as having similar characteristics and reacts in the same fashion in both situations.

There are other and more elaborate value systems (Maslow, 1954; Rokeach, 1973; Kahle, 1983). As motivators, values will take a central position in this dissertation and be presented, at the appropriate place (1.5) as the organising elements of perception.

1.2.2.3. Emotional aspects of Motivation

As early as Darwin (1872), a scientific notion of emotions as rudimentary motivational system existed which stated that humans own the ability to react to information about certain situations emotionally.

There are, essentially, two schools of thought with regards to the influence of emotions on cognition and behaviour. Whereas one school regards the relationship between emotions and cognitions as mediated by cognitions (henceforth one-system view), the other allows interactions (creating affect) and even for emotions to motivate and drive behaviour directly, without the interference or mediation of cognitions (two-
An example of the one-system view is Plutchic’s (1980) who developed a descriptive sequence of reactions to the situation of fear and sadness.

Accordingly, a stimulus event triggers a cognitive appraisal upon which follows a subjective reaction (emotion). The emotion, in turn, triggers a behavioural reaction which can be identified as a function or an elementary behaviour. Thus the appearance of a wild animal triggers the evaluative recognition of danger which, in turn, leads to fear and causes the evaluator to flee in order to find protection.

This sequence strongly resembles the sociological model of attitude and behaviour formation as put forward by Ajzen & Fishbein (1975). The latter will be presented below.

Heckhausen (1989) points out that emotion is thus a facilitator for speedy reactions but also the element which dislodges an otherwise inevitable stimulus-reaction sequence. It makes it possible,

"to address the situation one is confronted with rather promptly through one's own activity or, at least, one can situate oneself in a position of increased capacity to act" (1989:73).

He continues to comment that if this capacity was not available, reactions might occur late and thus inadequately. It allows for flexible responses to changes in the environment.

Without expressly stating it, Heckhausen appears to move away from Plutchic’s apparent one-system view of emotion and cognition. He infers that emotion can cause behaviour directly without cognitions as mediating functions.

Tomkins writes that "the basic power of the affect system is a consequence of its freedom to combine with a variety of other ... messages from all sources ..." (1981:74). And, as Scherer (1981) describes, there are great functional similarities between the role of emotions as evaluating processes and cognitive evaluations of utilities of objects.

While Heckhausen discusses this functional similarity and its implied consequence with caution, the psychologists Zajonc (1980) and Zajonc and Markus (1982) as well as both Mittal (1988) and Etzioni (1988) in sociology, economics and consumer behaviour postulate, that preferences and decisions are often based on affective premises rather than cognitive deliberations. Conversely, the widely used traditional attitude construct by Ajzen and Fishbein assumes the existence of emotions (affect) as well, however, as a variable which depends on cognitions (see below). More recent work is beginning to move towards a two-system paradigm which regards
emotions and cognitions as interactive but fundamentally different systems (see Pratkanis et al., 1989).

For consumer behaviour, Kröber-Riel & Meyer-Hentschel (1982) state (with reservations) that only 5 to 10% of all buying decisions are extensive (i.e. strongly cognitive). And even although the final decision might be based on reason, the antecedent search that produced those reasons can often be typified by its spontaneous and emotional character.

1.2.2.4 Drive Theory, Expectancy Theory and Motivation

The above section refers mainly to cognitivists' approaches to motivation but leaves out a presentation of the contribution behaviourists made with the drive-theory.

Behaviorists, based on Hull (1943), regard behaviour as the product of drive strength and habit strength. Thus, whereas psychologists like Lewin stress anticipatory knowledge, behaviourists regard past (associative) learning as the decisive stimulus for behaviour.

According to the drive theory, non-selective activity is triggered off by feelings of deprivation (in these cases mostly hunger or thirst). The strength of the drive was seen as related to the length of deprivation. This causes behaviour to occur which eventually leads to the satisfaction of the feeling of deprivation.

Simultaneously, the drive is reduced and the organism returned into a state of equilibrium. Learning occurs during the above period of activity. If drive is reduced through satisfaction, the organism is likely to remember all or parts of the behaviour that led to the success and it will employ the behaviour again. In this way, an organism learns to acquire habits. Based on these observations, Hull formulated the "drive x habit" theory (1943). The drive-theory is part of the stimulus - reaction (S-R) approach to behaviour.

Conversely, the expectancy theories stress the "expectancy x value" equation that helps predict behaviour. While the drive theory is retrospective in nature in that past rewards are associated and objects of learning can acquire the role of an enforcer, the expectancy theory is forward-looking and anticipatory in nature.

Here, action is motivated via a knowledge of or belief in future rewards. The expectancy theory is thus fundamentally cognitive whereas the drive theory is emotional.

Porter and Lawler (1968) discuss both psychological theories and summarize three differences. The first difference in approach has been stated above, i.e. that in the behaviourists' case, past learning is decisive, whereas for expectancy theory it is knowledge of future outcomes which motivates.
Secondly, drive theory views the magnitude of the goal, or its power to satisfy, as a source of general excitement. It increases levels of activity non-selectively. Conversely, expectancy theory regards anticipatory knowledge as directing behaviour selectively.

Thirdly, drive theory hypothesizes that an outcome gains its positive value through its potential for drive-reduction. This refers to the fact that physiological deprivation creates a tension that generates nonselective activity. Associations with primary reinforcers (e.g. food) increase the value for rewards. In contrast, expectancy theory "has been much less explicit on this point" (Porter & Lawler, 1968:11). This is where cognitive psychology and behaviourism exchange ideas and influence each other.

It is Tolman (1932), a former behaviourist, who combines the two approaches. Tolman distinguishes between an expectancy for the goal which includes knowledge and beliefs about outcomes (anticipatory), and a demand for the goal representing, in part, the behaviourist contribution of the motivational force (organism based). This distinction will be elaborated upon in the section on values and valencies. There, values are presented as learnt strategies to adapt oneself to the environment and, to adapt the environment to one’s own needs. Valencies represent the 'worth' particular behaviours, objects or events have in relation to desired consequences (goals).

One of Tolman’s overall aims in his work (1932) is to move away from contemporary behaviourists’ views which stress that behaviour is 'molecular', i.e. that its underlying character is physical and physiological. Rather, Tolman regards behaviour as 'molar' i.e. that it is influenced by past learning and capable of future learning. He utilizes the concept of Gestalt which signifies the co-occurrence of mental representations triggered by outside stimuli (the sign-gestalt paradigm). The three parts of sign-gestalt are sign-object, signified means-end relation and signified-object. In other words, these representations contain both what the organism remembers as well as what can be expected from the object.

1.2.2.5 Motives in Tourism Research

Opaschowski (1977), likens holidays to a (motivational) 'crisis'. Tourists’ reasons to enter this situation of 'crisis' result from their attitude to their every-day-lives which regards the style and contents of holidays as either complementary or contrary to these. According to Opaschowski, the main characteristic of the view that holidays are complementary to one’s work-a-day life is that holidays promote self-actualization. The main characteristic of an adversive view of holidays and the work-a-day life is escape from reality.

While the above author is a German source, Cohen (1972), Kando (1975), Iso-Ahola (1980), Parker (1983) and other sociologists discuss the same dichotomy in the English literature. Iso-Ahola (1980), for example, writes of the motives of "escape" from every-day life on one hand and the "search" for new stimuli on the other as underlying reasons for travel.
G.Schmitz-Scherzer & G.Rudinger (1974) reveal a critical stance to the above dichotomy. In their approach, the 'complementing vs. escape' motives are formally presented as 'in-order-to' and 'away-from' or 'because-of' reasons. They conclude that a solution to the discussion as to whether the dichotomy is truly representative of tourists' motives can only be multi-dimensional. Reviewing and discussing literature, the above German authors summarise that,

- empirical research does not prove the escape motive, (the motive is over emphasised)
- there is a structural connection between every-day-life and holidays manifesting itself in social class- specific wishes regarding holidays
- the sum of motives does not explain motivation
- there is a possible influence of anti-motives
- motivations to travel must always be seen in the context of,
  - sociological developments
  - socio-psychological developments
  - psychological developments as well as
  - personality developments and relationships.

Dann (1977) approaches the above motives of travel 'in-order-to' and 'because-of' by effectively re-casting them as "anomie" and "ego-enhancement". Anomie refers to a tourist's perceived normlessness and meaninglessness in the origin society and can be likened to the above need for complementary experiences. Conversely, the need for ego-enhancement refers to a felt status-deprivation in the individual and targets boosting self-esteem, escape from the mundane, relaxation etc.

In a review of tourism and recreation motivation literature, Dann (1981) defines motives as,

"A meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision" (1981:205)

Yet, at the end of his presentation the definition is still only tentative because Dann asks, "What actually constitutes motivation to travel? Is it the conclusion of the researcher or the explanation of the tourist?" (1981:209).

Dann's implied criticism is echoed by P.L.Pearce (1982) who feels that descriptions of tourists' motives and motivations are often tampered with by biased researchers. He maintains that some part of "an adequate motivational theory must be devoted to the non-deterministic nature of intrinsically motivated behaviour" (1982:53). It must also be aware of long-term goals, the perspective of the observer, multi-motive causes of behaviour, intrinsically motivated achievement orientation as well as measurement issues.
Pearce criticises Dann’s approach because he "... conceives the ego-enhancement - anomie motives as polar co-ordinates of a single travel motivation continuum" (1982:63). One consequence of this view is that the wish for self-actualization (Maslow, see below) cannot be duly accommodated. Conversely, Pearce argues, the wish for self-actualization during holidays can accommodate ego-enhancement and anomie as simply enhancing one’s status and as a way of reducing stressful residues.

In order to fulfil his own demands of a motivational theory in tourism, Pearce utilises Maslow’s hierarchy (1954) and Atkinson & Birch’s (1970) dynamic theory of action. The latter justifies a simultaneous acknowledgement of different motives.

At any one time, an individual has several motives waiting for execution or, in other words, several intentions are awaiting their realization. "A behavioural tendency, once aroused, will persist in its present state until acted upon by some psychological force that either increases or decreases its strength," (Atkinson & Birch, 1974:273). The question as to which motive is the strongest depends on internal (e.g. thought) processes or external situations which might favour the realisation of one tendency over another. While tendencies to act can thus increase, they can also decrease allowing even those tendencies to come to the fore which are, compared to others, overall less important to the individual. Once a tendency controls current action, it automatically decreases in strength allowing other, formerly latent, motives to come to the fore.

As an aside, it should be noted that this interplay of latent motives and levels of persistence in current behaviour is one of the strongest reasons to caution researchers of satisfaction as to their methodological procedure. Respondents should neither be asked for their expectations during or after consumption, nor for their perceived level of satisfaction with an activity while it is still in progress. The result is most likely to render a distorted picture due to the dynamic changes of prevalent motives in the flow of actions. In other words, whenever one motive is prevalent and ‘pushing for action’, other motives are temporarily reorganized and of lesser importance. A more detached evaluation, i.e. one which occurs before (for expectations) and after an experience or a holiday (for levels of satisfaction) is therefore likely to produce more valid results.

Pearce’s other source for constructing a motivational model for tourism is Maslow. Maslow (1954) developed a hierarchy of needs or values assuming a value-loaded propensity for self-actualization of human beings. Maslow claims that as long as a need is not satisfied, it pushes the individual to act. Conversely, a situation exerts a pull if it triggers the realization of a need in individuals. Maslow assumes that psychogenic needs are unlikely to motivate behaviour until biogenic needs have been adhered to. Consequently, his construct is a hierarchy of needs. It is comprised of five dimensions. The lowest or most important need refers to food followed by the need for shelter. The third step of the hierarchy refers to the need of belonging while the fourth refers to esteem needs. The fifth need denotes self-actualization.

Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) and Pearce and Moscardo (1985) utilize Maslow’s hierarchy in assessing tourists’ motives by analyzing reported experiences according to the five categories mentioned above. They also claim support for their argument that tourists have a "motivational career". Based on empirical findings, Pearce and Caltabiano
maintain that the more experience tourists have, i.e. the more often they have been travelling, the more they are "concerned with higher order needs (notably love and belongingness and self-actualization) than were less experienced travellers." (1983:19).

Eric Cohen (1972; 1978; 1988) introduced the motive and experience-categories of tourists travelling for experiential, experimental, or existential reasons. While the existential tourist is more a traveller who immerses him/herself in the holiday environment, the experimental tourist travels to 'taste' a different lifestyle without the deeper commitment typical for an existential tourist. The experiential tourist looks for alternative meanings of life and most likely takes the middle-ground between the two other categories in his commitment to his hosts' life styles.

1.2.2.6 Motivations in Tourism Research

The above section on motives deals with needs on an abstract level in that they tend to describe the reason underlying ensuing actions. By themselves, however, motives are inferred concepts only. They require actual, observable situations.

The following section seeks to present varying methods of generating motivational items for travel. With such items, tourists are commonly grouped on the basis of situational differences. These methods differ both in their approaches as well as in their effectiveness to group tourists meaningfully.

Since 1970, the Studienkreis für Tourismus in Starnberg, Germany, has been conducting an annual travel analysis which is representative for the entire (then West-) German population. Based on attribution theory (Heider, 1958), which focusses on the covariation of causes and effects (Kelley, 1967), tourists are asked as to why they go on holidays. They are presented with a list of 30 items that allows multiple answers. Here, the question for motives to travel is answered via (retrospectively) linking effects with causes. The initial question asks,

"Which reasons have actually been your main ones for your major holiday trip ...?"

As examples, in 1987, the first eight mostly named reasons on that annually recurring list are,

(1) To switch off, recreate;
(2) To get away from ever-day life, change the environment;
(3) To reflect on one's self, have time to think;
(4) To experience many different things;
(5) To expand one's horizon, do something for culture and education;
(6) To have time for each other;
(7) To pursue a sport, get fit;
(8) To get exercise, some light sport or playful activities;

Studienkreis für Tourismus, 1988. see TABLE 641

Schmitz-Scherzer (1977) criticises the above approach since it does not reflect on tourism theory. Rather, the approach is motivated by commercial interests without
arriving at meaningful results due to the technique of collecting multiple answers.

Opaschowski (1977) regards the motives of self-actualization (complementing the work-a-day life) and escape as ideals. On the basis of a review of travel advertisements, their target markets and services, Opaschowski continues to characterize these ideals by describing motives to travel and contents of behaviours. He forms eight groups or types which tend more to either the one or the other ideal motives. He thus concedes the simultaneous existence of both motives (self-actualization and escape) in any type of tourists, however, to various degrees.

Pearce's approach of finding verification for Maslow's set of motives is to code essential situational parameters as evidence for underlying needs. For example, asking tourists as to which holiday experiences they cherished most, responses relating to good food and drink were coded as satisfying physiological needs of hunger and thirst while responses relating to comfort and security were interpreted as satisfying safety needs. Responses "reflecting on profound issues and their sense of life's mysteries and their own role were coded as "self-actualization" (Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983:18). The level of 'travel career' (travel experience) correlated with levels of Maslow's hierarchy. Essentially, tourists are thus classified according to five levels of needs.

Cohen (1988) introduces a second concept which, alongside the above experience-categories (1.2.2.5), can function as the situational complement to the motives of experiential, experimental and existential reasons for travel. This second concept refers to a continuum of authenticity which is the "connection between truth, intimacy and sharing the life behind the scenes" (McCannell, 1976:95). Tourists are distinguished as to the degree to which they seek the life behind the facades of a culture that is put on stage for paying guests.

Effectively, Cohen lays the groundwork for relating motives to motivations in the sense that each experience category can be defined in terms of its vicinity to a reliance on staged or authentic experiences once situational parameters have been defined on the 'staged-authentic' continuum. This approach, however, is awaiting empirical verification.

Valene Smith (1977), Plog (1972), Butler (1980) and Hartmann (1982) are representative of researchers who rely on situational categories in order to infer tourists' motivations. Primarily interested in impact studies and host-guest relationships, Smith categorizes tourists according to their wish to adapt themselves to local norms.

Plog's (1972) differentiation of tourists into allocentric/psychocentric types along a dimension of 'energy' (1979), is determined by situational factors as represented by the degree of commercialization of the destination. Thus motives are inferred from situational parameters relating to levels of tangible and intangible service elements.

Plog's approach has been extended and tested by Polovitz and Ellis (1991) using Fiske & Maddi's activation theory (1961). Based on McClelland (1951), 24 different personality types are distinguished (Maddi, 1980). People with high levels of activation are characterized by an 'approach motive' while those with low activation levels are
characterized by an 'avoidance motive' (McClelland, 1951).

**Butler** (1980) endorses Plog above and effectively creates motivational differences between tourists by linking situational (environmental) parameters of a destination with a typology of developmental stages. These stages are exploration, involvement, development, stagnation and decline. As a destination goes through these stages, the amount of structures (infrastructures and suprastructures like hotels and other facilities) increases. With increasing numbers of tourists to destinations, the prevailing types of tourists change. Motivations are thus inferred from supply factors offered by a destination.

**Hartmann** (1982), expressly determines motivations by situational factors. Here, however, the situations are the prevailing different landscapes as they can be found in and around Germany, i.e. the North Sea, the Baltic sea, lakes, secondary mountain ranges, high Alpine mountains and the Mediterranean as well as the low lands such as Holland and the Dutch and German Friesland.

Referring to the (Gestalt) psychologist Willy Hellpach, Hartmann expands on how landscape features can arouse certain psychic reactions. These are based on cultural and social learning and are enshrined in poems, novels or songs dealing with those landscapes. The sentiments are operationalized through respondents' mood-descriptions and echoes in thought-patterns. These serve Hartmann as characterizations of motives.

Although subjective in nature, these descriptors and motives are, nonetheless, tied to objective stimuli and landscape features. Based on these two sets of variables and an empirical survey, Hartmann describes a number of types of tourists. These types are formed according to their (objective) landscape preferences and their (subjective) motives. Both of the latter two groups of variables help generate (statistically significant) different groups of tourists.

**Braun** (1989) utilizes a dichotomy of concepts reminiscent of the ones discussed above (e.g. 'escape' and 'search' (Iso-Ahola, 1980)). He bases his research into motives and motivations of tourists' on two interrelated theories. Firstly, there is Wicklund's theory of the static vs. dynamic orientation (1986) and, secondly, the theory of self-fulfilment (Wicklund & Gollwitzer, 1981) which, in turn, is based on Lewin's theory of motivated behaviour.

Braun derives both motives and motivations of tourists from Wicklund's characterizations of the static vs. dynamic orientation by transposing it into the context of tourism. In effect, Wicklund prepares the theoretical ground for Braun to develop antecedents for both orientations which then help to characterize behavioural and situational parameters.

According to Braun, the statically oriented tourist travels,

a) to restore his damaged identity,

b) is in need of recreation,

c) reflects on (particularly his own) abilities and characteristics,
d) often acquires symbols of prestige and
e) is inclined to leaving good impressions with hosts and other tourists.

All of this is not necessarily done consciously.

Conversely, and according to an adaptation of Wicklund’s dynamic orientation, Braun characterizes the dynamic tourist as simply travelling in order to experience the destination. This includes getting to know landscapes, culinary specialties, people, life styles and, in short, a destination’s geography and culture.

The theoretically derived behavioural features of static vs. dynamic orientation are then put to an empirical test where situations are analyzed according to which behaviour would be most likely for either orientation. Results support the distinction between the static vs. the dynamic orientation as an explanation for motives and motivational inclinations of tourists. Also, these results support the inferred situational and behavioural characteristics of statically oriented tourists.

However, situational parameters preceding the dynamic orientation were less successful in helping to predict the behaviour and reactions of this group of tourists. Braun puts this down to the lack of knowledge about dynamically oriented tourists.

1.2.2.7 Summary and Conclusions: Motivation

Summarising and previewing some consequences from this presentation of motives and motivation, the well known dichotomy of tourism motives - seeking and escaping (Iso-Ahola, 1982, 1984, 1990) - represents the general class of situations arising out of the analysis of peoples’ actions: Tourists leave their home for ‘because-of-reasons’, i.e. elements inherent in the home-situation, and they leave for ‘in-order-to-reasons’, that is, for elements they wish to find elsewhere (P.L. Pearce, 1982). Subsequent sections will further qualify the motive-element as an emotional element.

Motivations are thus specific, situation-bound sources for actions and govern evaluations, preferences and choices. They determine goal-directedness in conjunction with perceived qualities of objects.

For example, a tourist’s choice to travel by campervan through New Zealand as opposed to some other means, can be seen as the result of the individual’s disposition in conjunction with the information available and accessed (Cattell, 1957). The sources of the information are the tourist’s own memory, other people and advertising, literature, TV and radio etc.

The information, initially "outside" of the prospective tourist (Murray, 1938), is the situation to which the motives (needs) for travel are applied, or by which motives are stimulated. In our case, individual dispositions, motives and situation (information) form the motivation to use a campervan as the means for travel.
The final choice of a campervan is most likely based on cognitive evaluations since the actual planning and booking process requires what is often termed a high-involvement decision in that a number of decision parameters (e.g. holiday period, money, domestic affairs, children etc) have to be dealt with conjointly.

However, the decisions leading to the choice of a campervan can also be seen as consequences of emotional responses that guided subsequent information search and decision-making processes (Kröber-Riel & Meyer-Hentschel, 1982).

The motivation contains the drive which, all things being equal, induces the tourist to make decisions and to act upon them. At the time tourists arrive in New Zealand in order to pick up their hired vehicle, these motivations can be assumed to be controlling behaviour.

Any questions, therefore, that attempt to access tourists’ motivations to travel by campervan can be assumed to stimulate corresponding cognitive structures in a tourist’s memory. In the case of tourists without prior experience of campervans, we can assume stronger emotional involvement underlying corresponding answers, whereas tourists with prior experience of campervans can be assumed to have less emotionally based or influenced cognitive structures underlying these motivations. This assumption has the following basis.

Firstly, a strong emotional involvement for those without experience must be assumed since this is the only source that gives continued persistence for goal-achievement. In other words, the emotions supply the drive expressing the demand for a goal.

As we are dealing with a high-involvement decision, tourists are inclined to show high information-seeking behaviour in order to form (cognitive) heuristics on which to base their decisions (Bettman & Park, 1980).

Secondly, as David Mazursky (1989) found regarding tourists’ visit to stalactite caverns, past experiences and experienced-based norms influence intentions to visit such attractions. Particularly, the frequency of prior experiences impacted on intentions. As will be developed in greater detail below, intentions are instrumental goals designed to produce desired outcomes. They are a form of response to motives and are outcomes of a motivational process.

The satisfaction derived from prior (learning-) experiences help choose the situations most likely to achieve desired outcomes. In this latter case, the persistence for goal-achievement is not merely based on emotional involvement but also on experiential sensory cues.

These latter sensory cues might be considered as cognitive representations. Such sensory cues are, however, different from those formed during information-seeking behaviour in that experiential sensory cues utilize a different mode of representations
from verbal cues (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).

Furthermore, following Atkinson and Birch (1970) and the theory of dynamic action, respondents should be asked for their expectations before they experience and for their levels of satisfaction after the experience. This is deemed to be necessary in order to avoid skewed results. In the case of expectations, this is due to the interaction of motivations in process and those which are as yet unfulfilled.

Regarding satisfaction, results should be measured after the entire experience and with due consideration of levels of expectations: 'provisional' levels of satisfaction (i.e. during an experience) do not acknowledge that the learning process regarding the totality of expectations and their interactions has not been finalized. This can result in giving undue weight to experiences made immediately prior to questioning the respondent.

The above review of motives and motivations allows further insights into the nature of motives regarding the preceding presentation of behaviourists' vs. cognitivists theories.

None of the above researchers expressly states his or her position to these two theories. An interpretative approach, however, allows the following comment. Particularly the 'search and escape' motive in its various forms accommodates some acknowledgement of deprivation-effects capable of generating a drive that induces action. This is particularly the case with Dann's concepts of anomie and ego-enhancement. Here, both concepts relate to a feeling of deprivation, leading Pearce to criticize Dann that this continuum does not allow for self-actualization.

Conversely, Pearce's considerations surrounding Maslow's hierarchy, as well as Cohen's differentiation into his three experiential categories appear to relate more to the cognitive school of thought since they all indicate a goal-oriented behaviour. While Cohen's categories have not been tested as yet, Pearce's methodological approach, which infers motives via attributing experiences to levels of needs, indicates that the activity poses as a targeted goal.

For cognitivists, targeting a goal gives action an anticipatory character. This implies that the subject holds certain attitudes as to the instrumentality of alternatives he can choose from. For behaviourists, the magnitude of the goal, i.e. the intensity of the feeling of deprivation, accounts for the drive that energizes motivation and behaviour.
1.3.0 Attitudes

1.3.1 Introduction

The following section deals with attitudes in general and, more specifically, with their accepted constituting elements (affect, beliefs and intentions). Initially, the terms ‘emotion’ and ‘affect’ will be used interchangeably. Further below, however, a differentiation will become necessary as emotions and cognitions constitute two differing systems.

Consumer behaviourists have come to regard attitudes as a central construct by which antecedent conditions to behaviour can be structured and utilized to explain behaviour.

The acceptance includes the existence of a strong link between expectations, satisfaction and attitudes. The current state of individual disciplines, such as experimental psychology and cognitive psychology, allow a scrutiny of the attitude construct which increases our understanding of both expectations and satisfaction.

The presentation of attitudes does not intend to stop at a semantic exploration of its major elements but also attempts to explicate some more recent findings and theories of cognitive and emotion psychology relevant to this study. These findings relate to the functioning of cognitive processes and are discussed in conjunction with major theories of affect and an affective-cognitive structure.

While primarily concerned with gaining heuristic principles that help us analyse and understand expectations, the following chapter’s aim is also to work out possible differences between expectations and attitudes.

1.3.1 Defining Attitudes

The concept of attitude is a central focus of interest for social psychology and consumer behaviour research. Its central position is evidenced by its repeated re-emergence throughout the history of psychology as a powerful explanatory tool (McGuire, 1985).

An attitude is an explanatory construct that helps bridge the gap between a class of motives and the complexities of resulting behaviour. Also, the concept helps to explain how individuals accommodate and organise receiving stimuli and responses.

In a review of the history of scientific research into attitudes, Ostrom (1989) cites G.W. Allport as being instrumental in focusing on this construct. Allport (1935) defined an attitude
"as a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related"

(1935:810).

However, Ostrom also observes that Allport considered inner mental states as attitudes which would prohibit closer scrutiny and, particularly, empirical approaches.

It was L.I. Thurstone who introduced the notion of attitude as an evaluative response to objects that opened the way for efforts to measure attitudes. In doing so, Thurstone harked back to the scientific pioneers of psychological measurements (C.L. Sheridan, 1971) such as Gustav Theodor Fechner (1801-1887) and Ernst Heinrich Weber (1795-1878). He employed the developments of their findings for the exploration of what is now known as the traditional view of attitudes.

1.3.2 The Tri-Partite View of Attitudes

The traditional view of attitudes is often referred to as the tripartite-view and goes back to the classical distinction of the affective, cognitive and conative spheres of human experiences and actions. On the basis of this tradition, Rosenberg (1957) and Rosenberg and Hovland (1960) effectively construct, as Ajzen calls it, a "hierarchical model" (Ajzen, 1989) presenting affect, cognition and conation as first-order factors while attitudes are single second-order factors. There, an attitude is defined as a "relatively stable affective response to an object" (1957:367) carrying a cognitive structure. For Rosenberg, an attitude expresses itself in positively or negatively inclined statements, measured, for example, on an attitude scale with a semantic differential.

In this model, the affective strength of the attitude depends on the importance of an underlying value and the (subjectively evaluated) potency of an object to satisfy that value.

1.3.3 The Causal Chain Model of Attitudes

A complementary perspective relates to a particular development of the classical 'tri partite view’. It is called the causal-chain model (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). It distinguishes attitudes as consisting of beliefs (cognitions), emotions (affects), and a type of latent energy that induces an individual to act or activate that attitude when the attitude is stimulated (conation).
Fishbein and Ajzen define attitudes as

"a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object" (1975:6)

That is, the attitude forms the overall evaluative response. Following those two social psychologists, Lutz (1981) presents us with a diagram that shows affect as the actual attitude. It forms the middle link of a causal flow that leads to overt behaviour:

--- Belief --- Attitude --- Intention --- | Behaviour
Cognition Affect Conation | Conation

(Lutz, 1981:235)

Lutz (1981) compares the above unidimensional attitude model with a tripartite model. Essentially, it contains the same elements, yet the causal flow of the unidirectional model makes the latter approach more conducive to the purposes of marketing research in that beliefs are considered to be antecedents, and intentions and behaviours to be consequences.

However, in contrast to the tripartite view, attitudes are seen here as a function of beliefs, in that beliefs have a causal effect on attitudes. Following Ajzen (1975, 1989; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) certain attributes are linked to objects via beliefs about the objects. The measure of the strength of the belief is the subjective probability that an object possesses a certain attribute. An estimate of the resulting attitude is rendered by adding all products which occur when multiplying belief strengths with attribute evaluations.

1.3.4 Attitudes as Covert Acts and Dimensions of Judgement

According to McGuire (1969), an attitude is an evaluative response to an antecedent stimulus or attitude object.

In a first approach, and to explain this view, McGuire (1989) utilizes two innate concepts of attitudes (here understood as a subset of thoughts). Attitudes are seen as both covert acts which project meaning, and as dimensions of judgement which are the objects of those acts. McGuire's model regards attitudes as being contained in quasi-spatial spheres populated by cells of distinguishable topics of meaning.

Those cells feature on one or on several dimensions of judgement depending on their transcendental or material applicability. A transcendental dimension of judgement is more abstract and can govern various topics.
Consider 'philanthropism' as an example for such a dimension; this concept would be open to most topics that include social interaction. Conversely, a material dimension would cover limited, more representational (sub-)topics such as hardness, softness or colour.

With this attempt to explain how attitudes can be imagined to assemble, McGuire proceeds from a semantic-level explanation to a function-level explanation. That is, McGuire goes beyond what can be explained with the "language of thought" such as belief and knowledge.

McGuire introduces a dynamic aspect in thought progression which, according to Pylyshyn's cognitive model, occurs in the "functional structure" of individuals' minds. This structure or "functional architecture" is cognitively impenetrable (Pylyshyn, 1986). The dynamic process of attitude formation, as a state of readiness, is an ever-changing process in that any differences in the perception of objects cause immediate changes to the actual attitude. For visual perception, this approach has also become a central tenet for J.J.Gibson's 'Ecological Optics' (1982).

A dynamic view has also been adopted by Youjae Yi (1989) which presents expectancy value attitudes as an interdependent structure of horizontally and vertically interrelated elements. This model disputes the linear, independent single-attribute relationship between belief and affect of the Fishbein model (see also Bagozzi 1981).

The unidimensional expectancy value attitude model we presented above sums beliefs about attributes. It thus equalizes any inter-subjective differences in beliefs about individual attributes, since differing values on individual attributes can still produce the same overall sum.

Similar criticism holds true for other, more differentiated versions even although they have the advantage of indicating individual measurement errors for individual attributes. In these cases, however, subsets of expectancy value attitudes differentiate an overall attitude thus allowing a more finely meshed representation. None the less, individual chains (from belief-> attribute-> expectancy-value attitude) remain as independent elements of a more complex structure.

Similar to McGuire above, Yi suggests that these models do not map various types of interrelationships between individual attributes. For example, a car signals both safety and comfort by its size. Size is thus a shared antecedent of both comfort and safety.

Yi therefore tests and verifies the assumption that an expectancy value attitude can be represented in a network form, retaining information about individual attributes rather than collapsing them.

Yi differs from McGuire above, in that he remains entirely in the cognitive school of thought. While the inclusion of error estimates could, in part, compensate for the neglect of emotions, the overall conceptual structure of an attitude is not questioned.
Affect is still treated as a function of beliefs and, implicitly, synonymous with emotions.

This dissertation strives to operationalize a differentiation between affect as an emotional aspect of cognitive structures that indicates preference or avoidance behaviour, and emotions, as a separate system that induces behaviour without the mediation of cognitions.

1.3.5 The Loop Model of Attitude - Event - Attitude - Effect

Lately, Ajzen (1989) emphasizes two aspects of the above model. One is, that the direction of flow as pictured above (see Lutz) is not unidirectional. This reorientation, while regretted by some (Chaiken and Stangor, 1987) since it disturbs further development of procedures which appear to have become paradigmatic -, opens the concept of attitudes to further evaluation and allows other influences, e.g. information processing theories (Pylyshyn, 1986), as well as emotion-theory (Izard, 1984) to help explain the cognitive-affective structure and behaviour (incl. satisfaction judgements). Furthermore, it allows the recognition of behaviourists’ drive theories since the re-evaluation of the attitude after the event is capable of including assessments of drive-motives by way of (cognitive) emotion-awareness (Rollenhagen & Dalqvist, 1989).

The other refined element of Ajzen’s approach states that attitude is a function of belief, only if the belief is salient to its holder. Differing from earlier approaches, Ajzen now presents us with a view of attitudes in which

"the term attitude is reserved strictly for the overall evaluative response, whereas cognition, affect, and conation are treated as conceptually distinct antecedents or consequences of attitude"

(1989:247)

This constitutes a major change from Ajzen’s earlier paradigm, putting it conceptually much closer to the model of the ‘tri-partites’ (e.g. Rosenberg, 1957; McGuire, 1985). The conceptual proximity comes about through the fact that now "established attitudes may influence perception and interpretation of later events, thus determining in part the beliefs that are formed" (Ajzen, 1989:248). This establishes part of this dissertation’s proposition to be tested, i.e. that expectations in tourism do pre-determine perceptions of experiences and final satisfaction judgements.

In the light of this latter statement, Ajzen’s contention that Rosenberg’s attitude model is hierarchical, i.e. divided into first and second order factors (see above) can lead to misunderstandings. Indeed, what used to be a linear model for Fishbein and Ajzen, now becomes what can be described as a loop model: The linear model takes the form of event - attitude - effect relationships whereas the loop model views situations as attitude - event - attitude - effect relationships.
While both latter models can form legitimate bases for experiments, it appears, that the loop model is more life-like in that no situation is "wertfrei", i.e. without pre-existing constellations such as a subject's value system, or even his education, current mood or general perception of situational parameters, all influencing shape and form of the attitude in question 1.

\[
\text{ATTITUDE} \rightarrow \text{EVENT} \rightarrow \text{ATTITUDE} \rightarrow \text{EFFECT}
\]

Figure I.3.1 The Loop Model of Attitude - Event - Attitude - Effect

It is more realistic to assume that the expectation-guided learning process that takes place during an experience, which up until that point had only been expected but did not exist, causes the individual to remodel and / or confirm prior attitudes. This is due to the merely representational character of expectations, i.e. expectations are abstract and have an only tentatively substantial character. The particular character of expectations will be dealt with in more detail below.

In order to be able to establish and measure a relationship between expectations and satisfaction, it has to be shown that there exist structurally interdependent relationships.

The study of tourism behaviour, as our overall goal, thus makes the feedback-feedforward loop-model more conducive to our enquiry into expectations and satisfaction.

Such an approach, however, demands greater scrutiny of attitudinal antecedents, their structure and function.

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\[\text{\textsuperscript{1}}\text{This is, indeed, an every-day experience of tourism personnel, particularly in international settings.}\]
I.3.6 Two Systems: Cognitions and Emotions

I.3.6.1 Cognitions

In the attitude construct of social psychology, Festinger describes cognitions as "any knowledge, opinion or belief about the environment, about oneself or about one's behaviour" (1957:3).

The quality of knowledge - particularly factual knowledge relating to the physical reality - relies on the circumstance that it is based on mental images, schema or symbols, i.e. representations of existing objects in 'the real world'. In other words, knowledge, in this sense, corresponds with objects in the physical world.

Beliefs, however, which, in the construct of cognitions, are often subsumed under the concept of knowledge, can be made up of assumptions without corresponding objects in the real world. Porter and Lawler (1968) discuss such beliefs in the context of expectations for rewards at the workplace. Here, the amount of a desired award depends on the belief that the award is related to the amount of effort and performance shown. The expectation to receive a desired reward, however, depends on the (1) probability that reward depends upon performance and (2) the probability that performance depends upon effort (1968:19).

Fishbein and Aizen (e.g. 1972:495 or 1981:262) also interpret belief as synonymous with subjective probability. Beliefs are thus a special type of hypothesis upon which we act. They are a special type in that they are often not consciously tested. Rather, knowledge and beliefs are acquired and integrated in a cognitive structure. It is only when these beliefs are not confirmed, e.g. we find out that our knowledge about an object is faulty or deficient, that they do regain a status of hypothesis which are then reflected upon, altered and perhaps tested. These procedures highlight the cognitive character of expectancy approaches.

The above type of belief can be subdivided into those cognitive constructs with conjointly occurring affective elements (e.g. "hot cognitions" Zajone, 1980 ) and those beliefs that occur with no or no obviously detectable affective elements (e.g. the knowledge/belief that 5+5=10).

Furthermore, and of great interest to the concept of satisfaction in international tourism, is the concept of goals or aims as one form of cognitions which have no representation in the physical world. Goals (including motivations) contain beliefs as well as affective elements and can be expressed semantically as can be the pursuit of these goals.

At this point, the proximity between semantic representations of cognitions and co-occurring emotions becomes most obvious since the actual pursuit of goals can only be explained in the language of emotions that specify intensity and persistence (Heckhausen, 1989). The proximity also accentuates a deficiency in the vocabulary that
tries to explain these particular co-occurrences of cognitions and emotions, since what
is needed here is the semantic extension of cognition that includes the meaning of
cognitive awareness of emotions, without implying that the awareness is a similar mental
representation as that of e.g. a physical object. While the concept of 'affect' is often
used in this context, it appears to cause more confusion than clarification. Henceforth,
we therefore adopt the above mentioned term of 'emotion-awareness' (Rollenhagen &
Dalqvist, 1989 see below) as meaning an awareness of what in situations of motivation
are behaviourists’ drives. Further clarification will be achieved once the nature of values
is discussed below.

Rollenhagen and Dalqvist (1989) present evidence of emotion awareness whereby
respondents were able to distinguish the feelings they experienced in different situations
according to cognitive aspects of emotions, general feelings and perceived bodily
reactions.

There are strong arguments for a two-system view of emotion and cognitions
(Izard, 1984; Zajonc, 1980; Zajonc and Markus, 1984) which, thus far, appear only to
have been generally accepted for the neurophysiological- biochemical level (Izard, 1984)
with cautious progress in other areas such as cognitive psychologies (Izard, 1991). Some
serious 'cross-fertilization' into economic psychology or social research has also taken
place (e.g. Miller, et al., 1980; Mittal, 1988; Etzioni, 1988). As for the behavioural-
expressive and the experiential levels, cognitive psychologists prefer to regard emotions
(affect) as dependent variables in a linear model of attitude - event - effect as described
in the previous section.

In other words, in order to be able to understand the nature of expectational
attitudes as emotion-charged cognitive constructs, we require a model that allows a
definition of affect and cognition in attitudes in such a form that changes in affective
and cognitive structures can be described if not explained. Psychophysical theory and
tests can then be applied to bridge the theoretical gap between emotion, a tourist's
conscious awareness of these emotions and the measurement of both in satisfaction-
judgements.

To summarize this section on cognitions, then, we have to take note of the fact
that beliefs and knowledge are hypothesis-like representations of objects with or without
counterparts in the physical world. Their tentative character comes about through man's
incapability to have the certainty of full and comprehensive knowledge. Beliefs and
knowledge are thus always tied to a degree of probability as to their extent of verity.
This probability implies an expectational contents in both beliefs and attitudes. This
implication also holds for values below.

Furthermore, tied to the acquisition of beliefs and knowledge, are levels of affect
which are either a consequence of the acquisition itself (i.e. how beliefs are learnt), or
the contents of the belief (e.g. a wish, desire or expectation, or a doctrine). In the latter
case, it is suggested to adopt an understanding that likens the underlying energy to that
of emotional drives.
I.3.6.2 Emotions and Affect

It is precisely because of the proximity of cognitions and emotions as simultaneous influences on behaviour, that a close understanding of both the cognition and emotion-system is necessary in describing goal-oriented behaviour. While traditional cognitive psychologies mention affect, they mostly fail to account for influences of emotions and remain purely in the semantic-representational sphere instead. Yet,

"Emotions do not simply generate arousal or a vague sense of strength or energy. A specific emotion sets up a specific action tendency - the first sign that emotion is working to organize your thought and action" (Izard, 1991:23)

According to Izard (1984), emotions are, from an evolutionary point of view, much older than cognitions. As mentioned above (I.2.2.3), emotions allow a reaction which by-passes more time consuming cognitive processes such as appraisal, remembering, anticipating etc., and have thus a major influence on chances of survival and related, self defensive functions.

Major emotions mentioned by Izard motivate approach- and avoidance- as well as interest- and anger-behaviour. The latter two "are significant determinants of selective attention and hence of the contents of perception and cognition" (1984:18). Only a small, "fundamental" set of emotions exists, from which all others derive, either separately or as blends (1984:30).

"A given emotion is defined as the integration of a particular set of neurochemical, motor, and mental processes." This definition

"also assumes that the emotion-specific feeling is invariant over the life-span and that it is, in fact, a central ingredient in selfhood and in the sensing of self as active and continuous across time and situations" (1984:25).

While emotions can directly cause behaviour, by-passing cognitive processes, Izard doubts that there is any cognition without emotion.

That, technically speaking, cognitions and emotions can interact, lies with the fact that both can share neural pathways. This is mentioned by Izard (1984), implied by Pylyshyn (1986) and can be inferred from experiments on rats (Lashley, 1929).

In these latter experiments it was established, that no particular part of the cortex is responsible for learning a maze. Rather, even after lesion of those parts of the cortex
which were active when executing the learning function, rats were able to perform the learning process. In other words, not the location on the cortex but the existence of it allowed the learning process.

The influences of emotions on behaviour have been canvassed by Zajonc in an extensive literature research as well as his own field and laboratory tests in collaboration with others (see Zajonc, 1968, 1980; Zajonc and Markus, 1982, 1984).

This notion has also been taken up by others (e.g., Kahle, 1983; Etzioni, 1988) and will be discussed further in the section dealing with "the interaction or bonding of emotion and cognition in values ..." and beliefs (1.5.5, Izard, 1984:27).

1.3.6.3 Affect

In his work on motivational psychology and behaviour, Heinz Heckhausen defines the affective content of an attitude towards a circumstance (object or a situation) as a function of,

"(1.) the instrumentality of this circumstance
for the achievement of a targeted goal and

(2.) the satisfaction resulting from the goal-achievement which, in the end, depends on the motivation" (1989:181).

This juxtaposition of affect and cognitions indicates that affect is a consequence of what has been described as cognitive "emotion awareness" (Rollenhagen & Dalkvist, 1989; see also Rivera et al., 1989).

Experiments which tested the influence of emotions on cognition support the differential systems view, in that mood influences cognitive processes (Bower, 1981; Izard et al., 1965).

"... emotion-cognition relationships develop as emotion feeling and cognitive processes interact in consciousness to form affective -cognitive structures, which by definition have both an emotion and a cognitive component... [they] become the more and more predominant structures of mind with increasing age." (Izard, 1984:14)

Cognitive and affective systems can rely on fundamentally different learning experiences. As an example, one might consider the use of punishment in education and
children’s socialization and enculturation processes. There, it is often the emotion of fear of punishment that creates avoidance behaviour, rather than a (cognitive) reason which some school teachers like to believe - which teacher would admit that s/he keeps control over her class by inducing fear? On the other hand, algebraic problem-solving skills must be attributed to cognitive processes while emotional stimuli determining persistence help motivate their acquisition (Ipfling, 1974; see also Breckler and Wiggins, 1989a; 1989).

As Breckler (1984) and others (Bagozzi, 1981) have shown and as it has been further developed by Breckler (1989), affect and cognition exist as distinguishable yet highly correlating parts of the attitude construct. They thus have their own domains (or functional architectures, i.e. cognitively impenetrable functions of the brain (Pylyshyn, 1986)) and may or may not interact at any given time during a response to stimuli.

To conclude then, analogous to Heckhausen’s definition of motives and motivations (1.2.2.2), as well as Izard definition of emotions (1.3.6.2), emotions are understood here as lasting dispositions with each emotion having its distinct type of contents which relate to three levels, the neurophysiological, the expressive and the experiential. In the case of moods, which are emotional expressions too, yet transitory, one can assume moods to be associated with personality traits which tend to produce, for example, one rather than another type of mood in given situations.

I.3.6.3.1 An Argument for Distinguishing between Emotions and Affect

A distinction between affect and emotions in marketing produces several advantages: it helps to highlight the different scholarly approaches from cognitive psychologists on the one hand and emotion psychologists on the other; it focusses on the varying impacts of the emotional and the cognitive system, rather than assuming a mere functional and unidirectional relationship. Most importantly, it sharpens our focus on behaviour and helps to improve descriptions and explanations of satisfaction formation. The latter is a logical consequence of our above introduced presentation of motivation.

Since motivation includes both drives that energize behaviour, as well as cognitions in the form of demands for goals, these should find a distinguishable response in the formation of satisfaction.

Affect is the outcome of particular person - situation interactions. The main characteristic of cognitions is their propositional character, whereas affect is an emotional charge that exists conjointly with these cognitions. Cognitions belong to the dimension of judgement whereas affect is akin to emotions engendered by specific attitude objects (Breckler and Wiggins, 1989a; Izard, 1977).

In addition, cognitive emotion-awareness is the cognitive capability of experiencing and describing emotional sensations. It differs from affect insofar as it can be described as an experience in itself, without being tied to a specific situation or cognitive structure.
1.3.6.4 Summary of Cognitions and Emotions as Components of Expectations

Thus the developed distinction allows the following summarized insights into the structure of expectations as a particular type of attitude.

Expectations are tentative representations of future events. Although they are evaluatively (cognitively) engendered and thus built on existing and adapted attitudes, they are, nonetheless, liable to contain strong affective elements.

It should be understood, however, that these elements are affective only because they are (nominally) attached to situation-based cognitions. The emotional tension which is contained in this expression can bypass cognition and cause behaviour by itself.

This can be inferred from the fact that the tension which arises out of an expected state of affairs can result in strong (physical) reactions when eventually encountered. Such reactions can range from non-visible activities in the vegetative nerve-system to the visible urge of jumping up and down for happiness or to tears for sadness. These states of affairs include hoped or wished for or feared situations (see Rivera et al., 1989).

Happiness is a psychic reaction (Hartmann, 1982) responding to the complete satisfaction of several needs at once (see Tatarkiewicz, 1976).

Furthermore, there are expectations which need not, or not measurably, contain neither affect nor emotions. Such are expectations of external events such as laws of physics in operation or the re-appearance of daylight etc.

If, hypothetically, a particular, well established law of physics should not be true any longer, or the sun refuse to shine, we will surely notice emotional responses.

Until then, however, expectations about these events will remain as taken for granted, as is the fact that 5+5=10, for example.

Below, in the section on values, we will distinguish between instrumental and expressive values and expectations. Re-occurring natural events or commonly accepted rules like those contained in the decimal system, can be grouped with instrumental values and expectations. They form the means to achieve ends. Conversely, expressive values and expectations form ends in themselves.

It might be argued, that the rise of the sun can be regarded as a mythical experience and thus, like the Aztecs or other, spiritual persons, one might see this event as an expressive experience. Generally, however, these events and facts form the basis for other goals to be achieved, like begin a new day’s work or enjoy new pleasures at a tourist destination.
knowledge. Furthermore, expectations can be emotionally motivated out of a feeling-state of awareness expressing a longing which leads to the perception of a gap between the real self and the ideal self. One form of emotions expressing themselves, can be inferred from the generation of interest-behaviour (Izard, 1984) as expressed in the tourists’ dual motives of escape from current situations and the search for something different.

Tourists’ information searches must be regarded as motive-driven processes that create motivations. Once motives attach themselves to situations, the drive for goal-directed behaviour is generated. This forward-directed movement leads us to consider the concept of intentions.

The here mentioned drive refers to emotional drive that explains the intensity of information-search and should be distinguished from the drive generated by goal-expectations. As mentioned before, in order to operationalize a distinction, the structure of values needs to be explained.

(Erratum: page numbers; the next few pages 42-45 are not missing)
1.4.0 INTENTIONS

1.4.1 Introduction

A further important aspect with regard to attitudes is that of intentions. Intentions denote motivational factors impacting on behaviour, they indicate how people are inclined to react to motives.

Beside the tourist's internal motivational 'push', it is the tourism destination which exerts a 'pull-effect' on its visitors by way of its attractions. It can be assumed that tourists have preferences regarding those attractions and associated activities which influence behaviour at the destination.

1.4.2 Contributions from Three Major Psychological Approaches

Ajzen’s (socio-psychological) theory of planned behaviour (1989) contains three conceptually independent determinants of intentions. They are

- attitude
- subjective norm
- perceived behavioural control

(1) The attitude, consistent with his above mentioned model, refers to the favourable or unfavourable evaluation of a behaviour under consideration.

(2) The subjective norm,– an element of the reasoned-action construct (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) – refers to an individual’s perception of social pressure to perform the behaviour in question.

(3) Lastly, the perceived behavioural control refers to the individual’s belief as to what extent she can perform the behaviour in question while considering impediments, such as resources, availability etc.

The corresponding antecedents of these determinants are

(a) the behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluations,
(b) normative beliefs and the motivation to comply and
(c), the control beliefs and perceived facilitation.

The acquisition of normative beliefs and evaluation capabilities relate to a social and cultural base. The latter exemplifies that this model is conceptualized with social interaction in mind.
Motivation-psychology contributes the view that intentions towards particular activities correlate with underlying motivations. According to the 'Wuerzburg School' and its classic definition of mind-set (see Boring 1950), mind-set effects are based on cognitive processes that promote solving the task which stimulated the rise of the mind-set (see Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, Steller, 1990). Mind-sets are a Gestalt and intentions can be regarded as conational expressions of mind-sets. The mind-set construct highlights the proximity of motives, motivations, attitudes and the propensity to act.

Both of the two cited psychologies contain the assertion that intentions are energized by mental or neural structures of a symbolic or representational type, characteristic of problem solving or decision-making tasks.

Emotion Psychology suggest three internally energizing forces of drives which indicate the feeling and intensity of needs. At the same time, it sets up a specific action tendency, i.e. it associates classes of objects or behaviours.

Thus, when choosing the type of destination, transport, activities etc., a tourist who deliberates about a destination, will do so with a range of internally and externally motivated considerations. The intentions that are formed during and after this deliberation are expressions of emotional action tendencies explaining levels of intensity and persistence. Intentions are instrumental goals designed to produce desired outcomes.

1.4.3 Intentions as Measures of Motivational Strength

Both the above account of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1989) as well as other cognitivists' approaches can be scrutinized further. There are three questions, the answers to which can increase our understanding of the type and the strength of intentions. In addition, the role of non-selective drives will have to be considered in this context. The structure of the following paragraphs dealing with the cognitivists' approach is modelled on Heckhausen (1989).

1. How persistent is a person's intention to achieve a goal?

In order to achieve an intended goal, action has to be consistently controlled. If there occurs an interruption, the level of persistence determines whether the individual returns to targeting that initial goal.

According to the dynamic model of motivation and action by Atkinson and Birch (1970), the possibility of the initiation of an action increases with the availability of external factors which stimulate the tendency of that intention to come to the fore.

Another influence increasing the tendency to pursue a certain activity is the individual's cognitive processes, i.e. thinking about and imagining outcomes of actions.
As an intention can increase in intensity, it can also decrease which is the case whenever a certain intention is already controlling a certain behaviour. Thus there occurs a flow of motivations gaining control over behaviour. Even intentions with low motivational force can, temporarily, gain dominance over behaviour.

2. What factors cause intentions to actually lead to behaviour?

From Atkinson and Birch's (1970) model it is easily understood that the chances of an intended behaviour being activated are higher, the more such external conditions are available which allow a successful execution. Yet, as Heckhausen observes, this model "rather determines relative occurrences of competing tendencies to act" (1989:194), than constituting a predictive theory. Heckhausen therefore refers to the social psychologists Ajzen and Fishbein for further developments.

Ajzen and Fishbein (1977), however, put the question in the form as to what extent attitudes - rather than the intention component by itself - exert influence on behaviour.

In order to assess which attitudes dominate a behaviour, Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) note that the relationship between attitudes and behaviour is often weak because, in these cases, attitude measurements are too general as compared to the specific nature of behaviour measurements.

These authors show that correlations between behaviour and attitudes increase when attitude measurements are specified with regard to four dimensions:

"the action, the target at which the action is directed, the context in which the action is performed, and the time at which it is performed" (1977:889).

3. How are obstacles in the way between intentions and realization overcome?

As indicated above (Ajzen, 1989), this is partly a matter of control. Actual control (Ajzen, 1985) is predominantly determined by external facilitators such as time, skills and money etc. and, regarding self-actualization, other, dispositional factors (see Grunow-Lutter, 1983).

In Kuhl's theory of "action control" (1985), Kuhl gathers seven (cognitive) mediating processes that can be employed to control behaviour. They stretch from controlling attention, encoding and emotions, through to the control of the environment, information processing and the overcoming of setbacks and failures.

Intentions are thus forward-directed volitions based on related attitudes whereby the volitional charge is a consequence of the preceding motivation process exerting a
degree of intensity that also determines the level of persistence. The volitional charge not only stretches across aspects of the actual behaviour but also over the time period between intention formation up to the actual execution. This requires, internally, managed control over other motives and motivations as well as, externally, control over situational and environmental influences. Such control is necessary since humans’ existence in time and space is continuous, exposing them to ever new stimuli and, consequently, to new motivations in order to adapt to these stimuli.

It is in the context of intentions, that the behaviourists’ notion of drives gains its strongest recognition amongst cognitivists. While persistence to pursue a goal can be generated cognitively via its attractiveness, intensity and persistence to act can also be generated from an internal (emotional) feeling of deprivation.

While any behaviour, and particularly high-involvement behaviour utilises these strategies, in the case of (campervan) tourism the researcher has to consider,

a) (Campervan) tourists are highly mobile

Physical mobility brings with it a constant change of the environment (on average, campervan tourists drive 200 km a day see III.3). This circumstance allows numerous and different motivations to come to the fore, giving opportunities to pursue prior intended activities as well as to act on impulse.

b) tourism is hedonistic, an expression of having 'a good time'

The latter caveat includes the possibility, that while intentions exist, there is, judging by the care-free nature of tourism, no compulsion to perform. In fact, for those travellers to New Zealand who are termed 'Free and Independent Tourists', lack of compulsion is one of the hallmarks of tourism. Yet even such an observation has to be qualified: although there exists the argument, that tourism is a form of conspicuous consumption which compels people to perform, it is more likely, as Krippendorf observes, that "We have many deep-rooted habits and needs, we behave in set ways, and these cannot be simply shaken off. Whether we want it or not, we take them along on our trips ... We are told by psychologists that the feeling of experiencing something different from everyday situations is not brought about by unusual activities, but by the uninhibited pursuit of all the things we are used to doing at home" (1987:32).

Regarding leisure activities in general, Scheuch (1969) states that,

"The evaluations of various behaviours during leisure time, like the preference systems of actors in general, can only be partially inferred from manifested behaviour." (1969:786)
Elsewhere Scheuch notes that, particularly amongst holiday makers, the tendency exists of intending to pursue far more activities than are subsequently realized. Rather, tourists tend to fall back into patterns of every-day behaviour. This occurs without apparent impact on levels of satisfaction.

1.4.4 Conclusions on Intentions

Consequently, there are two aspects that will be of interest regarding expectation and satisfaction formation which will also form the basis for hypotheses to be tested.

Firstly, does the number of intentions and/or the strength of resolve increase with motivational processes such as information search? Studying pictorial information or listening to reports, allows the tourist, for example, to project herself into the described situation, anticipate feelings and experiences and thus form an intention regarding certain activities.

Using Zajonc and Markus' (1984) insights into the representational role of mimicking, such projective motivation processes can be regarded as building and increasing the affective element of attitudes. Empirical findings of the influences of imagery processes on expectation and experiencing support this view (MacInnis and Price, 1990). Mimicking behaviour and imagery can be seen as particular strategies in the process of motivation formation in that they involve 'thinking in pictures' as opposed to discursive thinking.

Secondly, does the particular carefree nature of tourism have any impact on the pursuit of intentions and final satisfaction formation? Considering that there is little if any compulsion to perform intended behaviour, once (campervan) tourists are at their destination, the possibility arises that although certain activities have been intended and the control over the situation has been given, the non-performance has no impact on the final overall satisfaction.

While Grunow-Lutter (1983) indicated that self-actualization is a continuous process in which all parameters are subject to change, which could supply the reason for changing intentions and thus non-performance, Hofstätter (1986) supplies an explanation for such a behaviour from a somewhat different perspective with his satisfaction model. There he argues that people who engage in expected behaviour pass through a learning process. During this learning process, people tend to readjust their expectations so as to prevent disappointment. Both of these latter points will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

A further explanation can be supplied by studying tourists' value systems. While such an enquiry loops back to the section on motives and motivations above, the next section expands on the constructs of values as both organising mechanisms for drives and as means to adapt to the environment.
I.5.0 Values

I.5.1 Introduction

The following section takes a closer look at the link between (the internal) motive and (the external) object or situation and the process that prepares the ground for expectation-attitudes and the intention to act.

Psychological and sociological insights are preceded by a short philosophical presentation of values. This leads to a discussion of the logical relationship between general values and their application to specific situations. The construct of expressive and instrumental values are explained as are the concepts of inner-directedness, outer-directedness (Riesman, 1966; Kahle, 1983) and expectant and filled emotions (E.Bloch, 1985).

Values are here discussed as,

1. fundamental organizers or points of reference for preference decisions in conjunction with valencies as the outcome of assessments of the instrumentality of objects.

Values are also discussed as,

2. strategies, in order to gain a detailed understanding of how a motivation to act interacts and, indeed permeates the object of motivation, be it an object outside a person or be it the motive itself. The latter includes emotion-motives which are, via the definition of drive, understood as a non-selective energy that stimulates a person to reduce that drive.

Furthermore values are discussed as,

3. containing emotional drives as and when they are controlling behaviour. The briefly mentioned distinctions above (expressive vs. instrumental etc.) will be employed to group values according to emotional and cognitive leanings, so as to develop operationalizeable and measurable constructs.

The concept of values experienced influential treatment by philosophers. There are two basic approaches, one can be called the subjective approach while the other is the phenomenological approach. Subjective approaches have in common that

"values are most appropriately treated as psychological states of an experiencing person, states which have been variously identified as pleasure, desire, or interest"

(Alicke, 1983:7f)
The phenomenological approach, while harking back to Plato, received renewed and influential attention by Husserl. For Husserl, knowledge and judgement

"were related in a predictable way to the object; that is, that they were directly dependent on the nature of the object considered, rather than the object being determined by the activity of consciousness, as supposed by the subjectivity theorists"

(Alicke, 1983:9)

This brief introduction into basic outlines of the subjective and phenomenological viewpoints is deemed necessary as it will be argued that (behaviourists') drive mechanisms also respond to the latter, objective characteristics of objects through activation (or instantiation, see Pylyshyn, 1986) of inner-directed, expressive values. In contrast, the subjective view on values is more appropriate for outer-directed expressive values which 'imbue' an object with a symbolic content.

1.5.2 Values and Valencies

For modern psychology, the understanding of the concept of values can be traced back as early as 1922 when Lewin, in a controversy with Ach (1910), attempted to overcome difficulties within the latter's model of behaviour. Lewin extended Ach's concept of 'determining tendencies' which explained formations of associations in the human mind (and consequently were then used to guide actions) to one that regards these 'determining tendencies' as the fundamental predisposition for behaviour per se.

Values differ from attitudes in that they are to be considered as precursors or antecedents to attitudes.

In order to find proof, Lewin looked for the energizer of behaviour. In a bid to describe, if not to explain the phenomenon of the selection of a certain behaviour and its direction as the result of choice, Lewin introduced the term of 'tension' in his model of personality that was to become connected to 'field theory' (1942).

Accordingly, a person is represented as a system comprised of distinctly different areas (1936). Each area represents certain psychological possibilities of actions and events which can take the form of short term or long term goals. Within a person's mind, these varying goals create a certain tension and direct the person to look for relief. An object which is deemed to relieve this tension or, more generally, satisfy the person, thus gains a certain "valency".
I.5.2.1 Values and Expectations

Directly related is the concept of 'expectation'. Each object gains its valency through its power to satisfy a need. The object thus creates an expectation as to its consequences. In other words, a value (or need) becomes operative in a specific situation while the valency expresses the relative utility of the object to satisfy that specific need.

Lewin assumes the existence of valencies and expectations, yet without explaining how they come into existence. Since our own approach of assessing different aspects and levels of expectations with regard to satisfaction requires theoretically justified parameters, the origins of expectations and valencies as used in psychological expectancy-value models are introduced.

A possible reason for Lewin's omission of how expectations come into existence, lies with the particular characterisation of his field theory (see Introduction I.1.1, p. 4). Although this point has been argued extensively (see Lewin, 1952), Heckhausen (1989) indicates, that point five appears restrictive in that it is not clear as to what extent past experiences and knowledge can become operational. There it was stated that,

"behaviour is a function of the present field and cannot be explained out of past or future events."

Therefore, we turn elsewhere for clarification.

In his pursuit to explain behaviour, Tolman (1926) developed the concept of the "cognitive map". The cognitive map is to be considered as containing cognitive systems, i.e. various distinct patterns of interrelated cognitive elements (means-end relations or expectations). These cognitive systems carry four structural characteristics, a degree of complexity, consonance, abstractness and realism (Grunow-Lutter, 1983) which are concepts based on the School of Gestalt.

The complexity of a given cognitive system refers to the number of elements and their degree of differentiation. The degree of consonance details the level of 'harmony' between elements of each system. Abstractness, in conjunction with complexity and consonance above, refers to the degree of differentiation and integratedness of the cognitive system. Realism denotes the individual's sincerity about his or her cognitive systems, e.g. his or her self-image. Sincerity here means that a person would be willing, for example, to test the truthfulness of this self-image.

Quoting Harvey et al. (1961), Grunow-Lutter details that abstractness refers to the degree of clarity or ambiguity of a cognitive system. Compartmentalisation/integratedness refers to the connectedness of these systems and centrality/peripherality denotes the degree of dependency between individual elements and certain elements of the system. Optimal centrality is characterised by a high degree of abstractness of the system and differs from highly central systems in that all elements
contribute to the function of the system without any one of them holding a dominant position. This allows substitutability of elements and prevents the system from collapsing.

Expectations about certain qualities of an object that assist in solving a problem or satisfying a need, are consequences of previously acquired learning outcomes. These 'products' of past experiences gain entry into new or unrelated processes of problem solution.

It is in this sense that Tolman moves away from behaviourism since he maintains the existence of knowledge about future events that directs current behaviour (Heckhausen, 1989).

At the same time, Tolman remains true to his behaviouristic past. While allowing anticipatory knowledge which he calls expectancies of goals comprising (hypothesized) outcome-related knowledge and beliefs, Tolman's model contains a second element that defines the behaviourists' motivational drive. This he calls the demand for the goal and is motivated by the self.

In essence, the above facilitates the following observations onto the concept of 'value': an object, situation, act or mental construct "instantiates" (Pylyshyn, 1986; in the sense of a synergetic generation) an individual's motivated application of needs and values (sign-gestalt). The object thus gains a certain valency for that person in that the object is, subjectively, endowed with properties that allow that person to solve certain problems, relieve certain stresses or satisfy needs to a subjectively determined degree. Out of this personal, evaluative process flow reasons for choice behaviour. They form the basis of expectations.

In this sense, valencies have a stronger contents of expectancies than the value that preceded the valency. In other words, the value in which the valency is rooted has, by nature, expectational content. The contents refers to the class of objects the value is good for. (This seemingly tautological relationship is of the same quality as that in the concept of mind-set (Boring, 1950; Gollwitzer et al., 1990, see 1.4.2 above).

Comparing values with valencies of objects along the contents of expectancies shows that valencies have positivistic content of expectation. Positivistic is used in the sense that it refers to the (exact) measure of instrumentality of the object for a given goal.

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1 The satisfaction / dissatisfaction paradigm in consumer behaviour research which we will discuss further below, relies on Tolman's expectancy theory in that the expectation about a product's performance is represented by certain assumptions of it's most likely performance. As will be shown in the literature review, consumer behaviour research into satisfaction often shows inconclusive results as to the influence of expectations.
I.5.2.2 Values and Drives

Above, expectations have been presented as cognized phenomena. Such expectations and possible actions are further motivated via the demand for the goal which defines, independently of the contents of the goal, the strength and intensity of the pursuit. In the latter case, the goal acts as reinforcer which is associated with a reward or a generally satisfactory outcome. Tolman’s approach laid the foundations for what is now known as the expectancy-value model.

While expectations are considered to be hypothetical constructs, the two theorists Lewin and Tolman differ both in the extent to which they account for these constructs and the extent to which they allow results of past experiences as substance for expectations. Heckhausen (1989) maintains that it is a difference of degree rather than kind.

However, when focussing on the different types of sources for motivational energy, motivational drives caused by internal, emotional processes should, when acted upon, result in drive-reduction. Conversely, the tensions that are generated by the attractiveness of goals and based on anticipation of (hypothetical) benefits refer to attitudes and to their strength within the cognitive structure (or cognitive map, see Vera Grunow-Lutter (1983), 5.2.1 above). In case of the confirmation of a hypothesizing attitude (expectation), it should be strengthened. That is, while a drive should measure less intensely after an event, attitude confirmation should measure stronger in psychophysical measurements.

I.5.3 Value Systems

In their efforts to analyze social behaviour, sociologists have found values to permeate all aspects of human life. A frequently encountered system of values in value research is the Rokeach Value System (RVS, 1973). It is a list of thirty-six values which are divided into eighteen terminal and eighteen instrumental values defined as

"...enduring beliefs that specific modes of conduct (instrumental values) or endstates of existence (terminal values) are personally or socially preferable to opposite or converse modes of conduct or end-states of existence" (1973:5).

In terms of the social adaptation theory which regards values as commonly held beliefs along which individuals orient themselves and organize their attitudes and social interaction, values have been found to be the most abstract concept underlying behaviour (Kahle, 1983). Values are seen as a type of social cognition that enable an individual to adapt to his or her environment (Homer & Kahle, 1988).
Kahle (1983) adapted his list of values (LOV) which "relate more closely to life's major roles" (Kahle, 1986:406) than Rokeach's while being less numerous, from a replicated study on how Americans View Their Mental Health (Veroff et al., 1981). As life's major roles, the author names such domains as marriage, parenting, work, leisure, and daily consumption. Kahle's LOV consists of nine terminal values, 'self-fulfilment', 'excitement', 'sense of accomplishment', 'self-respect', 'sense of belonging', 'being well respected', 'security', 'fun and enjoyment', and 'warm relationships'.

The LOV is modelled on Rokeach's 18 terminal values and, in addition, includes 'sense of belonging' and 'self-fulfilment'. Rokeach's values have either been collapsed into Kahle's other seven values or have been dropped since they "did not meet the criterion of generality across all of life's major roles" (Kahle, Timmer, 1983:63). Both Rokeach (1973) and Kahle (1983) indicate their indebtedness to Malsow's hierarchy (1954) while the latter builds on Murray's (1938) concepts of 'need' and 'press' who we mentioned above (see 2.2.2).

The similarity of the LOV becomes particularly apparent in the values of 'sense of belonging', 'self respect' and 'being well respected' as well as 'self-fulfilment' representing the highest three values in Maslow's hierarchy. In this case, however, the hierarchy is not theoretically pre-determined by the researcher, but ranked by the respondent.

Similar to VALS, i.e. the Values and Life-Style system (Wells, 1974; Mitchell, 1983) which distinguishes between inner and outer-directed values, the LOV distinguishes between external and internal values (see also Riesman (1966). The group of external values consists of 'security', 'being well respected' and 'sense of belonging' while all others belong to the group of internal values. Internal and external values are here used synonymously with inner-directed and outer-directed.

The inherent difficulty of these value systems lies with the stability and thus generalizability of their dimensions once they are applied to other situations than they are specifically designed for. Since this dissertation will make use of Kahle's List of Values, this problem will be discussed further in the methodology section.

The LOV is used in this dissertation to evaluate and interpret the essence of motivational responses of campervan users to New Zealand as to their reasons why they used this mode of transport and accommodation.

Riesman (1966) maintains that there are three types of directedness, inner-directedness, other-directedness and tradition-directedness. According to Riesman, the former two types prevail in today's society. Tradition-directedness will therefore be neglected here.

It should be noted, however, that there are eminent voices which are pointing towards fundamental changes in Western Society which will also influence the shape and form of tourism. Krippendorf (1975:19) writes about the trend of people turning
away from economical values, increasing their understanding of immaterial values, intensifying the opposition against anonymization and demonstrating stronger drives towards independence.

Inner-directedness refers to the force by which a person guides their behaviour and course in life. Whereas other-directed people are guided by their social environment and are thereby often forced to change their behaviour, inner-directed persons are guided by their internal force which is instilled in them through early parental influences.

Kahle’s internal and external values named above are, in fact, dimensions merely indicating contextual value-parameters on a cognitive map (Tolman). They are extracted through the multivariate data-analysis technique of factor analysis as developed by Cattell.

I.5.4 Expressive and Instrumental Values

While the concept of instrumentality and expressiveness has long been established, its psychological meaning and application has been dealt with only peripherily (Lawson, 1992; Yi, 1990; Maddox, 1981; Herzberg et al, 1959).

D.A. Prentice (1987) found that there is a psychological correspondence between possessions, attitudes and values. Distinguishing between expressive and instrumental types of values (i.e. terminal values and instrumental values) and possessions, she found two distinct groups of people.

Those people who favoured self-expressive possessions tended to be more favourable towards symbolic appeals and values and less favourable towards instrumental appeals and values. Conversely, the group that tended towards owning and favouring instrumental possessions and values were less favourable towards expressive and symbolic appeals and values.

Prentice details that material possessions can have self-expressive value contents for their owners. The possession of a certain object allows the owner to benefit from its sheer existence. In other words, the object has been endowed with a value by its owner and thus represents that value.

While these findings and its methodology appear to be supported by Feather (1985) and, in its theoretical validity by Kelley’s theory of attribution (1967), Prentice does not discuss the qualitative relationship between values, attitudes and possessions, i.e. she does not answer the question of why and how these concepts (values, attitudes) and objects (possessions) should be interrelated.

In order to operationalize the concepts of expressiveness and instrumentality, we need to distinguish them from the related concepts of internal and external values as used by Kahle above.

This author prefers to fuse Ernst Bloch’s explications on expectations with
"filled" and "expectant" emotions with Kahle’s concepts of internal and external values, since it will allow a more detailed description of expectation and satisfaction. Ernst Bloch’s definitions will be presented below.

In the meantime, while instrumental values can be only external, expressive values can be either internal or external.

1.5.4.1 Distinguishing 'Instrumental and Expressive Values' from 'Internal and External or Inner and Outer-Directed Values'

Internal values are those which are directed towards the self (inner-directed), whereas external values are coming from the self but are outer-directed. In other words, in the first case the subject turns upon himself, whereas in the second instance the subject refers to an (outside) object.

Expressiveness refers to those values which are an end in themselves. Such values can be internal or external. For example, while Kahle’s value of "self-fulfilment" is directed towards the self, the value of "sense of belonging" is outer-directed since it requires situational parameters perforce its (semantic and syntactic) valency (Tesnière) ². I.e. one has to 'belong' somewhere (semantic requirement) and this 'somewhere' (a place) is part of its syntactical field (which generates the requirements for to be able to form a sentence with 'belong')³.

Furthermore, both values are, like all terminal or expressive values, ends in themselves because both aspire a state of being or consciousness that can only be perceived by the self. Thus all expressive values depend on subjective perceptions. Yet while outer-directed values endow an object with symbolic meaning (see Prentice, above), the nature of inner-directed values is different.

² It is unfortunate, yet understandable that linguists should use the term 'valency', as defined by Tesnière alongside the same concept as psychologists. It is understandable in so far as the syntactic and semantic field of a (lexical) word share properties with the valency of objects.

³ In Eugene O’Neill’s drama, The Hairy Ape, 1922, the author introduces the use of 'I belong' as a verb without an object, into common American English usage. The contents of the drama makes it clear that O’Neill is referring to the protagonist's wish to be part of society and an equal to others. In this case, the expressive value of wanting to belong is outer-directed, i.e. towards society. The lack of an object highlights the expressiveness of 'belong' underlining the hero's natural right. Yet it would make no sense, if society was not implicitly included.
1.5.4.2  Ernst Bloch's 'Filled' and 'Expectant Emotions'

The underlying expectations of all expressive values refer back to emotions of and generated by the self. The particular essence expressive values have is "bent backwards" towards the self, as it were, to use Ernst Bloch's words (1985). The philosopher Bloch distinguishes here between those expectations with "filled" and those with "expectant" emotions. This terminology assists in further defining the inner and outer-directedness of expressive values.

The intention of expectant emotions in expectations is long-term, encompassing emotions "like anxiety, fear, hope, belief", (Bloch, 1985:74). Here, the relevant feeling-state of awareness, as Bloch points out, is one that one might experience in the presence of a work of art, be it a sculpture, painting or music, expressing a feeling-state of awareness of something he calls the Not-Yet-conscious (1985:45 ff). Such feelings are forward directed and refer to the self and self-realization. Expectant emotions are not able to be, or very difficult, to be penetrated cognitively.

An example of an expectant emotion expressed in a value item as used in the empirical research-part of this dissertation is "I chose a campervan for my travels because I want to be free and independent". This item is an expression of the value of 'self-fulfilment'.

Utilizing prior developed concepts and Bloch's own developments of the terms 'filled' and 'expectant', outer-directed filled emotions require knowledge about external objects. They are thus more cognitive and contain expectancies. Conversely, expectant emotions are more emotional and refer to drives.

Continuing with a further example, the expressive value of 'self-respect' is a filled emotion in that it can be defined (only) in conjunction with external standards or objects. The value of 'self respect' appeared to be best represented through the reason given by focus groups, "I chose a campervan for my travels because I owe myself something like this".

The intention of expressive expectations with filled emotions is short-term and appears cognitively penetrable, i.e. it can be understood at a basic syntactic and semantic level in that these values or expectations set up a relationship between the self and (perceived) characteristics of an object or situation. This relationship relies very much on its underlying syntactic pattern in which the combination of arguments are perceived to be 'fitting'. 'Understanding' here relies on a receiver's capability to comprehend the Gestalt of a sender's message 4.

4 Similar to Saussure's distinction between 'langue' and 'parole'. While 'langue' refers to the objective (linguistic) structure of language, 'parole' refers to the effective use of language by the individual. Langue is semantically penetrable in linguistic terms, parole, however, eludes the grasp of such terms.
According to Bloch, expressive outer-directed emotions encompass such emotions as greed, envy or admiration. Filled emotions often aim at objects on the tangible level remembering prior and/or assimilated experiences. Expectations with filled emotions thus contain "nothing new" (Bloch, 1985:75). Such expectations can easily be compared to attitudes in which objects are bonded with emotions into affect as discussed above.

In contrast to expressive (expectant and filled emotions), instrumental values all contain filled emotions. The value 'I chose a campervan for my travels because it is the best way to move around' is instrumental in that it contains two functionally and logically related arguments which refer to objective (and often tangible) characteristics.

**EXPRESSIVE VALUES**

**INNER DIRECTED**
- Self-Fulfillment
- Excitement
- Sense of Accomplishment
- Fun and Enjoyment
- Warm Relationships

**OUTER DIRECTED**
- Security
- Being Well Respected
- Sense of Belonging

**CONTENT OF EMOTIONS**

**EXPECTANT EMOTIONS**

**FILLED EMOTIONS**

Figure I.5.3 Expressive Values and the Content of Emotions

This Figure I.3 shows how, conceptually, values can be grouped according to our current discussion. It should, however, be clear that the correctness of the above presentation relies on an agreed interpretation of the values. It is this interpretation that poses problems in satisfaction research (Lawson, 1992, Maddox, 1981; Swan & Combs, 1976, see discussion Ch.III). The interpretation and adequateness of matched concepts is mostly determined by situational parameters. Verbalizations or itemizations for surveys are thus subject of pragmatic linguistics matching the objective and the perceived contents of situations as developed from Saussure’s approach to language (see e.g. Drosdowski et al., 1984).

**1.5.4.3 Philosophical Objections**

The characteristic of expressive values as ends in themselves is that they do not carry a second argument. Miceli and Castelfranchi (1989) object to the premises of expressive values on grounds of logic.

Miceli and Castelfranchi (1989) discuss standards and norms in conjunction with values. They define norms as goals with particular constraints which are external to the individual's mind, they are socially shared, and have the power to regulate behaviour.
A standard is defined as a piece of knowledge about the powers (characteristics, properties) that an object X holds or should possess in order to achieve a goal. Even more exactly, standards refer to the class of objects that X belongs to, since X shares these powers with other, similar objects.

According to Miceli and Castelfranchi, norms and standards are outcomes of evaluations. They can thus be tested or disproved.

These authors maintain that expressive values can not take up a second argument, one which relates the arguments (i.e. the goal with the instrument) functionally and logically. However, Miceli and Castelfranchi disregard that processes of thought are not necessarily logical. Yet even seemingly illogical thoughts still influence and direct behaviour as one might infer from the validity of Kelley's theory of attribution (1967).

Furthermore, Miceli & Castelfranchi do not discuss the fact that juxtapositions of seemingly incongruent (illogical) arguments can be the result of conditioned learning. Rather, inner-directed expressive values are satisfied by means which are often of subjective validity only. Since they cannot be directly related to outside objects, the desired satisfaction lies in the experiencing of situations or actions. These means, then, are the instruments by which a person hopes to achieve desired consequences, i.e. the satisfaction of an expressive, inner-directed value.

Since everything has to be learnt, it is the particular form of learning that takes place when acquiring a feeling for what might satisfy expressive values. Learning, in this case, takes place via associating results with certain drives. Rewarding results thus become a reinforcer in conditioned learning. The ensuing perception, however, is that of a Gestalt, an interaction of parts that form 'more' than their mere sum might indicate. This 'more' is what Ernst Bloch calls the Not-Yet-conscious (1983:45 ff).

Expressive and instrumental values are functionally related, i.e. there is a means-ends relationship between expressive and instrumental values (Rokeach, 1973). In other words, satisfaction of either type of values requires an object, situation or event in conjunction with which the experience of values, and their expectations can be described.

The difference, however, lies with how the properties of an object, situation, or event, help satisfy a value (motive). In the case of inner-directed expressive values, it is (either) the objective essence of an object (in the phenomenological sense) to which the organism responds, and (or) the perceived essence to which a person is conditioned. In the case of external expressive values, it is the subjective property that an object is endowed with by the perceiver which is expected to generate satisfaction. Finally, in the case of instrumental values, it is the logical (and thus objectively functional) relationship, that is, if verified or experienced, the source for the satisfaction of expectations.

To conclude, then, all types of values require some sort of instrument that is the vehicle for targeted (expected) satisfaction. For instrumental values, it is the function of the object itself (which is expressed in a logical relationship) that is targeted; whereas
for expressive values, it is the consequence of the object.

The consequence of an object refers to either its symbolic meaning as projected and perceived by a person or its objective properties that cause expected or desired satisfaction.

The symbolic meaning an object takes up is an outer-directed and goal-oriented projection. The (phenomenologically) objective properties are inner-directed and drive-reducing.

I.5.5 The Acquisition of Values

From an information processing view, experiences generating values and attitudes are learned and stratified clusters of information, i.e. physical stimuli generate responses in the form of codes and symbols (representations). These are the basis for conceptual learning and, when related to each other, form the basis for rule-acquisitions. In turn, rule-applications in problem-solving tasks generate cognitive strategies which constitute learned behaviour and become independent of the actual contents of codes and symbols. In other words, rules are abstracted from specific situations (Gagné, 1977; Bruner, 1971).

Learning never occurs in a vacuum. It is both motivated and accompanied by emotions. Expectations are forward-directed, unfinished learning processes. If they cannot be based on prior experiences, their forward-directed thrust, like their intentional characteristics, are carried (driven) by emotions. Expectations of new and unexperienced objects are thus formed according to cognitive strategies occurring conjointly with either expressive or instrumental emotions (and "expectant" or "filled", Bloch, 1985). In addition, dispositional factors (personality) need to be considered. This, however, is not the task of this dissertation.

The acquisition of values is tied to a learning process and therefore to one's objective and social environment and its wider value system. It is through experiences in one's environment that "the interaction or bonding of emotion and cognition in values ... " occurs (Izard, 1984:27). This bonding can occur cognitively, e.g. through insights of (logical) relationships, or through learning by association as conditioned responses. The latter can later be cognized in a cause-effect relationship that includes awareness of resulting emotions. Awareness as well as knowledge are thus unlikely to ever occur without emotions or elements of drive.

While primarily intended for cognitive sciences, Pylyshyn's model of the cognitive system (1986) allows a vivid description of such processes.
I.5.6 Values as Facilitators for Adaptation

Kahle & Timmer direct our interest to the role values take in processes of the above mentioned enculturation, socialisation and interaction etc., i.e. as facilitators of adaptation to our physical and social environment (Child, 1954; Parsons, 1955).

Focusing on societal, role, and psychological adaptation, Kahle & Timmer refer to Piaget's eating metaphor in which he states that the effect on humans of either food (such as potatoes or turkey) or of values (e.g. 'fun and enjoyment' or 'belonging'), depends entirely on the objective stimulus. Kahle summarizes, "the true adaptive significance of value-relevant information will affect our perception of the information" (1983:50). This reformulates the statement on the essence of a mind-set, i.e. mind-set effects are based on cognitive processes that promote solving the task which stimulated the rise of the mind-set (Boring, 1950; Gollwitzer et al., 1989 see 4.2 above). Both sources thus acknowledge the existence of phenomenological objectivity.

The process of enculturation and socialization also facilitates learning of how to satisfy drives (in socially acceptable ways) both by cognitively relating effects of outcomes to the particular drive-feeling and via associations.

If, contrary to Miceli and Castelfranchi but in congruence with theories of attribution, it is accepted that the instrumentality of an object is also the result of an assessment that serves an expressive value, then it is an instrument for the adaptation of the self to the environment, "implying an interactive process of continual changing of both the environment and the self" (Kahle & Timmer, 1983:51). This implication includes the ongoing learning process by which people learn to adapt to the environment and utilize the environment to satisfy their own needs and values.

If there does exist a detectable difference between instrumental and expressive values, then this difference must occur in the experience and in the perception of that experience. This, in turn, cannot be explained in Miceli's and Castelfranchi's words since (expressive) values have no second argument and (instrumental) evaluations are mere (structural) constructs which have been formed to allow the definition of relationships with "precise" contents.

As an example, one might reconsider the value of 'self-fulfilment' (Kahle, 1983). If this value is deemed worth pursuing, becoming a tourist might become the way to fulfill that goal. Since self-fulfilment does not spell out what it is good for, becoming a tourist is only one expression of self-fulfilment but not self-fulfilment per se.

In this sense, i.e. in that becoming a tourist to New Zealand is only one expression of the demand for self-fulfilment, touring New Zealand can be regarded as a conditioned response to a drive. Travelling is a possible but not necessary consequence in achieving recreation. It is therefore not without foundation when Mundt & Lohmann term the popular association of recreation with travel as a "social stereotype" (1988:137).
It is at this point that an act becomes symbolic or a representation of something else (Zajonc, 1984). Because travelling could be seen as a conditioned response, it is, ultimately, substitutable. It is thus the process of satisfaction formation, rather than the outcome (in the form of an overall satisfaction statement), which needs to be analysed in order to detect the distinguishable effect of instrumental and expressive values.

The outcome of the process itself (e.g. in the form of an answer to "How satisfied were you, overall?") is the cognized expression of an otherwise emotional experience and thereby reduced to fit the rules of logic. It is safe to expect that at this (overall) level there is no distinction possible between instrumental and expressive outcomes due to the psychophysical process which cognizes emotions. However, it is expected that respondents will be able to confirm, independently, as it were, whether they are more or less satisfied than expected since they carry their 'rule of measurement' in their memory. As independent verification of any result, a true 'before and after' methodology needs to be employed measuring expectations and satisfaction.

1.6.0 CONCLUSION ON EXPECTATIONS

1.6.1 Summary

Expectations are forward-directed, tentative attitudes containing a more or less definite element of knowledge about an object (Tolman denotes these as expectancies (1932)). They also contain an emotional charge expressing the intensity of the drive with which behaviour, in reaction to the drive, is executed (demand for a goal). Both these elements can interact and influence each other.

Expectations are a specific type of attitudes. Both have, overall, either a negative or a positive direction. Both contain emotions, cognitions and intentions. Expectations are motive-driven and dynamic, whereby motivations organise perception, judgement and behaviour.

Expectations are a specific type of attitude in that expectations have a temporally forward-directed intentional charge. Whereas an attitude refers to a latent state or condition, that directs a mode of conduct when instantiated, expectations, while being based on attitudes, refer to outcomes or future events particularly through their conational element.

In other words, attitudes, as multidimensional and interdependent structures (cognitive systems) differ from expectations in that attitudes are stronger in their complexity, consonance and abstractness (see Grunow-Lutter, 1983, 5.2.1 above).

Expectations contain a more, or less, strong emotional charge representing the intensity of the drive with which behaviour is pursued. It is related to but can be distinct from affect, which has a cognitive structure and is integrated in the cognitive map. Drive
is forward-directed and energizes behaviour which, in turn, seeks reduction in intensity.

Tomkins (1981) noted the particular strength of the emotional system to combine with messages from various other sources. This forms the basis for drive-based learning in that drive-stimulated behaviour can result in associative learning. Over and above this type of learning, humans are capable of cognizing, reflecting and rationalizing experiences, thus giving drive-based learning access to the cognitive system and part of subsequent evaluations and goal-oriented behaviour. It must be emphasised, however, that the rationalization of experiences in such cases are cognitions of emotion awareness and an attempt to grasp a Gestalt rather than to generate premises for deductive arguments.

### I.6.2 Expectations have a Negative or Positive Direction

Emotionally, expectations are either positively or negatively inclined. If positive, they take on the character of wanting, desire, or of seeking pleasure. If negative, expectations have their bearer preferably avoid, dislike or even loathe an object of expectation.

Expectations with a positive direction can be characterised by the underlying feeling of hope for a desired situation, event or state of being to occur. Negatively directed expectations can be characterised by their underlying emotion of fear. Here, expectations are filled with the wish that events do not occur. Ernst Bloch (1985) sees fear and hope as poles on either side of a continuum. The strength of either depends on the amount of experience with the object and the amount of possible or extant thought that establishes logical and functional relationships. Closely related is the intensity of underlying drives to avoid or approach the object.

### I.6.3 Expectations are Motivated

Expectations are outcomes of motivational processes. In order for expectations to be formed, a subject-object relationship has to occur which is based on knowledge about an object.

Objects or situations are chosen (or avoided) in order to effect desirable outcomes. Each desired outcome is motivated, i.e. it is the hoped for or envisaged event or situation that is perceived to satisfy a felt need.

The expectation formation process is one of increasing substance and shape typical of motivation processes. The most undirected energy is, according to Bloch (1985), an urge or a craving (drive). It turns into a longing once this craving gains a direction. This longing can be equated with the psychological concept of motive since both initiate a search into a certain direction. The motivational process is then characterised by a subsequent further increase in the outline and structure, that the object
must take in order to satisfy the need expressed in the motive (see also Hahn & Hartmann, 1973). The increase in knowledge about effects and characteristics of an object marks an increase of knowledge of how to reduce drives (Tolman, 1932) or tensions (see 1.5.1, Lewin, 1936). For example, learning that travelling can bring back physical fitness and mental balance is learning how to relieve oneself of stress and tension and feel better physically.

The knowledge about the object can be cognitive and rational, or it can be emotionally based as a consequence of conditioned learning. It thus contains elements of emotion awareness which are subsequently employed as reinforcer. Both occur simultaneously and cognition or emotion prevails.

Conversely, an outside object can stimulate needs and expectations about its possibility to satisfy. Latent or active needs energize a person's value system which retrieves the value-relevant information of the object (see Kahle, 1983:50 and also Pylyshyn, 1986).

Finally, motivation is the combination of a (set of) motive(s) and situation(s) which drive and help organise behaviour. Stimulated motives instigate a search and evaluation process which subjectively 6 assesses the instrumentality of objects to satisfy felt needs. A motivation is a nameable, goal-directed drive, and the goal can be cognitively perceived and evaluated or emotionally 'felt'. The intensity of the drive depends on either the perceived tension (Lewin, 1936) between a current state of being and a desired one (if cognitively goal-directed) or based on the feeling of deprivation.

I.6.4 Expectations Contain Emotions

Positive or negative attitudes towards the expectational object express the emotional content of expectations. Furthermore, Ernst Bloch (1985) distinguishes here between 'filled' and 'expectant' emotions. Filled emotions are those which are short-term and connected to immediate, cognizable characteristics of objects. Expectant emotions contain long-term drive intentions. Whereas filled emotions are object-directed, expectant emotions are self-directed. Expectant emotions are feeling-states of awareness and contained in expressive values (such without a second argument, see discussion of Miceli and Castelfranchi, 1989, I.5.3 above).

The affect of an expectation is a function of the instrumentality of an object in achieving the desired goal as well as the expected satisfaction resulting from this achievement (Heckhausen, 1989). Affect has thus a cognitive structure in that it is based on evaluations of objects, on knowledge and belief. The more expectations are based on expectant emotions, the less affective and the more emotional these expectations are.

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6 i.e. limited by the individual's learning and other capacities. If this process is not cognitive, it relies totally on the functional architecture (see Pylyshyn, 1986)
I.6.5 Expectations are Dynamic

Man lives in a flow, i.e. space is continually changing through time. The perception of time and space is complex and interrelated. In expectations, motives occur in dynamically organised motivations. They, in turn, organise perception. Since motivations are dependent on situations, they contain all (subjectively) relevant information on situational stimuli. Every change in the perceiving person and in the environment causes the expectations to change shape. In other words, like attitudes (McGuire, 1989), expectations are never static, they depend on internal need and value structures in conjunction with external stimuli (see also J.J.Gibson, 1982).

I.6.6 Expectations are Value-driven

Values are learnt expressions of needs. While acquired in conjunction with specific categories of objects (e.g. cultural), they are, to a large psychological extent, independent of such objects, i.e. the respective mental and neural codes and symbols of these objects. They can be characterised as (cognitive) strategies for satisfying cognized or pre-conscious needs for which values give direction and contents (Gagné, 1977; Bruner, 1971; Kahle, 1983).

Values are more affective, if outer-directed and more emotional, if inner-directed. The first refers to "subjective self awareness ... in which attention is focused on events external to the individual's consciousness, personal history or body" whereas the inner-directed "objective self awareness is exactly the opposite conscious state... focused exclusively upon the self ... the conscious state, his personal history, his body or any other personal aspects of himself". (Duval and Wicklund, 1972:2, as quoted by Grunow-Lutter, 1983).

Drive-stimulated values are related to expectancy-based values in the form of a continuum of classes of objects to goals of behaviour (for expectancy-based values).

Values can be regarded as strategies, in that the application of motives or needs relate the individual's experience to the situation. Values instantiate subjectively relevant information related to and/or contained in objects. They introduce the expectational ambiance to perception.

Outer-directed values are typified by their structural relationships to features and benefits of objects. Inner-directed values typify the longing for a feeling-outcome. In an idealised form, an inner-directed outcome is a "state of being" or 'state of
consciousness'. More appropriately, however, as a form of adaptation, the outcome is expressed in the process of 'self-actualization'.

Outer-directed expressive values are disposed to relate to objects as instruments in achieving these values whereas inner-or self-directed values refer to an aspired state of being, and are thus less object-related. Simultaneously, outer-directed values contribute to the satisfaction of inner-directed values.

1.6.7 **Expectations are Temporally Forward-Directed Attitudes**

Expectations are outcomes of motivational processes awaiting their confirmation. They represent a state of readiness which is tentative insofar as it requires an experience. The experience represents a learning process. If expectations are met or exceeded, emotional drives are reduced and cognitive structures confirmed or adjusted.

Expectational attitudes are tentative neural or mental representations. This tentativeness can be further inferred from the fact that their relationships to other, contiguous expectational representations (e.g. self-actualization, esteem aspects etc.) is weak or non-existent.

Conversely, expectational attitudes based on experience (learning), have either stronger, or more numerous, inter-correlations with contiguous expectations, or both. Since these expectations are based on previous experiences, their underlying attitudes have been integrated into a homeostatically inclined neural network.

In the above case of experience-based expectation formation, subsequent learning processes (i.e. renewed experiences) are liable to exact less change on underlying attitudes than in those, where expectations are formed without prior experience (see also Lilli, 1978).

Expectations direct perception and behaviour in that objects have been targeted according to their instrumentality to satisfy the values underlying the expectations. **Subsequent learning processes** that seek to find fulfilment of these expectations are characterised,

- **firstly**, by prior motivations,
- **secondly**, by the shape and form of the expectational attitude,
- **thirdly**, by stabilising and integrating prior tentative neural or mental representations and,
- **fourthly**, by a reduction of drives. These stretch from feeling-states of awareness to the substance of cognitive structures of attitudes (cognitive maps, Tolman, 1948).
I.6.8 Expectations have Intentional Character

A motivational process develops a subject-object relationship engendering an intentional drive towards an object or behaviour or classes thereof. The intention towards this object or behaviour is instrumental in goal-achievement and the satisfaction of the felt need and motivating value. In other words, as a state of readiness, the intentions of expectations refer to the consolidation of cognitive structures while seeking the satisfaction of envisaged, hoped for or feared outcomes. The intention of drives is their reduction. In this sense, even non-specific behaviour contains an intention.
Part II

LITERATURE REVIEW OF SATISFACTION RESEARCH
Chapter 1

II.1.0 THE CONSTRUCT OF SATISFACTION

II.1.1 Introduction

Part I established that expectations have some impact on perception and satisfaction judgements and this now requires further scrutiny and definition. Expectation formation was portrayed as an internal, psychological process. The co-occurrence of motives and situations generate motivations and goal expectations. The motivational component of expectations and/or ensuing behaviour expresses the intensity with which a goal is demanded. The expectational attitude contains the expectations of the goal or outcome.

The aim of the subsequent Part II is dealing with satisfaction formation and measurement as found in a wide variety of sources. While building on previous chapters, it has three major goals,

1. to generate a construct that allows further organization of the heterogeneity of tourists and the heterogeneity of tourism products.
2. to utilize insights and the measurement techniques developed and applied in areas other than tourism research, in order to grasp the construct of satisfaction as a multivariate but always identical psychophysical response function, and thus
3. to help bridge the gap between motivational processes, intention formation, experiences and final outcomes.

II.1.2 The Structure of Part II

The following chapters deal with satisfaction formation as a multivariate process. The process is the experience of events, situations and objects themselves.

In order to gain insight into the construct of satisfaction, it is suggested, initially, to portray this construct in a wide variety of environments. Such an approach will secure a firm basis from which a set of guide lines can be developed that allows a comprehensive study and measurement of satisfaction with tourism.

This hermeneutic technique (Schleiermacher 1768-1834; Betti, 1962) is justified since satisfaction is both process and outcome of many human activities and has been the focus of numerous enquiries throughout history (Bloch, 1985; Hofstätter, 1986). Hermeneutics allows theory to develop from the analysis of practice. It forms the basis
and substance for new epistemological approaches as well as forward-oriented and inspired theory which directs future practice.

In order to achieve the above goals (II.1.1), Part II is arranged into three major sections. The first section can be regarded as a macro-cosmic approach, while the other represents the micro-cosmic approach. The third section contains a critical discussion and leads up to the value model of satisfaction that forms the basis for our survey of international campervan tourists and its analysis. It contains the critical discussion, review and summary of the previous literature on expectations and of the subsequent chapters on satisfaction research.

II.1.3 The Contents of Part II

The macro-cosmic approach begins with a broad epistemological, philosophical and historic view on satisfaction. This is followed by a discussion of Folke Ølander’s criticism of the subjective approach to satisfaction as opposed to the objective approach. It then looks at the literature on satisfaction with the quality of life. This will highlight the complexity of the satisfaction formation process, as, for example, research into satisfaction with community life also exemplifies. It is in the latter area, where objective and subjective parameters for satisfaction research overlap.

Quality of life research is an appropriate area to be represented in a dissertation on satisfaction with tourism, as life at home does, fundamentally, not differ from that away from home.

Initially, the micro-cosmic approach to satisfaction has been developed by research into satisfaction with work and measures of productivity conducted by operational psychologists. This stimulated developments in geography and sociology and helped create leisure and recreation research as a subdiscipline. Yet by far the greatest push forward in modelling satisfaction-formation has come from consumer behaviourists. All of these three latter disciplines will receive considerable representation in the following chapters. Findings from operational psychologists will be utilized where appropriate, particularly for the introduction of the two-factor model of satisfaction as well as in aspects of tourism research. Tourism research forms the last part of the literature review.

Instead of focussing on complex, summative variables such as those employed by the macro-cosmic approach (e.g. satisfaction with work, leisure, marriage, family etc.), the micro-cosmic one distinguishes itself by concentrating on mostly object-centred variables (Falludi, 1982) and psychological processes. In particular, for consumer behaviour, this description highlights both the inclusion of only small numbers of parameters, as well as modelling both behavioural and psychological arousal and response processes.

In consumer behaviour, parameters are often restricted to tangible product
attributes. While this reflects the influence of behaviourists and their concentration on the stimulus - response (S - R) paradigm, it poses a difficulty: the S-R theory relies on specific stimuli to generate action or satisfy needs and therefore considers, primarily, parameters of objects that are used to satisfy those needs. This approach makes it difficult to look at different objects as being functionally equivalent for the perceiving tourist. Defining reactions from the object, would mean to highlight the heterogeneity of tourism products and would not allow the comparison of satisfaction results across different tourists and individually different experiences. The critical discussion will therefore have to focus on this aspect.

None the less, consumer behaviourists of both 'couleur', i.e. behaviourists and Gestalt scholars, collaborate on modelling satisfaction formation and are to be credited with major findings in both the type of parameters that are operative in satisfaction formation as well as in modelling underlying processes, notably in the Consumer Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction paradigm.

II.1.4 Etymological and Philosophical Derivations of Satisfaction

Every human being is born with similar functions to develop and adapt to his environment. Yet, it is every individual's culture which allows a person to develop his or her own capabilities and aptitudes within its confines through processes of enculturation and socialisation. Traditions, customs, rules and regulations, standards and norms generate both cognitive and affective structures which filter emotions and direct behaviour.

The cultural environment influences its members in developing certain attitudes as to what one should expect and how one should feel in given situations. In the context of enculturation, Hochschild (1979) speaks of 'cultural feeling rules' that impact on expectation and satisfaction formation of groups. Regarding socialisation processes, Wilson et al. (1989) distinguish between target-based expectancies (based on one's own previous reactions to a stimulus) and category-based expectancies (other people's knowledge of how others reacted to a stimulus) as sources of affective expectations.

While in-depth analyses into cultural aspects of satisfaction go beyond this dissertation, in an initial approach, the origins and usage of the word in both the Romanic as well as Germanic languages reveal some of its commonly underlying concepts which have evolved through the ages and generated its topical semantic space. These are the concepts of sufficiency, peace of mind or contentness and wholeness.

Etymologically, satisfaction is derived from the latin 'satis' and 'facere', meaning 'enough' and 'to do'. In other words, satisfaction reflects on something terminated, something which one has done or had enough of.
For a period of time, and in a martial sense, the term 'satisfaction' has also been employed to define the act of regaining one's position in society by 'satisfying one's honour' (OED). While this sense of the word has subsided in the Western World, it is still of importance in connection with the concept of 'mana' amongst Maoris of New Zealand and Pacific Islanders. In both the former and the latter, 'satisfaction' refers to a sense of wholeness after prior loss of something that had to be regained or rebalanced.

The sense of 'wholeness' is also implicit in the ecclesiastic sense of the word 'satisfaction' which is "the performance by a penitent of acts enjoined by his confessor" (T.F. Hoad, 1986). Here, as well as in the classical school of thought, the concept of catharsis (cleansing) is the device which restores wholeness. Both concepts are re-emerging in a secular form in modern literature and in plays as, for example, in those by Ibsen or Eugene O'Neill.

'Satisfaction' is of romanic origin. Its common German translation, 'Zufriedenheit' (meaning 'being at peace'), also brings to the fore a sense of wholeness and balance. The fact that both 'satisfaction' and 'Zufriedenheit' are nominalised verbs points towards the special characteristic of satisfaction in that its essence is inevitably tied to a process that brings about the state of being satisfied.

As Hofstätter (1986) shows in his enquiries into the conditions of satisfaction, its understanding through the ages has been very much dependent on the surrounding experience as well as the general outlook on life.

Homer, Plato and the Stoics have searched for the sources of and reasons for happiness and satisfaction, always returning to the dichotomy of good and evil, of satisfaction and dissatisfaction and that one exists because of the other.

Conversely, St. Augustinus and Thomas of Aquinas, Rousseau, Voltaire, Pope, Leibniz and Maupertuis, have all discussed the maxime that "Tout est Bien", that all that is, is good. For Thomas of Aquinas, Alexander Pope, Leibniz and numerous other leading thinkers, the world was considered to be 'the best of all possible worlds' as Leibniz chose to say. For these historic figures, the question of disillusionment and suffering and thus of satisfaction, did not arise.

Hofstätter points out that it was Maupertuis who was one of the first who, in his "Essai de philosophie morale" (1750) proposes an equation that might allow the study of satisfaction in a scientific, rather than a philosophical way. He shared his view on life with those who believed in the maxim "que dans la vie ordinaire la somme des maux surpasse celle des biens", that in ordinary life the sum of what is bad is surpassed by what is good.

Maupertuis defines temporary feelings and states of mood as the product of their size or intensity and their duration. Yet Hofstätter is quick in searching for Maupertuis' own admission that it is only the duration which could be measured exactly and that even this becomes relative and dependent on the temporal distance from which a situation is observed.
In order to further indicate the complexities involved in objectively measuring satisfaction, Hofstätter quotes Seneca as putting the rhetorical question "What does it matter, what your situation is, if it appears as a bad one to you" (Epist.mor.,9,21). Seneca thereby pre-empts Kelley's (1967) theory of attribution which states that subjective reality is what the subject believes it to be no matter what the circumstances are in relation to other people's. It is this subjective element in satisfaction that opens up, apparently off-hand, a plethora of parameters.
II.2.0 QUALITY OF LIFE RESEARCH

II.2.1 Objective versus Subjective Approaches to Satisfaction: An Introduction

Philosophically, Maupertuis, whom we mentioned above as one of the first to have attempted a scientific approach to measuring satisfaction, belonged to the classical school of thought. Its focus was on men of 'great affairs' whose task it was to rule and govern. Chronologically, however, Maupertuis belonged to the age of Enlightenment, the hallmark of which is that it began to turn its focus on the common individual.

This shift in outlook on the role of the individual in society parallels the change of focus from the general and objective to the individual and subjective. It is this dichotomy which also reappears in satisfaction research.

Below, we will introduce and mention findings of the 'social indicator movement' (Duncan, 1969 in Campbell, 1976). Their approach to measuring satisfaction with life can be typified by its particular emphasis on how the population and sociological groupings view their particular circumstances. This is in strong contrast to objective measurements as used e.g. by governments. Traditionally, the latter rely solely on measures like a country's gross national product (GNP) or health statistics etc. for need-assessment and generation of public policies.

With regards to guide-lines for creating public policies, Folke Ølander (1976, 1977), criticises subjective measurements of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the social indicator literature in that they are "almost unusable as a basis for setting priorities" due to the subjectiveness of individual’s perceptions. His criticism is condensed in the following two points.

1. Following Boucher and Osgood's (1969) Polyanna hypothesis, which proposes that there exists a human tendency to use evaluatively positive words more frequently than negative terms, Ølander maintains that surveys dealing with satisfaction are not reflecting peoples' true sentiments. Thus there arise problems of validity.

2. We have no cognizance of what the applied levels of expectation are and of what alternatives the individual might be aware of as a basis of comparison.

Rather, for consumer behaviour research, Ølander prefers objective measurements such as time series indices of the quality of consumer goods, complaint behaviour etc (1977:135 f). His preference is the result of his view of satisfaction.

Ølander's view of satisfaction is that it is a relative concept emerging out of either one, or a combination of three, distinct areas of comparison, the temporal, the
spatial and the social. While the temporal has the individual forming expectations on the basis of past experiences, the spatial comparison takes a measure of adaptation from other, perceived as comparable experiences. The third, social comparison, derives a measure from the individual’s perception of what others’ levels of satisfaction were (1976).

Despite Ölander’s profound analysis of the shortcomings of subjective satisfaction/dissatisfaction research, his conclusions evade some important aspects. As Campbell states, subjective measures give insights into perceptions of social reality and form part of "the matrix of information we need for an ultimate understanding of the nature of social change" (1976:123).

Iso-Ahola states the point for the subjective view on quality of life (QoL) more directly, "The psychological meaning of the objective facts of life is more critical to the perceived quality of life than is their economic function" (1980:380).

When considering Ölander’s criticism with regards to tourism as an experiential product and any implications that might be derived from this for product development and resource management, there appears to be little else than to gather information via individual responses to 'felt' experiences. The importance of this will be developed further below.

Furthermore, this dissertation, with its particular emphasis on expectations as determinants of satisfaction-formation duly considers levels of adaptation. Indeed, it will be shown that this approach promises adequate organization of total and complex experiences only, once people’s entire value-systems have been taken into account.

II.2.2 The Social Indicator Approach

The study of quality of life (henceforth QoL) is, essentially, a study of the levels of satisfaction with facets (domains) of life. Quality of Life research is either an outcome measure or the criterion for the goodness-of-fit between persons and their environment (Schalock, 1989).

Before the rise of the 'social indicator movement' (Dudley Duncan, 1969; in Campbell, 1976) levels of satisfaction with life were measured by using economic data such as the gross national product. However, R.A.Easterlin (1974) shows that this type of objective indicator - which is frequently used by governments to estimate progress or as a basis for policy making (see also J.K.Galbraith 1959) -, is a measurement of little consequence when used in analyzing satisfaction.

Easterlin compared the GNP of thirty nations and found that while in each nation richer citizens are generally more satisfied than poorer ones, he found also that higher GNP did not automatically mean that those nations were more satisfied than poorer nations.
Furthermore, Angus Campbell states (1976) that he found levels of satisfaction actually decreasing as economic and social indicators grew in the USA between 1957 and 1972.

This lack of conclusive insights into the experiential spheres of individuals contributed to the rise of the 'social indicator movement'. Iso-Ahola asserted "that Western societies should cease to be dominated by the concept of the economic person and be replaced by the concept of the psychological person." (1980:379)

and that satisfaction with the quality of life is a perceived quality that depends upon the psychological contentment of the individual.

Research into social indicators of QoL can be divided into two groups, subjective and objective satisfaction. Subjective indicators refer, for example, to individuals' perception of their situations within their family and wider social structure, their values, degree of happiness and how they perceive their chances to get on with their career etc.

Objective social indicators are measurements taken over longer periods of time. They include population growth, education, health, jobs, marriage, leisure and crime. These parameters are considered as objective because they do not depend solely on an individual's "description of his own life" (Campbell, 1976:118).

Despite Campbell's success in gaining greater insights into the construct of satisfaction by finding high correlations between overall satisfaction and ten domain-specific satisfaction measurements (r=.70), the latter explained only 17% of the occurring variance.

In a similar sociological study, Andrews and Withey (1976) included values in their survey on perceptions of well-being in various life domains. They developed a set of questions called the 'central value index'. 11-point scales (delighted - terrible) sought to inquire into respondents' perception of how interesting they found their day-to-day life, their amount of fun and enjoyment, their perceptions of how much chance they had to do what they want, how well respected they thought they were by others, and finally, how much they achieve success and are getting ahead.

This survey is similar in standing to that of Campbell's above but it, too, showed moderate results by explaining only 8% of the occurring variance of satisfaction.

Both surveys gave more detailed insights into citizen's perceptual maps of their own lives and environment than other surveys had to date. They also show that domain specific satisfaction measurements are significantly and meaningfully related to overall satisfaction.

In a pilot- research project, G.W.Kearsley (1982) comes to the conclusion that quality of life "is very much a matter of personal perception" (1982:1). He carried out a study, in which personal evaluations of the quality of life were complemented by the
analysis of objective criteria. He found clear variations between occupational, age and life-style parameters, but no one variable in particular helped in explaining perceptions of QoL.

Hofstätter (1986) tries to isolate conditions of satisfaction. His research refers to his own data banks, research by others and, particularly, to data by the Allensbach Institute which have been collected annually since 1949 in Germany. These surveys focus on how satisfied individuals are overall with their life as well as enquiring into satisfaction with individual domains.

Hofstätter found that satisfaction with life is not static nor absolute. Whilst positive expectations appear to belong to the environment of satisfaction, the learning process occurring between expectation formation and satisfaction measurement causes individuals to change their expectations in hindsight relative to their ongoing experiences.

For example, on average, German male citizens in 1977, believed that their expectations were met to 67% of the total expected satisfaction. This result, that around 2/3 of the expectations have come true, keeps reoccurring in repeat-surveys of other years as well as in different surveys.

Hofstätter also notes that there is little difference in variation from this average amongst different levels of education. As a consequence, he advances the explanation that expectations increase with achievements or increase with what one considers to be achievable during the actual process of reaching the goal. In other words, as experience progresses, levels of adaptation change.

The level of adaptation refers to the acquired standard to which the respondent compares ensuing experiences on a subtractive basis (Helson, 1964). This change in levels of adaptation would also help explain Campbell’s finding mentioned above (1976), that there was no increase in satisfaction despite increases in overall wealth in the USA between 1959 and 1972.

The mentioned lack of variation amongst respondents with different levels of education is also present in the findings of overall satisfaction with life amongst all German citizens whether they belong to the higher or lower classes of society, whether male or female, handicapped or not.

This seemingly incongruent finding with the obvious disparities amongst the same individuals (rich vs. poor; able-bodied vs. disabled) has already been noted by Maupertuis (1750; Hofstätter, 1986) who pointed out that the happiest individuals need not necessarily be the one who possess the greatest amount of 'good' since that same person can also have experienced a lot of 'bad' and that whichever sum is greater is what determines the level of overall satisfaction.

This mathematical assumption is empirically verified by Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965). The survey asked its respondents to express their feelings towards five positively and five negatively worded statements about personal states of emotion. These
researchers found positive correlations amongst the answers to each set of questions amongst those who were either "very satisfied" or "very dissatisfied" but insignificant correlations between the two sets of items.

Based on Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) and a replication of their survey by Hofstätter (1986), the general arithmetic approach that deducts negative experiences from positive ones, generally holds and predicts overall satisfaction fairly well. However, these same authors also report the tendency of significant numbers of respondents to report higher levels of satisfaction with life than the mathematical model of "Good - minus - Bad Experiences" would indicate.

Similarly skewed results, albeit in a traditionally designed psychophysical test have been shown by Parducci (1982), who applied this simple arithmetic technique to Helson's level of adaptation theory (1964). Pointing towards an inconsistency in Helson's subtractive theory above, Paducci shows that shifts in levels of adaptation are the greatest when the number of categories respondents judge upon are small and the number of stimuli to be categorized are positively skewed. In other words, the base-level of adaptation changes more radically towards the positive side, the more positive stimuli are perceived on the basis of a small number of categories.

In Bradburn and Caplovitz' case, those who were "pretty happy" with their lives, did not only include those whose good and bad states of emotion towards the two sets of items cancel each other out, but even many of those who are - arithmetically - worse off and are still saying that they are "happy". Furthermore, there is a substantial group amongst those whose good and bad states are balanced, yet who tend to regard themselves as "very happy". Overall, there appears to be a tendency to perceive oneself as being happier than the measurement of actual circumstances seem to indicate.

These latter findings are in apparent contrast to the disconfirmation model of satisfaction used in consumer behaviour (see Oliver, 1980b and presentation below). This latter model also claims support from Helson's level of adaptation.

Summarising some important findings from above, for Campbell (1976) and Andrews and Whitey (1976),

1. QoL is a complex construct including various domains.
2. Overall satisfaction with one's QoL is positively correlated with one's satisfaction of individual domains.
3. Individuals are capable of judging and comparing heterogeneous objects in relation to one single measure.
4. Respondents' subjective satisfaction measurements give a more relevant indication of people's perceptions of QoL than global and objective measures.
Hofstätter (1986) adds that

5. satisfaction-processes of long-term goals experience readjustments of the underlying expectations due to the occurring learning process.

6. Most likely, this readjustment is a natural way of coming to terms with discrepancies as well as preventing disappointment.

7. Hofstätter also notes that positive expectations belong to the environment of satisfaction.

8. While the model of satisfaction that regards the difference between good and bad experiences generally holds, at least in the context of measuring satisfaction with QoL, there appears to exist the tendency to judge ones condition as better, than the actual result of the equation would indicate.

These latter results (8.) appear to be incongruent with some aspects of Helson’s level of adaptation theory (1964) which is based upon subtractive calculations (Parducci, 1982), as well as with the general thrust of the Consumer Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction paradigm presented below. (Parducci’s findings will be presented in the context of our findings at the end of III.4.7.2).

II.2.3 QOL and Leisure

Iso-Ahola (1980) reports that one of the most common themes that permeate literature is the assumption of the positive effect of leisure behaviour on life satisfaction. This, he argues, is due to man’s age-old pre-occupation with work. Besides job-satisfaction, his review of literature and research also names family life and/or marriage as influencing factors on QoL.

In 1955 and again in 1977, Yankelovich (1978) asked Swedish males what it is that gives them most satisfaction in life, whether their job, their family or leisure. In 1955, family rated highest (45%), followed by work (33%), while leisure rated lowest (13%).

In 1977, however, this sequence had changed with family still ranking highest (41%), yet leisure had increased to 27%, while work was ranked lowest (17%). Yankelovich’s research allocates a relative position to leisure rather than a dominant or isolated one.

Hofstätter (1986), in his own research on married men in Germany, also reports that leisure ranks as the least important of the domains as contributors to the overall life satisfaction, whereas their job, their treatment by others, their social position and influence rank amongst the highest contributing variables. Education, health and good looks rank amongst the medium-to-low important variables.
Similar to Hofstätter above, Iso-Ahola concludes that,

"People seem to revise continuously their definitions and expectations concerning their quality of life on the basis of what they have seen or heard others to have or to be." (1980:392)

He continues to show that people regard leisure as being at an optimum when their participation is intrinsically motivated.

In a study reported by F. Thomas Juster (1986) which also looks at satisfaction with work and leisure, Juster draws particular attention to the value of intrinsically motivated behaviours. There,

"the intrinsic satisfaction from work, which represents an addition to the extrinsic reward in the form of income is generally higher than the intrinsic satisfaction from leisure" (1986:15)

It goes beyond this dissertation to analyze and compare the bases of the above similar results, as it might well be that they are based on measurements of different things, e.g. self-fulfilment (Kahle, 1983) in the case of family-life, and 'enjoyment' as defined by Csikszentmihalyi (1975) in the case of work.

The latter defines enjoyment as something that people receive while in the "flow" of doing things. It is intrinsically motivated but does not necessarily have to be the consequence of something that one has been looking forward to. In other words, enjoyment can be generated even during activities one usually dislikes. It is the "flow" of the experience which then generates the enjoyment.

What should be noted is that judgements change over time and in relation to number and kind of categories of comparison. These judgements are also subject to the level of intrinsic motivation, i.e. the degree to which a person's self participates and benefits from an action.

In order to find determinants of satisfaction, Riddick (1986) turned to precursors of satisfaction with leisure and analysed the impact of age on levels of satisfaction. The inquiry included the parameters of 'predisposing' (age, gender, knowledge of leisure opportunities, values etc), 'enabling' (e.g. income, age) and 'reinforcing factors' (e.g. stressful events).

This researcher found that there were no significant differences between 10 age-groups (18 years to 65 year olds) in their satisfaction with leisure activities, rather, regression analysis revealed that knowledge of leisure opportunities and leisure values are most predictive for satisfaction with recreation.

Ruth Russell (1987) explored the importance of recreation satisfaction to life satisfaction of age-segregated retirees. In her review of the literature she also notes that the types of activity are more significant than the frequency of involvement.
Her subsequent analysis confirms these findings and leads her to conclude that "professionals should be aware of recreation satisfaction as distinctly different from their recreation activities" (1987:282). Although restricted to retirement age, these findings combined with Riddick's above highlight the importance of values (needs) underlying the active sets of motivations for recreation.

In an example relating specifically to tourism rather than leisure, Van Raaij and Eilander (1983) rely on empirical evidence when pointing out that weight and importance of tourism are relative to other domains and depend on demographic factors such as stage in the family life-cycle, age, income and social strata.

Considering the thus implied compensatory approach people appear to take when allocating importance of domains, it seems appropriate also, to assume varying levels of intrinsic motivation when being active in or experiencing various domains.

Inquiring into the importance of vacations as compared to other domains, Fred van Raaij and Eilander (1983) found that consumers attribute an intermediate level of importance and necessity to vacations. Older and lower class people are more likely to forego their vacation, while younger and middle-class people tend to find less expensive substitutes (e.g. domestic holidays instead of travelling abroad).

II.2.4 Satisfaction with Leisure and Recreation

Research into leisure and its role and meaning to the individual and society has long been established. Research efforts go back to the late 1920s and 1930s (Lynd and Lynd, 1929; Lundberg et al., 1934; Thorndike, 1937). Indeed, today leisure & recreation have become a research discipline of their own. And, as literature shows, the question of what constitutes user defined satisfaction and how it can be measured has assumed an important aspect in this discipline.

In their work on leisure time and satisfaction Clawson and Knetsch state,

"Any research on this problem [how to increase the attractiveness or capacity of a recreation area or facility] should consider the values and satisfactions of the recreational experience." (1966:298)

Examples of researchers that followed this call are Heberlein and Shelby (1977), who propose a "satisfaction model" that suggests an inverse relationship between user density and satisfaction to social carrying capacity of recreational sites. Accordingly, once users perceive a recreation activity as being too crowded, satisfaction declines. While laboratory-type studies appear to confirm this relationship, field studies indicate that there are a number of undetected variables as well as psychological mechanisms employed by recreationists, that make it difficult to verify this relationship (Manning et al., 1980).
Other research (Vaske et al., 1982) explores user satisfaction from the type of activity recreationists pursue. They distinguish between consumptive (fishing, hunting, mushroom collecting, gold panning etc.) and nonconsumptive activities (sight seeing, bird watching, back packing or hiking etc). Their research predicts and confirms higher levels of satisfaction of nonconsumptive recreationists. This is due to their superior level of control over the means that are instrumental in satisfying expectations.

Tinsley, Barrett and Kass (1977) and Tinsley and Kass (1978) tried to extract particular dimensions of need satisfaction. They found that leisure activities vary regarding the needs they purport to satisfy. They also vary in their potential to satisfy any one or any set of these needs.

Particularly, which needs are satisfied is also researched by Hawes (1979) and Ragheb (1980). Ragheb defines leisure satisfaction as,

"The positive perceptions or feelings which an individual forms, elicits, or gains as a result of engaging in leisure activities and choices. It is the degree to which one is presently content or pleased with his/her general leisure experiences and situations. This positive feeling of contentment results from the satisfaction of felt or unfelt needs of the individual". (1980:330)

This outcome-related definition regards satisfaction as the fulfilment of personal needs. Ragheb develops six subscales. They relate to a psychological dimension (incl. freedom, enjoyment, involvement), an educational, a social, a relaxational, a physiological, and an aesthetic dimension. Like Hawes' dimensions which include 'newness', 'relating to people', 'mental activity', 'psychological independence'(1979), they are the result of factor analysed responses to detailed statements relating to motivations elicited in users by certain leisure activities.

Francken and van Raaij (1981) criticise both Hawes (1979) and Tinsley et al. (1977) as well as others for developing satisfaction ratings which are treated as absolute indices. They find fault with lack of due assessment of individual levels of adaptation, i.e. comparison standards based on previous experiences.

Francken and van Raaij endorse Ølander's criticisms from above (1977) and highlight the importance of expectations as the comparison standard upon which satisfaction as well as dissatisfaction ought to be assessed and compared (see point 3. of Ølander's criticisms above). Their study "explains leisure satisfaction as determined by the perceived discrepancy between the actual and the desired situation" (1981:350). They therefore develop scales along two continua, 'optimistic to pessimistic' types of expectations and 'satisfied to dissatisfied' outcomes, arguing that,

"the more reliable satisfaction scores are the combinations of low satisfaction and pessimism (true dissatisfaction) and of high satisfaction and optimism (true satisfaction)". (1981:339)
Francken and van Raaij’s results confirm the underlying assumptions of their research and report that higher socio-economic groups experience more "true satisfaction" while not the lower, but the middle socio-economic group reports the highest levels of "true dissatisfaction".

To summarize, the above sections on QoL and leisure as well as those on satisfaction with recreation activities repeatedly mentioned values as pivotal for assessing satisfaction. Rather than the frequency of activities or the age of participants, it is the type of pursuit and the personal values that are to be fulfilled, which impact on levels of satisfaction (Hawes, 1979; Rhageb, 1980; Riddick, 1986; Russell, 1987). Francken and van Raaij (1981) caution researchers not to take satisfaction measurements as absolute but to consider such measurements in relation to prior levels of adaptation.

II.2.5 Satisfaction with Community life

Regarding the issue of satisfaction with community life and leisure activities, Ölander’s tendency of favouring objective measurements is questioned (Gerson, 1976; Allen & Beattie, 1984), since such measurements are not sensitive enough to detect those issues which are argued to be at the centre of the concept of satisfaction with community life.

Some of the delimiting parameters of the 'community life' construct are neighbourhood, atmosphere, perceived availability of and control over facilities (Gerson, 1976; Allen & Beattie, 1984). The measurement of these parameters needs the input of individuals. The very nature of these concepts rely on the individual's perception and is thus subjective.

It is particularly due to research into Quality of Life and satisfaction with community life and recreation (e.g. Hawes, 1978; Miller et al., 1980; Allen & Beattie, 1984; Allen, 1990) that a change was furthered in focus from objective indicators to subjective perceptions of what constitutes QoL and resulting satisfaction.

Gerson (1976) analyzes three ways of approaching the study on QoL with regard to satisfaction with community life,

- the individualist approach
- the transcendent approach
- a combination of the two above

The individualist approach stresses the dominance of the individual over the environment and targets domains such as success, personal health, family and marriage, individual achievements, freedom, friendships.

The transcendent approach views QoL from the point that the environment reigns over the individual. QoL is achieved via an organisation of macro-social
structures such as jobs, education, health, safety services etc., usually domains from which governments define QoL (and which have been termed 'objective' above).

As a third approach, Gerson suggests to use a combination of the above two approaches, flowing from the understanding that community and individual are constantly engaged in an ongoing process of negotiation and interchange.

Satisfaction with community life is thus seen as the result of subjective evaluations dealing with and determined by individual and socio-economic, political and environmental factors.

The evaluation process itself which determines the individual's feeling of satisfaction has been further analyzed by Miller et al. (1980) in the context of satisfaction with community life. They test three different, not entirely independent, approaches to satisfaction.

The first approach involves the conventional belief-affect paradigm with its emphasis on cognition as set out by Fishbein & Ajzen (1975). Accordingly, respondents are presented with a wide variety of features. They retrieve their subjective evaluations for a number of them, weight the aspects according to their perceived importance, sum them and give an overall estimate of satisfaction.

Following Zajonc's seminal work (1980), which questions the direct link between beliefs about an object and its evaluation as forwarded by traditional attitude research, Miller et al. develop the second approach.

Zajonc hypothesizes that individuals employ affective judgements even before exposure to stimuli. Consequently, Miller et al., in their "availability approach", quote that

"searches of memory for the characteristics of objects that result in overall evaluations are dominated by a small number of evaluations that are particularly salient or available to the individual"

(1980:105)

In order to find the objects corresponding to this "small number of evaluations", Miller et al. propose that "satisfaction is based on a combination of evaluations of the neighborhood's actual qualities and the more general beliefs about the neighborhood" (1980:105).

According to the above authors, differentiating between availability and belief-affect reveals more about why respondents like their community or certain aspects of it. While the belief-affect approach lets respondents scan a wide variety of attributes that results in a strongly cognitive response, the availability approach taps into the emotional side by capturing what Zajonc's describes as non-cognitive preferenda (1980).
The third of Miller et al.'s approach, which is termed "commitment", can be described as measuring the emotional strength of a judgement via the economical commitment and social involvement of the individual to the community. It is strongly reminiscent of the concept of involvement as employed in marketing research (P.H. Bloch & Grady, 1984; Kröber-Riel & Meyer-Hentschel, 1982).

'Commitment' to the neighbourhood differs from the marketing approach (see e.g. P.H. Bloch & Grady, 1984) in that more "objective" parameters are chosen. In this case, for example, the satisfaction parameter is weighted by whether a family has a child going to the community school rather than the evaluation of the school itself.

Both, the belief-affect approach and the availability approach performed satisfactorily (with some reservations) while the commitment approach performed the worst. However, all three of them contributed significantly in an overall regression with the belief-affect contributing most and the commitment variable the least.

When summarising the above section on satisfaction with community life, it should be noted, that 'community life' as compared to 'leisure and recreation' involves a much larger number of objectively strongly differing domains.

In the manner of the social indicator movement which emphasises the individual's perception beside the objective condition, Gerson (1976) advocates what he calls the "transcendent approach", i.e. joint considerations of objective and subjective parameters. Miller et al. (1980) further this transcendent approach and increase its definitiveness by supplying three parameters. They firstly emphasize the belief-affect element of satisfaction, secondly the availability or recall of salient community features and, thirdly, the commitment to the community as a measure of involvement and participation.

II.2.6 QUALITY OF LIFE AND TOURISM

As far as this author is aware of the relevant literature, only Francken and van Raaij (1981) expressly use tourism as a domain by itself in research appertaining to QoL. All other authors named thus far utilize the term 'leisure' and/or 'recreation' as either synonymous with or inclusive of tourism (see also Dumazedier, 1967). The latter, i.e. recreation, is preferred by sociologists (Dann, 1981). It is usually discussed in a context with other domains (e.g. Hall, 1973; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1974). Thus, like studies of satisfaction with tourism, studies of tourism as a distinct QoL-domain are few and far between, indicating that the discipline of tourism is still in its infancy.

The push to regard tourism as a domain rather than a subset of leisure and recreation appears to come from marketers (Dann, 1981) but it is quite likely that this differentiation is part of a wider discussion, namely whether tourism is indeed an industry of its own (Smith, 1988, 1991; Leiper, 1990).
The discipline of marketing has certainly taken hold of tourism and is developing a strong body of literature, even with its own handbook (Witt & Moutinho, 1990; 1994). But marketers’ approaches to tourism also appear in theoretical papers on QoL and center on the vacation and tourism domain and explore how marketing can assist in increasing QoL (Cooper, 1987; Kernan & Unger, 1987; Ritchie, 1987).

Drawing attention to changes in the family life-cycle, Cooper (1987; Cooper & Miaoulis, 1988) looks at the elderly market and states that since the acquisition of wealth has sped up over the last decades, more and more elderly people acquire the means to satisfy basic needs increasingly earlier in life. As a consequence, any consumption is done more and more to enhance the QoL or life satisfaction.

Furthermore, leisure activities and interests have been found to be mainly value oriented. Elderly people rely more on services than on the provision and consumption of tangible goods.

Ritchie’s approach (1983) discusses tourism in both facets of the above social indicator terms. He defines QoL along the lines of six impact factors, economic, physical, social, psychological, cultural and political. Whilst these can be considered as objective, Ritchie also turns to the individual’s perception. He states that the potential of tourism to contribute globally to the QoL (and hence satisfaction) lies with the lack of an understanding of how visitor / host interactions affect the QoL of both groups. Furthermore, the reason for slow progress lies with a lack of understanding of situational factors that affect the dynamics of this interaction.

Lounsbury and Hoopes (1985) conducted exploratory research into the consequences of vacations on satisfaction with quality of life. The survey included both objective variables such as length of holidays and demographics, and subjective items on satisfaction with accommodation, food, leisure and relaxation, work, marriage and family life.

In their conclusion they state,
"vacation satisfaction appears to be predominantly a function of some highly individualized satisfactions which the person derives from his or her own vacation activities and experiences" (1985:9),

and that the subjectivity might even evade objective attributes of either people or situations.

Some reported outcomes of their data analysis are that satisfaction with vacations increased global satisfaction with life. Satisfaction with tourism also increased the satisfaction levels with the domain of money and income, while it did not have an influence on domains such as work, leisure or community life (Hoopes & Lounsbury, 1989).
In summary, the relative brevity of the above section on 'QoL and tourism' reflects the novelty and the level of acceptance of the discipline of tourism per se and the consequent lack of concentrated research.

Furthermore, the above section highlights the particularly subjective nature of satisfaction with tourism (Lounsbury and Hoopes, 1985). Support, albeit indirect, for this strongly subjective nature of satisfaction with tourism also comes from cited theoretical analyses (Ritchie, 1987) which draw attention to the dynamic aspects of destinations.

It is the perception of results caused by dynamic forces that seemingly shift parameters over time. These forces impact on the life-cycle stages of tourism destinations (Plog, 1972; Cooper, 1989; Butler, 1980) and, apparently related, on host-guest relationships (Ritchie, 1987; V. Smith, 1977; Machlis and Burch, 1983).

While the construct of tourism area life-cycles has yet to be empirically verified, there are, on the face of it, two arguments that make the construct of a life-cycle both probable and plausible.

Firstly, a destination might change its character when tourists are dissatisfied because their aspirations and expectations are not met by a destination. This might simply occur because a formerly reported peaceful place has become a Mecca-like tourism hub. When word about this gets around, certain types of tourists might become less numerous, thus accelerating the change.

Secondly, it is equally congenial to the mind that hosts, 'outnumbered and outclassed' by their guests eventually show open dislike of tourism and tourists. Both developments cause changes to a destination.

In between total satisfaction with destinations and hosts and the above scenario of causes for dissatisfaction, evaluating satisfaction with tourism in relation to QoL in the implied complex scenario must indeed produce highly subjective satisfaction results as indicated by Lounsbury and Hoopes' empirical findings above.

It is this strong subjective element that is also one of the major results coming from domain specific research into satisfaction with tourism, as presented below.
II.3.0 SATISFACTION IN CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR RESEARCH

II.3.1 Introduction

Since the 1970s, the study of consumer satisfaction has become a rapidly growing element of consumer behaviour research. Up until then, the adequacy of product supply was measured mostly via turnover and profits (McNeal and Lamb, 1979).

Conceptually, satisfaction is the consumer's desired end of a purchase, exchange or experience. It is part of the framework of the consumer behaviour cycle that begins with the realization of a need and ends with its satisfaction as introduced in the chapter on expectations.

Strategically, marketers regard consumers' satisfaction experiences as mind-set influencing determinants (Boring, 1950; Gollwitzer et al, 1990) in motivation-formation, search and decision-making behaviour. Satisfaction is a desired outcome as well as having a reinforcing effect on current and future behaviour.

Satisfaction is both treated as an outcome, measuring the customer's aggregate condition of overall satisfaction and/or satisfaction with individual facets at a certain point in time, or it is treated as dynamic and measured over time (e.g. Burmann, 1991; Renoux, 1973). In the latter case, one might distinguish three phases - pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase phase -, which are then analysed individually and in relation to each other.

More recently, research has concentrated on the formation process of satisfaction (see also Yi, 1990) in order to evaluate the impact of individual phases. Individual parameters of these phases such as motivation, attitudes, intentions and subsequent perception are thus taking a modelling role by way of which processes are assumed to take place. Such models are then tested and outcomes help explain certain phenomena.

Overall, satisfaction research is seen as part of a wider market feedback concept (Czepiel & Rosenberg, 1977) which also includes such features as market share and quality of the product.

There are three major areas of concern surrounding the measurement of satisfaction, (1) the definition of satisfaction, (2) the process of satisfaction formation and (3) modifying influences on satisfaction.
II.3.2.0 Defining Satisfaction

II.3.2.1 Dissonance as Measurement of Satisfaction

Early approaches used Festinger's dissonance-model (1957) as explaining dissatisfaction (Ehrlich, 1967; Sheth, 1968; Oshikawa, 1969; Marquardt et al., 1972). It refers to a phase that can occur after decisions have been made and focuses on the size of the perceived discrepancy between what the choice object is capable of fulfilling and the actual, initial motivations and expectations. Today, this model has been repositioned together with the related assimilation and contrast models (Hovland & Sherif, 1957) as presented below. It now has a mere contributory role within the overall paradigm, explaining influences on satisfaction formation (Anderson, 1973; Olchavsky & Miller, 1972; Oliver, 1981).

II.3.2.2 Equity

Howard and Sheth (1969) as one of the first in consumer behaviour research to point towards the importance of satisfaction research adopt a definition that is based on findings in job-satisfaction research. This aspect of operational-behaviour psychology views job satisfaction as a function of expectations and a job's instrumental value (Mitchell & Biglan, 1971). The basis of this approach lies in Tolman's (1932), Lewin's (1942) and Vroom's (1964) work on instrumentality which has been presented above (see Ch.1.2.2).

Howard and Sheth apply a comparative view to satisfaction when they state that satisfaction is "the buyer's cognitive state of being adequately or inadequately rewarded for the sacrifice he has undergone" (1969:145). Specifically, this definition regards satisfaction as a result of discrepancies between costs and rewards thus pointing to equity research (Adams, 1963; Walster, Walster & Berscheid, 1973; Fisk & Young, 1985) and foreshadowing complaint-behaviour research (e.g. Day, R.L., Landon, E.L., 1976; Hunt, 1977, 1991).

Equity as an influential aspect on consumer satisfaction formation has been adopted in such work as Cadotte et al. (1983) Fisk and Young, 1985; Anderson, 1973) where satisfaction is understood as being influenced by previous product experience, and likely to be affected by the price paid and effort invested (Jacoby, 1976; Hunt, 1977; Tse & Wilton, 1988; Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988).

The equity-approach emphasises past experiences and links up with behaviourists' drive-reduction theory in that not the consequences of an anticipated result are highlighted but the comparative effort to achieve the result. This is most likely one of the reasons why 'satisfaction' takes a minor role in Howard and Sheth's model (see here II.2.2.1). Taking this experience-based and retrospective view of satisfaction processes, allows researchers to remain within objectively observable Stimulus Reaction chains.
Satisfaction, albeit stripped of its contextual richness and diversity, is inferred from repurchase behaviour.

II.3.2.3 Disconfirmation

An alternative stream of research to the equity-approach saw satisfaction as a result of psychological discrepancies between expectations and the evaluation of product performance (Cardozo, 1965; Swan and Combs, 1976). Subsequent developments defined satisfaction as an emotional response to the perceived performance in light of prior expectations (Oliver, 1980) and is now known as the Consumer Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction Model (henceforth CS/D).

Reaching back to Thurstone's law of comparative judgement (1927), the concept of disconfirmation is central to the CS/D model. It refers to a customer's perception as to whether the product performance is

1. better (positive disconfirmation) or
2. worse (negative disconfirmation) than expected,
3. as expected (neutral outcome).

Positive disconfirmation results in satisfaction while negative disconfirmation results in dissatisfaction. If expectations are met, the response is neutral (Oliver and Bearden, 1985).

II.3.2.4 Normative Delimitation of Satisfaction in Quality of Service Research

However, while initially an advance, since it generated a more differentiated approach, which took note of psychophysics, the CS/D model brought with it conceptual and operational difficulties in the service quality field: the improvement of service quality requires capturing all relevant parameters impacting on satisfaction. It led some researchers to distinguish between an experientially based likelyhood-estimation and a purely hedonism-based definition of satisfaction.

Quality of Service (QoS) researchers (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1988) differentiate between satisfaction as it is used in the consumer behaviour literature and the type of satisfaction as felt in situations concerning quality of service (QoS). The former is based on expectations which are consumer-defined probabilities, whereas the latter view expectations

"as desires or wants of consumers, i.e. what they feel a service should offer rather than would offer." (1988:17)
These authors thus remind of Miller's (1977) distinction of ideal, expected, minimum tolerable and deserved expectations above yet without the latter's precision.

The normative delimitation occurs by implication. While 'should' implies a minimum of tangible and intangible services, 'would' implies much more, possibly similar things as might be contained in expressive expectations.

II.3.2.5    **Surprise as Satisfaction-Generating Element**

Oliver's (1981) definition of satisfaction puts forward two novel aspects, that of surprise and the instable nature of the resulting excitement which form the emotional core of satisfaction while providing the attitude-changing force,

"satisfaction may best be understood as an evaluation of the surprise inherent in a product acquisition and / or consumption experience. In essence, it is the summary psychological state resulting when the emotion surrounding disconfirmed expectations is coupled with the consumer's prior feelings about the consumption experience. Moreover, the surprise or excitement of this evaluation is thought to be of finite duration, so that satisfaction soon decays into (but nevertheless greatly affects) one's overall attitude towards purchasing products, particularly with regard to specific retail environments" (1981:27).

II.3.2.6    **Satisfaction as a Monopolar Construct**

A further approach defining satisfaction is that of satisfaction as a monopolar construct. Based on work by Herzberg et al. (1959), satisfaction contains an instrumental as well as an expressive aspect (Maddox, 1981). Accordingly, satisfaction requires not only a satisfactory performance of instrumental aspects of a product or experience but, in order to generate or increase satisfaction, expressive aspects have to be satisfied as well.

To give an example of the two-factor theory, a tour-bus, equipped with a 300 hp motor manages to carry its normal load anywhere at a comfortable and permissible speed. Equipping it with a 400 hp motor will thus add nothing to the satisfaction of the passenger. This can only be achieved by, e.g. on-board features increasing comfort or entertainment. Conversely, if the motor did not perform or even malfunction, the enjoyment of expressive features on board lose their attraction and satisfaction-enhancing potential since the instrumental service of transport is not given. The two-factor theory thus encompasses the consideration of the experiencing person in relation to tangible and intangible aspects of the experience as well as the actual performance of the product.
While some results confirm the validity of this phenomenon (Swan and Combs, 1976; Maddox, 1981; Bleuel, 1990; Dunn Ross, 1991; Lawson, 1992), there appear to be difficulties in conceptualizing, defending and measuring this construct (Maddox, 1981; Lawson, 1992) leading to its disregard by the mainstream of consumer satisfaction research (Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988; Yi, 1990). The next three paragraphs explain the two factor construct from a somewhat different angle, as it is developed by service marketers, notably Grønroos (1982).

Theodore Levitt (1981) defines satisfaction negatively in that "satisfaction is, as it should be, mute. Its existence is confirmed only by its absence". In particular, he attributes such experiences to intangible products: "customers usually don’t know what they’re getting until they don’t get it" (original in italics). One might consider a power failure as an example. This rather descriptive definition is hiding a particular characteristic of both expectations and satisfaction. The somewhat casual quote suffers from lacking definition of what Levitt is meaning.

One interpretation of what Levitt is intending, is that he points towards the instrumental and expressive sphere of satisfaction. The instrumental sphere refers to technical aspects of a service, whereas the expressive sphere refers to functional aspects (Grønroos, 1982). The technical quality of a service encompasses the tangible, measurable parts of a service which can be normed.

Conversely, functional aspects of a service refer to its intangible elements. Instead of being objectively measurable, functional elements form an outcome which can only be experienced. They appeal to people’s standards, i.e. characteristics of expressive (self-directed) expectations which are matched by a service. It is a synergetic effect, like that experienced in the face of creations such as a work of art or an outstanding service in a restaurant.

Such outcomes in service creation and delivery are achieved by conceiving a perfect match between what customers want, and materials and skills available. In a last step, they are harmoniously combined during the execution of the service (see Gnoth, 1994, in print).

Thus the instrumental sphere of a service contains the surface structure of a demand and supply. The expressive sphere is the underlying desire and self-directed wish for a holistic, pleasant experience. Expressive satisfaction can only be achieved once instrumental elements of a service are supplied. An increase in satisfaction, however, is only possible in the expressive sphere since its measure is 'open-ended', as it were, reaching deep into a person’s psyche. Instrumental elements, however, are normed, logically deductible and repeatable.

While only expressive elements can enhance satisfaction, instrumental elements impact on a continuum that ranges from 'not dissatisfied to totally dissatisfied' only. Satisfaction, on the other hand, ranges from 'not satisfied to totally satisfied'. Both scales are thus understood uni-directional unlike, for example, Likert-type scales.

The two-factor model with its distinction of experimental and expressive
outcomes, has obvious relations with the terminology used in Part I of this volume (see I.5). As our value model of satisfaction makes use of the two factor construct, it requires some critical comments, particularly, since it is rejected by main-stream consumer behaviourists (Maddox, 1981; Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988; Yi, 1990). This criticism will receive particular attention in the discussion of the literature review (II.5).

II.3.3.0 The Process of Satisfaction Formation

The second major area of satisfaction-oriented consumer behaviour research surrounds the actual formation of satisfaction. The now accepted sequence involves a) experience-based expectation formation, b) the process of disconfirmation with the occurrence of dissonance, assimilation or contrast effects and c), the satisfaction judgement. Expectation formation and expectancies have been detailed in Part I (see summary 1.6.1).

II.3.3.1 Experiences and Expectations

The acknowledgement of past experience as determining element for expectations in the satisfaction-formation process led to the increased attention of the actual role of standards and norms.

"An expectancy is a type of hypothesis formed by a consumer regarding the consequences of an action" (Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1968). Hypothesis formation here involves cognitive evaluations of objects and situations which, in turn, set the stage for resorting to established (learnt) norms and standards or the formation of new ones.

These norms and standards are either target-based or category-based (T.D.Wilson et al. 1989, see III.1.4 above), that is, they are formed around one’s own experiences or those made by others. Personal experience can take different shapes and forms in the sense that the experience can involve different types of information intakes. Assael (1987) distinguishes neutral, marketing dominated and personal information sources. Andreasen (1968) distinguishes between direct observation, impersonal advocate, impersonal independent, and personal independent observations.

Olson and Dover (1976) show that expectations which are formed over a period of time during which they are modified and extended, produce higher satisfaction outcomes. These authors apportion this to more realistic expectations and thus to smaller disconfirmations. These authors thus include phases of cognitive evaluations and expectational adjustments.

While some researchers give expectations (and prior experiences) a mediating role in explaining satisfaction outcomes (e.g. Olchavsky and Miller, 1972; Oliver, 1977; Pizam, Neumann Reichel, 1978; Thach, 1982,1986; Whipple et al., 1986), others conclude that dissonance (Festinger, 1957) as well as assimilation and contrast effects
(Sherif and Hovland, 1961) influence satisfaction formation to such an extent that the
perception of performance is often seen as the only or most important issue (e.g. Swan

Miller (1976b) referred to expectancies as "comparison standards for performance
evaluations" and distinguishes between ideal, expected, minimum tolerable and desired
outcomes. Similar or related categories have been used by Tse and Wilton ('ideal
product performance', 'equitable product performance', 'product attitude' and 'purchase
intent', 1988). Day (1977) distinguishes three categories namely expectations about the
nature of a product or service, about the costs and efforts to be expended and, lastly,
expectations of social benefits or costs.

The current mainstream of researchers that found evidence for expectation-
influenced satisfaction formation, also found evidence for a subjective level of
adaptation (Oliver, 1980).

Following Helson (1959), experience-based pre-choice criteria function as a
subjective measure of standards that delineate the margins of tolerance around an
adaptation level. In other words, stimuli are perceived relative to an adapted standard.
This standard sustains perceptions and evaluations in its general vicinity.

In a way, the level of adaptation in consumer behaviour is a re-evaluation and
improved specification of Tolman's (1932) dependent variables that are instrumental in
expectation formation, namely environmental stimuli, level of need or drive, former
learning, dispositions and level of maturity.

Some empirical verification of this adaptation level is supplied by Thach (1982,
1986) who found that experience norms which were formed prior to exposure to a new
product were more significant than new purchase expectations for post-purchase
judgements and subsequent satisfaction statements.

While Oliver and DeSarbo (1988) found that expectations function as a reference
point in satisfaction judgements, performance and disconfirmation exerted a stronger
influence than expectations while equity was significantly related to satisfaction and
deemed a complementary measurement.

A further important group of research branched off into attempts to explain
satisfaction formation utilizing values as antecedents to expectation formation (Westbrook

In Kahle's as well as in Kamakura's & Novak's case, respondents were asked to
rank the two most important values and rate the list of nine values in order of subjective
importance (the LOV, Kahle, 1983; see 1.5.3 above). This ranked list then formed the
basis for correlation analyses of preferences and behaviours. Kamakura and Novak
(1992) develop a sophisticated mapping procedure of the List of Values on the basis of
which a priori segments are formed. The segments are used to explain underlying
motivations in consumption behaviour which then can, theoretically, be employed to
assist in explaining satisfaction formation.

II.3.3.2 Norms, Standards and Values in Expectations as Indicators for Expectation-Based Satisfaction Formation

Using expectation formation of focal brands (restaurants), Cadotte et al. (1987) refine the element of (pre-experience) standards and norms according to which expectations are formed. They are supported by literature (Miller, 1976; Swan and Trawick, 1981) in maintaining that little justification exists in assuming that pre-choice variables are the same as the ones that are used in post evaluation procedures. Rather, they propose that,

"consumers are likely to rely on standards that reflect the performance a consumer believes a focal brand should provide to meet needs/wants... we call them "experienced based norms" [with] two important characteristics (1) they reflect desired performance in meeting needs/wants and (2) they are constrained by the performance consumers believe is possible... " (1987:306)

This research uses a wide variety of parameters delineating different types of restaurants and associated expectations and preferences. It further distinguishes between the norms and standards applied to each type of restaurant, granting that different levels of expectations are operative for different classes of restaurants.

Cadotte’s et al. research design manages to confirm the general underlying CS/D design but fails to capture all operational standards and norms that would help explain the final level of satisfaction.

Assuming that elements other than expectation standards are applied, the authors surmise that comparison standards, while still operative, include those that "seem to be rooted in one’s total experience" (1987:313).

Similarly, Thirkell and Vredenburg (1982) report from their research that there were no significant relationships between expectations and new product choice satisfaction. This could indicate that other, undetected, criteria had become operative.

The Value-Percept Disparity Model belongs to the same group of research into norms and standards belongs. Following Locke (1967, 1969), Westbrook and Reilly (1983) present a model which asserts that satisfaction/dissatisfaction is an emotional response triggered by a cognitive-evaluative process in which perceptions of (or beliefs about) an object, action or condition are compared to one’s values (or needs, wants, desires). The smaller the disparity between perceptions of the object’s performance and
one's values the more favourable one's evaluation, and the greater the generation of positive affect associated with goal attainment i.e. satisfaction.

This approach arises from a critical view of the CS/D paradigm in that the latter does not "provide sufficient differentiation between cognitive and evaluative notions" (1983:257). These authors argue that aspirations rather than expectations are essential in the formation of satisfaction.

Referring to job-satisfaction research (Locke, 1967) Westbrook and Reilly adopt Locke's findings that "when values and expectations have been separated experimentally, values rather than expectations determine satisfaction" (1983:257).

Westbrook and Reilly did not perform a true before and after test as their theory would suggest. Instead they even made their respondents recall their expectations even long past post-experience evaluations. At this time, both expectations and experience evaluations can be assumed to have been subjected to contrast or assimilation effects (see II.3.3.5 below).

In addition, depending on the respondents' level of involvement (i.e. perceived level of interest and importance), memory might have faded substantially.

Despite the claimed theoretical superiority of the value-percept model, the authors report the "surprising" result (1983:259) that neither the CS/D model nor the value-percept model performs well individually. This result also applies to a hybrid including disconfirmation, expectation and value-percept disparity constructs. Even the latter hybrid lacks empirical support that would meet the usual criterion of acceptable fit.

While Westbrook and Reilly do not supply exhaustive information about their actual survey, their contention that, in the formation of satisfaction, standards other than expectations are applied is shared by a number of authors e.g. Miller (1976), and Swan and Trawick (1981).

We have to point out here that Westbrook's and Reilly's definition of the comparison basis for post-evaluations stated above (aspirations rather than expectations) tend to be confusing when regarded within the paradigm of subjective satisfaction. Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) define six standards of comparison.

"...aspiration levels or the situation that a person hopes eventually to attain... expectation levels, or the situation level he feels he is likely to attain in the fairly immediate future; equity levels, or what he thinks should be true of his situation if perfect justice prevails, given how much he invests in it relative to others; reference group levels, or what he believes to be true of the situation of others with whom he identifies...personal needs or the amount of a particular reward he may require... and personal values, concerning such intangibles as freedom, equality, and the like" (Campbell et al., 1976:14).

Westbrook and Reilly fail to give any further reason for the use of "aspirations" rather than expectations. Campbell's et al. definition implies two qualities of aspirations, firstly, aspirations are an ideal norm or standard and, secondly, aspirations are something one might be able to influence in order to obtain it. The research situation here, however, i.e. a visit to a restaurant, leaves very little possibility for active involvement with regard to the outcome other than the initial choice of the restaurant.
Enquiring into norms and standards employed when judging disconfirmations, Cadotte et al. (1987) summarize previous findings stating that customers often utilize different standards and norms in the expectation-formation process than those present in the satisfaction-formation stage.


Predictive expectations are those referring to a belief about how a brand is likely to perform. Normative expectations refer to a set norm or standard. Comparative expectations refer to expectations about a brand as compared to similar other brands (1984:2). All of these latter distinctions have a strongly cognitive character.

It should be noted here, that none of the above authors cared for differentiating norms and standards. They appear to be used synonymously. However, differentiating between norms and standards would help to distinguish between objective and subjective qualities of experiences of products and services (see 1.5.4.3).

II.3.3.3 Disconfirmation, The Consumer Satisfaction Dissatisfaction Paradigm

In the consumer behaviour literature, there exists a widely held consensus that satisfaction is the result of an evaluative response that includes expectations and perception of performance. In particular, the Consumer Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction (CS/D) paradigm holds that expectations about a product or service are retrieved after the experience and compared to the results of that experience (Oliver,1977,1980 a,b.; Day, 1984; Oliver, Bearden, 1985; Tse, Wilton, 1988).

Swan and Trawick (1981) refer to a mathematically derived disconfirmation (performance minus expectation) as an "inferred" measurement. This is because it is estimated via a scaled attribute distance, in the sense that a computed attribute (e.g. good.... bad) of perceived performance is compared to the quality of the attribute that underlied preceding expectation.

For example, a respondent is asked to indicate her expectations regarding five product attributes on five Likert-type scales. After the experience, the same respondent is asked to indicate the perceived performance on a comparable set of five scales. The difference between each set of scales is the inferred measurement 1.

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1 See Prakash (1984) and Prakash & Lounsbury (1984) for an evaluation and statistical test on the validity of difference scores.
Conversely, the overall disconfirmation (a scale of the form, 'more satisfied... to ...less satisfied than expected') is called "perceived" disconfirmation. It is a quasi-independent measurement. Swan and Trawick argue that both measurements are needed.

"Perceived" disconfirmation is needed, particularly, in order to reflect the degree of perceptual distortion inherent in a consumer's judgement of perceived reality. This is supported by Oliver and Bearden (1985) and Anderson (1973) who assume that the distortion is due to the customer's inability to catch all relevant product attributes. This effect renders the simple or inferred disconfirmation as lacking completeness.

For this reason, Oliver and Bearden hypothesised that the overall perception of disconfirmation "mediate[s] the relationship between attribute comparisons and satisfaction ..." (1985: 237). Their results confirm Swan and Trawick's findings as well as Oliver's previous results (1980b). Oliver and Bearden show that overall disconfirmation, by way of higher correlation coefficients, "was more highly correlated with satisfaction and generated larger regression coefficients than did inferred disconfirmation" (1985:242).

Similarly, Taylor and Durand (1979) found that disconfirmation experience exerted greater effect on postexposure ratings of affect than did expectations.

II.3.3.4 Perceived Performance

Perceived performance has long been an issue in consumer behaviour literature (Anderson, 1973). In their literary review, Tse and Wilton (1988), contend "perceived performance to be a determinant of CS/D, however, "most CS/D models have not incorporated a direct link from this construct to CS/D" (1988:204). They further maintain that researchers have not assessed the conceptualization of comparison standards and disconfirmation constructs thus echoing some of Folke Olander's concerns above (see II.2.1).

Tse and Wilton's (1988) research confirms the adequateness of the CS/D model as well as the influence of perceived performance on the subjective level of satisfaction. By manipulating respondents' pre-exposure expectations through product information, Tse & Wilton measured corresponding differences in performance evaluations and levels of satisfaction. This latter result points towards aspects of the dissonance and assimilation paradigms (Festinger, 1957; Hovland, Harvey & Sherif,1957, Sherif & Hovland, 1961).

In general, similar research into the volatility of perceptions of performance after manipulative information prior to product exposure confirms these findings (Carlsmith & Aronson, 1963).
II.3.3.5 Assimilation

Assimilation and contrast refer to the post-experience phase of a consumption process and can occur when there appear differences between outcome and expected result which go beyond a person’s latitude of acceptance. Another way of phrasing this dependence, is to consider respondents’ level of involvement. Involvement here means the perceived level of interest and importance according to which latitudes of acceptance are formed.

Assimilation lets the consumer alter the margins or anchor of an expectation standard so as not to be out of balance (homeostatically) with the experience and, consequently, dissatisfied. Contrast lets the consumer magnify the perceived gap between expected and experienced results or outcomes.

Assimilation and contrast effects have been artificially generated by the above mentioned Carlsmith and Aronson (1963), Freedman (1964), Cardozo (1965) and Tse and Wilson (1988). These constructs are usually confirmed in laboratory type research situations only. Swan and Trawick’s differentiation between inferred and perceived disconfirmation above must be regarded as the alternative explanation for field studies which, usually, cannot exercise similarly controlable manipulations of information and product performance.

Furthermore, Anderson (1973) has also tested hybrid formations, such as generalized negativity and an assimilation-contrast effect.

The generalized negativity defines reactions in which discrepancies between expectations and perceived performance cause the product to receive a more unfavourable satisfaction rating than its objective performance would justify.

In the hybrid form of the assimilation-contrast effect, zones of acceptance are assumed which, when exceeded lead to a contrast effect. Anderson found that his data best fitted this last hybrid form.

II.3.4 Other Modifying Influences

The third area of concern in consumer satisfaction research involves inconclusive outcomes of attempts to model satisfaction formation (Anderson, 1973). This turned the focus on modifying influences for explanations. These relate to

1. the role of information received prior to product testing (Freedman, 1964; R.E. Anderson & M.A. Jolson, 1973; Thirkell & Vredenburg, 1982).
2. the amount and quality of previous experiences (Day, 1977; Thach, 1986),
3. the complexity of the product (Olchavsky and Miller, 1972),
4. the intensity of involvement or effort expended (Freedman, 1964; Cardozo, 1965; Oliver & Bearden, 1985; Bloch and Grady, 1984),
5. differing product categories (Day and Broader, 1978) and

The differing outcomes reported in these papers were often the reason for renewed interest in the dissonance, assimilation and contrast paradigms.

Equity of price reoccurs here in this section of modifying influences, since some empirical evidence shows it as being of complementary importance, i.e. it has an additive but not dominant impact (Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988; Tse & Wilton, 1988). The latter reports would thus again highlight the multidimensionality of satisfaction formation.

While equity can be a major effect in satisfaction formation, particularly in matters of pay (Adams, 1963, 1965), the consumer behaviour literature shows mixed results as to the impact of equity on satisfaction (Fisk & Coney, 1982, 1985; Mowen & Grove, 1983). In general, the literature portrays equity as being closer related to dissatisfaction formation (Hunt, 1977).

Refering to retail settings, Oliver and DeSarbo (1988) inform us that while price plays a prominent part in equity research when dealing with pay (Adams, 1963), "its role in consumer satisfaction has been mixed" (Oliver, DeSarbo, 1988:504). For retail environments, its varying impact on overall satisfaction is assumed to be due to personal interaction.

Swan and Mercer (1981) portray equity as one of two reactions which can cause dis/satisfaction. It is either
the disconfirmation cognition of the product being better/worse then expected and/or the equity cognition of a fair/unfair purchase (see also Francken, 1983).

Also, consumer behaviour researchers found the demographic categories of age, education and income to affect satisfaction. Westbrook (1977) found that the older the consumer, the more satisfied s/he is. Bleuel (1990) mentions culture as a differentiating variable for perceptions of equity.
Chapter 4

II.4.0 Satisfaction Research in Tourism

II.4.1 Introduction

As the following presentation of research findings will show, tourism differs significantly from most reports presented so far, as tourism is often an inner-directed experience. While it depends on facilitators or instruments in order to become possible, it is often not the enjoyment of these facilitators per se, but the consequences of their usage that lead to satisfaction.

Particularly those parameters, that have been introduced in the above section on the consumer behaviour literature, are most appropriate for measuring the effect of instrumental tourism facilitators on satisfaction. But, as has been indicated, for the measurement of expressive values and experiences, a wider approach needs to be taken including the presentation and discussion of values and expectations in Part I. Previous chapters will thus form the spatial dimension within which the following presentation needs to be anchored and discussed (see Rationale, I.1.2). This task will be accomplished in the critical review (II.5).

Subsequent paragraphs introduce tourism satisfaction research from such angles as productivity, balneology (healing at spas), general medicine and aesthetics and marketing. Its relative brevity reflects the novelty of the discipline, the widely varying interests presented here reflect tourism’s far reaching impact on individuals as well as the welfare of entire societies.

Granting that any research has its own angle of approach and interest, research on satisfaction in tourism is not a new phenomenon. While the wealthy classes have always pursued the activity of tourism in one form or another (Adler, 1989), the onslaught of industrialization on social and economic structures that created a proletariat, eventually caused welfare-minded individuals such as Thomas Cook to utilize tourism as means to provide poorer people with much needed recreation activities.

In Germany, middle-class civil servants were given holidays as early as 1873. The effects this measure had on productivity and loyalty to the state became the model and motivation for industrialists to introduce "social walking and tramping" not long after the turn of the century, and, during the mid and late 1920s, to build communal holiday camps for workers until, in the 1930s, holiday camps became a politically motivated means to manipulate the masses (Buchsteiner, 1984).

Research by ergonomically oriented psychologists into fatigue (e.g. Karsten, 1928) furthered the scientific foundations for the need for and spread of recreation time and holidays.
As early as 1924, the conference on 'Recreation and Recreation-Welfare' supplied further medical evidence for this need (Mundt & Lohmann, 1988). Reports on leisure behaviour continued to increase (Lynd and Lynd, 1929; Lundberg et al, 1934; Thorndike, 1937), until the use of leisure time became a distinguishable and identified social role (Donald and Havinghurst, 1959; Hawes, 1979). Subsequently and with the rise of mass tourism, there are strong signs that tourism is establishing itself as a (semi-

II.4.2 Health and Tourism, Contradictory Results of Physical and Psychological States

The focus of K.Franke's work (1968) involves extensive longitudinal studies of recreation satisfaction with spa visits. Franke comes to the conclusion that one cannot assess the success of spa holidays until months later because the subjective as well as the objective personal condition of patients changes several times both towards a perceived worsening of a patient's physical condition and a perceived improvement (Franke, 1968:260).

In a similar 'before and after' study, O.J.Gebauer (1980) surveyed 112 passengers before, during and after a Carribean cruise on the "Maxim Gorkij". At the centre of this study are several clinical self-report questionnaires devised by psychologists of the Max Planck Institute, Munich, Germany, between 1966 and 1976, as well as the 'Giessen Test', which is widely used amongst sociologists. The latter test measures social interaction, mood, and social potency.

The noteworthy result of these before and after tests is that passengers reported to be relaxed and recreated after the cruise although medical tests showed the opposite. In a discussion of these results, Mundt and Lohmann summarize that "obviously, there are quite a number of people who report to be recreated at the end of a tour although this is not true according to the test results presented here." (1988:81)

Further research discussed by Mundt and Lohmann (1988) presents the case of holidaymakers to Trins in Tirolia, Austria. In 1962, fifteen workers from an industrial city in Northern Germany agreed to a prepaid vacation during which they were to undergo a series of tests by medical doctors, psychologists and physiologists. The aim was to research conditions and results of holidays away from home.

The outcome appeared to be contradictory. While medical-physiological measurements showed that those workers were recreated after the end of their holidays, psychological tests showed that they were, overall, less satisfied than at the beginning of their holidays.

1 ... in the sense that tourism, like pedagogics or marketing rely on other, i.e. "hard" sciences.
Mundt and Lohmann ascribe this result to the fact that these workers had to leave their families behind, went to a destination which was chosen without their consultation and experiencing a sojourn conducted in a controlled test situation, thus restricting individual preferences of destination and activities.

"Obviously, the subjective circumstances are of crucial importance for the interpretation of a success of holidays with regard to recreation. They can cause objective indicators to be pushed into the background" (1988:119).

II.4.3 Aesthetic Satisfaction as a result of Experiencing Landscapes

Hartmann (1982), analyzing the psychology of landscape experience concludes that appreciation of landscapes depends on cultural influences. Based on the Reiseanalyse 1976 ("Travel Analysis 1976"), 48% of Germans named 'the attractiveness of the landscape' as the first reason (out of 24 possible reasons) for their choice of destination.

His analysis shows that tourists gain satisfaction from visiting preferred types of landscapes. These subjective preferences are counter-balanced by "objective" landscape features to which tourists keep returning. He comes to the conclusion that during the period from the beginning of the annual Reiseanalyse ("Travel Analysis"), i.e. from 1970 until 1980, there was no significant shift in preferences in the population of West Germans.

II.4.4 Tourism and Relaxation, Escape and Search for New Stimuli: Some Applications of the Two-Factor Theory

J.L. Crompton (1979) conducted 39 interviews in which he analysed results of tourism on the tourists' perceptions of relaxedness after returning home. While relaxation implies physical inactivity, however, most of the respondents admitted to being physically active and even objected to physical restraint. Crompton concludes that relaxation is "obviously" a mental condition rather than being related to physical relaxation (1979:417).

Hartmann and Meyer (1982) shed further light onto the relationship between tourism, recreation and satisfaction in that satisfaction is also a result of simply being exposed to different stimuli while on holiday.

Supported by Lounsbury and Hoope's findings (1985, see above) that satisfaction with tourism correlates with type and activities of work, these authors introduce the (operational behaviour) psychology term "walking away from a situation"
in order to describe the recreational effect of holidays away from home.

Discussing the background of the escape-motive for tourism, they state,

"This 'getting-away-from-the-usual' is [determined by]... psychic saturation. If one always does the same or similar things, or - even worse - if one has to, the level of activation is reduced. One requires continuously stronger stimuli in order to remain stimulated. A temporary change of stimuli increases receptivity as well as the energetic level of reactions. The same is true for when one returns from a holiday and 'old' stimuli are experienced 'as new' until, after a longer period of time, the effects of accustomisation and saturation appear anew" (Hartmann & Meyer, 1982:24 in Mundt & Lohmann, 1988).

In I.2.2.6 we described Braun's adaptation of Wicklund's (1986) theory of static versus dynamic orientation. The adaptation resulted in explaining both the situation and the behaviour of static oriented tourists as the result of the true need for recreation. Recreation, in this case, relied on the tourist's ability to find situations in which he or she could restore his damaged ego. Satisfaction with the holiday experience occurred when such situations were found and the tourist succeeded in either acquiring a new skill, or get accepted by peers etc.

In the terms as they have been developed in this dissertation, satisfaction was achieved through satisfaction of outer-directed expressive values, i.e. through acquisition of goods or the pursuit of activities which had some symbolic value to the tourist. In general, these satisfied either self-esteem needs or the need to be esteemed by others.

Yet Braun did not succeed in explaining motives and satisfaction of dynamically oriented tourists, as these appeared to be much more self-centred and equilibrial without showing 'extreme' or significantly unique behaviours.

E.L. Dunn Ross & S. Iso-Ahola (1991) conducted research into the motivations and levels of satisfaction of sightseeing tourists. Based on Iso-Ahola's (1980, 1982) distinction of seeking and escaping as the two basic motivational dimensions of leisure behaviour, it is reported that seeking is the more important factor although the escape motive is also present.

In Dunn's & Iso-Ahola's research, behaviour (i.e. engaging in a bus-tour) is questioned as to its motivational basis. After factor analysis, "Escape" explains merely 7% of the total of 63% of variance. The most explanation of variance occurs in the "Seeking" dimension (20%) followed by "Social Interaction" (19%). Satisfaction (total variance explained, 56%) is made up of a "Knowledge" dimension (30%) and amongst other, lesser important dimensions, by "Escape" (6%) as the highest scoring dimension.

Distinguishing between instrumental and expressive aspects of satisfaction, Dunn Ross asserts that satisfaction is easier achieved if instrumental aspects of the service are
fully catered for. She notes, that basic (instrumental) services, such as cleanliness on the bus "contribute measurably to tourist satisfaction" (1991:235). If this is not catered for, expressive satisfaction cannot eventuate.

It was also found that when primary motivation is relatively high and is successfully met through tourists’ experiences, the resulting satisfaction spills over to various other aspects of the experience.

Whipple, Taach, Avsec, Browning and Day (1986) studied the relative importance of instrumental and expressive attributes to satisfaction with a packaged tour. This bus tour consisted of visits to the Niagara Falls, the Minolta Tower and an Eddy Arnold concert. Their objectives consisted of detecting the influence of prior experience on levels of expectations, the influence of experiences with instrumental and expressive aspects of the tour on satisfaction formation, and whether there is any detectable influence of expectations and performance on future intentions.

Their repeated ANOVA tests (of variance) showed only one effect of experience on judgements of instrumental and expressive tour elements thus indicating that prior experience has only little influence on satisfaction formation (possible type two error effects have not been discussed).

Furthermore, they found that performance ratings for instrumental characteristics are significantly related to expressive characteristics of the tour. We will return to these findings at a later stage during which this two-factor model is discussed in more detail (see next section II.5.4).

It was also found that satisfaction judgements are related to future intentions and that importance ratings of attractions differ from before and after measurements.
Chapter 5

II.5.0 Discussion and Summary of the Literature Review: The System of Tourism and the Major Building Blocks for a Value Model of Satisfaction

The following chapter contains a critical discussion of the previous chapters. It concentrates particularly on

1. Tourists' motivations
2. Typologies of tourists
3. The two-factor theory of satisfaction
4. Satisfaction research in the social sciences and marketing

The goal is to discuss these four points and the literature with a view to generate consequences for a model of satisfaction. Where possible, the discussion and criticism follows the sequence that can be thought to occur in a tourist's process of perception. This sequence will also guide the structure of the survey conducted on international campervan tourists to New Zealand, and the subsequent analysis of the results.

According to Lilli (1978) and the "new look" school (Bruner & Postman, 1949), perception entails intra-subjective reactions and processes towards the perceived reality during a three-step cycle consisting of,

(1) the provision of a hypothesis (motive, (value-) arousal),
(2) the intake of information about the object (motivation and expectation formation) and
(3) the confirmation of the hypothesis and drive-reduction (experience and comparison with expectations, followed by satisfaction formation).

Consequently, sections II.5.2 to II.5.4 deal with the criticism of motivations in tourism and the parameters involved in motivation formation and experiences. Section II.5.4 refers particularly to issues regarding perception in the context of the two-factor model, which will be subjected to a detailed criticism. Sections II.5.5 through to section II.5.8 then deal with general issues of measuring satisfaction, as they have been developed in the literature reviews of the previous chapters. The last section of this Part II (II.5.9) contains a summary of the criticism in list-form.

The presentation of the literature and relevant concepts in previous chapters had to follow a 'temporal plot', like a dramatist has to introduce his characters on stage, i.e. in chronological order and as the plot and conventions require it. This chapter targets the
spatial dimension thus created: all terms, constructs and theories have become familiar, it is now that the discussion can begin.

However, the literature review, due to its multidisciplinary context and the need to develop its contents in a cohesive way, did not really allow for the stage to be set, nor for the props and background to be revealed. In other words, the particular ambience of tourism, as opposed to other consumer behaviour processes, like shopping or the consumption of a restaurant service, has not been detailed.

For this reason, the next few pages present the reader with both the width and breadth of the tourism experience from a systemic and structural point of view, as well as from the viewpoint of being different from a tourist's every-day-life, i.e. from an experiential point of view. The latter emphasises the above four points that remain to be scrutinized.

II.5.1.1 Introduction to the System of Tourism

It is the geographers' domain to study the interaction of man with his physical environment while taking note of the underlying dynamic influences that drive this interaction.

Douglas Pearce (1981 lit), following Moissec, regards the study of four distinct areas as central for the understanding of the dynamics of tourism in the geographic space. It requires the analysis of,

1. Resorts
2. Transport Networks
3. Behaviour of Tourists
4. Local Decision Makers' and Population's Attitude.

For marketers, Claude Kaspar defines tourism as the "totality and occurrences resulting from the journey and the sojourn of people, to whom their place of sojourn is neither main nor permanent place of work or residence" (1986:18). Kaspar regards tourism as a multidimensional phenomenon and advocates that its study should follow systemic principles. For Kaspar, the tourism system in an open system which interacts with and reacts to changes in the economical, social, political, technological and ecological environment. The tourism system itself is the product of the interaction between two major sub-systems or sets of elements, they are the tourist and tourism institutions. The latter are divided into the subsystems,

- tourism destination
- tourism businesses
- tourism organisations and official bodies (public and private bodies)
W. Freyer (1988) distinguishes between "typical", "supplementary" and "fringe" tourism businesses. Typical tourism businesses include those which are in direct contact with the tourist and facilitating travel (accommodation, transport, travel agents, operators etc.).

Supplementary tourism businesses are those, which are, in general, not regarded as tourism businesses per se. While some belong to the service sector (travel insurances, embassies, automobile clubs etc), others belong to the secondary industry (manufacturers of suitcases, tents, airplanes etc). Supplementary tourism businesses are specialized and produce "typical tourism products".

The fringe tourism businesses are those which produce non-typical tourism products yet they often target the tourism market with products such as clothes, photography equipment or cosmetics. These businesses, nonetheless, depend on tourism for their survival and success.

MacIntosh and Goeldner (1984) divide tourism into four components which are all dependent on the existence of a "resource base". These components include,

1. Accommodation
2. Activities
3. Shopping
4. Transportation

According to this approach, the activities of marketing and selling of any one or a set of these components creates the dynamic process which is called tourism.

Neil Leiper (1981) recognizes five interactive elements creating a causal relationship. Arguing from a systemic point of view, Leiper names the following five systems as fundamental to the dynamics of the tourism phenomenon,

1. Tourist
2. Generating Regions
3. Transit Routes
4. Destination Regions
5. The Tourism Industry

While the last four approaches are motivated by the interest in the commercial dynamics of tourism, the following two look at the structure of tourism from a sociological point of view.

In a critical discussion, particularly with Leiper's model, Stephen L.J. Smith (1988) comes to the conclusion that there are a number of valid definitions of tourism, each one serving the purpose of its particular interest group.

Similar to Freyer above, Smith defines tourism in terms of the commodities it produces and the markets it supplies. He distinguishes six categories of goods and services: accommodation, transportation, travel services, foodservices,
recreation/culture/entertainment (activities and attractions), and retail goods. In order to avoid unmanageable overlaps, the tourism industry is defined as a retail industry.

Unlike Freyer, Smith distinguishes only two levels or "Tiers". Tier 1 commodities are directly related to tourism, while Tier 2 commodities are mixed. They can be used by locals as well and are complimentary to the tourism industry. If travel would cease, these Tier 2 enterprises would revert to their individual status of restaurant or entertainment business, rather than being connected to the tourism industry.

In the case of Jafar Jafari's 'structure of tourism', the concern is the functional role of tourism for the modern world. Jafari apportions roles and obligations to both "tourism generating" and "tourism receiving" systems, i.e. to the tourists' home-environment and to the host society, products and environment. He stresses their mutual obligations that result from the synergetic effects of their interaction. Jafari points towards the experiential sphere of tourists when he describes a cycle that begins with the realisation of a (prospective) touristic need to travel, continues with the journey itself and ends with the return home. Different from above approaches, Jafari's structure of tourism includes a particular function which, over and above commercial interests and marketing stimuli motivates people to travel and recreate. This function helps maintain societal and economic structures of tourism generating societies.

The last theory to be introduced is less a total view of what are the elements of tourism, rather, it takes a particular concern in the interactive processes between hosts and guests, customer and supplier. It is introduced here because it represents a particular view of the activity which links all tourism elements, service itself.

Machlis and Burch (1983) regard tourism as a cyclical phenomenon which begins with the discovery of a destination by tourists, continues with its development by commercial interests and ends with a hypothesised decline. The inherent dynamics come about through an increasing institutionalisation and standardisation of host-guest interactions. In this model, control over a tourism region shifts from locals to national and international private interests. Simultaneously, tourists' interactions and form of travel become increasingly dominated by human and economic exchange mechanisms, quality norms and standards and other patterns of daily life that are prevalent in the market-driven Western World.

For our purposes, the above stakes out the horizon of a tourist's experience and delivers a set of distinctive elements which require a discussion relating to travelling by campervan through New Zealand.

Summarising the presentation of the above, it can be concluded that tourism encompasses the following major elements,

1. The Tourist
2. Transport
3. Accommodation
4. Attractions (incl. hosts and their culture)
5. Services and infrastructures
The presentation of definitions of tourism can be divided into supply-side definitions, demand-side definitions and holistic definitions. This dissertation concentrates on the demand-side point of view but acknowledges all objective parameters of the tourism system.

From a supply-side point of view, the fifth element (5. Services and infrastructures) could be clearly divided into e.g. "pure" and "ancillary tourism businesses" by using Freyer's or Smith's categorizations above. From a demand-side point of view, however, services as given by petrol stations restaurant or entertainment staff is facilitating tourism as do infrastructures such as roads and sewage systems. To neglect infrastructures would mean, for example, free and independent travelers such as backpackers, could not be included as beneficiaries of the system. These tourists do not necessarily use "pure" tourism facilities but rather travel so that they would not differ from locals, they seek personal contacts and non-commercialized hospitality (see also MacCannell, 1976). In this sense, infrastructures become tourism facilitators.

In order to be able to travel, the tourist (1.) relies on the above four other areas above for motivation (4.) and facilitation (2., 3., 5.) to travel. The tourist exchanges his life at home with a life of travel and sojourns. The facilitators of such life away from home often belong to the tourism industry, representing the commercial side. They also belong to the people of the land, their culture, heritage and environments. The dividing line between these two elementary groups of systems is subject to progressive change (Plog, 1974; Butler, 1980; Cooper, 1990).

The brief résumé of what constitutes tourism as seen by representatives of major research disciplines exemplifies the complexity of tourists' experiences. Each element is a system in its own right. The interaction of these systemic elements can be regarded as organized according to the principles of the technology of service (see Gnoth, 1994 in print).

It is these five systemic elements, then, which have to be considered in their entirety as they impact on the tourism experience.

II.5.1.2 Introduction to the Tourist's Point of View of the Holiday Experience

It is the apparently simplistic truth that during the time away the tourist's physical existence remains the same. He still requires food and shelter, still hails a taxi or catches a bus to get from here to there, and still loves reading the newspaper in the morning. It is in this sense that "daily life [is] the only appropriate metaphor for understanding tourism" (Machlis & Burch, 1983:669).

The statement is simplistic, in that it restates the fact that 'People live through time and space': it is profound in that, through tourism, a change in every-day life can make all the difference. This difference, however, again cannot be described as anything else but in terms of 'daily life'. This (tautological) sophism points towards the metaphysical sphere of the experience of tourism.
The experience of tourism transcends physical objects, events and situations while, simultaneously, using these same things as **instruments for** the experience. This time, however, they are imbued with the holiday spirit. It is the exchange of one’s usual environment and all those timetables, chores and ‘things we do’, with those of the holiday-life that is at issue. In other words, it is the exchange of all those ‘instruments’ which normally help one to pass, toil and rush through daily life, with those that are different and imbued with holiday-hedonism, that becomes the vehicle for stimulating experiences.

These experiences are metaphysical in that the juxtaposition of recreation and holidays is merely a social stereotype. Recreation, as a synonym for holidays, is ill-defined and causes more confusion than it helps (see II.4.2, Mundt & Lohmann, 1988). The perception of well-being during and after holidays often contradicts objective medical tests (Franke, 1968; Gebauer, 1982) and provokes the question as to who is right and what is actually at stake.

It is this phenomenon of contradiction and diversity surrounding tourism behaviour, which gives rise to enquiries into the formation of tourists’ satisfaction. But it is not the objects, events and situations which pose the important target of satisfaction research. As stated, they are mere instruments. It is the experiencing person herself and requires a psychological approach to satisfaction-formation.

Consumer behaviour, as the discipline most active in tourism research as a singular domain, remains still open to Graham Dann’s (1979) related criticism of being pre-occupied with ‘products’ and their tangible aspects. Instead, he argues, the primary target should be the motivation for usage and the perception of the experience as seen by the tourist. Such an enquiry would form the logical precursor to satisfaction formation.

While the pre-occupation with ‘products’ and tangible aspects might be a traditional ideosyncrasy of product-marketing consumer behaviourists, there exists an apparent contradiction between approaches of such mainstream product marketers and approaches by service marketers to the phenomenon of satisfaction; as previously pointed out (II.3.2.6), the rejection of the two-factor theory in retailing and product marketing (Oliver, 1981; Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988; Yi, 1990; Oliver & Westbrook, 1991) is opposed by its success in explaining phenomena relating to services and service aspects of tangible products (e.g. Gronroos, 1982).

To date, problems appear to be related to the measurement of this model (Maddox, 1981; Lawson, 1991).

Apart from concentrating on issues relating to tourists’ particular (hedonistic) perception of experiences, that were mentioned on the previous page, the second issue arising when measuring satisfaction with tourism, therefore, is that of the entirety of parameters to be considered within which this perception takes place.

These parameters extend over those (1) tangible and (2) intangible aspects of products and experiences, i.e. objects, situations and events, as well as those individual
circumstances that motivate and direct a tourist's behaviour. In addition to these 'pull' and 'push' elements, there is the actual interaction with the objects of experiences, i.e. the behavioural process itself. Individually, and together, these product attributes and behavioural aspects can assist in market segmentation.

Over the past twenty or so years, demographics as a tool to segment consumers and markets have been replaced by psychographics, value and lifestyle parameters for (Wells, 1973; Mitchell, 1983). Particularly values have become a focal point from which behavioural differences are being explained.

Demographics lost their effectiveness due to changes in family life cycles, role changes and family structures, as well as changes in income and spending patterns (Mueller-Heumann, 1992).

The diffusion of relative wealth, modern methods of production and changes in political structures enhancing the status of the individual, all combined to dissolve traditional social class structures (Buchsteiner, 1984).

As a consequence, consumption and behavioural patterns now transgress what used to be traditional dividers. In consumer behaviour, however, apart from a few examples (Cadotte, Woodruff & Jenkins, 1983; Westbrook & Reilly, 1987), progress made by psychographic research such as VALS (the Value and Life Styles Index, Stanton Research Institute, California), has bypassed mainstream satisfaction research. It is due to this astonishing development, that values have failed to be considered adequately in what can be termed the microcosmic approach to satisfaction in consumer behaviour research.

In this dissertation, values have been selected as the most promising construct by which the interaction between the perceiving subject (the tourist) and the object (tourism elements) can be structured.

"A construct is a concept: It has added meaning, however, of having been deliberately and consciously invented or adopted for a specific scientific purpose.... Scientists consciously and systematically use it in two ways. One, it enters into theoretical schemes and is related in various ways to other constructs. Two, [it] is so defined and specified that it can be observed and measured" (Kerlinger, 1973:20).

Apart from focusing heavily on product parameters, while neglecting the experiencing consumer, and apart from failing to give value systems due recognition after the demise of demographics as a tool for segmentation, consumer behaviourists are also guilty of not adequately considering all implications of one of the most prevalently used instrument in satisfaction research, the Expectation X Value model.

It is notably Tolman's (1932) expectancy value model which is heavily employed in predicting behaviour and consumption patterns. Both Kurt Lewin and Tolman are often mentioned as the intellectual 'parents' of this model although, as it appears, little
effective consideration is generally given to some consequential details of their respective contributions. This relates particularly to the unresolved discussion of what happens to behaviour-energizing drives while they are being reduced.

Many consumer behaviourists remain firmly anchored in the Stimulus - Reaction school of thought based on Thorndyke (1911) and Hull (1943) (see e.g. II.3.2.2., Howard & Sheth, 1969) as well as those marketers influenced by the behaviour modification perspective as inspired by B.F.Skinner (1957), which remains strictly within the measurable parameters of the stimulus and the response without referring to conjectures as to what happens in a perceiver’s mind, often named the 'black box'. However, behaviourists also postulate the existence of instincts and/or emotions which generate an energy that urges the organism towards non-selective activity.

Only recently have there been stronger voices demanding the inclusion of emotions into the discipline of consumer behaviour (Zajonc, 1980; Zajonc and Marcus, 1984; Etzioni, 1988; Poiesz, 1989). Nonetheless, as far as this author is aware, the drive-reduction theory (Hull, 1943) has not been constructively incorporated within the theory of consumer behaviour and tourism.

The following discussion deals with all three of the above mentioned issues, i.e. motivation and values regarding product parameters, drives as motivators for the experiencing individual and the two-factor model of satisfaction. This occurs within the context of approaches to motivation in tourism. It leads to the adoption of Kahle’s LOV (1983) as a value system capable of organizing all of life’s major roles and hence those ones, which relate to tourism parameters.

II.5.2 Motivation Theories and Situational Parameters in Tourism

This section discusses approaches and systems enquiring into the tourists’ motivations and their limits. It deals with the complexity of situational parameters to which these systems are applied to and the point of view the tourist can hold towards these situations. The discussion revolves particularly around the escape-search dichotomy, Pearce’s application of Maslow’s hierarchy and the two-factor model of satisfaction as they have been presented in (1.2.4 - 1.2.7).

The review of tourism motivation literature presented various approaches to answer the question as to why people travel. Following Heckhausen (1989), we distinguished between motives as latent dispositions and motivations as combinations of these dispositions with situations. The methodological advantage that comes with this theoretical differentiation lies with the ability to separate the experiencing person from situations which might otherwise remain locked in a stimulus-reaction type situation. In this way, a specific response to a felt need is thus always only one of many options to respond. As a consequence, products are substitutable and force the focus on the tourist rather than onto the product.

The motives of 'escape' and 'search' (e.g. Iso-Ahola, 1980) were seen to occur
in various guises, as anomie and ego-enhancement (Dann, 1977), as 'because-of' or as 'in-order-to' reasons (e.g., Opaschowski, 1977) and as consequences of 'static' and 'dynamic' orientations (Braun, 1985). This dichotomy can also be seen at the basis of Cohen's more complex experience categories of the experimental, experiential and existential traveler (1972; 1978). Simultaneously, these categories indicate a typology of travellers.

The dichotomies bear in them a retrospective and a prospective view strongly reminding of Tolman's distinction (1932) between 'demand for goal' (emotional, drive-based) and 'expectancy of goal' (cognition-based, incl. consequences of results) as both refer to reasons and goals for travel. It is, however, their systematic application within the flow of behaviour (see II.2.3, Csikszentmihalyi, 1975) which shows up the limits of this simple dichotomy.

Behaviour is constantly progressing, dynamic (Atkinson & Birch, 1970) complex and multi-dimensional while steeped in cultural technologies (Adler, 1989; see II.5.3 below) which prescribe behavioural patterns (see II.3.3.1, T.D.Wilson, 1989;). Utilizing the 'escape' and 'search' motives for explaining tourism behaviour therefore becomes, at best, confusing. In order to counter this deficiency, a methodology would have to consider a host of sub-categories for behaviours that cannot be suitably explained by this dichotomy without becoming superficial. The system of subcategories would then have to stand up to the criticism that the 'escape' motive is over-emphasized (Schmitz-Scherzer & Rudinger, 1974) and that 'search' as an explanatory motive for complex behaviour is of only marginal effectiveness (see Dunn Ross, 1991).

'Escape' means 'getting away from restrictions' on one's desired behaviour. What follows, is an unconstrained behaviour which allows the enjoyment of "flow", i.e. "a sensation that people feel when they act within total involvement" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975:10). 'Search' on the other hand, is all about finding something thus involving a goal. Once the goal is known, the search is over and the 'trail' to achievement begins. Achievement then results in the satisfaction of goal-achievement.

In Dunn-Ross' & Iso-Ahola's case (1991, see II.4.3) of a bus-tour to Washington, the goal was "Knowledge" about The White House and explained most of the satisfaction score. Yet this is the goal, not the 'search'. If 'search' was interpreted as 'the act of achieving', however, how would this then differ from the above "flow" as the natural consequence of a successful 'Escape'?

Instead of solving the confusion attached to this terminology, it is suggested, that the distinction between inner and outer-directed values (Kahle, 1983) and their fulfilment, allows a better description and measurement of satisfaction whereby the achievement of the goal links inner and outer-directed values. In other words, inner-directed, emotional satisfaction is experienced in the 'doing of things', i.e. in the process of achieving whereas the achievement of the goal itself satisfies the outer-directed values.

This, however, still leaves other, methodological questions open, particularly the concern, what values need to be covered and how they are to be expressed. This is the
subject of the following paragraphs.

A different approach to motivation in tourism from the one above was suggested by Pearce (1982) who utilizes Maslow's hierarchy (1954). While there is the clear advantage of opening the way to additional qualitative determination as to tourists' motivation, value-orientation and type of experiences that help explain behaviour, questions must be asked pertaining to the external validity of Pearce's approach.

Particularly in the case of modern tourists, Maslow's hierarchy seems to be turned upside down. Assuming the tourist wants to self-actualize, both sociogenic and biogenic ranks can be targeted by the tourist. The concept of a hierarchy suddenly loses its sense because a tourist has, per definitionem, achieved a standard of living beyond his/her basic material needs. E.K. Scheuch recently repeated his criticism of Maslow by saying, "There exists simplistic 'spiritualism' and refined 'materialism'" (1988:9) which implies that the tourist can target both sociogenic as well as biogenic levels in order to satisfy the perceived need of self-actualization.

Thus Pearce's notion of 'travel career' also becomes questionable. For Pearce, 'travel career' equals a 'motivational career' whereby ever higher order values (Maslow, 1957) are sought, the more travel experience tourists have. If Scheuch's criticism from above is accepted, i.e. that one can self-actualize both by e.g. having a fine meal in a foreign restaurant, or by spending a few days in a buddhist temple, learning how to meditate and chant mantras as part of a package tour through Asia, then Pearce's principles of deriving a travel career are negated. It is the particular format Pearce has chosen for his methodology, which underrates the complexity and depth of tourists' experiences.

In addition, whilst employing a set of values that, potentially, covers all human experiences, employing a hierarchy of values in order to organize the interpretation of behaviour and goals, creates problems, as the above discussion shows. Pearce attempted to gain a structure and measurement of importance by using the hierarchical approach. Negating it, however, as done here, still leaves the original problem of finding an organizing principle.

It is particularly the nature of behaviour that requires scrutiny. At times, a certain act is a means to an end, during other times, this act can be an end in itself. Simple observation seldom allows conclusive results as to what type of behaviour (motivation) is at hand. We therefore have to employ stochastic methods that build on prediction-models. Inferential or hypothetico-deductive procedures then help draw conclusions. The two-factor model of satisfaction is such a model and will be discussed after a closer look at the difficulty of applying Cohen's approach to the multitude of motivations and situations in tourism.
II.5.3 The Complexity of Situational Parameters and Typologies

Cohen's socio-philosophical approach (1977) which created three experiential categories, was stated as being more complex than the 'search' and 'escape' dichotomy. While Pearce's categories appear easy to understand and seemingly simple to verify, Cohen's categories require a much more elaborate approach. This begins with the definition of the categories (experimental, experiential and existential traveller) for differing situations and, referring to a methodology that elicits and distinguishes the various categories, continues with the operationalization of these categories.

Cohen defines these categories (experimental etc.) in connection with exemplary behaviours. In the review, it has been suggested that these categories, understood as motives, find a situational background in the continuum of 'authentic experiences' to 'staged experiences' which Cohen sourced from McCannel (1976). While each of the models by themselves have intellectual appeal, together they point into the direction of forming an operationalizable and testable model. But it is precisely the gap between the socio-philosophical definition underlying these categories and the behaviours, that might qualify for one, rather than another category, which expose both models to the risk of becoming tautological. Since filling that gap relies on describing and categorizing behaviour, rather than verifying underlying motivation, it is a risk all typologies can fall victim to as will be explained presently.

The search for motivations of tourists, which often infers motives from situational parameters, has produced a host of tourist typologies (e.g. Plog (1974) V.I.Smith (1977), Opaschowski (1977), Schmitz-Scherzer (1977), Butler (1980), Hartmann, 1982). Yet these often appear to be reductionists’ views which do not stand the test of time or place or can only be generalized or applied in a limited way.

Also, typologies run the danger of being tautological when people are grouped into categories according to behavioural criteria. Subsequently, category-membership is then regarded as the reason for observed behaviour. Consequently, typologies are tautological since they refer to themselves, explaining nothing (Braun, 1989).

While typologies attempt to simplify the wide spectrum of possible behaviours, it is due to the fact that tourists can engage in a number of different roles while on holidays which puts the credibility of many typologies under strain.

Judith Adler (1989) points out that a tourist is likely to assume a certain role she likes to perform during a vacation. That role, in turn, might be exchanged temporarily with others. She regards tourism as a particular kind of self-expression and therefore advocates the adoption of the view that perceives tourism as a form of art. She implicates a tourist’s longing for a synergetic effect as the tourist industry’s major aim to satisfy. The longing itself is expressed in the various types of behaviours tourists pursue.

Nowadays, we accept adjectives describing travel, such as 'adventurous', 'picaresque', 'philosophical' or 'sentimental', as being characteristic of travel styles.
These styles, so Adler,

"are reproduced unconsciously, out of common dependence on similar technologies and institutions as well as shared preoccupations rooted in the whole pattern of a group's life". (1989:1372)

Reviewing literature of 25 centuries, the above author concludes that while new styles have emerged, old ones are rarely discarded and several styles can often occur within one holiday performed by one individual. It is this (situational) diversity of behaviours which leave many typologies, though often useful, wanting in precision and validity over time and space. Again, this forces the focus from substitutable product-parameters away to the tourist's perception of those parameters.

As our literature review and the discussion of motives and motivations indicated, addressing the issue of categorizing situations and behaviours, is best accomplished by beginning with a comprehensive set of motives capable of describing all human needs. While people differ as to which needs they adhere to and in what order, they particularly differ in how they satisfy those needs.

This 'how' introduces situational parameters the width and breadth of which can only be described with the richness of both "daily life" and the historical Gestalt its behavioural expressions, its growth, values and aims have taken, as indicated by Judith Adler above. The merging of motives as expressions of the requirements of daily life by way of learnt strategies and (hedonically) chosen and prepared situations (holidays away from home) turns those motives into motivations.

The interactive notion inherent in the concept of motivation gives rise to the sociological term of 'values' as the term for learnt strategies of adaptation, that make various situations functionally equivalent and suitable for satisfying certain motives.

In summary, this section highlights three issues a model of satisfaction in tourism has to confront and solve.

The first relates to a set of values which are capable of covering and categorizing all aspects of human behaviour.

Secondly, this has to occur in such a way that it is revealed as to how the tourist perceives an object, situation or event and whether the behaviour involved is a means to an end or an end in itself.

The third issue covers the situational parameters which, in a way, fuse the above two issues, in that the perception of varying objects etc., while objectively different, can be functionally equivalent and serve the satisfaction of the same value.

Values are thus the mediating element between the subject and objects. The functional equivalence of situations is, however, categorizeable by way of applying the
This dissertation uses Kahle's List of Values (1983), as the in-depth presentation (1.5) has mentioned. Several spheres to the notion of values which, in their entirety, promise to enhance our understanding of what type of satisfaction individuals actually experience and what they experience as increasing satisfaction.

In order to prepare for the model of values as used in this dissertation, it is opportune to mention the two-factor theory and problems arising when using it for actually measuring satisfaction.

II.5.4 Instrumental and Expressive Perceptions: The Flaw in Maddox' Argument against the Two-Factor Theory

This section will detail some arguments, which show, that it is well worth while to continue research with the intention of structuring the satisfaction construct for further evaluation and operationalization.

The reader might be excused for being a little confused by the use of the terms 'instrumental' and 'expressive' satisfaction (e.g. Maddox, 1981) as it occurs in the consumer behaviour literature, and the use of these terms regarding values in our first chapter.

Indeed, both uses refer to the same phenomenon, however, one as input, in the form of expectations, and the other one as the performance-outcome of product usage, as originally conceived by Herzberg et al. (1959), and in the consumer behaviour literature. The terms 'functional' (for expressive) and 'technical' (for instrumental) as used by Gronroos (1982) appear more apt to characterize the nature of the performance of product attributes. Both refer to a consumer' perception of this performance. Functional product attributes denote qualitative performance, while technical attributes denote quantitative performance. Quality is humanistic, and quantity is mechanistic (Holbrook & Corfman, 1985).

It appears, that the value literature defines these terms in such a way, that they stand as logically valid arguments. However, as the discussion of Miceli's and Castelfranchi's thesis has shown and an excursion into linguistics and the use of language tried to illustrate (see 1.5.4), it all ends in the age-old discussion as to what type of perception is true, that of the phenomenological or that of the subjective point of view (see 1.5.1).

This dissertation deals with tourists' behaviour and has therefore consistently argued for the tourist's point of view, since his perception of reality is what impacts on and directs his behaviour (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1967). This, however, does not preclude the strong possibility, that people as individuals and as a whole do not have 'true', phenomenological knowledge as well.
As mentioned in the previous section on satisfaction research in tourism marketing, Whipple et al. (1986) employ the two-factor theory in order to evaluate the importance of instrumental and expressive elements on a bus tour.

In this example, the 'visit to Niagara Falls' and the 'Minolta Tower', an 'Eddy Arnold concert' and 'lodging' were all considered to be expressive, while 'seating at the concert', 'escort services', 'coach travel', 'luggage' and 'pick-up points' were considered to be instrumental. Relevant to us here is only one of Whipple et al. targeted questions, i.e. do experiential aspects of service modify or determine satisfaction with the attraction of the tour? These authors find that performance ratings of instrumental characteristics are significantly related to performance ratings for expressive characteristics of the tour.

Rob W. Lawson (1992) points out that the above group of researchers use one-item, global questions for the expressive elements of the tour. In the light of the complexity of such an experience, however, it would be difficult to isolate which particular aspect of, for example, the visit to the concert brought about the (expressive) satisfaction.

Overall marginally conclusive results led Lawson to write that,

"...there is little point in trying to measure satisfaction with global questions for particular activities or tourism components such as accommodation or transport" (1991).

Reassessing data gathered by the New Zealand Tourism Board in 1986, Lawson (1991) also tests the two-factor theory on common bi-polar scales. While finding some strong evidence for the two-factor theory, overall, he comes to the conclusion that major issues to be dealt with refer to

1. the classification of attributes within the expressive/instrumental dichotomy
2. determining a consistent and the most appropriate level of attribute analysis
3. the validation of rating scales and in particular the appropriateness of bipolar scales to measure satisfaction to dissatisfaction on a single continuum

The rejection of the instrumental-expression paradigm is mostly attributed to Maddox' (1981) replication of Swan & Combs' (1976) experiment (see Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988; Oliver & Westbrook, 1991; Yi, 1990). This continued persistence in the validity of his findings warrants some detailed comments.
In this replication, Maddox concludes that the two-factor method produced, at best, ambiguous results and, after giving a hypothetical example, that the concept is nonsensical. The example is designed to uncover weaknesses in the mono-polar school of thought and pitches the price of a product versus its design. For the two-factor model, only the improvement of design can enhance satisfaction. Price, on the other hand, only works on dissatisfaction. This splits satisfaction into two continua, from 'totally dissatisfied to not dissatisfied' and from satisfied to totally satisfied'. Maddox disputes, "Common sense and the traditional view [of satisfaction as a bi-polar continuum] support the notion that either an improvement in appearance or a price reduction would result in more satisfied consumers. One action may be more potent than the other, but neither would be inappropriate" (1981:102)

Swan & Combs' methodology uses open-ended questions to report good and bad experiences with certain products in order to show that "satisfaction will tend to be associated with expressive outcomes, and dissatisfaction will tend to be associated with instrumental outcomes" (1976:27). Maddox (1981) describes this technique as unwieldy and the answers as difficult to code, with many answers remaining ambiguous. He rightfully points out that results rely on "categorizing outcomes", i.e. that the interpretation of answers is crucial for this model of satisfaction and that a coherent system is needed.

Yet, as executed in this instance, utilizing a nominal system which attributes the same weight to an instrumental answer as it does to an expressive answer, is most likely unjust towards the respondent and his/her answer. It does not take note of the cognitive structures respondents employ which could reveal the centrality, complexity, abstractness and realism (see 1.5.2.1, Grunow-Lutter, 1983), in other words, what function products and their attributes maintain within a person’s perceptual system.

When considering particularly inner-directed expressive values, the reliance on verbal descriptions of satisfaction experiences is most difficult since it depends very much on an individual’s capability and willingness to express himself.

If researchers, as in Swan & Trawick’s case, utilize frequencies of utterances describing performance perceptions, two very different tasks have to be accomplished. Firstly, the interpretation of the utterances needs to properly identify whether items are referring to the instrumental or the expressive sphere. Secondly, and more importantly, the items have to be weighted. While, nominally, one instrumental reason for satisfaction is as much as one expressive reason, both are unlikely to be of similar importance when considering the Not-Yet conscious character (Bloch, 1985) of emotions or, in other words, the difficulties involved in cognizing and verbalizing emotion-awareness (see also de Rivera, 1989; Rollenhagen & Dalkvist, 1989).

Furthermore, as Prentice has reported, individual dispositions determine one’s propensity to either expressive or instrumental values (see 1.5.4, Prentice, 1987). This, however, does not necessarily imply that those who favour instrumental reasons for
possessions and behaviours have no notion of expressive feelings. It is quite possible that such people simply reject the premise of expressive values intuitively, i.e. they agree that expressive values do not specify what they are good for and thus insist on an instrumental argument (see discussion, I.5.4, Miceli & Castelfranchi, 1989).

Maddox’ conclusion in the replication of Swan & Combs’ test points to researchers’ next task, "- categorizing outcomes" (Maddox, 1981:101). As our discussion here shows, however, and as it is indicated by Lawson (1992) above, it is the conceptualization of the satisfaction-dichotomy that is of crucial importance. Prior to Maddox’ categorization, we require to understand the respondent’s perception of his or her own answer or a model capable of approximating this perception.

Maddox reveals a somewhat careless attitude in his example on the interchangeability of value and price and precisely points to the conceptual weakness in testing the model. Price, while often considered to be a tangible aspect of the product-service system (Duffy & Mueller-Heumann, 1990) can also be regarded as symbolic of the reward for the effort the consumer has undertaken to obtain the product. At this point, an instrumental value turns into an outer-directed expressive value. It is the ostensible ambiguity which classifies Maddox’ example as unsuitable to prove a point against the mono-polar view of satisfaction.

As a consequence and in order to avoid the above pitfalls outlined by Rob Lawson, the subsequent model for values fuses values as strategies with the two-factor model and incorporates the latter’s distinction between instrumental and expressive values. In other words, the role of instrumental and expressive values as a strategy to adapt to the environment, is joined to the two-factor model’s proposition that product attributes have either instrumental or expressive meanings to the tourist.

Regarding the issue of scales mentioned above (Lawson, 1991), the methodology employed in this dissertation designed two sets of scales, one for satisfaction and the other for dissatisfaction.

II.5.5 Macroscopic and Microscopic Approaches

The previous three sections have dealt with the issues of motivation, situational parameters to be included when measuring satisfaction processes, and perception. The following section concentrates on the measuring process itself, as it has been developed in the literature review.

The review of the satisfaction literature has produced an array of findings which were broadly distinguished into a macroscopic and a microscopic approach.

The macroscopic approach, referring to QoL or domains thereof, revealed that overall satisfaction is, in part, a response to satisfaction levels with a wide variety of individual domains (Campbell, 1976; Andrews and Whithey, 1976; Hofstätter, 1986; Lounsbury & Hoopes, 1985). This demonstrates respondents’ psychophysical capabilities
of measuring one phenomenon across a wide variety of different subject areas. However, 
global satisfaction analyses often suffer from low explanations of variances indicating 
further, undetected variables or impacts on the formation process (Campbell, 1967; 

These researchers' lack of success to explain a larger proportion of variance, may 
well lie with the nature of the experience of Quality of Life.

Global approaches that measure QoL suffer from the fact that they ask for levels 
of satisfaction with continuous experiences. This fact forms a caveat that is particularly 
highlighted by Hofstätter (1986). In researching levels of expectations and satisfaction, 
he repeatedly found a 'rule' whereby people felt their expectations had been satisfied by 
2/3 or around 65%. He attributes this astonishing result precisely to the continuity of 
experiences in that people adjust their expectations of outcomes and their consequences 
as they experience them.

In other words, priorities and weightings of outcomes and consequences are, 
more or less, continuously restructured as they are experienced and as they can be 
predicted. At the same time, there occurs a rearrangement of motivations introducing 
new levels of intensity and persistence for new goals (see I.2.2.5, Atkinson & Birch, 
1970). With the introduction of new goals come requirements for action control. As 
Kuhl (1985) asserts, cognitive methods for action control can stretch from controlling 
attention, encoding and emotions, through to the control of information processing, the 
overcoming of setbacks, and failures and the control of the environment. This complex 
process forms part of a wider learning process taking place during the experience. All 
these intra-subjective and interactive processes cause expectations to differ from final 
performance measurements.

Satisfaction measurements of continuous processes are thus fraught with 
difficulties when trying to separate extraneous influences of control-mechanisms and 
'noise' occurring because of rearrangements of priorities in dynamic processes. One 
should also take note here that, in addition, the effects of dissonance (Festinger, 1957) 
or assimilation and contrast effects (Sherif and Hovland, 1961) further complicate 
interpretations of satisfaction measurements.

Any enquiry into satisfaction should therefore strive to gain access to respondents 
before and after experiences, especially if the experience is a complex one, rather than 
only afterwards. Also, as far as possible, the experience should be seen as being 
completed or terminated.

Research should, furthermore, include all contributing parameters in order to gain 
a complete picture accounting for differing emphases or levels of importance attributed 
to differing aspects of an experience. As various researchers stated or indicated, results 
are often affected by extraneous variables that have not formed part of the enquiry (e.g. 
Lounsbury & Hoopes, 1985; Westbrook & Reilly, 1983).
II.5.6 Disconfirmation and Surprise

The microscopic approach to satisfaction in the consumer behaviour literature has centred on modelling and measuring the traditional bi-polar view of satisfaction. The Consumer Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction (CS/D) model measures deviations from the expected outcome and classifies outcomes as dissatisfactory when they are 'less', and as satisfactory when they are 'more' than expected. Earlier approaches concentrated on expectation and perception of performance (Miller, 1977; Day, 1977; Miller, 1972; Olson and Dover, 1976). Oliver (1977), stressed the importance of the value of disconfirmation as an additional explanatory variable. Today, the outcome of an experience and consequences are technically separated (Tse & Wilton, 1988). Conceptually, however, the value and validity of the disconfirmation measure has not been fully integrated into the model.

In other words, disconfirmation is recognized as an important factor in satisfaction formation, yet, how it relates to expectations, is not fully understood. This can be seen in reported findings which measure the impact of antecedents to satisfaction. They often state that disconfirmation and performance-evaluation have a greater (statistical) impact on satisfaction than expectations. These reports fail to address the issue that disconfirmations are a function of expectations. It raises the question of the external validity of expectation measurements.

This dissertation wants to address this last issue as it's solution is thought to be based in the difference between the qualities of instrumentality and expressiveness and a respondent's capability to express the underlying experience. That both qualities require different approaches lies with the fact that instrumentalities are cognitively penetrable whereas expressive experiences and levels of satisfaction are much more difficult to grasp cognitively (see discussion I.5.4).

Satisfaction itself has been defined as a 'surprise' reaction (Oliver, 1981) and, in the service-quality literature, as the satisfaction of expectations as to what service givers "should offer rather than would offer" (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1988:17). Westbrook and Reilly (1983) follow the arithmetic implications of the CS/D model but criticise the CS/D approach in that it does not "provide sufficient differentiation between cognitive and evaluative notions" (1983:257).

As the literature review implied, the number of parameters included in a model that measures satisfaction is crucial as to its success. Oliver's notion that satisfaction is a summary evaluation of the surprise inherent in a product acquisition would imply, that the customer has not included the possibility of certain outcomes when forming expectations. As such, surprise is an (instinctive) emotional reaction to events or situations that cause organisms to re-evaluate their situation (Tomkins, 1962).

In the case of a tourist travelling to a scenic destination, he most likely anticipates (or wishes) 'to be surprised'. In this case, and based on findings of the "new look" school, the stronger a hypothesis, i.e. the more a tourist wishes to be surprised, the more likely it is that surprise is aroused. Also, the more she wishes to be surprised, the
smaller the amount of stimulus information necessary to confirm it. Lastly, the stronger a hypothesis contained in the expectation to be surprised, the more stimulus information is needed to refute it (Lilli, 1978).

Thus if all parameters are present in the expectant tourist, then an outcome which exceeds expectations is, more adequately, a learning process. While surprise can be present, it does not necessarily follow that satisfaction ensues. Surprise can leave a person shocked and ultimately dissatisfied, despite a positive or advantageous outcome.

To regard satisfaction as a possible outcome of a learning process also appears to be conceptually sounder since satisfaction always seems to occur with positively inclined expectations (Hofstätter, 1986). Francken & van Raaij (1981) classify "true" satisfaction and dissatisfaction as having either optimistic or pessimistic expectations as precursors.

II.5.7 The Number of Parameters to be Included

Surprise apart, satisfaction also refers to the perception of spiritual or mental wholeness, contentness and being at peace with oneself. As an outcome, satisfaction is therefore a much more complex phenomenon and research has to find the relative importance of objects, events or situations in this outcome. When motivated, a person might almost single-mindedly pursue a goal and regard it as most important. Yet, when achieved, the goal might constitute but one necessary component for a desired consequence. This is supported by reports that found differing importance evaluations of motives before and after an experience (Iso-Ahola & Allen, 1982; Whipple et al., 1986).

Recent progress in measuring satisfaction with service in the consumer behaviour literature suffers from an artificial delimitation which endangers a true understanding of customers' levels of satisfaction. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1986, 1988) limit their enquiry, a priori as it were, to a certain number of parameters. By claiming that customers' expectations regarding services contain what a service provider "should" offer rather than "would" offer, they indicate a 'ceiling' in customers' horizon of expectations. This ceiling, however, is never substantiated and the difference between "should" and "would" remains unclear allowing both instrumental and expressive expectations at the discretion of the researcher; their enquiry into satisfaction with service of different types of operations extends to mostly instrumental aspects of a service delivery.

Parasuraman et al. performed a factor analysis on surveys conducted in a variety of service organisations. The authors maintain to have found five generic dimensions (tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy). Replications and studies modelled on the above, have since had difficulties in confirming these five dimensions (e.g. Carman, 1990).
II.5.8.1 Values Revisited

The research presented in the above chapters mostly acknowledges the mediating influence of values and their related concepts of norms and standards. However, the impact of the latter three concepts, including their fundamental differences, on helping explain satisfaction formation, has been severely impeded by the lack of commonly accepted definitions and functions.

Values have featured particularly in reports on satisfaction with community life and recreation activities, where it has been stated, that not the frequency of activities but rather the type of activities and thus the values that were satisfied, were of importance (see Clawson & Knetsch, 1966; Riddick, 1986; Russel, 1987).

The inclusion of values in satisfaction research poses a substantial problem. As the previous discussion on values demonstrated (1.5), expressive elements of satisfaction are not or only in part cognitively penetrable. Referring to the cognitive part of outer-directed expressive values (i.e. those that imbue objects with symbolic meanings), there are a number of items to consider. These refer to the complexity and consonance, as well as the abstractness of objects in a person's cognitive structure, and his/her propensity to realism (see 1.5.2.1 above, Grunow-Lutter, 1983).

Depending on how a person has acquired knowledge and beliefs, e.g. via association as asserted by behaviourists (e.g. Hull, 1943; B.F. Skinner, 1957), via 'insight' or 'understanding' as promoted by Gestalt psychologists (Lewin, 1942; Koffka, 1935; Katona, 1940), through imitation (Bandura, 1962), or through information processing (Gagné, 1977; Feigenbaum and Feldmann, 1963), the respective structures of cognitive systems will differ.

Due to this complexity of values and their formation as strategies to adapt oneself to the environment, and/or the environment to one's own needs, it must be expected that cognitively penetrable values have a measurably stronger influence on satisfaction formation than those values which are difficult to cognize. These latter values are, of course, emotional values.

II.5.8.2 Measuring Values

Westbrook and Reilly (1983), criticise the lack of attention paid to the evaluatory dimension in the CS/D model. In order to amend this deficiency, they also employ values, amongst other items, in their survey of restaurant visitors. The survey measured expectations (post hoc) and satisfaction in one application. Since this author was unable to acquire sufficient information, the reported astonishment over their "surprising" results confirming neither the CS/D model nor their value-percept model is open to conjecture (Westbrook & Reilly, 1983:259). However, it is possible, that these findings could be attributed to the impact the actual experience has made on prior expectations.
The impact of the experience refers to both emotional and cognitive values and expectations. If Westbrook and Reilly indeed measured expressive as well as instrumental values, the recognition of the (hypothesised) difference in cognitive and emotional values is essential.

The CS/D model thus appears in a somewhat new light as well. In order to combat the dangers of mixing two different types of values, each with their differing impacts, and thus a certain likelihood of misinterpreting results, it appears as opportune, to differentiate between overall satisfaction as an emotional response (see Oliver, 1981) and the satisfaction with individual aspects of an experience. Furthermore, these individual aspects or domains need to be assessed as to their individual complexity. The simple formula that measures satisfaction as

"experiences minus expectations = outcome => satisfaction"

occurring in several variations (for summaries see Hofstätter, 1986; Tse & Wilton, 1988; Churchill & Surprenant, 1982), needs to be revised. It requires the inclusion of the effect of variables which measure the emotional content or, as will be hypothesised, the inclusion of the drive-reduction theory (Hull, 1943).

The summarizing paragraph on values above (II.5.4.1, give p) has tried to convey, that value-acquisition is based on a wide variety of types of learning. The corresponding mental and neural structures are thus different and either more cognitive or more emotional by nature.

Uncovering these varying constellations of cognitive and emotional structures requires a differentiated approach that takes note of the inherent difficulty in cognizing emotions. It requires a methodology which acknowledges the 'poetic' quality of a Gestalt, as given in emotions, which either help cause behaviour or is the result of behaviour and experiences.

Furthermore, it requires due notice of the fact whether one is dealing with a instrumental or expressive experiences and whether product-performance is indeed an experience of quantities or instrumentalities or one of qualities. In other words, the quality of expectations must always be considered.

II.5.9 Summary of Criticisms Relating to the Literature Review

To summarize the criticism lodged here at consumer behaviour as well as at approaches to satisfaction and findings in the leisure, recreation and tourism literature review, there are six major points.

1. The phenomenon of satisfaction requires further detailed studies than those that have been presented to date. Particularly, the question of the role of motivations and expectations as precursors to an experience and to satisfaction formation need attention. If Heckhausen's model (1989, see I.0) of motivated
action, and the impact of various types of expectations as classified by the inherent levels of control of the experiencing person, can be verified, a more substantiated model of the impacts of expectations and their sub-categories can be developed.

This is particularly important in light of the conflicting reports on the impact of former experience and expectation on new or renewed experiences. (Latour & Peat, 1979; Thirkell and Vredenburg, 1982; Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins, 1987; Westbrook, 1977; Westbrook & Reilly 1983.

2. While 'control' played a major role in Vaske's et al. approach measuring satisfaction with recreation (1982), the definition of control depended on the objective availability of target-objects. These researchers thus measured only one aspect but neglected variables such as level of involvement or perceived ability to influence situations at hand.

Since this has important implications on parameter estimations and satisfaction outcomes, reasonable doubts exist as to whether adequate model building can progress without due analysis of the total character of expectations. Related to this is the question of the nature of values. If values are indeed as proposed here, then the CS/D model requires fundamental extensions.

3. Frequently, expectations have been measured post hoc. Such methodological shortcuts invite the criticism that expectations have not been properly measured. Action and experiences have their own dynamics causing people to constantly reassess their expectations as a function of motivations and the achievement of desired outcomes. Thereby, people rearrange priorities and manipulate intensities and levels of persistence either cognitively and/or via emotions (see I.4.3, Kuhl, 1985). As a result, the learning process that takes place during an experience modifies motivational aspects which, subsequently, can distort reports of prior expectations, particularly when a big time-gap occurred between expectation formation and the report of results on satisfaction.

4. Furthermore, consumer behaviour deals mostly with tangible products. Concentrating on performance aspects of tangible elements reduces the enquiry to prevalently instrumental aspects and runs the risk of equating outcomes, rather than consequences with satisfaction (see I.1.0 and Vroom, 1964). In those cases, where expressive experiences, i.e. experiences with intangible aspects, are included, conceptualizations of this sphere have been shown as wanting. As a result, the number of parameters included in enquiries can be suspected of being incomplete.

5. Regarding values, the consumer behaviour literature shows a lack of recognition of types and impacts of values on expectations, product experience and satisfaction formation. The criticism lodged against the two-factor model of instrumental and expressive spheres in satisfaction formation (Maddox, 1981) appears to be lacking in substance in that methodological rather than conceptual issues have been addressed. The most important issue, however,
refers to the two-factor model as well as to the cognitive structure and its interaction with emotions during experiences. This will be discussed in more detail in the next section prior to introducing the model for this dissertation.

6. As the review of tourism literature has shown, conflicting findings between subjective reports and objective tests (Gebauer, 1982; Franke, 1986; Mundt & Lohmann, 1988), the question of parameter verification for satisfaction research requires improvement.

7. The above demand becomes particularly important when considering Mundt & Lohmann’s literature review into measuring recreation and benefits of holidays, which concludes that the juxtaposition of the experiences are a mere "social stereotype". While this "combination ... seems to appear as immediately convincing, it often remains unclear as to what is actually meant by recreation" (1988:137; not highlighted in the original). In conjunction with our discussion of values, it has been made clear that tourism is merely one form of satisfying expressive values but not the representation of those value per se. Thus all motivations have to be considered as possibly encouraging people to travel and as forming part of satisfaction formation. Care should be taken to reveal differences in the motivational mix, rather than in the intensity of single motivations (see Thurstone’s law of comparative judgement, 1927).
PART III

The Value Model of Satisfaction

Methodology

Results

and

Conclusion
PART III

Chapter 1

III.1.1 Values

In the section reviewing satisfaction with leisure and recreation (II.2.4) it has been repeatedly noted, that levels of satisfaction are neither determined by the type nor the frequency of an activity, but rather the values people see fulfilled in these activities. Values help determine levels of satisfaction more accurately. It is for this reason that the value literature has been discussed in detail.

Values are learnt strategies that help in the process of adaptation to the environment and in the process of adapting the environment to one's own needs. It has been demonstrated that values link the individual with objects in a self-implicating way (see Kahle, 1983). We distinguished between expressive and instrumental values whereby expressive ones are ends in themselves and instrumental ones are referring to means. Instrumental values form logical sets of arguments in that their functional elements are set in a deductive relationship.

Instrumental and expressive values are often in a means-end relationship whereby e.g. physical objects are used for expressive ends. The latter are what has been termed outer-directed expressive values. These tend to endow objects, situations or events in the objective world with symbolic meanings that serve expressive values. They are outer-directed because they refer to specific objects. Expectations based on outer-directed expressive values are goal-oriented and, to a large extent, cognitively penetrable since they are formed on knowledge and beliefs about that specific object. That part which is not cognitively penetrable (marked by broken lines in Figure III.1, below), refers to a longing or craving which belongs to the 'Not-Yet conscious' (Bloch, 1985) as it is found in reactions to poetry, works of art or holistic experiences that touch an individual's self. The enjoyment of external objects, which are endowed with (self-) expressive symbolism comes from the self in the form of drives. While the enjoyment or exposure reduces the drive, it confirms (cognitive) attitudes.

Inner-directed expressive values also come from the Self and refer back to the Self as do outer-directed expressive values. In this case, however, the value or motive is difficult to penetrate cognitively. Rather, there occurs a feeling-type of awareness or a tendency as to the class of objects and situations which satisfy that value. Such values are strongly emotional and their satisfaction results in drive-reductions. Freudian psychoanalysis or (Eastern) meditation-techniques target and attempt to penetrate this type of emotional drive or value system.

The experience itself, however, as compared to the motivation, planning and organization stages, is far more complex and concrete. It has been said that the interactive patterns of this experience make "daily life ... the only appropriate metaphor
for understanding tourism" (Machlis & Burch, 1983:669). Machlis & Burch stake out the horizon of tourists' experiences and indicate the width and breadth of the substance on which satisfaction is formed.

III.1.2 The Values to be Tested

Figure III.1 represents the model to be tested. It consists of three major parts and depicts an individual's interaction with his/her environment. The first part is the emotional self. The second part is the cognitive self, and the third part depicts the objective reality. The objective reality is divided into that part which the individual can cognize objectively and that one which are perceived subjectively. Perceptions and cognitions operate via (sensory) feelings, knowledge, beliefs and affects.

Instrumental values are cognitive and interact with the objective world in a cognitive way.

Outer-directed expressive values come from the self but have strongly cognized structures. These values interact with the objective world but are subjectively motivated. In the process of adaptation, these values strengthen attitudes, since their cognitive structures can be confirmed in a similar manner as instrumental values, however, not always logically. To the extent that outer-directed expressive values are emotionally motivated, satisfaction of these values also reduces drives.

Inner-directed expressive values come from the self and interact with the objective world on a subjective level, without involving cognitions other than at a level of awareness, that emotions are being satisfied. The awareness refers to a class of objects or activities. These types of values are satisfied in the flow of action or the process of exposure to objects. They strengthen emotion-awareness of the instrumentality of objects or activities.

Figure III.1 A Model of Values as Strategies to Satisfy Needs and Wants
Motivated action is based on learnt strategies to satisfy felt needs or wants. These strategies can be approximated by values. Values help in adapting one’s needs and wants to the environment or the environment to one’s needs and wants. Commonly, we distinguish between two types of values, instrumental and expressive ones.

The instrumental values are those which form fitting premises in a logical argument. E.g., 1. Cars run on petrol. 2. My tank is empty. 3. My car can’t run because it has no petrol.

Expressive values differ from these in that they refer to premises as if they were forming an objectively deductive argument. However, under scrutiny, the semantics would reveal no or no obvious logical relationship. E.g., 1. I am tired and exhausted. 2. Bush walking recreates. 3. I go bush walking because I am tired and exhausted.

In statistical terms, attitudes formed on the basis of instrumental values have the power to correlate the strongest with satisfaction scores since a positive relationship between a response to a logical consequence that solves its underlying problem must be positively related to satisfaction. E.g., 1. Cars run on petrol. 2. My tank is empty. 3. My car can’t run because it has no petrol. 4. Solution: I buy petrol. 5. Outcome: I am satisfied because I have got petrol and can drive my car. Instrumental values can be presented as being the 'hard' data available to consumer behaviourists.

Outer-directed expressive values utilize objects outside of the self and endow them with symbolic meaning. Inner-directed expressive values seek and respond to a type or class of objects, situations or events. They differ in degree but not in kind. Inner-directed expressive values transcend the specificity of objects, i.e. they have the greatest power to abstract from given situations.

Outer-directed expressive values contain a cognitive structure. Satisfaction of outer-directed values are attitude strengthening (i.e. consolidating the cognitive structure). The amount of emotional content determines the extent to which a drive reduction occurs. For inner-directed expressive values the drive reduction is stronger than for outer-directed expressive values. A cognitive response to drive-reduction results in emotion awareness.

The strongest correlation with overall satisfaction, as an hedonic experience measured by the self, is given by the satisfaction of inner-directed expressive values, the least is formed by the satisfaction of instrumental values.

The judgement of overall satisfaction is a measurement of an emotional response to an experience. In other words, such a judgement employs cognition to measure emotion awareness. It is therefore not free of cognitive elements. The "inferred" measurement (Swan & Trawick, 1981) of disconfirmation, i.e. the (arithmetic) difference between the outcome-scores of the experience (the attitude measurement of performance) and expectation-scores, is a 're-inacted' measurement of the experience itself in relation to expectations and outcome.

The disconfirmation measurement of outer-directed expressive values indicates
the confirmation of expectations in terms of an increase in attitudinal strength. Conversely, the disconfirmation measurement of inner-directed values is a measurement of the amount of drive-reduction that occurred.

The "perceived" disconfirmation (Swan & Trawick, 1981), i.e. the evaluation by the respondent of the disconfirmation is a cognitive comparison of expectations and consequences of outcomes (in the form of "I am more/less satisfied than expected"). The "inferred" disconfirmation was defined as the difference between individual expected and experienced product attributes. The perceived disconfirmation can be regarded as a quasi-independent measurement, as the latter asks the respondent to give an overall measurement of his perception irrespective of measured attributes before and after the experience.

Because the psychophysical comparison between a felt level of emotional satisfaction and expectations occurs predominantly cognitively (see mnemonization, Tolman, 1932), the relationship between inner-directed values and outer-directed values to the 'more/less' statement is inverse to that of their relationship to overall satisfaction. I.e., in this case, the outer-directed values and attitudes in satisfaction statements are stronger related to perceived measurements than the inner-directed ones.

III.1.3 Theoretical Propositions

The two main propositions of this dissertation are that,

a) values control motivations and organize perceptions, i.e. values respond to drives and structure expectancies,

b) satisfaction is a complex and total response and a measurement of experiences, the perception of which is guided by the initial values.

A. EXPECTATIONS

1. Tourists' expectations structure and organize perceptions. They impact on satisfaction-judgements in that,

a) : perceptual dimensions of expectations, experience and final attitudes do, overall, not differ

b) : expectations of outer-directed values are correlated with "perceived" satisfaction measurements if both are more cognitive than emotional in
structure¹.

c) : the more activities are intended but not performed, the less satisfied tourists are.

**B. SATISFACTION**

2. In tourism, the **process** of achieving a goal differs from having achieved a goal. This implies that,

   a) : the process of achieving (i.e. experiencing "flow", Csikszentmihalyi, 1975) marks the experience

   b) : the process of achieving serves to reduce drives

   c) : goal-achievement increases attitude strength

   Furthermore, the experience of satisfaction is complex, whereby both emotional and cognitive reactions can be distinguished. This means that,

   d) : instrumental and outer-directed expressive disconfirmation scores relate strongest to cognitive aspects of satisfaction scores, inner-directed expressive relate strongest to emotional scores

   e) : all individual tourism domains (transport, entertainment etc.) are meaningfully related to and correlate with the overall satisfaction score.

¹ The "perceived" measurement is the cognitive overall-judgement of being either more or less satisfied than expected.
Chapter 2

III.2. Methodology

III.2.1 Introduction

The methodology of this survey can be characterized as exploratory and inductive. The idea for this research grew out of reading tourism marketing literature and literature referring to quality of service. The author found definitions of satisfaction as outcome of these experiences deficient and object-centred, i.e. concentrating on the product and business side, while paying only lip-service to efforts that attempt to understand the tourist and his needs more fully while conserving the resource. Also, the way in which satisfaction was measured lacked the ring of truth, i.e. not all parameters were included and research outcomes and explanations did not match the human experience of satisfaction.

The following is a brief outline of initial procedures before a more detailed presentation of the following chapters is given.

The wish to improve the understanding of customers, and in particular of tourists to New Zealand with a view of conserving and developing the resource, was guided by a humanistic approach that centres on values as an abstract system for explaining perceptions and behaviour. With this in mind, the author included literature on values in his readings.

Due to other considerations, like the need to reach tourists twice so that they could be questioned before and after their experiences, the author approached the leading campervan company of New Zealand, LEISURE PORT. Since this company had just changed its system, whereby tourists had to come to one of only two depots twice, in order to pick up their hired campervan and later to return it, the logistic problem of reaching tourists twice, appeared manageable.

Exploratory discussions with campervan tourists at their various stages of experience (before, during and after), were loosely structured at the beginning, and mostly targeted to get ideas as to how values were expressed when asking "Why did you choose a campervan for your travels?". Rokeach's (1973) value system was soon discarded as too cumbersome, while Kahle's List of Values (LOV) were easier to relate to answers given. The LOV is also claimed to be more relevant and manageable (Kahle, 1983).

Subsequently, the author began to structure exploratory discussions so that answers relating to each of the nine values in the LOV could be elicited. Two pilot studies tried to validate that approach which matched answers given by respondents to the LOV.
The exploratory analysis of the data resulted in frequent recursions to the literature in order to understand its patterns. The initial concept was merely targeting the test and verification of some parameters of satisfaction, i.e. values, and measurement issues, i.e. the two-factor theory. The value model as presented above, is the result of theoretical reflections contrasted with the form and shape of the data. It is in this sense, that the approach is inductive. The model itself, however, is sufficiently conclusive and sound in its argument, so that testing could follow the normal sequence of scientific research which develops hypotheses on the back of previous findings, then develops a methodology, executes it and tests the hypotheses.

The methodology of questionnaire development as well as the data analysis focus on the value model of satisfaction introduced previously. The items were generated in a dual approach: tourists' responses were used where ever possible to formulate the actual wording of the items and the researcher's insights were used to select appropriate items as well as to complement them. The latter was particularly the case, when for an expressive questionnaire item, a related instrumental one had to be found or formulated, or vise versa.

The survey was developed and designed after conducting in-depth interviews with campervan tourists over a period of five months (summer 1990/1991). During the same time, management of the rental company was also interviewed, so as to co-ordinate its marketing research requirements with those of the researcher. The survey was conducted over the summer period 1 November, 1991 to 30 April, 1992.

After a description of structure and sizes of exploratory interviews and the two pilot studies (III.2.2), the questionnaire development will be detailed (III.3). Initially, the scope of the survey will be covered briefly, before the reader receives some background information on the campervan market in New Zealand and the systemic elements of tourism as they offer themselves to the campervan tourist to New Zealand. On this background, the question batteries for the survey are developed. This development will be presented in detail in (III.3.7.0 - III.3.7.9), followed by a description of the sample, questionnaire administration.

III.2.2 Exploratory Work

The interviews with the tourists involved three exploratory stages and two pilot studies. The exploratory stages contacted campervan hirers in order to gather motivations and items regarding the campervan itself. Following this, the items were interpreted in the above discussed manner. Pilot I presented users of all stages (before, during and after the experience) with the questionnaire items followed by discussions of their adequacy. Pilot II then tested the entire questionnaire and its administration.

During the exploratory stage for the questionnaire development, pre-users (those who were about to take possession), users (those who were then travelling in the van) and post-users (those who had returned their vehicle) were asked in free conversations (1) as to why they had chosen a campervan for their holidays, (2) what they (had)
expected and how satisfied they were (expected to be) and (3) what they expected/experienced regarding campervan design and equipment.

The initial approach was based on attribution theory which suggests that motives for usage should be phrased by the users themselves (Kelley, 1976). Interviews of pre-users (stage I; 3 respondents) and users (stage II; 3 groups (11 tourists) and 23 individuals (travelling in pairs and one alone) generated similar reasons. However, users produced far more evaluative responses than post-users. These evaluations referred directly to tangible dimensions of the campervan.

Conversely, post-users (stage III, 2 couples) tended to produce a mixture of (campervan-) dimensional responses. Some were expressed in terms of the instrumental characteristics of the recreational vehicle. Others were expressive terms that were thought to be linked with original reasons to use a campervan prior to its use as well as to considerations of how satisfied respondents actually perceived themselves to be.

All three sets of elicited responses (from pre-users, users, post-users) showed clear signs of tendencies that appeared to be structured by the respective situation. The post-user sample showed signs of dissonance, contrast and assimilation. These effects appeared even stronger during both focus group interviews of users (stage II).

These results, i.e. that there exist perceptual differences depending on the stage of product experience, justified the 'true before and after' administration of questionnaires. Also, because the responses were determined by the respective user situation the author considered the dual approach of respondent-based and theory-based construction of survey items as valid and more productive. While wishing to use items formulated by respondents, the author wanted to be sure that all values were covered.

For this reason, Kahle's values were chosen and answers to motivation questions interpreted and matched with values. While there were many other reasons, most of them thought to be instrumental, limitations on finances and the survey format requested a cheap, efficient method of item validation.

The final list of value items was derived from discussions during stage III of the exploration and during Pilot I.

During the exploration, it became obvious, that some values were mentioned more readily than others. In the case of 'self-respect', only strong prompting seemed to elicit an answer. Here, the researcher had to take recourse to an item picked up over two focus group discussions from very early stages of the exploration.

In Pilot I, the researcher administered 10 questionnaires and had discussions with six respondents (couples) in order to arrive at a penultimate version. Pilot II administered 19 questionnaires before and after the experience.
Chapter 3

III.3.0 The Questionnaire Development

III.3.1 The Scope of the Survey, Backgrounding Tourism Parameters as Seen by the Tourist

III.3.1.1 Introduction

The survey includes six major areas,

1. Demographics
2. Targeted Activities / Attractions
3. Accommodation & Transport
4. Evaluation of Service Elements
5. Expectations and Levels of Satisfaction
6. Values / Attitudes

After a brief introduction to the campervan market to New Zealand, the reader will be lead through the development of the questionnaire. The sections are structured according to the above six points.

The campervan offers a unique form of travel in that it combines transport and accommodation in one. Besides allowing free and independent movement around the country, it sponsors a nomadic lifestyle which, by itself, forms an attraction to many tourists.

Since 1986, the commercial sector hiring campervans to international tourists coming to New Zealand, has experienced a marked increase. During this time, four major operators sold their assets to LEISURE PORT, while maintaining control over marketing channels. They were joined by a fifth company at the end of the 1980’s. Leisure Port now holds close to 90% of the campervan rental market in New Zealand. This company had, at the time of this survey, a fleet of around 900 camper vans. The next largest competitor is the privately owned 'Adventure Vans' with about 120 vans. During the season of 1 Nov.1991 - 30 April, 1992, New Zealand was visited by approximately 14,000 campervan tourists. The survey presented in this dissertation was conducted with the assistance of Leisure Port and designed for a marketing research exercise.
The variety of vans available can sleep from 2 up to 6 persons and provide cooking and kitchen facilities such as gas cookers, ovens, fridges and, more recently, microwave ovens. Larger models provide shower cubicles and portable toilets.

Besides being functionally (and comfortably) equipped homes, campervans are also a means of transport. Whilst the two-berth vans have petrol powered motors, most of the larger ones have diesel motors. Since 1990, Leisure Port has begun to standardize its fleet and aims at renewing one third of its fleet annually.

New Zealand offers three types of locations at which campervan tourists can stay overnight, free camping, commercial privately owned campgrounds, and commercial campgrounds owned and run by the Department of Conservation. The latter are often situated in, or surrounded by reserves and National Parks.

'Free camping' somewhere in the outdoors is an attractive opportunity since both danger levels from nature (e.g. snakes etc.) as well as restrictive legislation prohibiting free camping are virtually non-existent.

III.3.2 Demographics

The first section of the questionnaire uses the format given by the 1986 New Zealand Tourist Promotion satisfaction survey, in order to standardize this section and to allow easier comparisons with other samples. It also includes questions on information behaviour which go beyond the given format (items 7 b-e, 8, see Appendix 8).

III.3.3 Targeted Activities / Attractions

While the campervan offers a form of attraction in itself in that it allows free and independent movement whenever its owner chooses, it is New Zealand's 'clean and green' environment and scenic beauty that forms the major attraction.

Beside these natural attractions, New Zealand attracts visitors through its cultural diversity. The Maori culture has made its impact throughout both major islands. Apart from typical Marae-based settlements which are mainly to be found in the North Island, Maori has left a legacy of folklore, place names and ancient travel routes throughout all of Aotearoa (New Zealand). Europeans, Pacific Islanders and Asians also created attractions of historic and contemporary significance, with the European cultural influence being the strongest.

Thirdly, there are man-made attractions ranging from entertainment facilities typical for urban environments to land-based attractions. The latter contain elements of educational attractions (e.g. sheep-shearing, horticulture and wildlife preservation) as well as activities using the landscape as background. Such activities range from snow-skiing
to rafting and bungy jumping.

The fourth attraction is comprised of enterprises which target tourists with products ranging from souvenirs to specialty restaurants. Freyer (1988) defines these businesses as 'supplementary' (e.g. souvenir shops) and 'fringe' industries (e.g. restaurants), while MacIntosh and Goeldner (1984) attribute these to the general element of shopping.

The respondent was presented with a wide-ranging list of 50 possible activities (Q.13, I-VI) regarding expected participation. The wide range signals the exploratory nature of this survey and allowed a more detailed description of visitors and the image they hold of New Zealand prior to arrival. Part II of the survey, i.e. the 'after'-version, measures the frequency with which each item has been pursued (Q.22, I-VI). This permitted differentiation between intended vs. actually pursued activities and any impact on satisfaction evaluations due to activities not pursued.

Since it is not only the activity but, in accordance with the Fishbein model of reasoned action (1975), the importance a tourist attaches to an activity dimension that determines attitudes and behaviour, a set containing six items which asks respondents to assess the importance they attribute to features of a New Zealand holiday, were also included. Reflecting the salient elements of the attraction, respondents rated the importance on 5-point scales of:

Outdoor Activity Opportunities
Shopping
New Zealand's scenery
Quality of Service
Entertainment/ Going Out
New Zealand's Culture and People

III.3.4 Accommodation and Transport

During exploratory stages, tourists were asked about their expectations and levels of satisfaction with individual elements of the campervan. Answers revealed disconfirmed expectations with features of the living area (e.g. "the beds are too small", or "...not easily accessible") while others related to driving comfort ("the van hasn't got a reverse gear!" (a few US customers did not read the instructions of how to find the reverse gear) or "the diesel motor turns the van into a tractor").

Further disconfirmations appeared in response to questions of design features such as "the microwave is too high for me to reach" or "the toilet cum shower is preposterous". Discussion resulted in the admittance that the latter facilities functioned well but were not considered to be spacious enough. Others, especially those that travelled in a group, felt a lack of privacy despite the toilet being a closed-in unit.

As to the question of how satisfied users were overall, and whether the level of
satisfaction was influenced by disconfirmed expectations, users gave a mixture of answers with regard to degrees of dis/satisfaction that referred to instrumental as well as expressive attributes of the vans. Consequently, research into satisfaction was reviewed with regard to these two qualities.

The items relating to individual attributes of the campervan were designed to cover all major dimensions of interior design, comfort, practicality, equipment and detail.

The instrumental items were formulated in such a way that they express basic and functional aspects, whereas the expressive items use descriptive attributes which go beyond merely functional parameters. They appeal to hedonic dimensions and use adjectives such as "totally autonomous", "total sandfly protection", "exquisitely finished details" or "comfortable and spacious beds".

The reason for this exploratory approach stems from considerations surrounding Swan & Comb's (1976) technique of categorizing outcomes of product experiences into either instrumental or expressive answers (II.5.4).

Here, this technique is reversed in that the author uses the understanding of this dichotomy, as developed in Part I and Part II, in order to test whether it is possible to produce questionnaire items which are consistently distinguishable by tourists. This was part of the pre-test and should be viewed as confirmed before the final survey.

There are three sets of items to transport and accommodation. The developed questions refer to why tourists chose a campervan (motivation, see III.3.7, The Value Items, below) as well as what they expect tangible and intangible features of the van to be like (Q.14). Both sets of questions were presented in such a way that each reason (motivation) and campervan feature (expectation) had an expressive and an instrumental question. These motivational and expectational dimensions are represented in items elicited during exploration stages as well as in items representing areas of interest to the campervan company management.

Part II of the questionnaire (the 'after' version) repeated the same motivation questions but now rephrased as attitude measurements (Q.18 a-q). The campervan dimensions were also repeated, this time, however, as evaluatory performance items without instrumental or expressive elements attached. This way they constituted only half of the number of items as compared to the number of items in the Part I item-battery (Q.16 a-p).

The third set of questions relates to campgrounds, their types and reasons for usage (see Appendix 8, Q. 10, 19 a,b,c).
III.3.5 Evaluations of Service Elements and Infrastructure

Service is often overlooked as the mechanism by which the individual tourism elements contribute synergetically to the tourism experience. This joint contribution relies on the conceptual integration of the four technical elements of service (analysis, interpretation, combination and execution; see Gnoth, 1994, in print). Whereas package tourists are often limited in their freedom of choice regarding suppliers of individual services whilst on tour, the campervan traveller can compare and choose. He is thus more in control of outcomes, and instrumental in generating the desired consequences. It is in this sense that the choice and the process of choosing service can form an attraction in its own right.

The infrastructure of the tourism destination New Zealand includes services provided by those enterprises which local people utilize themselves such as roads, restaurants, shops and gas stations, water, sewage and rubbish facilities. Furthermore, it involves access and facilitations of sojourns for people other than locals, i.e. tourists. The interaction between tourists and locals and their respective needs and aspirations generate dynamics (through service) which help change the character of a locality up to the point, where transit routes become tourism hubs themselves (see Kearsley, 1990). It is in this sense, that the system of tourism is dynamic and the conceptual divisions between tourism elements subject to progressive change.

The evaluation of service elements refers to services provided by the campervan hiring company (Q.20, 1-6) and campgrounds as additional facilitator for accommodation etc. (Q.19, 1-6).

The questions regarding perceptions of services of each service provider were modeled on the five SERVQUAL dimensions (see II.5.7, Parasuraman et al., 1986). Respondents were prompted to express their expectations as with regards to the services they expected from these two service givers. The exploratory research verified the presence of these five dimensions in the cognitive structure of tourists.

Whilst this forms a separate issue from this dissertation, the authors of SERVQUAL claim, that these five dimensions are generic and are present in all service situations. The choice of these dimensions was guided by the wish to test this claim, as well as to satisfy requirements set by the campervan company.

The campervan hiring company and the campground item-list had a sixth item added. For the campervan company, Parasuraman’s et al. dimension of 'Responsiveness' was split into 'prompt and willing service' (Q.16, 3) and 'courteousness' (Q.16, 6). For campgrounds, the extension relates to waste water disposal systems offered on campgrounds. The exploratory stage of the questionnaire development discovered that this latter area was mentioned frequently and appeared to be impacting on enjoyment and final judgement.

It was impossible to truly measure expectations regarding the campervan-hiring company, as tourists did not receive their questionnaire until they already had encounters
with Leisure Port staff. For this reason, only levels of satisfaction were measured.

The questions regarding expectations of campgrounds were restricted to motivational items. As subsequent research has shown (Carman, 1990), claims made by Parasuraman et al. (1988) appear to be inflated.

III.3.6 Expectations and Satisfaction

Due to the two-part design of the questionnaire, the first part asks for expectations while the second asks for levels of satisfaction. The reasons for choosing a campervan are motivations based on values. This set of questions is directed towards the tourist. Another set of questions is directed towards the tourist’s expectations about the campervan. These are expectations about service elements (i.e. what the van "should" provide (Parasuraman, 1986:6).

All of these items are repeated in the 'after'-version. In addition to the above mentioned service elements are 26 items dealing with satisfaction.

The satisfaction items are based on the literature review on expectations and satisfaction as well as the subsequent discussion (II.5.1).

There are two types of questions. One type asks only whether tourists have been satisfied or not (two 5-point scales). These two questions are common to all satisfaction items. The other type asks whether tourists have been more or less satisfied than expected. These latter items are the "perceived" performance evaluations (Swan & Trawick, 1981).

Giving emphasis to the two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1957), the satisfaction items were split into two scales and respondents were asked to "either" indicate their level of satisfaction "or" their level of dissatisfaction.

The inclusion of the more or less items is warranted from two other points of view, relating (1) to the Consumer Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction paradigm and (2) to psychophysical phenomena.

(1) The CS/D paradigm is built on the assumption that performance evaluations are outcomes of comparisons between expectations and performance experiences, these can therefore be either better (more) or worse (less) than expected. According to Oliver (1981), a neutral outcome is a mere confirmation of expectations.

(2) As is common in many satisfaction approaches, respondents are often asked as to how satisfied they are with an object or experience only after the experience. They therefore assume either or both of the untenable premises,
that all respondents apply the same psychophysical measure (scale) of satisfaction,

and/or related to this, assume the same level of adaptation (Helson, 1964) for all respondents.

It is in order to allow for different levels of expectations, that the 'more or less' items are included. The latter can also assist in generating an 'independent' measurement for predictions made from other 'before' and 'after' performance evaluations.

Furthermore, (Swan & Trawick, 1981) refer to "inferred" and "perceived" disconfirmations whereby the 'more or less' questions relate to the perceived disconfirmation, whereas the (arithmetic) difference between 'experienced' and 'expected' relates to an "inferred" measurement. These researchers demand that both measurements are used.

Apart from the above mentioned overall and campervan satisfaction items, the literature review and discussion resulted in the adoption of

'Equity' (e.g. Hunt, 1977, 1991; see ch.II),
'Outdoor activity opportunities',
'Shopping in New Zealand',
'Quality of service',
'Entertainment / going out', and
'New Zealand's culture and people'

as those items on which satisfaction was to be measured comprehensively. In addition, due to Germans' consistently measured high levels of importance attributed to 'good weather', this item was also included (Braun & Lohmann, 1989).

III.3.7.0 The Value Items

Value systems are currently being used to segment markets. For example, there is the commercially protected system of VALS used in the USA (Wells, 1974; Michell, 1983). Valette-Florence & Jolibert (1990) report using Rokeach's (1973) battery of 18 items as well as the French COFREMCA inventory. The latter also uses the concept of values but they are less specific and more anchored within the individual than the US AIO (attitudes, interests and opinions) inventories.

Often, the underlying methods are psychographic in nature asking respondents to indicate attitudes to given situations and/or preferences for and frequencies with which they engage in activities and situations. In other cases, and not necessarily restricted to consumer behaviour, respondents rank two values from value-systems as the most important and rate all of them together on a scale with equal points to the number of items in the system. Item batteries of consumption and activity behaviours filled in by respondents are then related to value segments (Kahle, 1983; Valette-Florence &
This dissertation pursued the following methodology in arriving at a set of value-based items. Instead of having respondents rank and rate abstract values etc., the researcher based his method on Kelley’s theory of attribution (1967) and collected a list of reasons from campervan tourists.

Following Swan and Comb’s method (1976) of interpreting elicited answers, campervan users were asked as to their reasons for hiring a van etc. Subsequently, these were interpreted as motivations for using a campervan and matched with the perceived underlying values.

In order to apply a systematic approach that covers all possibly occurring values, Kahle’s LOV was chosen. The reason for this methodological choice lies with requirements and circumstances of commercial enterprises. While the above described methodologies are somewhat cumbersome and lengthy, our chosen method was to overcome hurdles of costs and customer apathy to fill in questionnaires while maintaining a high probability that all values are covered.

The first step of this procedure matched the nine terminal values of Kahle’s LOV with given answers. Subsequently, motivation-items that were considered to be instrumental were matched with the expressive motivation-items in such a way, that the instrumental motivation for campervan usage could be regarded as a (behavioural) expression of the expressive item (means-end chain).

This pairing technique is merely an approximation. It was considered sufficient at the time since a factor analysis could, later on, verify the veridity of these interpretations. In this sense, it is argued, reported difficulties of categorizations (Maddox, 1981; II.5.4) are overcome. While the results justify this approach, better funded research could have resulted in respondent-based item purification.

Kahle (1983) states nine values which are based on Feather’s (1975), Maslow’s (1954) and Rokeach’s (1973) work on values.

These values are,

self-fulfillment
excitement
sense of accomplishment
fun and enjoyment
seeking warm relationships
* sense of belonging
* being well-respected
* security

Those items with an asterisk are considered to be outer-directed values by Kahle.
III.3.7.1 Self-fulfilment

This value lies close to the character of tourism in that it highlights the mostly inner-directed quality of actions and activities tourists pursue.

Self-fulfilment is closely related to the sense and availability of freedom and liberty (Bertrand Russel, 1967:675-684).

The self-fulfilment category corresponds with Maslow’s self-actualization needs in that,

"Even if all [lower needs] are satisfied, we may still often (if not always) expect that a new discontent and restlessness will soon develop, unless the individual is doing what he, individually, is fitted for. A musician must make music, an artist must paint... if he is to be ultimately at peace with himself. What a man can be, he must be. This need we may call self-actualization... It refers to man’s desire for self-fulfillment, namely to the tendency for him to become actualized in what he is potentially."
(Maslow, 1954, 91-2)

Self-fulfilment requires a sense of material independence which, per definitionem, is the essence of the tourism existence, i.e. discretionary income and time are freely available. Furthermore, self-fulfilment demands a subjective feeling of wanting to be free and independent.

This value is therefore operationalized by two items

"I chose a campervan because...

... I want to be free and independent
... I can really do what I want"

Following Bloch (1985), self-fulfilment contains expectant emotions which come from the self and refer back to the self. This item is thought to be strongly representative of the emotional awareness of a drive that experiences its reduction during the act of tourism.

III.3.7.2 Excitement and Fun & Enjoyment

Kahle (1983:61) reports that the value of excitement is closely linked to the value of fun and enjoyment. In the following few paragraphs, enjoyment is differentiated from
excitement. While enjoyment is understood to rely on concrete objects and activities and is thus cognitive in nature, excitement is reliant on the process and is drive or emotion-oriented.

The campervan is, as discussions during exploration and pilots (see below) have shown, a means to experience a feeling of adventure, as well as lesser defined fun and enjoyment all of which contain states of excitement.

The pilot showed also that the campervan was at times the source of fun and enjoyment and, at times, the means to it. The former points to a level of expressive product-involvement (Bloch & Grady, 1984) while the latter emphasises the van’s instrumental value.

Csikszentmihalyi (1975) regards enjoyment as being characteristic for intrinsic motivations.

"Instead of approaching enjoyment as something to be explained away in terms of other conceptual categories ... we try to look at it as an autonomous reality that has to be understood in its own terms." (1975:10)

Enjoyment expresses itself in the doing of things, i.e. in the "flow" of behaviour which "...is a sensation that people feel when they act with total involvement" (1975:36). That "flow" itself, however, depends on the instruments with which this feeling can be generated.

Consequently, enjoyment is here understood as an outer-directed value with "filled" emotions (Bloch, 1985), i.e. the value relates to more or less clearly defined outside objects, norms or standards (1.5.4, p.85 f).

Conversely, 'excitement' (Kahle, 1983), while similar, is considered to be more of an inner-directed value characterised by more expectant emotions than 'fun and enjoyment'.

The theoretical proximity of fun and enjoyment and excitement (see Kahle, 1983:61) let the researcher link "the feeling of adventure", as it was expressed by respondents, with the value-item of 'fun and enjoyment'. Both items, extended by an instrumental aspect from the list of reasons are operationalized as follows.

"I chose a campervan because...

... It gives me a feeling of adventure
... Driving a van is fun and enjoyable
... It guarantees a holiday full of fun and enjoyment..."
III.3.7.3  Sense of Accomplishment

This value highlights both goal-directedness and inner-directedness and reflects a recurring answer by respondents.

"I chose a campervan because...

...I can achieve more than with any other form of holidays..."

This item is considered to be closely linked to the above sense of enjoyment, since it relates to anticipated activities or expected experiences. It is inner-directed and contains expectant emotions because it expresses an anticipated response to experiences. It is here thought of as a drive-reducing sensation that is, nonetheless, closely linked to tangible objects as facilitators and outward (symbolic) proof of the achievement. Achievement differs from fun and enjoyment in its essence. Achievement implies the overcoming a hurdle which is then the source of pleasure, i.e. the 'sense of accomplishment'. Fun & enjoyment, on the other hand, are linked to the experience of concrete objects.

III.3.7.4  Self-Respect

The value of self-respect bears an affinity to the above value of accomplishment in that accomplishment can be a source for self-respect.

The definition of self-respect depends on learning about oneself, which can only occur in comparison to others. It is most likely a socially based value with an outer-directed quality and filled emotions.

During the focus group discussions in the exploratory stages, the researcher picked up on a remark which said that the respondent "owes" it to himself to travel in some luxury, when talking about showers, toilets and house-hold sized gas-ovens in the campervan. Subsequently, particularly during the pilots, respondents answered constructively and commensurate with the underlying value of self-respect. It was found, however, that the item of self-respect was difficult to elicit in respondents without fairly direct prompting.

In this sense, the feeling of "owing" oneself certain standards becomes operational for the value of self-respect. It is considered to be outer-directed and contains filled emotions.

"I chose a campervan because...

... I just owe myself something like this..." and

... I can live up to my full potential and be myself"
III.3.7.5 Being Well Respected

This outer-directed value (Kahle, 1983) can be directed either at the host-society or the tourist’s own social partners at home, or both. The need to be well respected by others also reflects on what the tourist wishes and/or assumes to be others’ estimation of himself.

The value can be thought of as introverted or extroverted in that either a person’s aura and self are the target or the things she does or possesses. It is most likely a combination of both as social partners hardly see a person in isolation but within a physical and social environment.

In this sense, the notion of 'style' reflects the tourist’s standards and norms which are formed in response to his/her environment. The degree to which the visitor wishes to be different from the stereotype of "a tourist" indicates the level of self-awareness with implications on how experiences and activities are to be interpreted. The wish to be recognized as a tourist also reflects on the degree to which a tourist wants to be respected as a guest and accorded all customary preferential treatments (see MacCannell, 1976).

Being well respected is thus operationalized via the following answers given by respondents,

"I chose the campervan because...

... I don’t feel as if "I am just a tourist"

... It suits my style"

whereby the first item reflects the more instrumental aspect of 'being well respected'.

III.3.7.6 Security

The outer-directed value of security is operationalized via a respondents’ answer,

"I chose the campervan because...

... It is a safe way to travel"

It is an outer-directed value strongly dependent on perceptions of outside objects and experiences. It is thus a "filled" emotion.
III.3.7.7 Warm Relationships

This item is operationalized only in its instrumental form via the respondent answer,

"I chose the campervan because...

...It makes it easier to meet locals"

The format of "warm relationships" (Kahle, 1983) as an expressive value was considered to be irrelevant by all respondents in the context and format of this item list (pilot 1). It had subsequently been integrated amongst the list of intended activities and differentiated into whether people were "seeking warm and friendly relationships with Maoris" and, in a separate item, "... with locals in general".

As a factor analysis which included these latter items subsequently showed, they loaded on the same factor as their instrumental counterpart. They were, however, not included in the main analysis because of the qualitative difference between motivations for using the van and intentions of activities.

III.3.7.8 Sense of Belonging

The sense of belonging usually refers to the social sphere. However, in the context of the item-battery of motivations for using a campervan, it found a good response from respondents during pilot 1. It elicited conversations on safety-issues as well as the feeling of having a place to go back to after a day's activity. The following two items are taken from answers as they have been recorded during the exploration. The first one was stated by pre-users (i.e. those who were about to start their journey), whereas the second item has been stated by post-users and is used in the 'after' version of the questionnaire.

"I chose a campervan because ...

...when I move around in a strange place I need to know where I belong"

is used in the 'before' version and

"...it gave me the feeling of a home away from home"

is used in the 'after' version of the questionnaire.

This outer-directed value emphasises the symbolic attributes of the campervan as a point of reference when 'out and about' in New Zealand and as a place of privacy and safety.
III.3.7.9 Other and Instrumental Items

In addition to the above terminal items and those that are thought to be instrumental extensions of the expressive items, a number of recurring answers were included in the list of motivations. These were all thought to be instrumental. They were,

- To me it is the cheapest way to travel
- You get close to nature easily.

III.3.8 List of Value Items in the Questionnaire

The following is the list of items as used in the questionnaire. Expressive and instrumental values have been listed side by side as the researcher approximated them into a means-end type relationship.

TABLE III.3.1 List of Instrumental and Expressive Value Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXPRESSIVE VALUES</th>
<th>INSTRUMENTAL VALUES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;I chose a Campervan because...</td>
<td>&quot;I chose a Campervan because...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be free and independent</td>
<td>I can really do what I want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It gives me the feeling of adventure</td>
<td>Driving a van is fun and enjoyable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I just owe myself something like this</td>
<td>I can live up to my full potential and be myself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I need a place where I belong</td>
<td>I enjoy not having to book ahead for accommodation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It suits my style</td>
<td>I don't feel as if I am &quot;just a tourist&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can achieve more than with other form of holidays</td>
<td>You get close to nature easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a safe way</td>
<td>It is the best way to travel the country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It guarantees a holiday fun &amp; enjoyment</td>
<td>To me it is the cheapest way to travel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* (I want to find )warm and friendly relationships with New Zealanders</td>
<td>It makes it easier to meet Locals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* This item was dropped from the list of values and added to the intended activities.

III.3.9 The Value Items in the 'Before' and 'After' Questionnaires

As was developed in Part I of this dissertation, tourists who are just about to take over their rented campervan can be assumed to be highly motivated for action as well as conscious of the reasons for which they have decided to hire the van. It is because of this,
that the item battery of Part I is introduced by the words, "I chose a campervan because ...". The items then ask for agreement or disagreement with the respective statement (see Appendix 8, Questions 12 and 18).

The development of the item batteries has been conducted with the utmost care so as to include all salient reasons for both, those who are about to travel as well as those who had just returned their vehicle to the depot.

Since the hire of the campervan followed a decision-making process which evaluated a number of possibilities, agreement or disagreement with a statement would indicate whether the respective statement played a role in the decision-making process. It must be assumed, due to the hedonic nature of tourism, that these choices have been made so as to facilitate a successful and satisfactory holiday. If a tourist would not at all have been convinced that a campervan would be the right choice, one can rightfully assume that the choice would not have been made.

Part II of the questionnaire then introduces the same value-items with the leading sentence, "Choosing a campervan has proven to be right because ...", directly linking back to the statement in Part I. If tourists should find that their overall choice was not right, it would be indicated by disagreement with particularly those items which caused dissatisfaction. If, on the other hand, tourists should have found that particular statements highlight the reason for satisfaction, even though the Part I questionnaire shows that the item had not been considered a reason for choice, then agreement would indicate this and the difference between the two items would give an indication of the strength of change.

A third alternative might include that tourists were disappointed with travelling by campervan for other reasons than those stated. This would be conceivable when viewing the campervan as means of transport or accommodation. Since the item battery contains instrumental and expressive elements, however, a failure to perform should, according to the two-factor theory, result in disagreement with expressive items.

III.3.10 Questionnaire Administration

The questionnaire had two parts, one 'before' version and one 'after' version which was to be issued after the tourists returned the rental vehicle. Each version took approximately ten to fifteen minutes to complete. Both questionnaires had to be matched. For this reason, each questionnaire issued had the customer's contract number written on his/her questionnaire. Particularly during peak-hours, i.e. when a large contingent of tourists had arrived at the airport from overseas, administrative errors occurred and contract numbers were recorded wrongly or omitted completely.

Staff at each of the two depots were introduced to the questionnaire in one-hour sessions during which time they were relieved by their colleagues. During this session, staff could ask questions and needed to be motivated in order to convince tourists to fill in the questionnaires. Furthermore, they had to be introduced to the merits of marketing research
and how results from this survey would feed back into management strategies and tactics, increase customer satisfaction and, ultimately, improve front-line services since the market could be segmented according to the benefits tourists were seeking and receiving.

The motivation of front-line staff proved to be all important. Personal contact over the phone improved return-rates, as did introductory letters to new staff, who did not get the benefits of the introductory session.

During this session, researcher and staff played through the normal sequence of customer-handling, in order to locate the most opportune time to introduce the questionnaire. This introduction had to be carefully worded, so as to stress the importance, impartiality and confidentiality.

The final sample represented in this dissertation consists of 395 respondents. During the period from 1 November, 1991, to 30 April, 1992, each month, all campervan tourists to Leisure Port, were asked to participate in the survey, until 150 had answered. The target was to get some 800 to 900 questionnaires filled in. The survey consisted of two parts. Part I was to be completed before the commencement of the journey and part II at the end of it.

Because of a high percentage of German speaking customers - no marketing research had been done to date that could supply any numbers -, 700 questionnaires were printed in German and 700 in an identical English version. Although the number of questionnaires appears high (1400), they were not intended to be issued in total. Rather, due to lack of records as to how many German speaking and English speaking customers there actually were throughout a season, about a quarter of each version were thought to be a back-up.

However, about half way through the survey (February-March, 1992) stress and changes in marketing management of Leisure Port became obvious. The number of properly filled-in questionnaires dropped as well as the total number. This improved

III.3.10 The Sample

The most frequently used scales in the questionnaire are 5 and 10-point Likert type interval scales (transformations of scales included). Estimations for sample sizes in heterograde cases with e=(x-μ)=0.5 and s²=25 result in a required sample size of 384 respondents (Clauß & Ebner, 1977), in other words if the error (e) between the total population of campervan users and the sample is to be no greater than .5 and the standard deviation no greater than 5, the number of tourists to be sampled should be n=384.

Of altogether 730 part I and part II questionnaires issued over a period of six months, 433 questionnaires could not immediately be matched. This was due to administrative errors: each questionnaire had to have the contract number written on the questionnaire before it was handed out. This was omitted in 249 cases for part I questionnaires. These questionnaires were lost to the enquiry. Only 301 questionnaires could be matched immediately after receiving part II.
180 part I questionnaires could not be matched with part II questionnaires either because of missing customer codes on part II questionnaires, or because customers failed to fill in part II due to campervan drop-offs at night or time pressure to catch a plane.

**TABLE III.3.2 Questionnaires Issued and Returned**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Questionnaires Issued</td>
<td>730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of completed and matched part I and II returned</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of questionnaires for which part I did not have a contract number to match</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of questionnaires for which part II did not have a contract number to match</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sum</strong></td>
<td>730</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These 180 customers were subsequently contacted at their home address. Of these 180, exactly 94 returned their free-post envelopes in time for processing during the period of May, 1992 until December, 1992. Thus some respondents returned part II up to one year after their holiday experience.

Overall, no significant difference could be detected between those who filled in part two directly after the return of the vehicle and those contacted via mail. The testing procedures involved two separate manovas on the 'Statistical Package for Social Sciences X'.

The first tested for differences in the seventeen final-attitude statements between those who had filled in the questionnaire right after delivering the van, and those 94 who were contacted and returned the questionnaire up to one year later. The other manova tested for differences between these groups and their levels of satisfaction.

At the multivariate level, no differences could be detected in either of these analyses. However, at the univariate level, the manova performed on the seventeen final-attitude scores listed FUN to DRIVE, BELONG, EASY, ACHIEVE, BEST WAY to TRAVEL and FUN & ENJOYMENT as significantly different at ≤.05 (see Appendix 6). In all of these variables, the mean was significantly higher.

An analysis of campervan-hire registration forms of all customers (about 95% of the total population of campervan tourists to New Zealand during the season) and their countries of origin found that the sample represented these accurately (margin: ±1.5%) with only the British being over-represented (they represent 8% rather than the questioned 18.7% of the market).
The following is a break-down of the sample in percentages. The total population of campervan tourists to New Zealand, as per season 1 November, 1991 until 30 April, 1992, was approximately 14,000.

TABLE III.3.3 Sample Statistics

1.2.1 Nationalities Surveyed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2.4 Occupations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labours</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office workers</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Servants</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurs</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academics</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineer/Trade</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctors/Nurses</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2.2 Who travelled with whom:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alone</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Couples</td>
<td>55.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pairs</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Families</td>
<td>23.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups of friends</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2.5 Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University degree</td>
<td>45.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No degree</td>
<td>37.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other tertiary degree</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2.6 Age Distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children, adolescents and under 20s</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 to 24</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 to 34</td>
<td>28.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 to 44</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 to 54</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 to 64</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 &amp; over</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the total sample of 395, 384 remained in New Zealand for not longer than the time of lease of their vehicle. They either flew into the country and took possession of their
vehicle immediately, or spent one night before taking possession in some other form of accommodation. Also, many stayed one night after returning their vehicle. Five respondents were New Zealanders resident in New Zealand.

III.3.11 Data Analysis

The data analysis was performed using the SPSSX package for mainframes. Procedures used in the data analysis included factor analyses, manovas, cluster analyses, multiple regression analyses, anovas, t-tests, repeat-measurement tests of difference, crosstabulations and non-parametric tests of significance.
Chapter 4

III.4. RESULTS

III.4.0 Introduction to the Presentation of Results

The beginning of this chapter is reserved for a reminder of this dissertation’s overall hypothesis and an outline of this chapter’s procedures and structure.

The two main hypotheses of this dissertation posit that,

a) values control motivations and organize perceptions, i.e. values respond to drives and structure expectancies,

b) satisfaction is a complex and total response and a measurement of experiences the perception of which is guided by the initial values.

The overall presentation of the results follows the tourists’ experiential sequence as much as this is possible, i.e. first the expectations and then the final attitude statements followed by satisfaction scores. However, it is also of value to look at the actual experience, or rather the changes which occurred during the experience. As stated in the methodology, the final attitudes are worded in an almost identical manner as the expectancy value statements or motivations. For this reason, difference-scores are computed. Since these are based on before and after measurements, they follow the presentation of these measurement results.

The sequence is thereby at odds with the sequence of the operationalized hypotheses stated in (II.1.3). The length of the presentation of the results makes it opportune, therefore, to occasionally refer back to these hypotheses during the presentation. They will then be discussed in a more transparent form in the final chapter before the conclusions (III.5).

The processes that would confirm or refute the above hypotheses cannot be observed directly. They can only be inferred from reports made by respondents, and from changes that might occur from one report to the next.

Essentially, it is the repeat-measurement design, which allows an insight into unobservable processes. This design is also what Swan & Trawick refer to as "inferred" measurements (1981; see II.3.3.3). In addition to these, there are "perceived" measurements, which represent quasi-independent measurements: the respondent gives an overall statement of his perception of the difference between what he remembers from before and what he feels or knows then.

The survey conducted for this dissertation can make use of both of these
measurements. Indeed, they form the basis for attempts to prove the stated hypotheses.

Most of the above and the operationalized hypotheses are proven on the basis of correlational evidence. However, these correlations refer to often closely inter-related variables. They can therefore be suspected of carrying a lot of 'noise', i.e. errors that occur when measuring these variables. These errors express themselves both in inflated correlations as well as in respondent's errors of measurement of their own perceptions of one variable in relation to the next.

Ira Bernstein (1988) refers to these variables as 'psychometric' ones, as opposed to 'multivariate' variables, the latter of which can be trusted since they rely on objectively verifiable facts like family status or income.

In order to avoid the statistical noise, the data analysis used mostly multivariate techniques. They have procedures built into them, that avoid such noise by using partial correlations. In other words, the errors are estimated before the actual statistical procedure goes ahead. The most common procedures using these techniques are the manova, i.e. multivariate analysis of variance and factor analysis.

Not until after the overall structure has been verified, is it safe to step from the multivariate level to the univariate level, since inferences can be made as to the correctness of statements, by relating interpretations at the univariate level to those made at the multivariate level.

At the centre of our inquiry are expectancy-value statements (before) and attitude statements (after the experience). These have been identified as representing motivations and, on a more abstract level of analysis, as values. The experience itself, i.e. those variables, which cause the change between before and after the experience, can be represented by difference scores.

The following three sections utilize the multivariate technique of factor analysis,

1. to identify the structure of the dimensions underlying the seventeen motivations (III.4.1), attitude statements (III.4.2) and their arithmetic difference, representing the change or the experience that occurred between before the experience and afterwards (III.4.3).

2. to avoid excessive statistical unreliability due to the psychological proximity of the variables, and other measurement errors.

3. to reduce the seventeen variables to a more manageable and transparent number, and receive an overall view of the changes that occurred.

The subsequent summary (III.4.4) evaluates similarities and differences between the three presented factor solutions.
Section (III.4.5) then deepens the analysis by stepping from the above multivariate level to a bivariate level. It tables the individual mean-changes of values between before and after the experience. This presentation forms the basis for the discussion of the operationalized hypotheses.

Section (III.4.6) looks at the relationship of expectancy values with satisfaction scores (III.4.6.1), and the relationship of the final attitudes with satisfaction scores (III.4.6.2). The third subsection is devoted to the relationship of the value-differences with satisfaction results. In this discussion, the factor scores gained in (III.4.2 -III.4.4) are utilized.

Section (III.4.7.1) presents results testing the commonly accepted assumption that transport and accommodation are perceived as merely instrumental aspects of holidays, rather than expressive ones. The reader might recall that this dissertation also set out to test the two-factor model of satisfaction. Due to insignificant numbers of dissatisfied customers, however, the author had to be content with testing the above assumption as a hypothesis.

The penultimate section (III.4.7.2) presents a series of designs in a manova. It tests the operationalized hypothesis (2c) that "the more activities are intended but not performed, the less satisfied tourists are ". Finally, the operationalized hypotheses are stated again and discussed in (III.4.8).
III.4.1. Expectations

III.4.1.1 The Overall Means Of Expectancy Values

The first table in this section details the means of expectancy values as they have been computed from scores gathered in the survey before tourists set out with their rented vans.

The 17 items on the list of motivations for using a campervan with a coefficient $\alpha=0.8335$ were found to have the following means for each item,

**TABLE III.4.1 The Means of the Expectancy-Values**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEMS in SHORT</th>
<th>VALUE</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Mean Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHEAP</td>
<td>To me it is the cheapest way to travel</td>
<td>1.2915</td>
<td>2.777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUN TO DRIVE</td>
<td>Driving a van is fun and enjoyable</td>
<td>1.0712</td>
<td>3.536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREE</td>
<td>I want to be free and independent</td>
<td>.4286</td>
<td>4.775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADVENTURE</td>
<td>It gives me the feeling of adventure</td>
<td>1.0931</td>
<td>3.712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>I can really do what I want</td>
<td>.6619</td>
<td>4.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OWE</td>
<td>I just owe myself something like this</td>
<td>1.3539</td>
<td>2.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BELONG</td>
<td>... I need a place where I belong</td>
<td>1.2659</td>
<td>2.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STYLE</td>
<td>It suits my style</td>
<td>1.2860</td>
<td>3.338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EASY</td>
<td>It makes it easier to meet Locals</td>
<td>.8998</td>
<td>1.413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOURIST</td>
<td>I don't feel as if I am &quot;just a tourist&quot;</td>
<td>1.2226</td>
<td>2.658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATURE</td>
<td>You get close to nature easily</td>
<td>.8986</td>
<td>4.231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACHIEVE</td>
<td>I can achieve more than with any other form of holidays</td>
<td>.9464</td>
<td>4.115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEST WAY</td>
<td>It is the best way to travel the country</td>
<td>.9165</td>
<td>4.146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAFE</td>
<td>It is a safe way</td>
<td>.9632</td>
<td>3.348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO BOOKING</td>
<td>I enjoy not having to book ahead for accommodation</td>
<td>1.0002</td>
<td>4.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUN &amp; ENJOYMENT</td>
<td>It guarantees a holiday fun &amp; enjoyment</td>
<td>1.0595</td>
<td>3.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POTENTIAL</td>
<td>I can live up to my full potential and be myself</td>
<td>1.1930</td>
<td>3.340</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The means can be seen grouped as follows, OWE, BELONG, EASY, and TOURIST are all motivational statements, for which the average respondent disagrees.
However, only EASY remains on the 'disagree' side of the statement, once the standard deviation has been taken into account, i.e. even the most extreme variation from the mean remains in the 'disagree' range.

The second group of variables deviates closely around the midpoint, with their means tending slightly towards agreeing. They are STYLE, SAFE, and POTENTIAL.

The third group is still grouping closely around the "don't know" or neutral point of the scales, however, with their means closer to the agree side. They are the staements of FUN to DRIVE, ADVENTURE and FUN & ENJOYMENT.

The group of variables for which the means clearly indicate agreement are FREE, DO, NATURE, ACHIEVE, BEST WAY, and NO BOOKING.

### III.4.1.2 Factor Solution of Expectancy Values

A Principal Component factor analysis (SPSSX) of these 17 items (8 expressive and 9 instrumental) resulted in four factors after varimax rotation with eigenvalues of 1 or higher explaining 52.3% of the variance. While not particularly high, the communalities are relatively evenly distributed ranging between (.67861) for OWE and (.35643). for FUN to DRIVE. The next highest after FUN to DRIVE is TOURIST, which is represented with a loading of (.41193).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>FACTOR 1</th>
<th>FACTOR 2</th>
<th>FACTOR 3</th>
<th>FACTOR 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHEAP</td>
<td>.38147</td>
<td>.21227</td>
<td>-.21848</td>
<td>-.54336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUN to DRIVE</td>
<td>.53304</td>
<td>.23149</td>
<td>.03119</td>
<td>-.13284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREE</td>
<td>-.00214</td>
<td>.12226</td>
<td>.68053</td>
<td>.02081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADVENTURE</td>
<td>.61748</td>
<td>.08022</td>
<td>.29294</td>
<td>.02988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>.17235</td>
<td>.09511</td>
<td>.70186</td>
<td>-.12163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OWE</td>
<td>.81944</td>
<td>-.03549</td>
<td>.03406</td>
<td>.06865</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BELONG</td>
<td>.76725</td>
<td>.05335</td>
<td>.00466</td>
<td>-.01716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STYLE</td>
<td>.67620</td>
<td>.25237</td>
<td>.12801</td>
<td>-.09688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EASY</td>
<td>.09750</td>
<td>.07418</td>
<td>-.17262</td>
<td>.76165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOURIST</td>
<td>.55754</td>
<td>.25547</td>
<td>.18915</td>
<td>-.00636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATUR</td>
<td>.18221</td>
<td>.12620</td>
<td>.64741</td>
<td>.00641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACHIEVE</td>
<td>.08736</td>
<td>.66830</td>
<td>.26143</td>
<td>-.17245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEST WAY</td>
<td>.02281</td>
<td>.71297</td>
<td>.18718</td>
<td>-.14667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAFE</td>
<td>.38298</td>
<td>.52871</td>
<td>-.00430</td>
<td>-.12570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOBK</td>
<td>.09826</td>
<td>.63468</td>
<td>-.04722</td>
<td>.23098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUN &amp; ENJOY</td>
<td>.39189</td>
<td>.59105</td>
<td>.19871</td>
<td>.11555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POTENTIAL</td>
<td>.53930</td>
<td>.49486</td>
<td>.17633</td>
<td>.17188</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### III.4.1.3 Factor 1: The Outer-Directed Symbolic Dimension

On this factor, "I OWE myself something like this" [i.e. a campervan] is the highest loading value (.81944) with BELONG the second highest (.76715) and STYLE (.67620) the third highest. ADVENTURE is with (.61748) the fourth highest loading. TOURIST and POTENTIAL load significantly with loadings higher than (.5) and
CHEAP loads significantly with (.38147).

It should be noted here, that ADVENTURE while loading highest on Factor 1 is also loading significantly on Factor 3. Furthermore, CHEAP loads also significantly on Factor 2 on Factor 4. The negative sign indicates an inverted relationship with Factor 4. FUN & ENJOYMENT and SAFE, do also load significantly, however, they are even stronger on Factor 2.

Factor 1 is loading particularly high on those variables which reveal a relationship between the self and perceptions of tangible objects. While this involves primarily the campervan, the "complexity" of the cognitive structure (Grunow-Lutter, 1983) is most likely to encompass situational and projected images of the campervan in settings such as suggested in advertising etc.

The outer-directed nature of this factor is foremost characterized by the underlying values of 'Self-Esteem', 'Sense of Belonging', 'Being esteemed by others' and 'Excitement' (Kahle, 1983) in the items OWE, BELONG, STYLE and ADVENTURE.

The questionnaire items cause respondents to evoke their emotional assessment of outside objects in relation to the Self. For Factor 1, these objects are of a more concrete and often tangible nature. This dimension contains, to use Bloch's words (1985), "filled emotions".

III.4.1.3 Factor 2: The Instrumental Achievement Dimension

The strongest loading value here is that a campervan "...is the BEST WAY to travel" (.71297). The overall mean for BEST WAY is $x=4.146$ ($n=395$). The resolve that this is the optimal choice for organizing a holiday is qualified by the expectation, that the campervan is the best method to ACHIEVE one's goals as compared "to any other form of holidays", since ACHIEVE, with a loading of (.66830), has a mean of $x=4.1115$. Accompanying these highest loading variables are the outer-directed values of FUN & ENJOYMENT (.59015) and SAFETY (.52871).

The campervan is thus representing what tourists feel are essentials in achieving desired goals. NO BOOKINGS (.63468) forms an instrumental aspect of this dimension.

The dual loading of POTENTIAL on Factor 1 (.53930) and Factor 2 (.49486).

Hair (1990) notes that, "(1) the larger the sample size, the smaller the loading to be considered significant, (2) the larger the number of variables being analyzed, the smaller the loadings to be considered significant....". Without giving any detail regarding four factor solutions, he states that "a significant loading on the fifth factor with 20 variables would be (.216)" in samples greater than 100 subjects (1990:249f). For this reason, CHEAP, with a loading of .21227 on Factor 2 is considered as significant here.
indicates the proximity of these two factors in the tourist’s cognitive structure. In Factor 1, POTENTIAL relates to tangible features of the campervan allowing the tourist an environment in which he can be “himself”. In other words, the campervan is providing the stage and backdrop. Conversely, the loading on Factor 2 refers to the instrumentality of the van to achieve one’s potential.

CHEAP (.21227), FUN to DRIVE (.23149), STYLE (.25237) and TOURIST (.25547) all load similarly strong on this dimension. The low loadings reflect their tentative character or, using Grunow-Lutter’s terminology (1983), the cognitive structure has yet to obtain the degree of 'consonance' reflecting the harmony between the elements within the structure (for further details, see Appendix 1, Hypothesis 4a. There, the difference in cognitive structures is detailed by pitching value-structures of tourists with prior campervan experience against those without prior experience. It shows that, while there are significant differences in motivation levels before the experience, these differences become insignificant after the experience).

The significantly loading variables indicate as to 'how' the overall holiday satisfaction is anticipated to come about. BEST WAY and ACHIEVE are the consequence of evaluations of the outer-directed expressive dimensions of SAFE, FUN & ENJOYMENT and STYLE as well as the instrumental dimensions of CHEAP travel, the FUN to DRIVE the vehicle and NO BOOKING hassles, which also load significantly on this dimension.

While BEST WAY is an evaluatory statement, ACHIEVE goes beyond the instrumental sphere of BEST WAY and expresses both ‘achievement’ as a goal as well as the process that facilitates the achievement. The other high loading variables are the instruments by which the flow is sought to be achieved.

While the low, yet significant, loadings make it difficult to interpret this factor, this author tries, none the less, to consider the proper value of these loadings. Indeed, while the Achievement Dimension is outer-directed in its components, it reflects the means-end relationship that exists between the states of consciousness of CHEAP, FUN to Drive etc. as instruments to achieve the feeling of flow. And it is, ultimately, the feeling of flow which serves as the instrument to self-fulfilment (see also the discussion in II.2.3).

Factor 2 can thus be regarded as an inner-directed, evaluatory dimension of outer-directed instrumental and expressive values which, unlike the above outer-directed Symbolic Dimension, contains a drive that seeks reduction through the confirmation of attitudes (increased consonance, see Grunow-Lutter, 1983).

III.4.1.4 Factor 3: The (Inner-Directed) Self-Fulfilment Dimension

The outstanding variables loading on this factor are, firstly, "I can really DO what I want" (.70186), secondly, and almost equally as strong, "I want to be FREE and independent" (.68053) and the instrumental value of "You get close to NATURE easily".
The affinity of DO and FREE to NATURE indicates, with ACHIEVE also loading significantly (.26143) on this factor, that the wish for freedom and choice is generally directed towards the scenery and nature of New Zealand. The significant negative loading of CHEAP (-.21848) points towards an inverse relationship between the attitude about the price paid for the campervan and the expectation of the inner-directed and drive-based character of FREE and DO.

It is the most abstract of all factors and contains the highest amount of what Bloch calls "expectant emotions", i.e. a longing emotion that can be much less readily defined than an outer-directed value containing a precise knowledge of the objects by which it can be satisfied.

III.4.1.5 Factor 4: The Social Component

This last factor explains the least percentage of variance as a glance at the loadings will reveal. It is this factor which loads the social component of "it is EASY to meet locals" while travelling in a campervan (.76156). The only other significant values are the instrumental CHEAP, albeit loading strongly negative with (-.54336) and NO BOOKING with (.23098).

That the Social Component should be different enough that it forms its own factor is an indication for the fact that hiring a campervan is related to a different cognitive sphere. It reflects the unrelatedness of planning and envisaging physically moving around in a van, and the consideration that it might make it easier to meet people, which has a mean of 1.413, and is thus not considered to be a reason for hiring such a vehicle at all.

It is in this sense, that the strong negative loading on CHEAP can be explained. While the consideration of meeting people cannot be a serious reason when hiring a campervan, the price one pays for the convenience is a consideration.

NO BOOKING is the third (marginally) significantly loading variable. The above interpretation can be extended by considering its instrumental character and that the only other factor it loads significantly on, is the Achievement Dimension. The fact that accommodation costs money explains its co-occurrence with CHEAP. However, NO BOOKING is positively loading in conjunction with the fact, that the campervan makes it unnecessary to have to deal with people when booking accommodation.

As will be shown below, the expectation-values converge into attitudes resulting in three factors rather than the above four. In this three-factor solution, the social aspect expressed in the fourth factor above loads on the outer-directed symbolic factor. It is therefore of interest to find out, how closely related the outer-directed symbolic and the social-ambience factors are in the cognitive structure of expectations.

A forced factor solution of the expectancy values which results in three factors converged in 5 iterations and explains 46% of the variance only, as compared to the
above 52%. In this forced solution, EASY drops from the analysis in the sense that it shows no positive and significant loading. The only change that occurs is that its negative loading on the inner-directed expressive factor increases from (-.17262) to (-.31981) highlighting the different directions of inner-directed values on the one hand and the outer-directed character of social aspects. A high score on the fourth factor thus indicates a higher interest in meeting people than in the perception of whether a campervan is a cheap form of travel or not.

Conversely, the loading of CHEAP increases by (.01798) while EASY drops by (.02441) on the outer-directed symbolic factor. CHEAP is thus contiguous with that factor while EASY appears to be in a totally different sphere on the cognitive structure.

III.4.1.6 Summarizing the Four Expectancy-Value Dimensions

These above four factors represent the motivational dimensions of campervan tourists to New Zealand. They are motivations in that underlying motives and values, in conjunction with defined situations of travel have combined.

It should be noted from the above table of means (TABLE III.4.1) that, at this stage, the most instrumental values, i.e. those that are capable of juxtaposing two arguments in such a way that both contain elements on which a logical premise can be formed, all have low overall means.

For example, "I chose a campervan because it is a cheap way to travel" suggests an instrumental relationship of 'cheap' and 'travel'. Of this, however, tourists are not sure since this is a matter to be experienced. While close to the "don't know" or "neutral" mark of the scale there is a slight tendency towards disagreement with the mean of 2.777. The tourists, overall, have not chosen a campervan for its price, nor to "meet locals" (EASY, mean 1.413) which, again, is something that had to be found out if it was to become a reason.

Conversely, the most central variables of the first three dimensions are all expressive values pointing towards the organizing principles of motivations and expectations. It is the outer and inner-directed expectant emotions (Bloch, 1985), which qualify the overall character of these motivations.
III.4.2. Performance Evaluation - The Final Attitudes

III.4.2.1 The Means Table of Attitudes after the Experience and the Factor Analysis of Final Attitudes after the Experience

The second set of results to be presented are those attitudes that are formed on the basis of experiences. Here, the above items occur as attitude statements.

Table III.4.3 The Means of Attitude Scores After the Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEMS in SHORT</th>
<th>VALUE &quot;Choosing a campervan has proven to be right because... (strongly agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (strongly disagree)</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Mean Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHEAP</td>
<td>To me it is the cheapest way to travel</td>
<td>1.1881</td>
<td>3.1873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUN TO DRIVE</td>
<td>Driving a van is fun and enjoyable</td>
<td>.9315</td>
<td>3.7797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREE</td>
<td>I want to be free and independent</td>
<td>.6802</td>
<td>4.5342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADVENTURE</td>
<td>It gives me the feeling of adventure</td>
<td>1.0971</td>
<td>3.6633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>I can really do what I want</td>
<td>.8032</td>
<td>4.3215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OWE</td>
<td>I just owe myself something like this</td>
<td>1.3024</td>
<td>2.8911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BELONG</td>
<td>... I need a place where I belong</td>
<td>1.1771</td>
<td>3.3063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STYLE</td>
<td>It suits my style</td>
<td>1.1860</td>
<td>3.4633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EASY</td>
<td>It makes it easier to meet Locals</td>
<td>1.2011</td>
<td>3.0380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOURIST</td>
<td>I don’t feel as if I am “just a tourist”</td>
<td>1.2217</td>
<td>2.7696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATURE</td>
<td>You get close to nature easily</td>
<td>1.0036</td>
<td>4.0177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACHIEVE</td>
<td>I can achieve more than with any other form of holidays</td>
<td>1.0504</td>
<td>3.9722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEST WAY</td>
<td>It is the best way to travel the country</td>
<td>1.0010</td>
<td>4.1899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAFE</td>
<td>It is a safe way</td>
<td>.9304</td>
<td>3.6861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO BOOKING</td>
<td>I enjoy not having to book ahead for accommodation</td>
<td>.8593</td>
<td>4.3595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUN &amp; ENJOYMENT</td>
<td>It guarantees a holiday fun &amp; enjoyment</td>
<td>.9951</td>
<td>3.7873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POTENTIAL</td>
<td>I can live up to my full potential and be myself</td>
<td>1.1692</td>
<td>3.3975</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall, the mean values have increased. As will be discussed in further detail below, however, there are also significant decreases, particularly in the inner-directed expressive values (see III.4.4).

A principal component factor analysis of the above statements converged after 12 iterations and resulted in three factors explaining 56.1% of the occurring variance.

### TABLE III.4.4 Rotated Factors of Final Attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>FACTOR 1</th>
<th>FACTOR 2</th>
<th>FACTOR 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II-CHEAP</td>
<td>.46053</td>
<td>.51179</td>
<td>-.14370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-FUN to DRIVE</td>
<td>.37154</td>
<td>.53436</td>
<td>.17427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-FREE</td>
<td>.03066</td>
<td>.30099</td>
<td>.71197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-ADVENTURE</td>
<td>.58610</td>
<td>.12732</td>
<td>.46040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-DO</td>
<td>.20582</td>
<td>.17841</td>
<td>.78176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-OWE</td>
<td>.73468</td>
<td>.04178</td>
<td>.25500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-BELONG</td>
<td>.56288</td>
<td>.13663</td>
<td>.42245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-STYLE</td>
<td>.59411</td>
<td>.21829</td>
<td>.37590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-EASY</td>
<td>.71389</td>
<td>.17350</td>
<td>.00546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-TOURIST</td>
<td>.71974</td>
<td>.22950</td>
<td>.02785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-NATUR</td>
<td>.28350</td>
<td>.25251</td>
<td>.57265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-ACHIEVE</td>
<td>.16102</td>
<td>.70222</td>
<td>.35667</td>
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<td>.12597</td>
<td>.77862</td>
<td>.22510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-SAFE</td>
<td>.42515</td>
<td>.57098</td>
<td>.14508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-NO BOOKING</td>
<td>-.00853</td>
<td>.62239</td>
<td>.35933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-FUN &amp; ENJOY</td>
<td>.43286</td>
<td>.48706</td>
<td>.38732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II-POTENTIAL</td>
<td>.56672</td>
<td>.31626</td>
<td>.36492</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As could be assumed (Bagozzi, 1981), the previous expectancy-values tend to converge as attitudes, resulting in one factor less than above, i.e three, instead of four factors. The convergence becomes also apparent when studying the increased loadings particularly of instrumental values. This results in an overall increase of explanation of variance by 3.8% as compared to the 'before' factor solution. Another measure supporting this assumption of a stronger overall attitude structure is Cronbach’s alpha .9057.

The structure of these factors is very similar to those of the 'before' measurement. Only the formerly fourth factor which consisted almost exclusively of EASY (to meet locals), is now part of the outer-directed Symbolic first factor with a high loading of (.71389).

Factor 2 contains again BEST WAY to travel and ACHIEVE as the strongest loading variables (.77862 and .70222 respectively), while those variables which help determine in what way travelling by campervan is best, either have very similar loadings to before or they have increased dramatically due to the experiences made (see CHEAP, (.51179) vs. (.21227) before and FUN to Drive, (.53436) vs (.23416) before) reflecting the newly achieved level of "abstractness" (Grunow-Lutter, 1983). Abstractness here indicates the degree of differentiation and integratedness of the
cognitive system.

Factor 3 shows the same strong loading of FREE, DO and NATURE as before with further significant loadings on ADVENTURE (.46040), BELONG (.42245), FUN and ENJOYMENT (.38732) and STYLE (.37590). Apart from the principal variables of this factor, these latter variables share an impact on other dimensions (factors) together with POTENTIAL (.36492) and NO BOOKING (.35933). In other words, the increased complexity, consonance and abstractness of the cognitive structure also diminishes the apparent transparency of the underlying (factorial) dimensions in expectancy values.

III.4.2.2 Summary of the Final-Attitude Factor Solution

The final factor solution of final attitudes shows a convergence of expectancy values into attitudes which are characterized by a greater complexity and consonance. In other words, the experience brought about a less tentative interrelationship between individual variables as was the case with expectancy values (see also Appendix I for further details on differences in cognitive structures).

It should be noted, that the overall structure of the factors has not changed, with the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension, the Achievement Dimension, and the Self-Fulfilment Dimension intact. The convergence of the formerly fourth factor, the Social Component, with the Symbolic Dimension makes sense, in that the social interactions experienced over the holidays, form part of the outer-directed values of the generally social ambience of OWE, BELONG, and TOURIST, which are all containing values formed in the context of the social environment (see Methodology III.3.7.0 to III.3.7.10).
III.4.3  The Value Difference Scores - The Experience

The value difference scores have been computed by subtracting expectancy value scores from final-attitude scores. The resulting differences represent the change that occurred through the experience. They allow an analysis of those factors that caused the change to come about.

The technique of subtracting expectations from performance evaluations is a widely used technique in the service literature, for example Parasuraman et al. (1986) see also Teas (1994); for similar approaches in the consumer behaviour literature and satisfaction research see Tse & Wilton (1988) for a presentation and discussion. For further discussion see also III.4.7.2.

A principal component factor analysis of the difference scores (i.e. 'after' minus 'before' measurements) converged in 7 iterations, resulted in five factors and explains 53.6% of the variance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE III.4.5 Rotated Factors of the Value-Difference Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FACTOR 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D-EXPENSIVE</td>
</tr>
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<td>D-DERIVED</td>
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<td>D-FREE</td>
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<tr>
<td>D-ADVENTURE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D-DO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D-Ocean</td>
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<td>D-BELONG</td>
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<td>D-STYLE</td>
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<td>D-EASY</td>
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<td>D-TOUT</td>
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<td>D-NATURE</td>
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<tr>
<td>D-ACHIEVE</td>
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<tr>
<td>D-BEST WAY</td>
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<td>D-SAFE</td>
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<tr>
<td>D-NO BOOKING</td>
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<tr>
<td>D-FUN &amp; ENJOYMT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D-POTENTIAL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III.4.3.1  Factor 1: The Achievement Dimension

Whilst, overall, the cognitive structure of each dimension as presented in the above two factor analyses is maintained, the highest amount of variance explained occurs in the dimension that surrounds the variable of ACHIEVE (.46796).

Although ACHIEVE does not show the highest loading, conceptually, it remains the central variable, since achievement represents the goal, is therefore more abstract and, in congruence with the value model of satisfaction, liable to score lower correlations.
In other words, a factor loading explains the relationship between a factor and that variable. Since ACHIEVE is inner-directed while SAFE, NOBOOKING etc. are outer-directed, it should correlate less with the factor which expresses a process rather than the reason for choosing the campervan. ACHIEVE is the goal while the majority of the other variables represent the 'tools' or facilitators. In keeping with the goal of tourism behaviour and the aims of this volume, the interpretation of this factor is thus oriented towards the outcome, not the process and reason for change from 'before' to 'after'.

As could be expected, those values which are instrumental in achieving desired outcomes, score the highest loadings, whereas the more expressive and less process or activity oriented these values are, the lower do they load. In this solution, the variables NO BOOKING (.68810) and FUN & ENJOYMENT (.68257) gained the highest loadings, with BEST WAY (.59223), SAFE (.54811) and POTENTIAL (.47404) sharing subsequent ranks.

In the first factor solution of the expectancy values (III.4.2), NO BOOKING loads strongly on the Achievement Dimension (.63468) and significantly on Factor 4, the Social Component (III.4.1.5). But it does not load significantly on any other factor.

In the present factor solution, NO BOOKING is one of the strongest loading variable explaining the experience of flow on the Achievement Dimension. This importance is 'carried through' to the final attitude solution, where NO BOOKING loads again strongly on the Achievement dimension, as well as on the inner-directed Self-Fulfilment dimension.

Factor 2: The outer-directed Symbolic Dimension

The second factor represents the experience of the outer-directed values of BELONG (.73769), OWE (.70874) and STYLE (.65142). This fairly even distribution of loadings of these values (their communalities are .58026 for BELONG, .55510 for STYLE and .55468 for OWE) highlights the role of the Gestalt and experience of tangible campervan elements as strongly interrelated concepts throughout respondents' holidays.

Significant loadings on POTENTIAL (.43410), ADVENTURE (.38922), TOURIST (.33460), FUN & ENJOYMENT (.26620) and the somewhat marginally significant loading of DO (.22357) which remained insignificant in the 'before' solution, have changed their position of importance within the factor only slightly.
III.4.3.3  Factor 3: The (inner-directed) Self-Fulfilment Dimension

The structure of this dimension is also maintained. Here, however, ADVENTURE (.45226) has joined FREE (.70045) and DO (.76662) and continues to share significance in this dimension as well as in the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension of the final attitude as presented in the 'after' factor solution above (III.4.4). This indicates that while the underlying value of 'Excitement' (Kahle, 1983) was perceived as an expectation of things 'out there' and things to come, the excitement expressed by ADVENTURE now helps explain the nature of the self-fulfilment represented in FREE and DO.

Apart from NATURE (.59339) and ACHIEVE (.38651), this dimension also loads significantly on BEST WAY (.31917). The instrumental value of NATURE and BEST WAY thus assist in explaining the convergence of expectancy-values in the final attitude dimension presented in the second factor analysis above.

III.4.3.4  Factor 4: The Campervan: Instrumental Aspects

On this fourth factor, CHEAP (.73681) and FUN to DRIVE (.69122) are almost completely explained with only CHEAP also loading significantly on the fifth factor. Factor 4 lists, furthermore, SAFE (.32607), FREE (.25097) and BEST WAY (.22344) as significant. In other words, the conception of CHEAP and FUN to DRIVE occurs in conjunction with the values of SAFE, FREE and BEST WAY.

The strong loadings of CHEAP and FUN to DRIVE reflect the significant increases of their underlying means that occurred between the before and after measurements of these variables (see TABLE III.4.6 below). It appears that the state of consciousness represented by these variables can be considered as a learning experience which relates directly to the physical contact with the van and its facilities. The other significant loadings, i.e. those of SAFE, FREE, and BEST WAY, indicate a conceptual proximity CHEAP and FUN to DRIVE on the cognitive map, and explain their particular instrumental effect on SAFE, FREE, and BEST WAY.

That CHEAP and FUN to DRIVE are important elements in the learning process of the experience becomes evident, when comparing these values over the three different factor solutions above. The expectancy value factor solution (III.4.2) shows these two variables loading significantly both on the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension as well as on the Achievement Dimension. For the experience, they assume their own factor as just described and stand out within the learning experience of touring New Zealand.

In the final attitude solution, (III.4.4), they assume quite a dominant role in the Achievement Dimension, as well as a clearly significant one in the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension.
These two variables are thus regarded as instrumental in the perception of flow. The cognitive character of this perception is indicated by their loadings on the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension.

III.4.3.5 Factor 5: The Social Experience

While a forced factor solution with four (as in the 'before') or three factors (as in the 'after' solution) could have made the task of interpretation easier, it is interesting to note that both Factor 4 and 5 are likely to constitute 'outliers' in the sense that these variables behave differently enough to generate their own (orthogonal) axes.

On this factor, TOURIST (.76447) and EASY (.68836) are the highest loading values with NATURE (.27929) and ACHIEVE (.23681) also loading significantly.

TOURIST and EASY indicate the social dimension, whereas NATURE is the central holiday-experience dimension which could be characterized by its non-social features. ACHIEVE represents the flow that was experienced. This particular juxtaposition on a factor and, ultimately, on the tourists' cognitive map, points towards what Orlovius (1989) describes as the 'pendulum behaviour' of tourists.

Tourists were asked to indicate the importance of six holiday attractions. They rated 'New Zealand's Scenery and Nature' the highest of all attractions, with an overall mean of 4.8709, n=395. The importance of 'Culture and People' rated the second highest with 4.2759, n=395 (see Appendix 5).

The pendulum behaviour denotes the particular quality of relationships tourists engage in with locals and other tourists. While they are interested in social contacts, they mostly stop short of any deeper involvement. Generally, once tourists sense, that a stronger commitment is required or about to arise, they 'swing' back to enjoying the serenity and isolation of nature.

Succeeding in mixing social interaction and nature-experience, without having to experience 'down-sides' when being committed to either activity, promotes the feeling of flow. In other words, not having to endure the more mundane things in social interactions (e.g. having to endure a noisy bar full of drunken people in a small town) or the sometimes atrocious conditions of New Zealand's weather, by simply getting into the van and driving off to 'new shores', would offer a reasonable explanation of this factor of the holiday experience.

III.4.3.6 Summarizing the Value-Difference-Score Factor Solution

The significance of this third factor analysis lies with the fact that it is not only a solution that helps explain the change of expectations to final attitudes but also, how the actual experience can be assumed to be structured.
The grouping of values in the solution indicates a possible effect of the sequence of variables as they occur in the list of items in the questionnaire (see Appendix 8). However, the representation of NATURE which is part of that sequence of items, would help contradict this argument.

While essentially containing its initial structure in the first three factors, the last factor solution (of the above difference scores) classifies the variables of CHEAP and FUN to DRIVE as an instrumental dimension in Factor 4. On the other hand, Factor 5, with TOURIST and EASY (to meet locals) represents a social dimension. Both of these dimensions can be suspected to be influenced by outcomes of learning experiences taking a particular role within the overall holiday experience, i.e. causing change.

In the final-attitude analysis (III.4.4), TOURIST and EASY become part of the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension of Factor 1. CHEAP and FUN to DRIVE share significant loadings on both the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension as well as the Achievement Dimension.

The final-attitude solution is thus based on changes occurring firstly and foremostly, in the Achievement Dimension, followed by those in the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension and, thirdly, by changes in the inner-directed Self-Fulfilment Dimension.

The Achievement Dimension is thus most instrumental in bringing about the change to the final attitude. The achievement of all the intentions contained in prior expectations represents Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) untremmeled experience of "flow".

III.4.4 Analysis of the Changes of the Means (from expectancy-values to attitudes)

Judging from the structural similarities of the above factor solutions, the structure of the experience must be considered as overall consistent with the structure of expectations. Another way of supporting this claim is by measuring the similarity (q-level) of the total 'before' set of 17 value items with the total 'after' set of 17 value items. The q-level is .4948; sig.≤.01; n=395.

The following table lists all motivations (before the experience) and all attitudes (after the experience). This time, instrumental and expressive values are grouped together.

The first two columns list the means of each value as they occurred before and after the experience. The following two columns are, strictly speaking, the correlations between 'before' and 'after' values. However, since this is a repeat-measurement, each measurement represents the q-level of similarity rather than the measure of correlation (Hofstätter, 1986). The last two columns represent the means of the difference scores and the significance of that change. This analysis has been executed via the repeat-
measure t-test (df=394) in the SPSSX statistical package.

### TABLE III.4.6 The Changes in Means from Expectancy Values to Final Attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTRUMENTAL VALUES</th>
<th>BEFORE</th>
<th>AFTER</th>
<th>q - Level</th>
<th>sig. of q</th>
<th>MEAN of DIFFERENCE</th>
<th>sig. of DIFFERENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHEAP</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.1873</td>
<td>.496</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUN to DRIVE</td>
<td>3.5418</td>
<td>3.7797</td>
<td>.450</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>4.6025</td>
<td>4.3215</td>
<td>.284</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-281</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EASY</td>
<td>1.4329</td>
<td>3.038</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>1.605</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOURIST</td>
<td>2.7241</td>
<td>2.7696</td>
<td>.448</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATUR</td>
<td>4.2405</td>
<td>4.0177</td>
<td>.291</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-223</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEST WAY</td>
<td>4.1595</td>
<td>4.1899</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No BOOKING</td>
<td>4.2608</td>
<td>4.3595</td>
<td>.260</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POTENTIAL</td>
<td>3.3772</td>
<td>3.3975</td>
<td>.442</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| EXPRESSIVE VALUES   |        |        |           |           |                    |                    |
| FREE                | 4.7949 | 4.5342 | .142      | .005      | -.261              | .000               |
| ADVENTURE           | 3.7013 | 3.6633 | .477      | .000      | -.038              | ns                 |
| OWE                 | 2.5797 | 2.8911 | .489      | .000      | .311               | .000               |
| BELONG              | 2.4405 | 3.3063 | .241      | .000      | .866               | .000               |
| STYLE               | 3.3316 | 3.4633 | .491      | .000      | .132               | .05                |
| ACHIEVE             | 4.1241 | 3.9722 | .351      | .000      | -.152              | .008               |
| SAFE                | 3.4101 | 3.6861 | .362      | .000      | .276               | .000               |
| FUN & ENJOYMENT     | 3.7165 | 3.7873 | .472      | .000      | .071               | ns                 |

Although showing a highly significant increase in mean values, only EASY has a somewhat weak q-measure of significance, indicating that the experience amongst all tourists in meeting people has been varied, thereby diffusing correlations.

All other repeat-measurements have significant or highly significant similarities. For expressive values, they range from a q-level of .142, sig..005 for FREE, to .496, sig..000 for CHEAP and, for instrumental values, from .260, sig..000 for NO BOOKING to .450, sig..005 for FUN to DRIVE. This indicates further that there exists a relationship between the initial expectancy-value/motivation and the final attitude.

The mean differences between 'before' and 'after' measurements show two sets of figures, those which indicate a decrease and those which indicate an increase. Of those which report an increase in strength, only TOURIST, POTENTIAL and FUN &
ENJOYMENT have no statistically significant increases.

Those variables which show significant increases in their mean values have either been classified as instrumental (CHEAP, FUN to DRIVE, EASY and NO BOOKING with an average increase of .582), or have been classified as outer-directed expressive values (OWE, BELONG, STYLE and SAFE with an average increase of .396).

Those variables which have been classified as inner-directed expressive values (FREE and ACHIEVE) both show significantly reduced mean-differences. DO and NATURE were identified as instrumental variables. In all factor solutions presented here in this volume, these variables load strongest on the inner-directed Self-Fulfilment dimension. These, too, experienced a highly significant decrease.

III.4.5 Relationship of Expectancy Values, Final Attitudes and Value Difference-Scores with Satisfaction Scores

III.4.5.1 Relationship of Expectancy Values with Satisfaction Scores

The following table (TABLE III.4.7) shows the mean values of all satisfaction scores. It should be noted that n (the number of respondents) differs from score to score since respondents were asked to choose between two options. These options relate to the two sets of scales of "Either satisfied", "Or dissatisfied" according to the two-factor model of satisfaction which regards satisfaction as mono-polar. The options also relate to the two sets of scales which measure the degree of "More satisfied than expected" and "Less satisfied than expected".

In order to make these results more transparent, only the category of satisfaction is mentioned (e.g. "Overall" for "How satisfied are you overall?" followed by "Yes" and "No" standing for respondents' evaluation of whether they have been "Either satisfied" or whether they have been "... dissatisfied". Similarly, "More" and "Less" indicate as to whether respondents have been "More satisfied than expected" or "Less satisfied than expected").
### TABLE III.4.7.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SATISFACTION ITEM</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Scenery</th>
<th>Quality of Service</th>
<th>Entertainment</th>
<th>Culture &amp; People</th>
<th>Weather</th>
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<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>4.814</td>
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<td>26</td>
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</table>

Overall, the results show a high degree of satisfaction with all aspects of the holiday in New Zealand. Here, the numbers of respondents do not always add up to 395 as in the value analyses above, since no assumptions about the meaning of 'no response' could be made.

Also, the individual satisfaction scores show highly significant correlations with overall satisfaction. Apart from other analyses presented here, this shows that individual tourism elements contribute to the perception of overall satisfaction. It reflects the multidimensionality of the overall satisfaction formation process. (Note that these correlations are based only on the satisfaction scores, not the dissatisfaction scores).

---

The reader might observe that most satisfaction scores are highly skewed. This, however, has no detectable influence on the normality of the distribution of the sampling error as opposed to the distribution of individual items, which is the more important measure for the accuracy and validity of inferential tests (see Bernstein, 1988:25).
TABLE III.4.7.2 Correlations of Overall Satisfaction with Domain Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction with the ....</th>
<th>Overall Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Campervan</td>
<td>.3712**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness of Price</td>
<td>.2930**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>.1479**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service</td>
<td>.2887**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>.2517**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture and People</td>
<td>.2761**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenery and Nature</td>
<td>.2317**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weather</td>
<td>.1983**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum of Final Attitudes</td>
<td>.3069**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next table (TABLE III.4.8) shows the correlations between the factorized expectancy-values/motivations (4 factors, see TABLE III.4.2 above) and all satisfaction scores. "Satisfaction with the Weather" has been dropped since there are no significant correlations to be reported.
### TABLE III.4.8
Correlations between Satisfaction Scores and Expectancy-Values Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction Item</th>
<th>Symbolic</th>
<th>Achievement</th>
<th>Self-Fulfilment</th>
<th>Social Sphere</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.0743</td>
<td>.0903</td>
<td>-.0326</td>
<td>.0216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.6093</td>
<td>-.1035</td>
<td>.0941</td>
<td>.3494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more</td>
<td>.1948**</td>
<td>.0159</td>
<td>.0440</td>
<td>.0068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less</td>
<td>.3282</td>
<td>.0826</td>
<td>-.0694</td>
<td>.0879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campervan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1513**</td>
<td>.1043*</td>
<td>.0979</td>
<td>.0684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>-.0760</td>
<td>.1112</td>
<td>.5289*</td>
<td>.2710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more</td>
<td>.2639**</td>
<td>.0516</td>
<td>.1567**</td>
<td>.0118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less</td>
<td>.1549</td>
<td>.0794</td>
<td>.1403</td>
<td>-.0687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness of Price Paid for Holidays</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1959**</td>
<td>.1169*</td>
<td>.0939</td>
<td>-.0712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.1067</td>
<td>-.0903</td>
<td>-.0169</td>
<td>.3635*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor Activity Opportunities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1090*</td>
<td>.0694</td>
<td>.0773</td>
<td>.0833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.3468</td>
<td>-.2298</td>
<td>-.6427</td>
<td>-.8991**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1664**</td>
<td>.1833**</td>
<td>.1146*</td>
<td>.0022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.1913</td>
<td>.0189</td>
<td>-.3736</td>
<td>-.1394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenery</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1348**</td>
<td>.0417</td>
<td>.0393</td>
<td>-.0175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.6763</td>
<td>.6193</td>
<td>-.3882</td>
<td>-.0610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1897**</td>
<td>.0625</td>
<td>-.0130</td>
<td>-.0533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.3731</td>
<td>-.2167</td>
<td>-.0426</td>
<td>-.1415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.2377**</td>
<td>.0946</td>
<td>.0027</td>
<td>-.0202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>-.2438</td>
<td>-.0199</td>
<td>.0018</td>
<td>.1538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture &amp; People</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1543**</td>
<td>.0632</td>
<td>.0410</td>
<td>-.0479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.6993</td>
<td>.4992</td>
<td>-.1807</td>
<td>-.2101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* - Signif. LE .05  ** - Signif. LE .01  (2-tailed)

In these results, it should be noted that none of the four ('before') factors correlates significantly with overall (yes) satisfaction. However, the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension correlates highly significant with all other positive satisfaction items as well as with all "More than expected" items.

It should also be noted, that 'Fairness of Price' as well as 'Satisfaction with the Campervan' correlates with the Achievement Dimension.

For 'Fairness of Price', this correlation indicates the tourists' conviction that what
they are about to experience, appears in a good relation to what they paid for the means to achieve it. It thus reflects part of a positive attitude belonging to the 'environment' of satisfaction (Hofstätter, 1986).

Similarly with the campervan, the correlation with the Achievement Dimension expresses the still tentative representation in the cognitive structure, that the van and the consequences of using it, is facilitated by the variables loading on this factor.

This reflects the important dual nature of achievement, as discussed in the literature review. On the one hand, achievement represents the goal of an activity with the simultaneous experience of flow. The flow is inner-directed, while the activity is outer-directed, since it depends on the facilities used. At the same time, the flow is in an instrumental relationship to one or several expressive values. While one is aware of it, flow does not have a cognitive structure.

Due to the low strengths of the correlations, only those correlations with significances (sig.$\leq$0.01) and (n $\geq$ 20) will be considered in the evaluation of these results (Clauss & Ebner, 1977; Manly, 1986). This excludes most correlations with 'no' statements.
III.4.5.2 Relationship of Final-Attitudes with Satisfaction Scores

As has been stated above, the sequence of the dimensions in the final-attitude factor solution is the same as that of the motivation ('before') factor solution with the difference that here we have three rather than four dimensions. What used to be the fourth factor (Social Sphere) has now become integral part of the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension with a loading of (.71389). This is due to the convergence of expectancy values into attitudes with tighter cognitive structures (Bagozzi, 1981).

### TABLE III.4.9 Correlations of Final Attitudes with Satisfaction Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction Item</th>
<th>Symbolic</th>
<th>Achievement</th>
<th>Self-Fulfilment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1223*</td>
<td>.1433**</td>
<td>.2178**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.7220*</td>
<td>-.3359</td>
<td>.2527</td>
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<tr>
<td>more</td>
<td>.2279**</td>
<td>.1778**</td>
<td>.1171*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less</td>
<td>.2088</td>
<td>-.1780</td>
<td>-.2326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campervan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1447**</td>
<td>.2326**</td>
<td>.2367**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.1455</td>
<td>-.0493</td>
<td>-.1933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more</td>
<td>.2927**</td>
<td>.2387**</td>
<td>.1873**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less</td>
<td>.0054</td>
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<td>.0450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness of Price Paid for Holidays</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.2798**</td>
<td>.1866**</td>
<td>.1060*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.1156</td>
<td>.0919</td>
<td>-.2275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor Activity Opportunities</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1037*</td>
<td>.1331*</td>
<td>.1765**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.4084</td>
<td>.1452</td>
<td>-.4228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1674**</td>
<td>.1505**</td>
<td>.1056*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.2137</td>
<td>-.1797</td>
<td>-.3407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenery</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.1312*</td>
<td>.0983</td>
<td>.1792**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.5835</td>
<td>-.0304</td>
<td>-.2782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.2081**</td>
<td>.0957</td>
<td>.0645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>.2560</td>
<td>-.3019</td>
<td>-.1187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.3062**</td>
<td>.1230*</td>
<td>.0740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>-.1068</td>
<td>-.3598</td>
<td>-.3990*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture &amp; People</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.2022**</td>
<td>.0584</td>
<td>.0915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>-.2942</td>
<td>.6734</td>
<td>-.9099**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* - Signif. LE .05  ** - Signif. LE .01  (2-tailed)
TABLE III.4.9 reveals a pattern of highly significant correlations consistent with the hypothesis that the more the assessment involves inner-directed (emotional) satisfaction-items, the progressively stronger the correlations with inner-directed dimensions.

This is particularly the case for the correlations involving Overall Satisfaction (.1223*, .1433**, .2178**; n=383), Satisfaction with Outdoor-Activity Opportunities (.1037*, .1331*, .1765**, n=373) and Satisfaction with New Zealand’s Scenery (.1312*, .0983(ns), .1792**; n=382).

The latter set of correlations has notably no significant correlation with the Achievement Dimension. Satisfaction with the Campervan (.1447**, .2325**, .2367**; n=366) also follows this pattern, however, here the correlations with the Achievement and Self-Fulfilment Dimensions are almost of equal strength, indicating the importance of the vehicle for the experience of "flow" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). The instrumentality of the vehicle shows thus considerable impact on the emotional assessment of the vehicle.

Conversely, those variables which require a more cognitive and less emotional appraisal, all show the reverse. They are,

Overall more satisfied than expected, more satisfied with the Campervan than expected, Satisfaction with the Price Paid for the holiday, Satisfaction with Shopping, Satisfaction with the Quality of Service, Entertainment, and Culture & People

Here, the outer-directed values with "filled emotions" (Bloch, 1985) show a stronger relationship with satisfaction items.

III.4.6 Relationship of Value-Difference Scores with Satisfaction Items

In the factor solution of the value-difference scores (TABLE III.4.5), the results showed a 5-factor solution with the Achievement Dimension explaining the highest amount of variance. This factor is thus in first position of the table, followed by the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension and, finally, the inner-directed Self-Fulfilment Dimension. The least amount of variance is explained by the instrumental ‘Campervan Aspects’ and the ‘Social Dimension’. Both of these are subsequently integrated into the instrumental Achievement factor and the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension respectively (see Table III.4.4 p...) as described and commented on in (III.4.4) and (III.4.5).

The Achievement factor represents the explanation for the change between the expectancy-value factor solution and the final-attitude solution. The change is based on the confirmation of inferred expectancies of goals and the reduction of the intensity of the demand for the goals (Tolman, 1932). Such a change can only come about through an active experience.
TABLE III.4.10  Correlations of Value-Difference Factor Scores with Satisfaction Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Achieve</th>
<th>Outer</th>
<th>Inner</th>
<th>Camper/inst</th>
<th>Social</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall yes</td>
<td>.1011**</td>
<td>.1224*</td>
<td>.1856**</td>
<td>.0631</td>
<td>-.0465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-.0986</td>
<td>-.1771</td>
<td>.2179</td>
<td>-.4656</td>
<td>.6024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more</td>
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<td>.0646</td>
<td>.0569</td>
<td>.0743</td>
<td>-.0044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less</td>
<td>-.4471*</td>
<td>-.3694</td>
<td>-.0293</td>
<td>.0952</td>
<td>.0645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.1492**</td>
<td>.0754</td>
<td>.1314*</td>
<td>.0823</td>
<td>-.0676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.1560</td>
<td>-.4194</td>
<td>-.1354</td>
<td>.2363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more</td>
<td>.1615**</td>
<td>.0201</td>
<td>.0846</td>
<td>.1330*</td>
<td>.0882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-.0262</td>
<td>.2462*</td>
<td>-.1034</td>
<td>.0225</td>
<td>-.0400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair Price yes</td>
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<td>.0474</td>
<td>.0891</td>
<td>.0721</td>
<td>.1017</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.0590</td>
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<td>-.0802</td>
<td>.0203</td>
</tr>
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<td>.0378</td>
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<td>-.2011</td>
<td>.3649</td>
</tr>
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<td>-.0175</td>
<td>.0627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.0891</td>
<td>.0473</td>
<td>.2566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.0338</td>
<td>.1096*</td>
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<td>-.3747</td>
<td>.1300</td>
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<td>.0996</td>
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<td>-.2654</td>
<td>-.4899</td>
<td>.2620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.0040</td>
<td>.0759</td>
<td>.0030</td>
<td>.1821**</td>
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<td>-.3654</td>
<td>.1056</td>
</tr>
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<td>.0394</td>
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<td>.2738</td>
<td>-.8617**</td>
<td>.6654</td>
<td>.0119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table (Table III.4.10) shows the correlations of the value-difference score factors with the final satisfaction scores.

It can be clearly noticed, that there occurs a change of direction in correlational strength between various satisfaction items.

Looking at the correlations of the overall satisfaction with the first three factors, it can be seen that the Achievement Dimension correlates the least with 'Overall Satisfies Yes', and that the inner-directed Self-Fulfilment Dimension correlates the strongest.

Similar to the previous analysis of final attitude factors and satisfaction scores, the indications are here, too, that the trend is reversed for all cognitively conceived satisfaction items, i.e. the perceived measurements ('more'). The more inner-directed factors gain no or only smaller levels of significant correlations with the cognitively conceived satisfaction measurements.
III.4.7 The Campervan

III.4.7.1 Expectations

Originally, the next set of variables to be analyzed was designed to test the two-factor model of satisfaction by way of what are considered to be instrumental rather than expressive tourism elements, i.e. transport and accommodation (see Whipple et al, 1986; Lawson, 1991).

Due to a lack of sufficient numbers of dissatisfied tourists which could have made such tests statistically valid, these tests could not be performed up to the desired accuracy. The author therefore chose to test another hypothesis peripheral to, but supportive, of this construct. Namely the hypothesis that,

"Accommodation and transport are instrumental aspects of the holiday experience"

Results from testing this hypothesis will help gain further insights into the possibility and veridity of categorizing instrumental and expressive expectations and outcomes (see discussion II.5.4).

In order to confirm or refute this hypothesis, two correlational tests are performed. The first correlates individual expectancy values (or motivations) with summed expectancies of campervan elements. (These elements refer to tangible and intangible features of the van). The second correlates individually summed expressive expectancies as well as summed instrumental campervan expectancies with factorized expectancy values.

During the analyses of motivational factors of Expectations (III.4.1), it could be assumed, that the processes leading to the decision of hiring a campervan, required high involvement. As the literature states, however, the facilities of transport and accommodation are only instrumental aspects of the overall holiday experience.

The methodology section (III.3.4) described, that tourists were asked to give detailed indications as to what they expect their campervan to be like. As can be seen from the items listed in Appendix 9, (Q.14), tourists were forced to decide between two options per item. The items verbalized either instrumental or expressive dimensions of campervan aspects.

The following is one example of the sixteen items,

"I expect the campervan to...

either perform reliably in all of its functions

or appear sophisticated as well as perform reliably"
The variables covering expectations and performance evaluations of showers and toilets were excluded from the analysis, since not all campervan models were equipped with these features.

Firstly, due to the possible unreliability of individual psychometric items (Bernstein, 1988), **all instrumental and all expressive items were summed into one single variable**, in order to increase their reliability according to the principle of aggregation (Rushton, 1983). This variable is identified as CVELEMEN in the following TABLE III.4.11.

Correlating CVELEMEN with all 17 motivations for hiring a campervan resulted in a set of four highly significant correlations (sig. ≤ .000). These are OWE, STYLE, ADVENTURE and POTENTIAL. The strongest correlations are with STYLE (r=.2503, n=382), and OWE (r=.2450, n=372). The somewhat weaker correlations are POTENTIAL (r=.2098, n=374) and ADVENTURE (r=.2004, n=385).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pair</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHEAP</td>
<td>.1491</td>
<td>FUN &amp; DRIVE</td>
<td>.976</td>
<td>FREE</td>
<td>.0175</td>
<td>ADVENTURE</td>
<td>.2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.003</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>.0976</td>
<td>OWE</td>
<td>.2450</td>
<td>BELONG</td>
<td>.1667</td>
<td>STYLE</td>
<td>.2503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.053</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EASY</td>
<td>.0020</td>
<td>TOURIST</td>
<td>.1276</td>
<td>NATUR</td>
<td>.1586</td>
<td>ACHIEVE</td>
<td>.1151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.968</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEST WAY</td>
<td>.1441</td>
<td>SAFE</td>
<td>.1374</td>
<td>NO BOOKING</td>
<td>.1646</td>
<td>FUN &amp; ENJOY</td>
<td>.1023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POTENTIAL</td>
<td>.2098</td>
<td>WITH</td>
<td>.374</td>
<td>CVELEMEN</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table also shows quite a number of significant correlations with individual instrumental motivations to hire a campervan (CHEAP, TOURIST, BEST WAY, and NO BOOKING, with still others slightly above the .05 significance level). These correlations are, however, weaker than the correlations of CVELEMEN with ADVENTURE, OWE, BELONG and STYLE.

POTENTIAL is disregarded here, since the interpretation of this variable in the
factor solution of motivations (TABLE III.4.2) has taken an ambiguous position by loading both on the instrumental Achievement Dimension as well as on the expressive outer-directed Symbolic Dimension.

The strongest correlations thus occur with three motivations which have been interpreted as outer-directed expressive (owie, Belong and style), and one inner-directed expressive variable (ADVENTURE).

From these results, it can be inferred, that tourists perceive the facilities and comforts the campervan provides, to be stronger related to the outer-directed expressive sphere, than to the instrumental sphere.

From a purely functional point of view, the total sum of campervan elements should correlate the strongest with instrumental motivations to hire a campervan. While this appears to be the case for natur and best way, it would mean that the other, stronger correlations are ignored.

The considerable relationship of the outer-directed expressive sphere with the campervan, is further highlighted, when correlating the separately summed instrumental and expressive campervan elements with the factorized expectancy values or motivations (see the factor analysis

Correlating all of the four factors of the expectancy values (TABLE III.4.2, p...) with the summed instrumental campervan elements resulted in no significant correlation. However, when correlating the summed expressive campervan elements with the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension, a weak but, none the less, significant correlation could be measured, r= .1402 sig. ≤ .05 with n=395.

This correlation is consistent with the nature of the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension and with the above findings of the first set of correlations. It gives this approach as well as the summed variables a measure of internal and external validity.

This result also shows, that within tourists' expectancies, the campervan tends to assume an expressive rather than an instrumental role. For at least this phase of the holiday experience, the campervan can be regarded as an attraction in itself. This contradicts, in part, the assumptions made in the literature, i.e. that accommodation and transport take up merely instrumental roles (see Whipple et al., 1986; Lawson, 1992).

The result gives credence to consumer behaviourists' subjective approach of perception. The phenomenological approach is an indispensable tool for scientists, in that it guides analyses and testing procedures, as it does here in the case of definitions and enquiries into the construct of instrumentality and expressiveness. But the ultimate judge is the perceiving tourist. It is his decision and definition as to what is instrumental and what is expressive. This is a powerful argument for the justification of the benefit-segmentation approach in marketing.
III.4.7.2 Performance Evaluation and Disconfirmations

The following analysis looks at the construct of disconfirmation (see II.3.2.3). As the reader might remember, the analysis of the value-difference scores showed two sets of variables, one that increased significantly in strength (instrumental and outer-directed expressive variables), the other, which decreased significantly (inner-directed expressive ones, see TABLE III.4.6).

Since a decrease would mean 'less satisfaction than expected' and an increase 'more satisfied than expected', these results would be at odds with the disconfirmation model because it was shown, that the inner-directed expressive factor of Self-Fulfilment correlates the strongest with overall satisfaction, whereas the Symbolic and Achievement Dimension correlated progressively weaker (see TABLE III.4.9).

In the final-attitudefactor solution, however, the Self-Fulfilment Dimension contains all of those variables which experienced a significant decrease (FREE, AVENTURE, DO, NATURE, and ACHIEVE). The following TABLE III.4.12 shows the bivariate correlations of these individual value-difference scores with overall satisfaction. Those variables, which experienced a decrease are highlighted in fat print. It may be noticed that ACHIEVE does not correlate with overall satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE III.4.12 Correlations of Individual Value-Difference Scores with Overall Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OVERALL SATISFACTION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD CHEAP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD F UN to DRIVE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD FREE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD ADVENTURE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD DO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD OWE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD BE LONG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD STYLE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD EASY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD TOURIST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD NATURE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD ACHIEVE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD BEST WAY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD SAFE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD NO BOOKING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD FUN &amp; ENJOY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VD POTENTIAL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* - Signif. LE .05  ** - Signif. LE .01 (2-tailed)

The survey also asked tourists to evaluate the performance of individual campervan aspects. It is therefore possible to compute campervan difference-scores and analyze the results similarly to those of value difference-scores.

All individual scores from both sets of instrumental and expressive expectations of campervan elements were subtracted from the performance evaluations given after the experience (i.e. Performance Evaluation minus Instrumental Expectation = Instrumental Disconfirmation
Score; Performance Evaluation minus Expressive Expectation = Expressive Disconfirmation Score).

This resulted in altogether fourteen instrumental and fourteen expressive disconfirmation scores. These two sets were then individually summed and correlated with overall satisfaction scores, as well as the scores of tourists' satisfaction with the campervan.

Those summed disconfirmations containing the instrumental expected and disconfirmed campervan elements are combined in the variable \textit{CVINSTRU}; those containing the expressive ones are represented in the variable \textit{CVEXPR}.

Table III.4.13 Correlations Between Instrumental and Expressive Disconfirmation Scores of Campervan Elements and Overall Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall Satisfaction</th>
<th>CVINSTRU</th>
<th>CVEXPR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>.1147*</td>
<td>.1980**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>.1497</td>
<td>-.2549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More</td>
<td>.1197*</td>
<td>.0539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less</td>
<td>-.0157</td>
<td>-.2758</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Campervan Satisfaction</th>
<th>CVINSTRU</th>
<th>CVEXPR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>.2544**</td>
<td>.1677**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>.0584</td>
<td>-.2669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More</td>
<td>.2393**</td>
<td>.0877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less</td>
<td>.0924</td>
<td>-.1011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = significant $p \leq .05$; ** = significant $p \leq .01$

This table demonstrates that disconfirmed expressive campervan elements correlate stronger with 'Overall Satisfaction, yes' than disconfirmed instrumental elements. While both variables correlate significantly with campervan satisfaction, the instrumental disconfirmation correlates stronger with this satisfaction score.

Only disconfirmed instrumental elements correlate with the "perceived" overall satisfaction measurement of 'more satisfied than expected'. This finding is subject to confirmation of Hypothesis 1b, i.e. that perceived measurements are more cognitive than emotional (see below).

Another hypothesis that gains confirmative support from the above analysis is that some of the initial demand for the goal (i.e. drive-based emotions) of actually obtaining the campervan as the symbol for desired outcomes of the holiday, has lessened (see proposition 2b).

Instead, there is superior strength of instrumental disconfirmations with 'Campervan Satisfaction, yes'.

This might be interpreted either as the effect of accustomisation, as suggested in the literature, or as the difference between the natures of measurements between overall
satisfaction and domain satisfaction. Overall satisfaction is more emotional while domain satisfaction measurements are more cognitive and therefore stronger related to cognizeable and thus instrumental dimensions.

Table III.4.14  Correlations of Value-Difference Scores with Campervan Disconfirmations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achievement</th>
<th>Symbolic</th>
<th>Self-Ful-Filment</th>
<th>Campervan Social</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dimension</td>
<td>Aspects</td>
<td>Aspects</td>
<td>Aspects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVINSTRU</td>
<td>.1677**</td>
<td>.1521**</td>
<td>.1010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVEXPRESS</td>
<td>.0267</td>
<td>.1470**</td>
<td>.1215*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = significant p ≤ .05; ** = significant p ≤ .01

TABLE III.4.14 shows the experience of value-satisfaction (value difference-scores) in relation to the satisfaction with the campervan. The experience shows a significant correlation with the inner-directed expressive dimension but there is no correlation with the instrumental elements.

The correlation of instrumental values with the Symbolic Dimension shows that dimension’s proximity to the normative quality of the instrumental dimension. Yet it could also suggest unreliability on behalf of the aggregated variable of CVINSTRU. The lack of any correlation with the inner-directed Self-Fulfilment Dimension, however, seems to contradict such an interpretation. In other words, these correlations with the Symbolic Dimension highlight its dual structure of cognitions and emotions as indicated in the value model of satisfaction (see FIGURE III.1 p...).

It can also be seen that the instrumental dimension correlates convincingly with the Achievement Dimension. This could be expected since both reflect the means by which the experience of flow took place and was made possible.

It is of interest to note that the campervan-elements disconfirmation scores have been computed in the same manner as the values or motivations and final attitude disconfirmation scores. As a result of this simple subtractive approach, the mean values for both instrumental and expressive campervan-elements disconfirmation scores have a negative direction similar to the values of FREE and ADVENTURE, and DO, NARURE and ACHIEVE (see TABLE III.4.6).

The mean value for expressive disconfirmations is -2.018 and for instrumental disconfirmations -5.013. At a superficial glance, these "inferred" (Swan & Trawick, 1981) results would indicate that a) all expectations have been negatively disconfirmed, b) that instrumental disconfirmations are stronger than expressive ones and c) that all tourists must be less satisfied than expected. The latter possibility (c), however, is not the case at all (see the mean satisfaction scores, TABLE III.4.7).

A simple cross tabulation of disconfirmations with perceived satisfaction judgements of 'more or less satisfied than expected' showed that far more tourists claimed to be more satisfied than their inferred disconfirmation results would indicate (see Appendix 10). This is in line with Bradburn & Caplovitz’s findings on happiness
Lastly, d), there is the option of a massive amount of assimilation that allows an overall positive experience to assimilate the negative aspects tourists experienced with the campervan.

On the face of it, this is the least likely option due to the vital role the campervan plays in their holidays overall. However, our literature review on satisfaction mentioned some startling findings by Parducci (1982) relating to the subtractive approach which has been used here.

Parducci found that if the number of categories used in judgements are small and if stimuli are positively skewed (here possibly through tourists’ positive attitudes and other positive experiences), then the base-level of adaptation or personal anchor-point of expectations changes more readily towards the positive side.

Obviously, there is material for further research. The question as to how satisfaction, in view of expectations should be calculated has been dealt with in the literature, particularly in the consumer behaviour literature (Cadotte, Woodruff & Jenkins, 1987; Tse & Wilton, 1988). Yet the problem is not new as the historical introduction to satisfaction research has shown (see Part II.1.4). More serious challenges as to the statistical validity of difference scores have come from Prakash & Lounsbury (1984).

The problem with the simple subtractive equation is similar to other equations: it is that dissatisfaction can become a 'bottomless pit', as Hofstätter (1986:125) describes Arthur Schopenhauer’s (1788-1860) approach, who, instead of subtracting, divides perceived performance by expectations. As a result, dissatisfaction can be increased at will, by simply increasing expectations. This is also the case in Latour & Peat’s model (1979) who, essentially, use the same approach as Schopenhauer.

The here utilized simple subtraction of 'performance minus expectations', results in sensible outcomes and thus carries some validity. But this can only be so, if the effects of drive-reduction are accepted as being operant. This appears to be shown in TABLE III.4.6 above, where cognizeable parameters increased in strength after positive disconfirmation while emotion-based values decreased in line with assumptions made by the drive-reduction theory.

The analysis of campervan disconfirmations appears to follow the same direction as inner-directed expressive variables. In this case, however, variables and outcomes do not lend themselves to an easy interpretation. This might be attributable to the different level of involvement in comparison to other decisions, e.g. regarding destination or activities. In addition, it might also be an effect of accustomisation that let tourists lose the initial enthusiastic drive.
The Effect of Not Performed But Intended Activities on Satisfaction Scores

In III.4.7.2 above, the disconfirmation scores of experiences with the campervan have been discussed. The simple subtraction of expectations minus experiences resulted in strongly negative disconfirmation scores. While, nominally, this would have resulted in dissatisfaction, according to the Consumer Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction paradigm, the overall outcome showed the opposite: tourists were generally very satisfied with their campervans.

In discussing these results, it was mentioned, that a possible reason for this outcome could have been the overall positive experience with other aspects of the holiday, i.e. the activities (intended and) pursued. This would have meant, that tourists had assimilated their negative experiences.

The following section therefore tests the hypothesis (1c), that "the more activities are intended but not performed, the less satisfied tourists are". In this context, we look at all satisfaction scores, the satisfaction with the campervan included. The particular statistical method involved, manovas with covariates, also allows for further insights into the relationship of values, expectations and satisfaction.

The stated hypothesis has been confirmed. However, it was not supported until initial motivations had been considered as covariates.

At the first glance, this hypothesis appears as almost too basic in its assumption and could, therefore, be neglected. However, apart from showing an influence of expectations on satisfaction-formation, this test further reveals the validity of including values and motivations as explanatory variables, since these have a modifying effect on satisfaction formation.

Method for Testing Differences in Satisfaction Scores as a Result of Activities Intended but not Performed

As a first step, all individual intended activities were cross-tabulated with their counterparts of performed activities in part II of the questionnaire.

All those activities which, on a Likert-type scale, were marked (4) ("rather certain") and (5) ("very certain") were set to (1) as an intended activity. All others (1-3, from "very uncertain" to "don't know") were set (0). The categories were collapsed so as to increase the expected cell frequencies. While this meant a loss of differentiation, it resulted in tests with higher levels of significance.

The same list of activities occurs in part II of the questionnaire, this time, however, with a scale that measures the frequencies of pursuit. Here, all activities that had been marked as performed, were set to (1) and those which had not been pursued
were set to (0).

The forty-seven crosstabulations resulted in twelve tables with expected frequencies \( \geq 5 \) (Claß &Ebner, 1977). Of these, 4 activities (Snow-skiing, Parachuting, Paragliding and Hunting) achieved less than 50% of the expected cell-frequency. All cross-tabulations, apart from the four just mentioned, as well as the one for Surfing, Waterskiing and Supermarket Shopping, showed highly significant values for Phi with Pearson's correlation values between \( r=.2 \) and \( r=.55 \).

The cross-tabulations also showed, that tourists ended up pursuing more activities, than originally intended.

It should be noted that, because of the large number of activities pursued but not intended, the results of the cross-tabulations could be inflated by low expected frequencies. In other words, they are likely to be "significant", when, in effect, they are not.

None the less, from these results, it can be tentatively inferred that, overall, the cross-tabulations show an acceptable measure of fit and indicate, that the majority of tourists appear to have pursued what they initially intended. Tabling the results has been omitted here, since this would have resulted in forty-seven different analyses and tables. The only important outcome for the following analysis here is an estimate of the relationship between intended and pursued activities. This can be regarded as established.

As a second step, all intended activities and all pursued activities were added with the result of two sums. The sum of intended activities were then subtracted from pursued activities. The mean value of the aggregated difference of activities, (M), was found to be -2.025, the median -2 and the std.dev 6.727. This is thus the average number of activities not pursued. A mean-split formed two groups, i.e. those who had pursued more and those who had pursued less activities than the average.

A series of analyses of variance (ANOVA in SPSSX) which used the above two groups as independent variables and all individual Satisfaction Scores as dependent variables resulted in no significant differences.

As could have been supposed, the sheer number and variety of things to do in New Zealand is so large, that tourists will always find alternatives or substitutes for an activity they missed out on.

III.8.1.1 Design 1

However, due to the danger of Type II errors in sequences of univariate analyses of variance (see e.g. Manly, 1986), a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed which extracts interactions between variables.
While this test resulted in no significant differences on the multivariate level, the univariate analyses also performed in this application, which, as opposed to the above ANOVAs, calculates only partial correlation matrices, showed some significant differences. This indicated a possible effect of other variables.

This MANOVA was performed with 10 degrees of Freedom (for all positive satisfaction items including the two items with 'more satisfied than expected') and two groups of tourists as independent variables (i.e. those above and below the average number of activities pursued).

In this design, the multivariate analysis showed no significance, but at the univariate level, the analysis showed that the number of activities pursued had a significant impact upon 'Overall Satisfaction', 'Shopping', 'Scenery', 'Quality of Service' and 'Culture & People'. The reader may note the absence of the 'Satisfaction with the Campervan' variable.

III.8.1.2 Design 2

Those satisfaction items which showed significant univariate values for F were extracted in a second, new design. This time, however, all instrumental expectancy-values (see list III.2.13, Methodology) were summed and used as a covariate.

The use of the instrumental reasons for choosing a campervan (motivations) as covariates allows the control for their varying influences on the satisfaction formation. In other words, if the use of covariates generates or increases F-values and levels of significance, then an influence of these covariates on the final judgement can be reasonably assumed.

The summation of 9 instrumental variables (and 8 expressive variables below) has two reasons. Firstly, technically, the MANOVA programme on the SPSSX application cannot handle more than five covariates. Secondly, and more importantly, the summation of possible individually unreliable psychometric measurement items increases their reliability according to the principle of aggregation (Rushton, 1983).

The within-cell regression, i.e. the removal of influences between covariates and dependent variables (see Hair, 1987:162f) showed $F = 4.1122$ with 388 error df and sig. of $F = .001$.

Within this multivariate design, the effect of activities (not) performed above or below the average (M) had a significant effect (sig. of $F = .022$) on the satisfaction judgement of campervan tourists (Pillai's value = .03329; exact $F = 2.67246; 5$ df).
TABLE III.4.15.1  Manova Design 2, Effects of Activities (Not) Performed

The effect of activities performed and not performed (M) in a univariate F-test with 1,392 df shows the following significance values for the five satisfaction items,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction Item</th>
<th>Covariate = Instrumental Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Satisfaction</td>
<td>.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenery</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture &amp; People</td>
<td>.026</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 2**

Order of Variables for Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variates</th>
<th>Covariates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SATOALY</td>
<td>(overall satisfied, yes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATSHOPY</td>
<td>(satisfied with shopping yes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATNATRY</td>
<td>(satisfied with scenery and nature, yes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATQOSY</td>
<td>(satisfied with the quality of service, yes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td>(satisfied with culture and people, yes)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 Dependent Variables
1 Covariate

**EFFECT .. WITHIN CELLS Regression**

Multivariate Tests of Significance \( S = 1, M = 1 \frac{1}{2}, N = 193 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Exact F</th>
<th>Hypoth. DF</th>
<th>Error DF</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pillais</td>
<td>.05031</td>
<td>4.11122</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotellings</td>
<td>.05298</td>
<td>4.11122</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks</td>
<td>.94969</td>
<td>4.11122</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reys</td>
<td>.05031</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. F statistics are exact.

**EFFECT .. WITHIN CELLS Regression (Cont.)**

Univariate F-tests with \( (1.392) \) D.F.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SATOALY</td>
<td>.00564</td>
<td>.07507</td>
<td>.00310</td>
<td>2.31529</td>
<td>1.04220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATSHOPY</td>
<td>.04314</td>
<td>2.0771</td>
<td>.04070</td>
<td>33.05937</td>
<td>1.87039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATNATRY</td>
<td>.00453</td>
<td>.06734</td>
<td>.00200</td>
<td>1.63051</td>
<td>.91304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATQOSY</td>
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<td>.11930</td>
<td>.01172</td>
<td>8.07851</td>
<td>1.42734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td>.02189</td>
<td>.14796</td>
<td>.01939</td>
<td>14.25035</td>
<td>1.62446</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SATOALY</td>
<td>2.22153</td>
<td>.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATSHOPY</td>
<td>17.67508</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>SATNATRY</td>
<td>1.78582</td>
<td>.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATQOSY</td>
<td>5.65985</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td>8.77239</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 2**

**EFFECT...**

Multivariate Tests of Significance ($S = 1, M = 11/2, N = 193$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Exact F Hypoth. DF</th>
<th>Error DF</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pillai</td>
<td>.03329</td>
<td>2.67246</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotellings</td>
<td>.03444</td>
<td>2.67246</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks</td>
<td>.96671</td>
<td>2.67246</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy's</td>
<td>.03329</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: F statistics are exact.

**EFFECT...** (Cont.)

Univariate F-tests with (1,392) D. F.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Hypoth. SS</th>
<th>Error SS</th>
<th>Hypoth. MS</th>
<th>Error MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SATOALY</td>
<td>3.73560</td>
<td>408.54361</td>
<td>3.73560</td>
<td>1.04220</td>
<td>3.59433</td>
<td>.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATSHOPY</td>
<td>17.44736</td>
<td>733.19439</td>
<td>17.44736</td>
<td>1.87039</td>
<td>9.32818</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATNATRY</td>
<td>8.70666</td>
<td>357.91017</td>
<td>8.70666</td>
<td>91304</td>
<td>9.53594</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATQOSY</td>
<td>7.63428</td>
<td>559.51614</td>
<td>7.63428</td>
<td>1.42734</td>
<td>5.34862</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td>8.08274</td>
<td>636.78643</td>
<td>8.08274</td>
<td>1.62446</td>
<td>4.97566</td>
<td>.026</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The considerable effect of instrumental expectancy values as covariates on the power of discriminating an influence points towards assimilation. This means, that tourists have, due to learning experiences, effectively shifted their anchor-points of expectations towards a more harmonious level with the outcome.

The within-cell regression shows that the instrumental expectancies have no measurable effect on overall satisfaction formation nor on the satisfaction with scenery/nature. This result is important in so far, as it shows no correlations between the cognitive variables of expectancies with the (emotional) overall satisfaction result. Regarding scenery/nature, it supports the interpretation, that this variable is also strongly inner-directed and characterized by 'expectant emotions' (Bloch, 1985). Conversely, there is considerable effect of instrumental expectations on levels of satisfaction with shopping, the quality of service and culture and people.

After removing this impact which instrumental expectations have on the satisfaction with individual domains, the effect of M, i.e. the number of intended but not pursued activities, influenced the perception of all satisfaction domains in this analysis. It should be noticed, that the effect on overall satisfaction is the weakest with .059 and the strongest on shopping and scenery/nature. One explanation for this might be that shopping opportunities are not very prolific in New Zealand, particularly in the South Island and that, for example, the access to attractions is often combined with arduous driving efforts in truck-sized campervans over often unsealed roads.

**III.8.1.3 Design 3**

In a third design, the summed instrumental expectancy-values were excluded and substituted by the summed expressive expectancy values (see III.2.13 Methodology).
The within-cell regression is significant with $F = .012$, Pillai’s value = .03715, 5 df, and 388 error df.

The effect of activities pursued with expressive values as covariate on satisfaction scores is significant at $F$ the .039 level and Pillai’s value = .02959.

### TABLE III.4.15.2 Design 3

At the univariate level, the impact of activities pursued are as follows,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction Item</th>
<th>Covariate = Expressive Values</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Satisfaction</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenery</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture &amp; People</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 3**

EFFECT WITHIN CELLS Regression

Multivariate Tests of Significance ($S = 1, M = 1 1/2, N = 193$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Exact $F$</th>
<th>Hypoth. DF</th>
<th>Error DF</th>
<th>Sig. of $F$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pillais</td>
<td>.03715</td>
<td>2.99417</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotellings</td>
<td>.03858</td>
<td>2.99417</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks</td>
<td>.96285</td>
<td>2.99417</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy's</td>
<td>.03715</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: F statistics are exact.

EFFECT WITHIN CELLS Regression (Cont.)

Univariate $F$-tests with (1,392) D. F.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SATOALY</td>
<td>.00190</td>
<td>.04355</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>.77912</td>
<td>1.04612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATSHOPY</td>
<td>.02250</td>
<td>.15001</td>
<td>.02001</td>
<td>17.24346</td>
<td>1.91074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATNATRY</td>
<td>.00091</td>
<td>.03012</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>.32609</td>
<td>.91636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATQUESTY</td>
<td>.01668</td>
<td>.12916</td>
<td>.01417</td>
<td>9.46862</td>
<td>1.42379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td>.01466</td>
<td>.12105</td>
<td>.01214</td>
<td>9.54014</td>
<td>1.63647</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SATOALY</td>
<td>.74477</td>
<td>.389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATSHOPY</td>
<td>9.02449</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATNATRY</td>
<td>.35586</td>
<td>.561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATQUESTY</td>
<td>6.65029</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td>5.82970</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table contd... \198)
The within-cell regression shows that the expressive expectations have no relationship with overall satisfaction. Neither is there any explanatory power in expressive expectancies in the variable of satisfaction with New Zealand's scenery and nature. Initially, this comes as a surprise because both variables are meant to have a strongly emotional character. A possible explanation for this lies with the difference between drives in expectations and the feeling of emotional satisfaction.

A comparison of the significance levels of the effect of $M$ between the above two tables (Design 2 and Design 3), using alternately summed instrumental and expressive expectancy values, reveals that the instrumental values discriminate the two groups better than the expressive expectancy values.

As could be reasonably expected, the influence of instrumental parameters exhibits a stronger influence on the enjoyment of activities than the influence of expressive parameters, simply because the one cannot occur before the other. In other words, if the instrumental facilities are putting up barriers, the expressive enjoyment cannot even begin. This result would tend to support the two-factor theory of satisfaction.

### III.8.1.4 Design 4

In a fourth and fifth design, the above exercise was repeated with the summed final-attitude measurements of part II of the questionnaire. The items used in the latter summations are the equivalents to the above 'before' items.

Using summed instrumental attitudes, the within-cell regression revealed a significance of $F$ at .000, Pillai's value = .08462, 5 df and 388 error df.
The final effect of the number of activities pursued on satisfaction scores with instrumental attitudes as covariates shows a significant F value of .067, Pillai's value = .02613, with 5 df and 388 error df.

**TABLE III.4.15.3 Design 4**

The univariate test shows the impact as follows,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction Item</th>
<th>Covariate = Instrumental Attitudes</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Satisfaction</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenery</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture &amp; People</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 4**

Order of Variables for Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variates</th>
<th>Covariates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SATOALY</td>
<td>IIVINST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATSHOPY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATNATRY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATQOSY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 Dependent Variables  
1 Covariate

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 4**

EFFECT WITHIN CELLS Regression  
Multivariate Tests of Significance (S = 1, M = 1 1/2, N = 193)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Exact F</th>
<th>Hypoth. DF</th>
<th>Error DF</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pillai's</td>
<td>.08462</td>
<td>7.17371</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotellings</td>
<td>.09244</td>
<td>7.17371</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks</td>
<td>.91588</td>
<td>7.17371</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy's</td>
<td>.08462</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: F statistics are exact.

EFFECT WITHIN CELLS Regression (Cont.)
Univariate F-tests with (1,392) D. F.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SATOALY</td>
<td>.03347</td>
<td>.18295</td>
<td>.03100</td>
<td>13.75160</td>
<td>1.01303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATSHOPY</td>
<td>.05862</td>
<td>.24211</td>
<td>.05621</td>
<td>44.91452</td>
<td>1.84015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATNATRY</td>
<td>.02931</td>
<td>.17120</td>
<td>.02683</td>
<td>10.53736</td>
<td>.89031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATQOSY</td>
<td>.03957</td>
<td>.19893</td>
<td>.03712</td>
<td>22.46245</td>
<td>1.39064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td>.05677</td>
<td>.23826</td>
<td>.05436</td>
<td>36.99948</td>
<td>1.56552</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Variable   F  Sig. of F
SATDALY    13.57474  .000
SATSHOPY   24.40806  .000
SATNATRY   11.83555  .001
SATQOSY    16.15256  .000
SATCULTY   23.59331  .000

*** *** ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 4 *** ***

EFFECT M
Multivariate Tests of Significance (S = 1, M = 1 1/2, N = 193)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Exact F</th>
<th>Hypoth. DF</th>
<th>Error DF</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pillais</td>
<td>.02613</td>
<td>2.08218</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotellings</td>
<td>.02683</td>
<td>2.08218</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks</td>
<td>.07367</td>
<td>2.08218</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy's</td>
<td>.02613</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. F statistics are exact.

EFFECT M (Cont.)
Univariate F-tests with (1.392) D. F.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Hypoth. SS</th>
<th>Error SS</th>
<th>Hypoth. MS</th>
<th>Error MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SATDALY</td>
<td>2.61974</td>
<td>397.10729</td>
<td>2.61974</td>
<td>1.01303</td>
<td>2.58605</td>
<td>.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATSHOPY</td>
<td>11.68456</td>
<td>721.33924</td>
<td>11.68456</td>
<td>1.84015</td>
<td>6.34978</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATNATRY</td>
<td>7.17997</td>
<td>349.00332</td>
<td>7.17997</td>
<td>.89031</td>
<td>8.06454</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATQOSY</td>
<td>5.31006</td>
<td>545.13220</td>
<td>5.31006</td>
<td>1.39064</td>
<td>3.81842</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td>5.04558</td>
<td>614.07730</td>
<td>5.04558</td>
<td>1.56652</td>
<td>3.22088</td>
<td>.073</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The within-cell regression of Design 4 shows a highly significant explanatory value in the final instrumental attitudes for the overall as well as domain-specific satisfaction outcomes (with somewhat a weaker result for scenery/nature). This should come as no surprise, since final attitudes are closely related to satisfaction.

When controlling for their effect, however, the influence of non-performed but intended activities on M is considerably weaker. In Design 2, the instrumental expectancies showed a significance level of .022. Here, in Design 4, the instrumental final attitudes show a comparatively low .067. This is the first indication we have, that a process of assimilation has taken place during the experience, which made tourists shift their 'anchor point' established in expectations, closer to what is perceived as commensurate with the outcome.

At the univariate level, there is no effect of non-performed activities on overall satisfaction. The level of significance is a mere .109.
III.4.8.5  Design 5

The fifth design replaced the above instrumental (final) attitudes with the summed expressive attitudes.

The within-cell regression is significant with F at .000, Pillai's value = .08835, F = 7.52052, 5 df and 388 error df.

The final impact of the number of activities pursued on satisfaction scores in the multivariate test has F = 2.27457 significant at .047 with Pillai's value = .02848, 5 df and 388 error df.

TABLE III.4.15.4  Design 5

At the univariate level, significance levels of the effect are as follows,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction Item</th>
<th>Covariate = Expressive Attitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Satisfaction</td>
<td>.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenery</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service</td>
<td>.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture &amp; People</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** **** * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 5 **** **

Order of Variables for Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variates</th>
<th>Covariates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SATDAILY</td>
<td>JIVEXPR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATSHOPY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATNATRY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATQOSY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 Dependent Variables
1 Covariate

** **** * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 5 **** **

EFFECT... WITHIN CELLS Regression
Multivariate Tests of Significance (S = 1, M = 1 1/2, N = 193)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Exact F</th>
<th>Hypoth. DF</th>
<th>Error DF</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pillai</td>
<td>.08835</td>
<td>7.52052</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotellings</td>
<td>.99691</td>
<td>7.52052</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks</td>
<td>.91165</td>
<td>7.52052</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roys</td>
<td>.08835</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note... F statistics are exact.
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 5**

**EFFECT...M**

Multivariate Tests of Significance ($S = 1, M = 1/2, N = 193$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Exact $F$</th>
<th>Hypoth. DF</th>
<th>Error DF</th>
<th>Sig. of $F$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pillais</td>
<td>.03848</td>
<td>2.27457</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotellings</td>
<td>.02931</td>
<td>2.27457</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks</td>
<td>.97152</td>
<td>2.27457</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>388.00</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy</td>
<td>.02848</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $F$ statistics are exact.

**EFFECT...M (Cont.)**

Univariate $F$-tests with (1,392) D. F.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Hypoth. SS</th>
<th>Error SS</th>
<th>Hypoth. MS</th>
<th>Error MS</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>Sig. of $F$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SATOALY</td>
<td>2.94785</td>
<td>391.72345</td>
<td>2.94785</td>
<td>.99929</td>
<td>2.94993</td>
<td>.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATHOPLY</td>
<td>13.23423</td>
<td>724.92917</td>
<td>13.23423</td>
<td>1.84931</td>
<td>7.71631</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATNSTRY</td>
<td>7.80873</td>
<td>351.36940</td>
<td>7.80873</td>
<td>.89635</td>
<td>8.71169</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATQOSY</td>
<td>6.08399</td>
<td>547.89425</td>
<td>6.08399</td>
<td>1.39769</td>
<td>4.33858</td>
<td>.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td>5.97030</td>
<td>616.65519</td>
<td>5.97030</td>
<td>1.57310</td>
<td>3.79524</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this Design 5, which replaced the former instrumental final attitudes with expressive attitudes, the latter show yet again a high level of significance, as was the case with the instrumental final attitudes above, in Design 4.

When controlling for the impact expressive final attitudes have on overall and domain specific satisfaction formation, the level of significance of .047 is somewhat stronger than their instrumental counterparts. Yet it is still weaker than the control for instrumental (.022) and expressive expectancies (.039) caused.

The comparison of the effect of controlling for expectancies vs. final attitudes, in evaluating the effect of non-performed activities on satisfaction formation, thus further confirms the presence of an underlying process of assimilation, during the learning process of experiencing 'Destination New Zealand'.
In a sixth and seventh design, both instrumental and expressive summed expectancy values and final-attitude values, respectively, were used as covariates for a multivariate analysis of variance on the number of activities pursued.

With all expectancy values as covariates, the multivariate analysis of variance shows an $F$ value $= 2.69408$ with a significance level of $F$ at .021, Pillai’s value $= .03364$, 5df and 388 error df.

**TABLE III.4.15.5 Design 6**

At the univariate level of analysis $F$ values are significant at,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction Item</th>
<th>Covariates =</th>
<th>Instrumental &amp; Expressive Expectancies ('Before')</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Satisfaction</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenery</td>
<td>.002</td>
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**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 6**

Order of Variables for Analysis

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5 Dependent Variables
2 Covariates

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 6**

EFFECT WITHIN CELLS Regression
Multivariate Tests of Significance ($S = 2, M = 1, N = 192 1/2$)

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Note: $F$ statistic for WILK'S Lambda is exact.
Regressing the combined expressive and instrumental expectancy values on levels of satisfaction results in an almost highly significant result (.007). Yet, the explanatory value of these combined variables again extend only over those variables which are more cognitive than emotional in character, with no significance on overall satisfaction and satisfaction with nature/scenery.

When controlling for the expectancies raised in motivational processes before beginning the experience of travelling through New Zealand, the effect of non-performed activities produce the highest level of significance yet. With a value of .021 at the multivariate level of analysis, the effect is significant on the total satisfaction formation process, with only 'Overall Satisfied, Yes' being less affected (.056).

---

### EFFECT WITHIN CELLS Regression (Cont.)

Univariate F-tests with \((2,391)\) D. F.

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### ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 6

#### EFFECT M

Multivariate Tests of Significance (\(S = 1, M = 1 \frac{1}{2}, N = 192\ \frac{1}{2}\))

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</tbody>
</table>

Note: F statistics are exact.
III.4.8.7  Design 7

Using summed instrumental and expressive final attitudes as covariates, the multivariate analysis of variance reports the following effect of the number of activities intended and pursued,

\[ F = 2.09962, \text{ F significant at .065 and Pillai's value} = 0.02641, 5 \text{ df and 388 error df.} \]

TABLE III.4.15.6  Design 7

At the univariate level of F, the following significances can be reported,

**Satisfaction Item** Covariates = \textit{Instrumental \& Expressive Attitudes ('After')}

Sig. of F

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**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 7**

Order of Variables for Analysis

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5 Dependent Variables
2 Covariates

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 7**

EFFECT... WITHIN CELLS Regression
Multivariate Tests of Significance (S = 2, M = 1, N = 192 1/2)

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Note. F statistic for WILK'S Lambda is exact.
EFFECT... WITHIN CELLS Regression (Cont.)
Univariate F-tests with (2.391) D. F.
The results of these various manova designs show that there occurs a statistically significant impact on satisfaction judgements through the (non) performance of intended holiday activities.

The results also showed, that when considering both expectancy values and final attitudes as covariates, the effect of not performing intended activities, becomes even
more significant.

When controlling for expectations, the effect is increased because differences in levels of tourists' expectations are eliminated. Since expectancy-value attitudes can be regarded as one measure of involvement, such differences between tourists are equalized.

Separating instrumental from expressive expectancies, shows a somewhat stronger influence of instrumental levels of expectancies on satisfaction formations than expressive expectancies. This could be explained as occurring for the following reason.

The structures of expectancies have an emotional demand for a goal or a drive, and cognitive structures, referring to cognizeable attributes of goals. While drives are forward directed emotions, the result of satisfaction on emotions might well be structurally different from drives. Drives contain a longing, whereas satisfaction is also a feeling of equilibrium as a result of drive reduction.

Design 6 controls for all seventeen expectancies and Design 7 controls for all final attitudes. When considering the effect, these two sets of variables have on revealing the impact of non-performed activities on satisfaction formation separately, the extent of assimilation becomes obvious. Whereas the control for final attitudes achieved a level of significance of .065, expectancy values achieve .021. Considering that the difference in significance increases exponentially when becoming smaller, rather than geometrically, this difference becomes important itself.

Overall, this previous analysis reveals two sets of results. Firstly, expectations are significantly related to satisfaction formations and levels. Secondly, there occurs assimilation during the experience and the satisfaction formation. Thirdly, using expectations as covariates allows for an estimation of the strength of assimilation as well as revealing the impact of other variables on satisfaction formation, which might otherwise remain obscured.
Chapter 5

III.5  Conclusions

The concluding chapter contains a brief summary of the literature review and describes the value model to be tested. It then presents and discusses the hypotheses as stated in III.2.

Section III.5.3 provides a summary and outlook with the wider implications of the results achieved in this dissertation.

III.5.1  Summary of the Literature Review: the Value Model of Satisfaction

The subject of this dissertation is an exploratory research effort into expectations and levels of satisfaction. The object of a longitudinal study are campervan tourists to New Zealand. A survey has been conducted which asked these tourists to express their expectations before they began to travel, and to state their levels of satisfaction with their experiences after they returned their mobile home.

The particular focus by which expectations and subsequent satisfaction are studied, are human values as they relate to life's major roles. For this, Lynn Kahle's List of Values (LOV) have been chosen to which all major human activities can be reduced.

In discussion with the literature, values have been defined as learnt strategies to adapt one's environment according to one's needs and wants and/or to adapt oneself to the environment in order to achieve satisfaction. Three types of values are distinguished, instrumental values, outer-directed expressive values and inner-directed expressive values.

Instrumental values are those which can form a premise for logical arguments, e.g. 'I use a car to get from A to B' (the car is a means of transport and therefore suitable to cover the distance between A and B).

Outer-directed expressive values are those which form arguments as if their premises were logical, however, this is only subjectively so, e.g. 'I travel by campervan, because it gives me the feeling of adventure'. In this case, the campervan has been imbued with a symbolism that, subjectively, represents the attributes of adventures but the latter do not, objectively, relate to attributes of campervans. The objective attributes of a campervan are those of transport and accommodation, also called domains.

The stated value is outer-directed because it targets an object outside of the person. Owning and driving the campervan represents that feeling of adventure. The relationship between the person and the campervan has a strongly cognitive structure, by
way of which the person knows that tangible quantities (the van) bring about certain states of consciousness. It is therefore hypothesised that (1) expectations are structurally related to satisfaction and (2), outer-directed expressive expectations and experiences correlate stronger with cognitively measurable satisfaction evaluations than do inner-directed expectations and experiences.

Inner-directed expressive values are those that come from the self and refer back to the self. Instead of using certain, defined objects that satisfy these values, the person is merely aware of the fact that a class of objects or activities brings this satisfaction about. These values and their strategies are not cognitive but emotional. (3) Inner-directed values are hypothesised to satisfy a person by reducing (emotional) drives. Although cognitively difficult to penetrate, i.e. hard to put into words and to quantify, (4) inner-directed values are hypothesised to correlate stronger with overall satisfaction, and less strongly with domain-specific and cognizeable satisfaction measures, than the two other types of values.

For example, 'I travel by campervan because I want to feel free and independent' expresses the inner-directed value of "self-fulfilment". It is inner-directed because freedom and independence refer back to the self and it is not the campervan as a tangible object but the class of activities and experiences it facilitates, which represent that feeling of freedom. This class of activities and experiences, however, is very general and undefined. Inner-directed values relate to an emotion-awareness rather than a state of consciousness.

Central to an understanding of values and their satisfaction is the construct of motivation. Motivations are here defined as the combination of motives and situations. While motives are general, values are more specific and are aroused in defineable situations. Motivations form the organizing precursors to expectations.

The literature on motives and motivation-formation is covered here as well as the construct of attitudes. Expectations are tentative assumptions which take the form of attitudes. Attitudes are different from expectations in that attitudes are latent dispositions, whereas expectations are temporally forward-directed and awaiting confirmation. An expectation carries a volitional element, e.g. a person wishes an event or situation to occur or not to occur. With an attitude, a person reacts consistently to events or situations.

The literature of satisfaction research is reviewed and critically discussed. The discussion encompasses a variety of social sciences, including quality of life research, leisure and recreation, tourism and consumer behaviour.

The two-factor model of satisfaction is scrutinized and used for measuring levels of satisfaction. It states that satisfaction is different from dissatisfaction and that it is better to represent both as mono-polar constructs rather than as the common bi-polar continuum ranging from 'totally dissatisfied to totally satisfied' with a neutral mid-point.
In the literature review, it is particularly criticised, that, to date, satisfaction research does not adequately,

1. address the role of values and their different dimensions,
2. consider the control a person has over outcomes,
3. include all parameters that impact on satisfaction formation (particularly the motivational mix at the various stages of expectation formation, experience and satisfaction formation),
4. differentiate between the impacts of tangible and intangible product attributes on satisfaction outcomes,
5. consider the effects of experiences on expectations when measuring expectations post hoc,

III.5.2 Discussion of the Propositions: The Outcome

The two main propositions of this dissertation posit

a) values control motivations and organize perceptions, i.e. values respond to drives and structure expectancies,

b) satisfaction is a complex and total response and a measurement of experiences, the perception of which is guided by the initial values.

In order to discuss the outcome of the results presented in the previous chapter, it is suggested to state the proposition first, and then discuss them afterwards.

III.5.2.1 Propositions

III.5.2.1.1 Expectations

1. Tourists’ expectations structure and organize perceptions. They impact on satisfaction-judgements in that,

a) perceptual dimensions of expectations, experience and final attitudes do, overall, not differ

b) expectations of outer-directed values are correlated with "perceived"
satisfaction measurements if both are more cognitive than emotional in structure.

c) the more activities are intended but not performed, the less satisfied tourists are.

This proposition with its three sub-propositions have been confirmed.

Three sets of data have been factor analysed in order to reduce the variables to a more manageable number, as well as to uncover underlying structures.

These three sets were (a) seventeen expectancy values which were the outcome of motivation processes involving motives, values and situations as they refer to travelling by campervan. (b) The second set was made up of complementary seventeen attitudes as they were measured after the experience. (c) The third set was the result of a subtraction of the expectancies (a) from the final attitudes after the experience (b).

A comparison of these three factor solutions and their factor structures resulted in the findings that, overall, the structures did not differ.

While the particular structure and number of factors differed, this was seen to be in line with the experiential stage of the holiday sequence (expectations, experience and satisfaction formation, satisfaction outcomes).

The first factor solution consisted of four factors, an outer-directed Symbolic Dimension, an instrumental Achievement Dimension, an inner-directed Self-Fulfilment Dimension and a Social Component (III.4.1.2).

The second factor solution, that of the final attitudes, resulted in three factors which, again, could be called the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension, the instrumental Achievement Dimension, and the inner-directed Self-Fulfilment Dimension (III.4.2.1).

While the number of factors was reduced from four to three, in the latter solution, the central variables of each factor remained in their respective prominent position. The increases in underlying correlational strengths were due to the confirmative experience of expectancies. This resulted in a convergence of expectancies into attitudes and a higher explanation of variance. (The increases in inter-correlational strength between the seventeen variables can be inspected in Appendix 3).

The integration of the fourth factor (the Social Component) into the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension was consistent with the character of that dimension, in that the social ambience of holidays form part of tourists experiences, are outer-directed and

---

1 The "perceived" measurement is the cognitive overall-judgement of being either more or less satisfied than expected.
representative of cognitive aspects of goal achievement.

The third factor solution, of the value-difference scores, was interpreted to represent the experience in that these scores explain the change, that occurred between 'before' and 'after' the experience. This time, the solution showed five factors and a somewhat different sequence: the Achievement Dimension showed the highest explanation of variance, followed by the Symbolic Dimension, the Self-Fulfilment dimension, instrumental Campervan Aspects and, lastly, the Social Component (III.4.3).

The reason for the last two factors to break out of the expectancy-value factor solution into individual, orthogonal axes, was interpreted with the fact that these areas stood out as particular elements of the learning experience tourists go through during their holidays.

The sequence of these factors reflect the particular situation of the experience: it is 'the doing of things', that brings about the experience. The Achievement Dimension was therefore interpreted as the instrumental dimension, that generates the flow for innerdirected experiences satisfying emotions. This is also supported by the literature (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975), and is in accordance with the value model of satisfaction developed in this dissertation. The Symbolic Dimension explained the second largest amount of variance, and the inner-directed Self-Fulfilment dimension the third largest amount.

Referring to sub-proposition (b) above, the correlational strengths of these factors with emotional satisfaction scores were therefore in the opposite direction than the sequence of explanatory powers to explain the occurring variance (see TABLEs III.4.8. to III.4.10).

The stronger the emotional character, the stronger the correlation with overall satisfaction. Conversely, the more there are cognitive structures present, the more such factors relate to cognitively conceived satisfaction scores.

The most cognitively conceived satisfaction scores are "perceived" scores (Swan & Trawick, 1981). They refer to tourists' cognitive evaluations of differences between expectations and outcomes. Since an 'emotional memory' exists only in the form of memories of emotion-awareness, the comparison relies much more on cognitive structures rather than emotional ones. Emotion-awareness, while cognitive in character, cannot rely on the knowledge of specific normative features.

The third sub-proposition, i.e. that people are less satisfied when they do not manage to pursue intended activities, was introduced to further analyze, qualify and prove the relationship between expectations and satisfaction formation. This was achieved in III.4.8.

It could be shown that,

1. the discriminatory power of the level of performance of intended activities impacting on satisfaction scores could be increased, when differences in
expectancies were controlled for

2. there occurred measurable amounts of assimilation during the experience, and

3. the discriminatory power, when differences in final attitudes were controlled for, was not as significant as when controlling for expectancies.

Indeed, disregarding motivational and attitudinal factors altogether, resulted in no discrimination.

In conclusion, then, tourists’ expectations do structure experiences and have a significant impact on satisfaction formation. This impact is, on the face of it, primarily cognitive. There is, however, the chance that tourists employ other, less cognitive measures of comparison in order to assess differences between expectations and outcomes. This is indicated by superior correlational strength of inner-directed variables with overall satisfaction.

III.5.2.1.2 Satisfaction

The second set of propositions targets the experiences and their consequences on satisfaction formation and outcomes. The overall second major proposition stated, that the formation of satisfaction is a complex, multidimensional measurement. One indication of this fact was shown in TABLE III.4.7.2, which detailed the correlations of individual domains with overall satisfaction. The following discussion will expand the confirmation of this proposition from a number of different angles as stated below.

2. In tourism, the process of achieving a goal differs from having achieved a goal,

a) : the process of achieving (i.e. experiencing "flow", Csikszentmihalyi, 1975) marks the experience

b) : the process of achieving serves to reduce drives

c) : goal-achievement increases attitude strength

d) : instrumental and outer-directed expressive disconfirmation scores relate strongest to cognitive aspects of satisfaction scores, inner-directed expressive ones relate strongest to emotional scores

The previous discussion of the propositions relating to expectations already mentioned the crucial role of the experience, i.e. 'the doing of things' when it referred to the third factor solution of the value-difference scores (III.4.3).

This latter factor solution showed that the highest amount of variance was
explained by the instrumental Achievement Dimension (TABLE III.4.5).

The experience of flow, as represented by the Achievement Dimension is the instrument by which symbolic and inner-directed experiences are facilitated.

The evidence, that the process of achieving a goal differs from having achieved goal, is provided by the second factor solution of final attitudes: TABLE III.4.4 shows a higher proportion of variance explained by the outer-directed Symbolic Dimension than the Achievement Dimension.

In (2b), it was proposed that the process of achieving goals reduces drives. Evidence is supplied by the particular differences in the changes of means, between inner-directed expressive variables (FREE, ADVENTRE) and those that were interpreted to facilitate the satisfaction of emotions (DO, NATURE and ACHIEVE). All of these variables have been discussed and characterized by their particular content of what Ernst Bloch calls "expectant emotions", i.e. an expression of forward-directed craving or longing. The satisfaction formation process reduced this drive, as is expressed in the systematic reduction of means.

It could also be shown, that the Self-Fulfilment Dimension in the final-attitude factor solution, contains all of these variables with significant loadings (III.4.4). In turn, this dimension correlates the strongest with the emotional assessment of overall satisfaction as shown in TABLEs III.4.9 and III.4.10.

Yet this proposition could not be proved conclusively, since the substance of what constitutes drives and the techniques of measuring them requires further research (see III.5.3 Discussion and Evaluation).

Apart from the correlational evidence giving credence to the confirmation of proposition 2b, the theoretical discussion throughout this volume, of the character of expectations and emotions, gives strong support to its accuracy.

Proposition 2d, which states that goal-achievement increases attitudinal strength gives some indirect support to this confirmatory tendency: here, the opposite did indeed occur.

As can be seen from TABLE III.4.6, the changes of means increased significantly for all instrumental and outer-directed variables apart from TOURIST, BEST WAY, and POTENTIAL. This increase in means confirms the proposition that expectations, while carrying the structure of attitudes, are tentative assumptions with a forward-directed tendency that seeks their confirmation. The experience results in increased complexity and consonance of the cognitive structure as can be inferred from Appendix 3, which tables the intercorrelations of expectancy values and the increased intercorrelations of final attitudes for comparison.

Concluding the presentation of evidence in support of proposition 2, it can be said that the process of achieving goals differs from having achieved a goal, as it
strengthens the formerly tentative cognitive structure. There is considerable evidence that the process of achieving goals also reduces drives. The reduction in means of inner-directed variables indicates that the tourist experiences a sense of satisfaction from this reduction, resulting in the feeling of emotional equilibrium.

III.5.3. Summary

III.5.3.1 Results in Brief

This dissertation focussed on values as strategies to satisfy one's needs and wants in tourism. The tourist achieves this by choosing and creating an environment which promises the best outcome.

Choice of and influences on situational parameters such as destination, transport, accommodation and types of attractions visited, all contribute to this desired outcome of a satisfactory holiday.

Satisfaction has been presented as the outcome of expectations and a learning process. Expectations are based on values and form tentative attitudes with a forward-looking drive that seeks the confirmation of these expectations.

The experience equates with the learning process. During this sequence, expectations are disconfirmed resulting either in satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

If cognitive assumptions of outcomes are confirmed, they result in a strengthened attitude. The energies or drives which help achieve a goal by keeping up persistence to pursue the goal, are reduced throughout the satisfaction process.

Although this requires further research, there are indications that this drive-reduction either constitutes or is strongly related to the satisfaction of inner-directed expressive or emotional values.

Satisfaction itself is a complex measurement. While the overall satisfaction refers mostly to emotional satisfaction, the enquiry has shown that domain specific satisfaction can be envisaged as representing a continuum from the satisfaction of emotional to the satisfaction of cognitive aspirations. Domain specific satisfaction evaluations tend to be more cognitive than overall satisfaction measurements.

Perceived, or overall measurements, pertaining to whether a person is more or less satisfied than expected, are cognitive in nature since they require a cognitive comparison of two different states occurring at two different points in space and time (before and after the experience).

It was furthermore shown that expectations have a strongly formative impact on perceptions and satisfaction formation. These impacts operate mostly in the cognitive
sphere of domain specific satisfaction measurements, as well as for perceived satisfaction measurements, as these refer to expected performance standards.

However, results have also demonstrated, that elements of emotion awareness prior to experiences carry through to the evaluation of consequences of an experience. This result is evident in the correlational analyses involving the campervan and outer-directed expressive expectancy values and is thought to be due to the central role of the campervan for the achievement of a satisfactory holiday.

The campervan as a means of transport and accommodation did not, as is assumed in the literature, prove to be of merely instrumental value. Correlational evidence shows that the campervan helps satisfy central outer-directed expressive values as well as inner-directed, emotional values. A categorial definition of attributes is not justified (refer to the presentation and discussion of Maddox, 1981 and Swan & Combs II.3.2.6 and II.5.4).

III.5.4 Discussion, Evaluation and Wider Implications

The method employed in this dissertation used Kahle’s List of Values (LOV, 1983) as the basis for its enquiry. Instead of letting tourists rank and rate values and then correlating intended and pursued behaviour back to those values, as would be the logical extension of the methodology used in other research (e.g. Kahle, 1983, Kamakura & Novak, 1992), values were interpretatively matched with reasons for hiring a campervan.

This approach is based on Kelley’s (1967) theory of attribution and was motivated by the intention to (a) remain as close as possible to tourists’ own reasonings for their choices and, (b) in order to devise a more practical and direct approach to measuring motivations and final attitudes.

The approach proved to be successful in that it allows for a benefit-segmentation (Haley, 1977) of tourists with a causal rather than a merely descriptive content. The following is a brief discussion containing some results of a benefit oriented segmentation exercise.

III.5.4.1 Benefit Segmentations

One of the most compelling reasons to study satisfaction and its confirmation is the benefit segmentation as was mentioned in the introduction to this volume. The benefit-approach to marketing segmentation attempts to find those benefits, the tourist and customer is seeking. The underlying rationale is that markets can be causally defined. The difference between a causal and a descriptive approach has been demonstrated in the discussion of tourist motivations and tourist typologies (II.5.3).
Descriptive typologies run the risk of being tautological in that groups are described in terms of common behaviour. When this behaviour is subsequently observed, it becomes the reason for grouping that person with that particular type. While tautological in accordance with logic, the practical consequences are often investment failures, or the need to frequently re-survey the markets for changes.

In a capital-intensive industry like tourism, where returns on investment take particularly long to eventuate, miscalculations can have disastrous consequences. Knowing the true benefits the tourist is seeking, is therefore much more rewarding, since these benefits usually relate to a more stable value system than the observation of behaviours might indicate.

As Judith Adler observed (quoted it II.5.3), tourists often assume different roles in holidays, even over the duration of one vacation. It is therefore much safer and more effective in the longer term, to conserve and develop resources in line with underlying motives and values, rather than on the basis of what seems, on the surface, fickle behaviour.

In order to give credence to the opinion presented here, this author outlines results from a cluster analysis, performed on expectancy values multiplied by the importance-ratings tourists accorded to the six elements of the holiday attraction, i.e. outdoor activity opportunities, scenery and nature, shopping, quality of service, and culture and people. While by no means finalized, the full segmentation effort is subject to another task than to this dissertation. The results can be briefly summarized as follows.

The cluster analysis resulted in five groups with 66, 87, 59, 92, and 91 tourists respectively in each group. As could be expected, these groups differ highly significantly on the seventeen expectancy values and importance ratings, because these are the variables they have been clustered upon.

However, these highly significant differences remained in the 'after-experience' analysis of variance of final attitudes. In addition, the groups differed significantly on eight of thirteen activity factors. For this latter exercise, the forty-seven activities listed in the questionnaire had been factorized and included in an analysis of variance amongst those five groups.

The results of the factor analysis are included in Appendix 2, and listed on 13 tables. While the grouping of the activities on cognitive dimensions themselves is interesting for benefit marketers, for a quick glance, the reader may inspect the display of the group differences with regards to five factorized activities. The visual inspection will reveal obvious group-differences, as to the intensity of intentions to pursue various types of activities. The last few pages of Appendix 2 then contain an illustrative description of the first two segments, including demographics and information behaviour.

As a result, tourists can be distinguished according to the (value-) benefits they seek, intended activities can be evaluated according to their importance for the overall
holiday experience and, most importantly, differences in satisfaction scores can also be explained.

An analysis of some 'raw' data shows three significant differences in satisfaction scores amongst the five groups. They involve the overall satisfaction (sig. .0778), satisfaction with outdoor activity opportunities (sig. 0288), and satisfaction with entertainment (sig. .0207).

The literature review presented reports of satisfaction research (Campbell, 1976; Andrews & Withey, 1976), which stood out for their thoroughness and the disappointing results of the explanatory value of their variables in multiple regressions. The discussion postulated, that this was due to the fact that the experiences measured were continuous ones. Conversely, tourism allows the measurement of complete experiences.

It might therefore be argued , that results of benefit segmentations are questionable in their validity, if their underlying variables fail to reveal the true nature of the benefit sought.

For this and other reasons, a multiple regression analysis was performed.

III.5.4.2 A Regression Analysis on Overall Satisfaction

In order to test the underlying assumption, that values and motivations play an important role in the formation of satisfaction, and to test whether the literature review together with its final conclusions produced a comprehensive set of variables for a repeat-measurement study, a regression analysis was performed.

The variable that was sought to be explained, was 'Overall Satisfaction'.

Being able to distinguish satisfaction scores qualitatively, through the use of expectancy-values, also allows a clearer understanding of what classes of responses can lead to repurchases of holidays.

For example, while the perception of 'Fairness of the price I paid for my holidays', as used in the survey, can give insight into the perception of basic instrumental parameters, tourists are not likely to return just because they believe they got value for money. Rather, it is the emotional satisfaction received from pursuing certain activities that are much more likely to enforce a re-visit of a destination.

For this regression, all satisfaction scores, together with expectancy-values, final attitudes, intended activities and performance evaluations which have formed the input for the regression analyses. Furthermore, performance evaluations of campgrounds and campervan hiring company together with the nationalities of the visitors were also used.

One consistent result that came out of these analyses is that, initially, the largest amounts of variance are explained by instrumental satisfaction scores. From then on in,
further increases are the result of mostly (inner or outer-directed) expressive satisfaction scores. The difference score of "I can really do what I want" explained 2% percent of the variance, while the difference score of the Achievement Dimension explained a further 0.8% of the variance.

Overall, the result shows thirteen variables explaining 70.8% of the variation in overall satisfaction scores. While, on the face of it, this is a good result, and backed by other analyses not reported here, further analysis is needed to verify this outcome (see discussion in Appendix 7).

This dissertation’s exploratory approach can be seen in the fact that the value items used are more of what Bernstein (1988) calls a psychometric nature rather than a multivariate one. This emphasises the difference between established and reliable multivariate variables and those used here. It pays tribute to the fact that the items assembled as motivations are inherently unreliable when compared to e.g. demographic variables.

However, by factor analyzing these items before and after the experience and comparing their similarities and differences, it could be shown that the approach is valid and has been successful. The structure of the factor dimensions remained overall stable and those changes that did occur during the experience could be sufficiently explained.

Furthermore, intensive analyses of statistical evidence and external validity of campervan elements resulted in the conclusion that particularly the aggregated expectancies and disconfirmations allowed interpretations with a good measure of confidence.

While the reader might be of the opinion that the above two sections are negligible when considering the tasks set by the propositions, this author prefers to have explicitly shown the link with the technique of segmenting according to benefits sought.

III.5.4.3 Expectations

The analyses resulted in the acceptence of the proposition that values structure expectations and perceptions of outcomes, as correlational analyses of expectations and satisfaction scores have demonstrated. These analyses also demonstrated that the structure of satisfaction formation is guided by expectations, particularly those that refer to cognizable elements.

In addition, the results showed that the differentiation between outer-directed instrumental, expressive outer-directed symbolic and expressive inner-directed values are valid and helpful constructs in dissecting satisfaction judgements. They help to distinguish which tourism elements contribute to the satisfaction of emotional and cognitive values.

While the resulting dimensions of the three factor analyses fit the model of
values as strategies to achieve desired satisfaction, and while the interpretation of individual items lends the methodology applied external validity, a more rigorous item purification during pilot stages is appropriate. This could result in greater levels of discrimination between the items and, eventually, lead to higher explanations of variance as they have been achieved (between 53% and 56% in the 'before' and 'after' factor analyses of the value items).

Conversely, the low explanation of variance achieved by the factors could indicate, that important variables have been left out of the list of values.

Furthermore, the value approach allows an appropriate weighting of intended and pursued activities in their contribution to overall satisfaction formation. While this has been proposed in the leisure and recreational literature (see e.g. Riddick, 1986), the nature of campervan tourism as an activity that allows the tourist a large amount of control in the face of a wide range of activities to pursue, gave sufficient reason to test this assumption for tourism.

III.5.4.4 One or Two Surveys?

Obtaining expectancy-values before the actual experience was also shown to be of importance. The MANOVA employed in testing proposition 1c, revealed that a fair amount of extra discriminatory power is obtained when analyzing the impact of the number of activities pursued on satisfaction scores by using expectancy values as covariates.

The analysis showed that the learning process that occurs during the holiday experience caused tourists to assimilate outcomes by shifting their anchor points or reference points of expectations. This can be assumed to occur because of the desire to avoid frustration or disappointment.

Another important aspect concerns the implications for benefit-marketing. Firstly, as the analysis of differences between experienced and unexperienced campervan tourists shows (see Appendix 1), there are significant differences in the cognitive structure between these two groups.

Furthermore, the above differences as well as the learning process that occurs during the experience cannot be analyzed and exploited without the expectation-questionnaire. While this sort of enquiry always remains subject to financial considerations, marketers' knowledge of the image tourists have of their destination before they experience it, is vital for promotional efforts of benefits.

For a benefit-segmentation approach, disconfirmations explain, where learning processes have occurred and attitudes have been changed or confirmed. Advertising and other marketing communications regarding aspects of the product-service system can communicate more effectively and pertinently.
III.5.4.5  Satisfaction

The second major proposition stated that satisfaction is a complex, multidimensional measurement. This proposition is confirmed in that all individual domains constituting the tourism elements correlated significantly with the overall satisfaction score (see also TABLE III.4.7.2). This holds also true for the additional scores that have been developed from the literature review including equity, quality of service and the weather.

It demonstrates that tourists are capable of making highly summative as well as highly differentiated satisfaction judgements. The consequence of this finding is that the frequently encountered practice of asking summatively, "How satisfied are you?", is, at best simplistic, if one wants to use the result as a reflection of performance.

As an overall measurement, such a question is quite likely to measure an emotional response, which is multidimensional, yet hard to cognize and thus difficult to draw conclusions from for strategic or tactical management. Conversely, Parasuraman’s et al. SERVQUAL (1986), for example, is likely to measure only instrumental outcomes.

The importance of values as a strong explanatory set of variables, for the measurement of the compound 'Overall satisfaction' is manifold. In our case, the aggregated final-attitude variable correlates, after 'Satisfaction with the Campervan', as the second strongest variable of all domain specific satisfaction scores with Overall Satisfaction ($r=0.3069$, $n=358$; sig $<0.000$; see TABLE III.4.7.2).

Moreover, the individual value scores give insight as to which values were satisfied by or relate to which specific domains.

In this context, it is of interest to note that the model of satisfaction, as it has been constructed here, while relying on values and a set of perceptions relating to specific domains, has implications for future research.

As the literature review stated, Oliver & DeSarbo report that results concerning the perception of price have been mixed (1988:504). The TABLE III.4.7.2 as well as the reported regression analysis (see Appendix 7), seem to indicate that the issue of equity is of considerable importance in the formation of satisfaction.

Other correlational tests corroborate this statement, particularly between the cognitive items and the items referring to perceptions of the price paid for the campervan and the fairness of price (see particularly the variable CHEAP in the value-difference score factor solution, where it formed its own factor with FUN to DRIVE, TABLE III.4.5). For tourism, the perception of equity might indeed be different from that in the retail environment as stated by Oliver & DeSarbo. This issue requires further research.

It was also shown that overall satisfaction has the tendency to correlate more with inner-directed expressive or emotional variables than with outer-directed or
instrumental variables.

Conversely, satisfaction scores, when related to specific domains showed the opposite direction in correlational strengths from the above. Here, the more cognitive the domain parameters (particularly Quality of Service and Shopping) the stronger the correlations with outer-directed values.

The domains of Scenery and Culture & People took a middle ground which can be explained by the fact that they form a major attraction and are thus part of tourists' emotional involvement (see TABLE III.4.9).

This latter result points to further need for research which should explore the continuum that is suggested in the model of values as strategies to satisfy inner and outer-directed needs and wants (see III.1).

These findings, i.e. that different psychological systems (emotions and cognitions) behave differently regarding satisfaction measurements, might help clear up some of the confusion reported in the literature that occurred, when using values as explanatory constructs in satisfaction measurements (see Westbrook & Reilly, 1983). It might also aid in the construction of research designs that test for influences of expectations on satisfaction formation and future consumption behaviour.

It points to the need of analysing item batteries of questionnaires according to which psychological system (emotions or cognitions) is addressed. This poses as another angle to internal consistency.

In addition, one of the more stunning results in this dissertation is the reduction in average means of the inner-directed expressive values (see TABLE III.3.6) within the same model. This contrasts with the predicted increase in the average means of outer-directed expressive values. They represent attitudes, which rely on cognitive confirmations.

While the model fits for the attitude strengthening increases, the decreases could be explained only if the drive reduction theory could be proven to be operative. This requires independent testing and, above all, different measurement instruments as the Likert type scale appears to be counter-productive due to its mid-point.

Another result which demands urgent research are the negative disconfirmations not only of the above values but the negative disconfirmations for the campervan (see Appendix 9).

These inferred results, which showed negative results for both instrumental as well as expressive disconfirmations, would directly contradict the widely used Consumer Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction model since it is based on the assumption that positive disconfirmations predict satisfaction whereas negative ones would predict dissatisfaction.

In this case the opposite occurred for satisfaction in that only one of the two crosstabulations of instrumental and expressive disconfirmations showed a very low, but
nonetheless significant $\chi^2$ value. However, the expected cell frequency exceeded the normally acceptable range by 9% (Clauß & Ebner, 1977). In other words, inferred measurements were so strongly negative that the prediction of satisfaction by way of inferred measurements did not or to a very small degree only, fit the model. One might therefore suspect, that other, possibly emotional processes are at work. These, however, would be likely to be lost, when measuring perceived evaluations only.

III.6 Outlook

This dissertation has established some basic facts about expectancy values. These need now to be confirmed independently.

One feature which particularly requires attention is the generation of testing procedures which establish the congruency of motivational statements made by tourists according to attributions with underlying values. Their usefulness in causally understanding tourist behaviour can contribute to an increased effectiveness of benefit segmentation and marketing (Haley, 1977), resource management, product development and branding efforts in tourism.

The findings that tourists and consumers in general have clear and operative emotional awareness that impacts on satisfaction statements and which are different from cognitions, also need independent confirmation and further consolidation.

Further research is also needed to establish the workings of, and differences between, inferred and perceived measurements of satisfaction.

More intensive co-operation with the discipline of psychophysics must be sought, since some pertinent findings there might directly impact on the particular area of inferred and perceived measurements (see the presentation of Parducci’s findings, at the end of III.4.7.2).

To the above context belongs the need to re-evaluate the assumptions underlying drive-reduction. It was shown in this dissertation that, within the model used here, there is a strong possibility for it being measurable.

Lastly, while the traditional proposition of the two-factor model of satisfaction (Swan & Combs, 1976; Maddox, 1981) could not be tested here effectively, due to the lack of sufficient numbers of dissatisfied tourists, the overall explanatory power in the analysis of tourism behaviour appears indisputable.

Some of the analyses in this dissertation indicate directly that the construct of instrumentality and expressiveness of values is valid, as the interpretation of the factor analyses and their individual values have shown.

Yet, it simultaneously defeated the argument that there are fixed characteristics of attributes. Indeed, what the analyses have shown is that it is a matter of perception
and situations as to whether both expectancies as well as outcomes are either considered to be instrumental or expressive.

Whilst this dissertation has shown that researchers can validly interpret attributions according to their underlying qualities, it is now of importance to reveal structures and thresholds.

Further proceedings with regards to this construct should be conducted in the vein of Karl Popper’s theory of falsification. That is, as long as the theory cannot be falsified one should build up a ‘protective belt’ of supportive theories. The conception, construction and testing of new items and scales under the guidance of findings made in this dissertation could form a fruitful beginning.
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Appendix 1

The Difference in Cognitive Structures Between Campervan Tourists with Prior Experience with Campervans and those without

This appendix contains the discussion and test of the following hypotheses,

**H 4a:** The motivational structure (cognitive map) of those tourists who had prior experience with campervans, differs from those with no experience with regards to the degree of abstractness and, particularly, with regards to its connectedness (see 1.5.2.1.) This difference vanishes after the experience

**H 4b:** Cognitive maps differ between experienced and unexperienced campervan users regarding the campervan itself.

**H 4c:** Cognitive maps differ with regards to intended activities between experienced and unexperienced campervan users.

All hypotheses could be confirmed.

**Method**

Re H 4a: Prior to the actual holiday-experience in a campervan, 395 respondents have been asked as to whether they had had any experience in a campervan before this holiday. 144 indicated that they did have prior experience while 244 indicated that they had had no prior experience. 7 respondents gave no answer.

Two pilot studies established 9 expressive and 9 related instrumental motivations as to why tourists had chosen a campervan. The 18 motivations can be grouped according to Kahle’s List of Values yet, while not all dimensions of the spectrum are represented (i.e. no "seeking warm and friendly relationships" see Methodology), the remaining 8 values expressed as motivations give a good indication of the difference of the cognitive maps of experienced vs unexperienced campervan travellers.

Overall, motivations between experienced and unexperienced campervan tourists differ significantly before their experience in New Zealand, F sig at α=.001; n=342; 53 cases missing due to unanswered items. For expressive values only, α is sig at .0002 and for instrumental values only, the difference is sig at α=.0356. This significant difference disappears completely after the experience.

The following categories are the expressive items as they occur in the questionnaire together with their correlations (Pearson’s r) with the value FREE ("I chose a campervan because 'It gives me the feeling of freedom and independence’) expressing the value of self-fulfilment.
TABLE 1.1 Correlations Between Expressive Expectancy Values and FREE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>FREE &amp; experienced</th>
<th>FREE &amp; no experience</th>
<th>Expressive Value (Kahle)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I owe myself something like this</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>self-respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I need a place where I BELONG</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>belonging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It suits my STYLE</td>
<td>.1672*</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>being respected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can ACHIEVE more than with any other form of holidays</td>
<td>.2533**</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>sense of achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It guarantees a holiday full of fun and enjoyment (FUN &amp; ENJOYMENT)</td>
<td>.2824**</td>
<td>.1441*</td>
<td>fun and enjoyment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It gives me the feeling of ADVENTURE</td>
<td>.2289**</td>
<td>.1448*</td>
<td>excitement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a SAFE way to travel</td>
<td>.2787**</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>safety</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = significant p ≤ .05; ** = significant p ≤ .01

TABLE 1.1 exemplifies the difference between aspects of tourists' cognitive maps regarding the interrelatedness of values. It shows that, for experienced users, outer-directed expressive values relate strongly to the feeling of freedom and independence (value 'self-fulfilment') whereas this is not the case for unexperienced tourists.

The only significant correlations between FREE and other expressive values are with FUN & ENJOYMENT and ADVENTURE. It can be shown that, for inexperienced campervan travellers, FUN & ENJOYMENT and ADVENTURE are indeed on other dimensions than for experienced travellers. The reason for this difference can be directly attributed to the experience-stage.

The value of FUN & ENJOYMENT differs significantly (α=.007, n=392) between the two groups of experienced and unexperienced users whereas the value 'excitement' (ADVENTURE) shows no significant difference.

An exploratory factor analysis using the principal component method performed two analyses, one for experienced and one for unexperienced campervan users. A scree test for both analyses revealed 3 factors as important for each. This also simplifies their interpretation. In the case of experienced users, the three factors explain 63.2% of the occurring variance and 65.9% for unexperienced users. FUN & ENJOYMENT and ADVENTURE are highlighted and both tables below show the rotated factor loadings:
Overall, both tables show the same structure in that the first factor loads outer-directed expressive values (with OWE loading strongest), the second loads values which qualify the characteristics of ACHIEVE, and the third factor qualifies FREE. While 'sense of achievement' is an inner-directed response to an experience, the loadings on that factor show how this experience is to be characterized.

In the case of experienced users FUN & ENJOYMENT is part of Factor 2 and thus qualifying the 'how' aspect of ACHIEVE. This loading (.39690) is, however, much smaller than that for unexperienced users (.61045). Rather, for experienced users, FUN & ENJOYMENT loads heavily (.6370) on the most inner-directed Factor with FREE.

Whereas experienced users associate FUN & ENJOYMENT much stronger with the feeling of freedom and independence due to their experience, unexperienced users will still have to make this learning process.

**H 4b:** Cognitive maps differ between experienced and unexperienced campervan users regarding the campervan itself.

Further evidence that shows the difference between the two groups (experienced vs unexperienced users) can be presented. All tourists have been asked as to what they expect their campervan to be like (see Appendix 9, Q.14). These expectations towards the vehicle have been divided into expressive and instrumental elements (the coefficient α can not be computed due to the either-or structure of the questions). The two sets of elements have then been summed to two overall item-scores.
TABLE 1.3 shows the correlations (Pearson’s r) of the value FUN & ENJOYMENT and instrumental campervan elements (CVINSTRU) and ENJOY and expressive elements (CVEXPRESS) for the two groups of tourists.

TABLE 1.3 Correlations Between the Value FUN & ENJOYMENT, Instrumental and Expressive Campervan Elements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>CVINSTRU experienced</th>
<th>CVINSTRU no experience</th>
<th>CVEXPRESS experienced</th>
<th>CVEXPRESS no experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FUN &amp; ENJOYMENT</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>.1301*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADVENTURE</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>1.073 (t)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = significant p ≤ .05; ** = significant p ≤ .01; (t) = tendency to be significant but outside the customary accepted level .097.

This correlation between the value FUN & ENJOYMENT and the expressive elements of the campervan of inexperienced campervan travellers further corroborates that, for inexperienced users, the only significant correlation above between FREE and FUN & ENJOYMENT is outer-directed, whereas it is an inner-directed relationship in the case of experienced campervan tourists.

It should also be noted, that for inexperienced travellers, significant relationships exist at the expressive level of campervan elements only. Conversely, for experienced users, significant correlations of campervan elements with other values extend over the (expressive) value BELONG ( p ≤ .059) as well as the (instrumental) value DO ( p ≤ .026) and BEST WAY ( p ≤ .001). In addition, experienced users show a significant negative correlation between BELONG and the instrumental aspects (CVINSTRU) of the campervan ( p ≤ .037).

Individual values correlate differently with expressive and instrumental values regarding the vehicle between the two groups. Whereas inexperienced users show significant and highly significant correlations between expressive values and expressive elements of the campervan only, the experienced users show only three significant and highly significant correlations. However, two of these are instrumental values correlating with expressive campervan elements.
TABLE 1.4 Differences in Correlations with Instrumental and Expressive Campervan Elements Between Experienced and Unexperienced Users

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VALUE ITEMS</th>
<th>EXPRESSIVE CAMPERVAN ELEMENTS</th>
<th>INSTRUMENTAL CAMPERVAN ELEMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>With Experience</td>
<td>No Experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPRESSIVE VALUES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BELONG</td>
<td>.1620</td>
<td>.1760**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I OWE MYSELF</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>.1546*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTRUMENTAL VALUES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can DO what I like(1)</td>
<td>.1826*</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is the BEST WAY to travel (1)</td>
<td>.2651**</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = significant p ≤ .05; ** = significant p ≤ .01;
(i) = instrumental value

TABLE 1.4 demonstrates that for unexperienced travellers, outer-directed expressive values correlate with the expressive elements of the campervan. For the experienced users, this is merely indicated by the direction of the significance of BELONG (sig .059).

While BEST WAY and DO are interpreted to be instrumental values (see TABLE III.3.1, Methodology), their correlation with expressive campervan elements indicates a much higher level of expectation regarding the facilities of the campervan. However, it could also be argued that, for experienced users, these two values have a different meaning, i.e. are more expressive than instrumental as compared to unexperienced users.

H 4c: Cognitive maps differ with regards to intended activities between experienced and unexperienced users.

All (summed) expressive values of experienced campervan users correlate significantly with the summed scores of intended activities (r = .2126; sig .009; n=149), whereas no significant correlation can be reported for unexperienced users (n=245).
Appendix 2  Factorized Intended Activities

Before beginning their tour through New Zealand, tourists were asked to indicate as to how much they intended to pursue those different 47 activities occurring below. These activities have then been factorized. The solution converged after 13 iterations, explains 61.5% of the occurring variance and produced 13 factors.

The 13 factors were named as follows and can be inspected.

Factor 1  "Excitement, Nature as Backdrop"
Factor 2  "New Zealand Space, Man-made Excitement"
Factor 3  "Staged Culture"
Factor 4  "Maori Culture & People"
Factor 5  "Escape to Nature"
Factor 6  "Shopping for Food and Souvenirs"
Factor 7  "The Pendulum: Social vs Green & Quiet"
Factor 8  "Traditional R&R: Sun, Surf and People"
Factor 9  "Evening Entertainment"
Factor 10  "Fishing & Hunting"
Factor 11  "Underwater World"
Factor 12  "ALL of NZ's Famous Features"
Factor 13  "Holiday Hedonism, Fun through Diversity"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>FACTOR SCORE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rafting</td>
<td>.78591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jet Boating</td>
<td>.69768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blackwater Rafting</td>
<td>.66846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canoeing</td>
<td>.55956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bungy Jumping</td>
<td>.54703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse Riding</td>
<td>.33599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whale Watching</td>
<td>.30925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Pubs</td>
<td>.22867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Amusement Parks &amp; Zoos</td>
<td>.25732</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest loading variables are Rafting, Jet Boating, Black-Water or tunnel rafting, Canoeing and Bungy Jumping. They are highly physical activities and share an
element of excitement with the other variables loading on that factor. The factor shares the significantly loading Whale Watching, Visiting Pubs, Zoos and Horse Riding with other factors on which these latter ones have even higher loadings. They are less physical but, nonetheless, have elements of excitement and share their man-made character with the other activities.

The first factor contains all those activities which are man-made, landbased, exciting and often scenic. They use natural attractions as backdrops and would, on MacCannell’s (1976) continuum of ‘staged vs. authentic’ activities tend towards the staged end.

While ‘excitement’ is said to be an inner-directed value (Kahle, 1983), in conjunction with these activities, however, expectations would contain filled emotions in that the parameters of such activities are often known. Such activities are thus instruments in experiencing excitement.

TABLE 2.2 Factor 2: "New Zealand Space, Man-made Excitement"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>FACTOR SCORE</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parachuting</td>
<td>.79657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paragliding</td>
<td>.75948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Skiing</td>
<td>.55570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snow Skiing</td>
<td>.57660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse Riding</td>
<td>.53116</td>
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<tr>
<td>Surfing</td>
<td>.42570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golfing</td>
<td>.38706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse Riding</td>
<td>.30774</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Factor two loads highest on parachuting (.79657) and paragliding with a similar loading, followed by water and snow skiing. While horse-riding is shared by other factors, golfing and surfing load highest on this factor.

Like Factor 1 before, this group of activities is land-based and manmade. Any value, therefore, is likely to be excitement as well as outer-oriented. Experiential parameters of these activities are mostly known to tourists, expectant emotions hold thus "nothing new" (Bloch, 1985:74). What all of these activities have in common is their reliance on free and open spaces which is one of New Zealand’s major features.
**TABLE 2.3** Factor 3: "Staged Culture"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Museums</td>
<td>.76986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Galleries</td>
<td>.76682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Artshops</td>
<td>.66641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Theatres</td>
<td>.50417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Maori Cultural Performances</td>
<td>.42163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Books</td>
<td>.40632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Amusement Parks &amp; Zoos</td>
<td>.25732</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This factor stands out for the static quality of cultural features of a destination. Even Maori cultural performances are, in this case, static since they are staged and not part of the people’s every-day life.

The factor highlights one particular motivation common to Western Society, i.e. that of travelling for education and learning as it has been culturized since the days of the 'Grand Tour'. In this regard, Factor 3 is culture and people-oriented.

**TABLE 2.4** Factor 4 "Maori Culture & People"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>FACTOR LOADING</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>.74061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a Hangi</td>
<td>.70058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking warm and friendly relationship with Locals in general</td>
<td>.61134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Maori Cultural Performances</td>
<td>.54984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Concerts</td>
<td>.48033</td>
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<tr>
<td>Visiting Thermal Pools</td>
<td>.37726</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping for Specialty Goods (NZ Souvenirs)</td>
<td>.28644</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bird Watching</td>
<td>.20460</td>
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</table>

Factor 4 dominates with social and cultural activities and interactions. The low-scoring activities have been included in this factor interpretation since it indicates the proximity of different cognitive structures. Social activities are contrasted by passive or non-social activities such as bird-watching and having thermal baths.
TABLE 2.5  Factor 5 "Escape to Nature"

<table>
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<th>Activities</th>
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<td>.7840</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tramping</td>
<td>.7144</td>
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<tr>
<td>Looking for Solitude</td>
<td>.4477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking (1-4 hrs)</td>
<td>.6395</td>
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<td>Thermal Baths</td>
<td>.2202</td>
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</table>

TABLE 2.6  Factor 6 "Shopping for Food and Souvenirs"

<table>
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<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Shopping in ...)</td>
<td>.7713</td>
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<tr>
<td>... Supermarkets</td>
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<td>... Corner Dairies</td>
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<td>... Take-Aways</td>
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<td>... Restaurants</td>
<td>.36216</td>
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<td>... Restaurants</td>
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<td>... Art &amp; Crafts</td>
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<tr>
<td>... Specialty Goods</td>
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<td>(NZ Souvenirs)</td>
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TABLE 2.7  Factor 7 "The Pendulum: Social vs Green & Quiet"

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<tr>
<td>Seeking warm and friendly relationship with Locals in general</td>
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<tr>
<td>Seeking warm and friendly relationships with Maori</td>
<td>.27225</td>
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<tr>
<td>Visiting Pubs</td>
<td>.22191</td>
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</table>

This factor receives its name from a tendency of a certain segment of travellers as they were found by Anita Orlovius (1989). Analyzing several hundred essays written by 12-18 year olds on their holiday experiences, she found a distinct group of travellers who, on the one hand, enjoy the social interaction at destinations but short of committing themselves, they 'swing' towards natural and scenic attractions void of the social sphere.
and all its role-playing.

In this factor, activities that imply mostly sincere but also light-hearted social interaction are occurring side by side with those that focus on inner-directed, personal experiences.

**TABLE 2.8 Factor 8 "Traditional R&R: Sun, Surf and People"**

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<td>Swimming</td>
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<td>Read Books</td>
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<td>Thermal Baths</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Pubs</td>
<td>.22191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waterskiing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sailing</td>
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<td>Surfing</td>
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**TABLE 2.9 Factor 9 "Evening Entertainment"**

<table>
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</thead>
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<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>.65965</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pubs</td>
<td>.64066</td>
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<tr>
<td>Concerts</td>
<td>.37926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf</td>
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<tr>
<td>Theatre Plays</td>
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**Table 2.10 Factor 10 "Fishing & Hunting"**

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>Flyfishing</td>
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<td>Hunting</td>
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</table>
TABLE 2.11  Factor 11 "Underwater World"

<table>
<thead>
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<th>FACTOR LOADING</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Snorkeling</td>
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<td>Diving</td>
<td>.64011</td>
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<td>Whale Watching</td>
<td>.23302</td>
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</table>

TABLE 2.12  Factor 12 "ALL of NZ’s Famous Features"

<table>
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<th>ACTIVITY</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scenic Flights</td>
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<td>Whale Watching</td>
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<td>Bird Watching</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking (1-4 hrs)</td>
<td>.22133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermal Baths</td>
<td>.21929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speciality Restaurants</td>
<td>.21363</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 2.13  Factor 13 "Holiday Hedonism, Fun through Diversity"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>FACTOR LOADING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Sailing</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping (NZ Souvenirs)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whale Watching</td>
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<td>Horse Riding</td>
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<td>Canoeing</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Plays</td>
<td>.25097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Books</td>
<td>.23502</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This factor explains the least percentage of variance.
Appendix 3  Intercorrelations between Value Items

This appendix tables the (inter-) correlation coefficients of the expectancy values and final attitude items.

TABLE 1 shows the coefficients of the 17 value items before the experience, while TABLE 2 shows the intercorrelations after the experience.

The tables show a strong increase of both the number of correlations as well as the strengths of those correlations which existed prior to the holiday experience.

### TABLE 3.1  Inter-Correlations of Expectancy Values

- Correlation Coefficients -

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1-CHEAP</th>
<th>1-FUN DRIVE</th>
<th>1-FREE</th>
<th>1-ADVENT</th>
<th>1-BELONG</th>
<th>1-STYLE</th>
<th>1-EASY</th>
<th>1-TOURIST</th>
<th>1-SCENERY</th>
<th>1-ACHIEVE</th>
<th>1-BEST WAY</th>
<th>1-SAFE</th>
<th>1-NO BOOKING</th>
<th>1-FUN&amp;ENJOY</th>
<th>1-POTENTIAL</th>
<th>1-BELONG</th>
<th>1-STYLE</th>
<th>1-EASY</th>
<th>1-TOURIST</th>
<th>1-SCENERY</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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* - Signif. LE .05  ** - Signif. LE .01  (2-tailed)
TABLE 1 contd.

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TABLE 3.2 Inter-Correlations of Final Attitudes

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* - Signif. LE .05 ** - Signif. LE .01 (2-tailed)
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* - Signif. LE .05  ** - Signif. LE .01  (2-tailed)
Appendix 4 Importance Ratings of Elements of the Tourist Attractions

In part I of the questionnaire, tourists were asked to indicate the level of importance they attribute to elements of the tourism experience. They were given a five-point scale, with 1 = not important at all, to 5 = very important. The following table shows the mean scores. The number of respondents is n = 395.

TABLE 5.1 Importance Ratings of Elements of the Tourist Attractions

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<tr>
<td>New Zealand’s Scenery</td>
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<tr>
<td>Quality of Service</td>
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<td>Entertainment</td>
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<tr>
<td>New Zealand Culture &amp; People</td>
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Appendix 5 MANOVA: Differences Between Experienced and Unexperienced Campervan Users

The following table presents a manova as performed with SPSSX on the differences between those campervan tourists who had filled in their part II questionnaire right after they delivered their rental van (n=303) and those who mailed their part II questionnaire up to one year after they had returned their vehicle (see III.2.3.15).

The first table (TABLE 6.1) shows the results that compares these groups on their satisfaction scores. Neither on the multivariate level, nor on the univariate level were there any significant differences.

TABLE 6.2 compares these groups on their final-attitude scores. There are no significant differences on the multivariate level, but some significant ones at the univariate level.

TABLE 6.1 Multivariate Analysis of Satisfaction Scores of Two Groups Who Filled in Part II of the Questionnaire at Different Times After Returning Their Rental Van

<table>
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<th>Covariates</th>
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<td>SATCVY</td>
<td>(satisfied with the campervan yes)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>SATFAIRY</td>
<td>(I paid a fair price for my holidays. yes)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SATOUTDY</td>
<td>(satisfied with outdoor activity opportunities. yes)</td>
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<td>SATSHOPY</td>
<td>(satisfied with shopping. yes)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>SATQOSY</td>
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<td>SATCULTY</td>
<td>(satisfied with culture and people. yes)</td>
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7 Dependent Variables  
0 Covariates

* * * * * * * * A N A L Y S I S O F V A R I A N C E -- D E S I G N 1 * * * * * *

EFFECT .. Y (where Y1 is group 1, n=94; Y2 is group 2, n=301)

Multivariate Tests of Significance (S = 1, M = 2 1/2, N = 152 1/2)

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Note. F statistics are exact.

EFFECT .. Y (Cont.../...
TABLE 6.2 Multivariate Analysis of Satisfaction Scores of Two Groups Who Filled in Part II of the Questionnaire at Different Times After Returning Their Rental Van

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE -- DESIGN 2**

Order of Variables for Analysis

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17 Dependent Variables
0 Covariates

EFFECT Y (where Y1 is group 1, n=94; Y2 is group 2, n=301)

Multivariate Tests of Significance (S=1, M=7 1/2, N=147 1/2)

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Note: F statistics are exact.

EFFECT Y (Cont. . . .)
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<td>414.14043</td>
<td>7.04688</td>
<td>1.32313</td>
<td>5.32590</td>
<td>.022</td>
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<td>1.70760</td>
<td>1.31266</td>
<td>1.30087</td>
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<td>7.31111</td>
<td>1.36805</td>
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<td>4.53972</td>
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<td>3.05221</td>
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<td>1.57084</td>
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<td>1.64708</td>
<td>.200</td>
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<td>.97358</td>
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<td>7.16338</td>
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<td>2.29463</td>
<td>.131</td>
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<td>IIVNOBKG</td>
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<td>2.57569</td>
<td>.110</td>
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<td>IIVFUNEN</td>
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<td>5.08951</td>
<td>.91208</td>
<td>5.58010</td>
<td>.019</td>
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<td>417.18298</td>
<td>2.59480</td>
<td>1.33285</td>
<td>1.94680</td>
<td>.164</td>
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</table>
### Appendix 6 Correlations Between Expectancy Values and Summed Campervan Expectancies

The following table shows the correlations between the summed expected features of the campervan (CVELEMEN) and all 17 motivations for hiring a campervan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pair</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHEAP</td>
<td>.1491</td>
<td>FUN to DRIVE</td>
<td>.0976</td>
<td>FREE</td>
<td>.0175</td>
<td>ADVENTURE</td>
<td>.2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with N(383)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .003</td>
<td>with N(379)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .058</td>
<td>with N(393)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .729</td>
<td>with N(385)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>.0976</td>
<td>OWE</td>
<td>.2450</td>
<td>BELONG</td>
<td>.1667</td>
<td>STYLE</td>
<td>.2503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with N(395)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .053</td>
<td>with N(372)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .000</td>
<td>with N(371)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .001</td>
<td>with N(382)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EASY</td>
<td>-.0020</td>
<td>TOURIST</td>
<td>.1276</td>
<td>NATUR</td>
<td>.1686</td>
<td>ACHIEVE</td>
<td>.1151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with N(386)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .968</td>
<td>with N(386)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .012</td>
<td>with N(387)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .001</td>
<td>with N(378)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEST WAY</td>
<td>.1441</td>
<td>SAFE</td>
<td>.1374</td>
<td>NO BOOKING</td>
<td>.1646</td>
<td>FUN &amp; ENJOY</td>
<td>.1023</td>
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<tr>
<td>with N(385)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .005</td>
<td>with N(384)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .007</td>
<td>with N(389)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .001</td>
<td>with N(387)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .044</td>
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<td>POTENTIAL</td>
<td>.2098</td>
<td>with N(374)</td>
<td>CVELEMEN Sig .000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 7  Regression Analysis On Overall Satisfaction

The following TABLE 8.1 shows the results of a regression analysis performed on the expectation and satisfaction data with n=395. 13 variables explain 70.8% of the occurring variance. The number of residuals (213) is high. However, neither transforming the satisfaction scores by logarithmic functions, nor the removal of outliers improved the results. Also, the standardised scatterplot is difficult to interpret but indicates a lack of randomness.

On the other hand, the DURBIN WATSON measure is 2.14268 and thus ≈2, thus indicating that there is no autocorrelation present (Koutsoyiannis, 1977). Furthermore, the residuals plotted against the expected results shows a very acceptable fit. The data has also been checked for heteroscedasticity. An indication for heteroscedasticity is a repeated inclusion and exclusion of a variable in the regression equation at various steps.

The variables with 'NO' at the end are those which can be interpreted as the instrumental side of a satisfaction score, i.e. the level of dissatisfaction. As can be inspected in Appendix 4, satisfaction was measured with two different scales according to assumptions made by the two-factor theory. The 'YES' scale measures the expressive side of satisfaction.

'NO' thus indicates the instrumental level. The Beta values, which have been omitted here, all have negative signs for 'NO' statements, indicating that, if the tourist does not put a tick onto this scale but on the other, expressive scale, the stated addition in explanation of variance is given.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>NO %</th>
<th>Signif</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FAIR PRICE PAID FOR MY HOLIDAYS</td>
<td>37.4%</td>
<td>.0015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OVERALL MORE SATISFIED THAN EXPECTED</td>
<td>52.6%</td>
<td>.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATISFACTION WITH ENTERTAINMENT</td>
<td>56.7%</td>
<td>.0011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATISFACTION WITH OUTDOORS</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
<td>.0018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference score / Campervan: EXQUISITELY FINISHED DETAIL</td>
<td>62.2%</td>
<td>.0009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference score / Values: I CAN REALLY DO WHAT I WANT (inner)</td>
<td>64.2%</td>
<td>.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SATISFACTION WITH THE CAMPervAN: YES 66.0% .0000
ARE YOU A GERMAN? (Nationality): 66.9% .0200
THE CAMPervAN SATISFIED MORE THAN EXPECTED: 67.9% .0023
SATISFIED WITH SCENERY AND NATURE: YES 68.5% .0074
CAMPervAN STAFF HAS EMPATHY FOR CUSTOMER: 69.1% .0060
EXPECTATION THAT CAMPervANING IS SAFE: 69.9% .0015
Difference score/ ACHIEVEMENT FACTOR: 70.8% .0105
(Constant) .041960 .211699 .198 .8431
Total Cases = 395
Durbin-Watson Test = 2.14268
Appendix 8  The Questionnaire

for office only: Mont...........Van Type........Pick up........Drop off........No...........

Dear visitor,
Thank you very much for choosing our company to provide you with transport and accommodation for exciting holidays. In order to keep up with your demands we would like to know from you how we can improve our product.

This survey wants to find out about your EXPECTATIONS and, at the end of your holidays with the campervan, your level of SATISFACTION. It is organised and conducted as part of a Tourism Research Project by the University of Otago - Post Graduate Tourism Department. The majority of questions use scales. This is simply to give you a better range of options to answer. Instead of a 'yes' or 'no' answer it allows you to give a more precise answer if it lies anywhere between a strict 'yes' or 'no'.

For example, there are statements like the following

"I chose a campervan because...

a) it is the most convenient way to travel

5....4....3....2....1

In any case, the information you give will be handled with the strictest confidence.

Thank you very much
Juergen Gnoth

3. Which of these best describes the purpose of your visit?
Column a) relates to the main purpose of this trip to NZ. If you have a double purpose, then state your main purpose in column a) and your less important purpose in column b) which indicates any other purpose

a) b)

Holiday / Vacation
Visit Friends / Relatives
Work Full Time
Business Private / Official
Working Holiday
Stopover
Formal Education
Conference / Convention
Sport
Other:

4. a) What is your present occupation?
(please state)

b) Do you have a university degree?
(please circle)

yes / no / similar qualifications
5. How many members of your party are
   Male  Female
   Under 10
   10 - 14 years
   15 - 19 years
   20 - 24 years
   25 - 34 years
   35 - 44 years
   45 - 54 years
   55 - 64 years
   65 and over

6. Have you visited New Zealand before?
   Yes... No....
   How often before this trip? [______]

7. a) When you were first thinking about travel
to New Zealand, where did you get your
   travel information? (Please tick)

   Friends / Relatives
   Travel Agent Brochures
   Brochures through Mail
   Airline Office
   Advertising
   Travel Books
   TV + Radio Reports
   Other (please state):

   b) Do you have a guide book
   about New Zealand? Yes... No...

c) Do you have a
   route planned? Yes... No...

d) Will you make your
   exact plans as you go? Yes... No...

e) Do you have certain
   activities planned? Yes... No...

8. Have you organised your
   camper van hire overseas? Yes... No...

   a) Please name the campervan brand you
   have chosen

   (Meer's Cook, Mail, Newman's, Horizon, Budget)

   b) Have you ever had a camper
   van holiday before? Yes... No...

c) How many days will you
   spend in New Zealand? _______ days

d) For how many days will you be
   travelling in the campervan? _______ days

e) When did you book the van? _______ months ago

f) Will you be travelling both of
   New Zealand's islands? Yes... No...
   Don't know...

...WHAT IS IMPORTANT
DURING YOUR HOLIDAYS?....

9. Please show how important each of the
   following item is. They are all part of your
   holidays. The scales mean

   5 = very Important
   3 = neither, I am undecided
   1 = not Important at all

   Outdoor-Activity Opportunities 5 4 3 2 1
   Shopping
   New Zealand's Scenery 5 4 3 2 1
   Quality of Service 5 4 3 2 1.
   Entertainment / Going Out 5 4 3 2 1
   New Zealand Culture & People 5 4 3 2 1.

...WHAT ABOUT CAMPGROUNDS?

10. This question also asks "How Important...
    5 = very important...1= not important at all
    " If I do visit campgrounds it is because of..."

   a) Convenience 5 4 3 2 1
   b) Safety reasons 5 4 3 2 1
   c) The added comfort 5 4 3 2 1
      (electricity, washing machines etc) 5 4 3 2 1
   d) Social contacts 5 4 3 2 1

..Regarding Quality of Service...

11. The following statements deal with your
    satisfaction with the INFORMATION MATERIAL
    you have received in your home country. They
    also ask for your estimation of our locality and
    set-up 5 = I agree strongly
    3 = I don't know, undecided
    1 = I disagree totally

   a) Overall, the information material on
   campervans in New Zealand is practical
   and sufficiently informative. 5 4 3 2 1
   b) The various tour operators and
   campervan brands allow for great
   variety and selection 5 4 3 2 1
   c) When it comes to the difference in
   prices I found they were all the
   same 5 4 3 2 1
   d) I am surprised to find all brands
   being handled from one depot 5 4 3 2 1
12. AND NOW TO YOUR CHOICE OF HOLIDAYS....

(strongly agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (strongly disagree)

"I chose a campervan because ....

a) to me it is the cheapest way to travel 5 4 3 2 1
b) driving a van is fun and enjoyable 5 4 3 2 1
c) I want to be free and independent.... 5 4 3 2 1
d) it gives me the feeling of adventure.. 5 4 3 2 1
e) I can really do what I want ............ 5 4 3 2 1
f) I just owe myself something like this 5 4 3 2 1

II. IN THE AIR

1. Paragliding 5 4 3 2 1
2. Parachuting 5 4 3 2 1
3. Scenic Flights 5 4 3 2 1

III. ACTIVITIES IN THE BUSH AND MOUNTAINS

1. Horse Riding 5 4 3 2 1
2. Tramping / Hiking (and staying away overnight) 5 4 3 2 1
3. Looking for Solitude in Wilderness Areas 5 4 3 2 1
4. Seeking Isolation from Civilisation 5 4 3 2 1
5. Walks (between 1 and 4 hours) 5 4 3 2 1
6. Walks (for more than 4 hrs) 5 4 3 2 1
7. Hunting 5 4 3 2 1
8. Bird-Watching 5 4 3 2 1
9. Bungie Jumping 5 4 3 2 1
10. Pursuing Particular Sports (please use) 5 4 3 2 1

IV. SOCIALIZING

1. Seeking Warm and Friendly Relationships with Maoris 5 4 3 2 1
2. Seeking Warm and Friendly Relationships with Locals in General 5 4 3 2 1
3. Visiting Concerts / Dancing 5 4 3 2 1
4. Visiting Pubs and Bars 5 4 3 2 1
5. Hangi (Maori earth oven cuisine) 5 4 3 2 1

V. OTHER ENTERTAINMENT AND ACTIVITIES

1. Visiting Specialty Restaurants 5 4 3 2 1
2. Visiting Museums 5 4 3 2 1
3. Visiting Art and Craft Shops 5 4 3 2 1
4. Visiting Art Galleries 5 4 3 2 1
5. Attending Plays at Theatres 5 4 3 2 1
6. Visiting Maori Cultural Performances 5 4 3 2 1
7. Reading Books 5 4 3 2 1
8. Visiting Amusementparks, Zoos 5 4 3 2 1
9. Playing Golf 5 4 3 2 1

VI. SHOPPING

1. ...in Supermarkets 5 4 3 2 1
2. ...in Cornershops 5 4 3 2 1
3. in Take-Away Food Outlets 5 4 3 2 1
4. Eating in Restaurants 5 4 3 2 1
5. Shopping for specialty goods (sheep-skins, jade, carvings etc) 5 4 3 2 1
14) .................................. AND WHAT ARE YOUR STANDARDS ? .........................

We would like to know WHAT YOU EXPECT FROM YOUR CAMPAVAN.

Please, choose only ONE answer per question. Note that your choice indicates agreement only and this time numbers mean

5 = "I strongly agree with this statement"
4 = "I fully agree with this statement"
3 = "I agree with this statement"
2 = "I mildly agree with this statement"
1 = "I rather tend towards this statement"

I EXPECT THE CAMPAVAN TO....

either be used but very well maintained.................. 5 4 3 2 1
or be maintained as if it were new.......................... 5 4 3 2 1

either perform reliably in all of its functions.................. 5 4 3 2 1
or appear sophisticated, as well as perform reliably........... 5 4 3 2 1

either perform rather like a truck..... 5 4 3 2 1
or handle almost as easily as a car............................ 5 4 3 2 1

either supply conventional cooking equipment........ 5 4 3 2 1
or be fully equipped allowing for a versatile cuisine........ 5 4 3 2 1

either have practical facilities.............. 5 4 3 2 1
or have a wide variety of facilities...................... 5 4 3 2 1

either be economical in fuel consumption.................... 5 4 3 2 1
or be cheap in fuel consumption............................. 5 4 3 2 1

either have an easy way to get rid of the little wastewater which occurs.................. 5 4 3 2 1
or have a holding tank & central dumping stations around the country................ 5 4 3 2 1

either be insulated and with good electric heaters to be hooked up on campgrounds........ 5 4 3 2 1
or have an efficient, totally autonomous space-heater when stationary.................. 5 4 3 2 1

either have a functional layout ........ 5 4 3 2 1
or be luxuriously spacious........... 5 4 3 2 1

either have an adequate solution regarding view, ventilation, & sandfly protection........ 5 4 3 2 1
or have panoramic windows, excellent ventilation & total sandfly protection........ 5 4 3 2 1

either offer enough room to move & put things........ 5 4 3 2 1
or have stylishly designed living & ample storage space........... 5 4 3 2 1

either be of a proven design and solidly manufactured........ 5 4 3 2 1
or have exquisitely finished details & modern trappings........... 5 4 3 2 1

either have easy access to cab and living area.................. 5 4 3 2 1
or be comfortable to access & overall passenger friendly........ 5 4 3 2 1

either have easily accessible convertible beds........ 5 4 3 2 1
or have easy-to-use, comfortable and spacious beds with enough room to move in van ................ 5 4 3 2 1

........................................................................ and if applicable

either have uncomplicated and practical toilet facilities...... 5 4 3 2 1
or have a private, spacious and comfortable toilet.................. 5 4 3 2 1

either have uncomplicated and practical shower facilities........... 5 4 3 2 1
or have a private, spacious and comfortable shower........ 5 4 3 2 1
PART II

We hope that you had a nice holiday!

This part of the survey tries to ascertain how satisfied you are. Please answer all questions.

15. We hope that you did not have an accident or any other trouble with your van. If not, please move on to question no 16.

However, if you did have an accident or malfunctioning, did it spoil much of your holidays?

5 = "Indeed, it spoilt it;"
4 = "It almost spoilt it"
3 = "It is not easy to forget" 5 4 3 2 1
2 = "We got over it"
1 = "We got over it very quickly"

b) Was the trouble due to a lack of maintenance or any other fault of the campervan company?

yes ..... no ..... c) Please state what you had trouble with

5 = extremely satisfied
4 = satisfied
3 = neither good nor bad
2 = hardly satisfied
1 = not satisfied at all

AND HAVE YOU BEEN SATISFIED?

16. Now that you have experienced travelling in a campervan, we would like to find out whether your expectations have been fulfilled.

Please indicate on all of the following scales how you rate the performance of your campervan.

Numbers
5 = extremely satisfied
4 = satisfied
3 = neither good nor bad
2 = hardly satisfied
1 = not satisfied at all

mean:
Numbers
5 = extremely satisfied
4 = satisfied
3 = neither good nor bad
2 = hardly satisfied
1 = not satisfied at all

'I WAS SATISFIED WITH THE CAMPervAN's...

a) standard of maintenance 5 4 3 2 1
b) reliability of the van 5 4 3 2 1
c) road performance: It could be handled easily 5 4 3 2 1
d) equipment: the van contained what I expected 5 4 3 2 1

e) equipment: it was functional and performed well 5 4 3 2 1
f) economical fuel consumption 5 4 3 2 1
g) practicality to get rid of waste-water 5 4 3 2 1
h) heating arrangements when stationary 5 4 3 2 1
i) space to move in the van 5 4 3 2 1
j) ventilation 5 4 3 2 1
k) practicalities of storage-spaces 5 4 3 2 1
l) finishing details 5 4 3 2 1
m) access to cab & living area 5 4 3 2 1
n) access to bunks and beds 5 4 3 2 1
and if applicable
o) the toilet facilities 5 4 3 2 1
p) the shower facilities 5 4 3 2 1

q) I would have liked a spade for outside - toilets (please circle)
yes / no / indifferent

r) Please specify the most dissatisfactory aspects from above or let us know what we can improve upon (eg interior design) or supply additionally.

... AND How Extensively Did You Travel?

17. a) How many kilometers did you approximately travel? km

b) Did you travel both islands? yes... no...

c) is it indeed the van you booked? yes... no...
(if 'yes' move to question no 18)

d) if 'no', or your van was exchanged because of other reasons, were you satisfied with the replacement, the time you had to wait etc.? 5 = extremely satisfied
4 = satisfied
3 = neither good nor bad 5 4 3 2 1
2 = hardly satisfied
1 = not satisfied at all
...HOW DO YOU FEEL ABOUT YOUR VAN NOW ?...
18. Please indicate on all of the following scales to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements made.
(Strongly agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (Strongly disagree)
CHOOSING A CAMPervAN hAS PROVEN TO BE RIGHT BECAUSE ...
a) to me, it is the cheapest way to travel 5 4 3 2 1
b) driving a van is fun and enjoyable 5 4 3 2 1
c) I had the freedom and independence I was wishing for 5 4 3 2 1
d) I had a feeling of adventure 5 4 3 2 1
e) I could really do what I like 5 4 3 2 1
f) I just owed myself something like this 5 4 3 2 1
g) it gave me the feeling of a home away from home 5 4 3 2 1
h) it suits my style 5 4 3 2 1
i) it makes it easier to meet locals 5 4 3 2 1
j) I didn’t feel as if I was “just a tourist” 5 4 3 2 1
k) you get close to nature easily 5 4 3 2 1
l) I could achieve more than with any other form of holidays 5 4 3 2 1
m) it is the best option to travel New Zealand 5 4 3 2 1
n) it is a safe way to travel 5 4 3 2 1
o) it was worthwhile that I didn’t have to book ahead for accommodation 5 4 3 2 1
p) It guaranteed a holiday full of fun and enjoyment 5 4 3 2 1
q) I could live up to my full potential and be myself 5 4 3 2 1

19.....DID YOU ENJOY THE CAMPgrounds ?...
(for notable, positive exceptions, see below)
(Strongly agree, 1 = strongly disagree)
1. Cleanliness, tidiness, the standard, and appearance of the physical facilities were satisfactory 5 4 3 2 1
2. The facilities on the campgrounds were reliable and functioned well 5 4 3 2 1
3. Staff were always willing and able to provide prompt service 5 4 3 2 1

4. Staff gave courteous, competent and knowledgeable service 5 4 3 2 1
5. Staff really knew what we wanted and made sure we felt good 5 4 3 2 1
6. I was satisfied with the ablution facilities etc. for the van’s waste water 5 4 3 2 1

Which Campgrounds gave an all-round satisfactory service? (name and / or place please)

b) This question asks "How Important...
5 = very important; 1 = not important at all
IF I DID VISIT CAMPgrounds IT WAS BECAUSE OF...

a) convenience 5 4 3 2 1
b) safety reasons 5 4 3 2 1
c) the added comfort (electricity, washing machines etc) 5 4 3 2 1
d) social contacts 5 4 3 2 1

c) This question asks how often...
5 = always, 4 = most of the time
3 = frequently, 2 = sometimes, 1 = never
“How often did you use a......
1. A commercial campground 5 4 3 2 1
2. Dept. of Conservation grounds 5 4 3 2 1
3. Rest Area on the side of the road 5 4 3 2 1
4. Wild spot you liked or ended up at 5 4 3 2 1

d) and regarding Travel Information...
alwAyS 5 4 3 2 1 never
“We organized our route and activities in NZ with
advice from friends at home 5 4 3 2 1
advice from other tourists 5 4 3 2 1
advice from locals 5 4 3 2 1
the information we gathered back home 5 4 3 2 1
tourist information bureaus 5 4 3 2 1
Leisure Port's guide / Info - Material 5 4 3 2 1
a guide book we bought here 5 4 3 2 1
the guide we brought from home 5 4 3 2 1

e) Were you satisfied with the information you had about the available campgrounds, their location and varying quality of facilities?
very much so 5 4 3 2 1 not at all

f) How satisfied were you with your travel information overall ?
very much so 5 4 3 2 1 not at all
...AND HOW SATISFIED ARE YOU WITH OUR (LEISURE PORT) SERVICES ?...
20. How satisfied are you with the service given to you by LEISURE PORT staff and facilities who provided you with your van?
(agree strongly) 5 4 3 2 1 (disagree strongly)

1. The reception area sets the right design and atmosphere to begin and end a holiday 5 4 3 2 1
2. Staff gave good and helpful advice and information about all aspects which relate to travelling in a campervan 5 4 3 2 1
3. Staff gave prompt and willing service 5 4 3 2 1
4. Staff are competent in relation to all aspects and benefits of the campervan 5 4 3 2 1
5. Staff really know how to detect your mood and make sure you have a nice holiday 5 4 3 2 1
6. Staff are very courteous 5 4 3 2 1

21. Please indicate how satisfied you are overall. Choose the statement toward which you tend and show how strongly you agree. Answer only one option per question.

5 = "I strongly agree with this statement"
4 = "I fully agree with this statement"
3 = "I agree with this statement"
2 = "I mildly agree with this statement"
1 = "I rather tend towards this statement"

Overall, My Holidays

either...................satisfied me 5 4 3 2 1
or.......................dissatisfied me 5 4 3 2 1

they satisfied me...
either ..........more than expected 5 4 3 2 1
or..........less than expected 5 4 3 2 1

My Campavan...
either......................satisfied me 5 4 3 2 1
or........................dissatisfied me 5 4 3 2 1

it satisfied me
either............more than expected 5 4 3 2 1
or..............less than expected 5 4 3 2 1

The Price I paid for My Holidays is
either............................fair 5 4 3 2 1
or.................................unfair 5 4 3 2 1

The Outdoor-Activity Opportunities

either.....................satisfied me 5 4 3 2 1
or.............................dissatisfied me 5 4 3 2 1

Shopping in New Zealand

either.....................satisfied me 5 4 3 2 1
or.............................dissatisfied me 5 4 3 2 1

New Zealand's Scenery

either.....................satisfied me 5 4 3 2 1
or.............................dissatisfied me 5 4 3 2 1

The Quality of Service

either.....................satisfied me 5 4 3 2 1
or.............................dissatisfied me 5 4 3 2 1

Entertainment / Going Out

either.....................satisfied me 5 4 3 2 1
or.............................dissatisfied me 5 4 3 2 1

New Zealand Culture & People

either.....................satisfied me 5 4 3 2 1
or.............................dissatisfied me 5 4 3 2 1

22. Please indicate on the following scales, how often you pursued any of these activities. The scale's calibration reads as follows,
10-7 = ten to seven times
6-4 = six to four times
3 = three times
2 = twice
1 = once
N = never

I. FUN WITH WATER

1. Swimming 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
2. Deep Sea Diving 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
3. Snorkeling 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
4. Fishing 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
5. Fly-Fishing 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
6. Canoeing 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
7. Surfing 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
8. Sunbathing 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
9. Sailing 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
10. Whale Watching 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
11. White Water Rafting 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
12. Jet-Boating 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
13. Black Water Rafting 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
14. Using Thermal Hot Pool or Spa. 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
15. Waterskiing 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
16. Snowskiing 10-7 6 4 3 2 1 N
II. IN THE AIR
1. Paragliding
2. Parachuting
3. Scenic Flights

III. ACTIVITIES IN THE BUSH AND MOUNTAINS
1. Horse Riding
2. Tramping / Hiking (and staying away overnight)
3. Looking for Solitude in Wilderness Areas
4. Seeking Isolation from Civilization
5. Walks (between 1-4 hours)
6. Walks (for more than 4 hours)
7. Hunting
8. Bird-Watching
9. Bungie Jumping
10. Pursuing Particular Sports

IV. SOCIALIZING
1. Finding Warm and Friendly Relationships with Maoris
2. Finding Warm and Friendly Relationships with Locals in General
3. Visiting Concerts / Dancing
4. Visiting Pubs & Bars
5. Hangi

IV. OTHER ENTERTAINMENT AND ACTIVITIES
1. Visiting Specialty Restaurants
2. Visiting Museums
3. Visiting Art & Craft Shops
4. Visiting Art Galleries
5. Visiting Plays at Theatres

V. SHOPPING
1. ... in Supermarkets
2. ... in Cornershops
3. Dined at Take-Away Food Outlets
4. Dined in Restaurants
5. Shopped / looked for Specialty Goods

23 a) Did the weather affect your holidays?

I was either.... satisfied with the weather 5 4 3 2 1
or.... dissatisfied with the weather 5 4 3 2 1

It affected my enjoyment either..... more than expected 5 4 3 2 1
or..... less than expected 5 4 3 2 1

b) Please state, IN THE ORDER OF IMPORTANCE, the 3 most enjoyable things you did or experienced

I. 
2. 
3. 

We thank you very much for your time and help. We hope that you had an enjoyable holiday and wish you all the best for your return home. See you again! J.Gnoth
Appendix 9 Cross-Tabulations of Summmed Campervan Disconfirmations

The following two tables are the result of two cross-tabulations of the summed instrumental and expressive disconfirmations of campervan elements.

In order to achieve these sums, each instrumental expectation score relating to features of the campervan, tourists were about to obtain, was subtracted from the respective performance evaluation scored after the experience. The same was done to the expressive scores, resulting in two sets of one instrumental and one expressive score.

These sets were then summed, resulting in two aggregated disconfirmation scores. For expressive elements, the score was -2.018 and for instrumental elements, -5.013.

These inferred scores were then related to perceived scores. Anything larger than these scores was set +1, for positive disconfirmation, any score smaller -1, for negative disconfirmation.

Similarly, scores that featured on the scale "I was more satisfied with my campervan than expected" was set +1. Those tourists that ticked "less than expected" were set -1. The analyses were performed on the application CROSSTABS on SPSSX.

TABLE 10.1 Cross-tabulation: Instrumental Disconfirmations By Perceived Evaluations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Evaluations</th>
<th>Inferred Disconfirmations</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Row</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>46.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson</td>
<td>13.44075</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.00025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity Correction</td>
<td>12.43082</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.00042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>13.67264</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.00023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mantel-Haenszel test for linear association</td>
<td>13.39887</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.00025</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Minimum Expected Frequency - 29.907
Number of Missing Observations: 29

TABLE 10.1 shows a high value for Phi, but a hardly acceptable minimum cell-
frequency. The reason might well lie with the fact, that while 150 tourists were less satisfied with instrumental aspects of the van (inferred measurements), only 43 actually ticked the appropriate perceived scale after the experience.

Conversely, 170 showed inferred scores indicating they were more satisfied than expected. Here only 21 reported otherwise on the ‘perceived’ scale.

TABLE 10.2 Cross-tabulation: Expressive Disconfirmations By Perceived Evaluations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Evaluation</th>
<th>Inferred Disconfirmation</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Column</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>77.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson</td>
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<td>.12997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Continuity Correction</td>
<td></td>
<td>.17037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td></td>
<td>.13012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mantel-Haenszel test for linear association</td>
<td></td>
<td>.13065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum Expected Frequency</td>
<td>29.713</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

This crosstabulations shows similar expected cell-frequencies to above, but no significance at all. Overall, tourists reported far higher levels of satisfaction, than the inferred scores would indicate.