

**T.C. DOĐUŐ UNIVERSITY
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VARIETY SEEKING BEHAVIOUR IN TURKISH TOURISM

MBA Thesis

**Meltem Aydınođlu
200881001**

**Thesis Advisor:
Asst. Prof. Dr. Erdođan Koç**

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ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı turizm sektöründeki çeşit arama davranışını kavramsallaştırmak ve ampirik olarak analiz etmektir. Turizm esas olarak sadakat ilişkisine dayalı pazarlamayı benimseyen önemli bir hizmet sektörü olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Fakat yenilik arayışı turizmde yeniden ziyaret etmeyi büyük ölçüde etkilemektedir. Bu nedenle, tüketici tatil deneyiminden çokça tatmin olmasına rağmen aynı tatil destinasyonunu ve konakladığı işletmeyi tekrar ziyaret etmeyebilir. Dört temel satın alma davranışından biri olan çeşit arama davranışı, turizm işletmelerinde müşteri sadakati kavramına ve dolayısıyla turizm işletmelerinin karlılık oranına zarar vermektedir.

Bu çalışmanın teorik kısmı konuya derin bir anlayış kazandırmak amacıyla turizmdeki temel kavramlar, Türk turizminin profili ve ekonomideki yeri, turizmde tüketici davranışı, müşteri memnuniyeti ve müşteri sadakati, turizmde servis kalitesinin önemi ve turizmde çeşit arama davranışı gibi bölüm ve başlıklar altında incelenmiştir. Buna ilave olarak, ampirik bir yaklaşımla turizmdeki çeşit arama davranışını analiz etmek amacı ile 200 potansiyel turiste anket uygulaması yapılmış ve elde edilen veriler istatistiksel olarak analiz edilmiştir. Anket soruları demografik ve tatil alışkanlıkları olarak iki bölümden oluşmaktadır ve turizmdeki çeşit arama davranışının etkilerini analiz etmek üzere tasarlanmıştır.

Bulgular, yorumlar ve sonuçlar kısımları ise anket uygulamasından elde edilen verilerin istatistik analizine dayanmaktadır.

SUMMARY

This study aimed to conceptualise and analyse empirically the variety-seeking behaviour in tourism sector. Tourism, broadly defined, is a key services sector that has embraced loyalty-related marketing however, there is a large novelty factor in tourism which acts against revisiting. Hence, although a consumer may be very satisfied with the vacation experience, he or she may not revisit the same destination and accommodation. As one of the consumer buying behaviour model, variety seeking behaviour is an obstacle for the customer loyalty in tourism sector and by the way it damages the profits of tourism enterprises.

This study consists of theoretical framework including tourism concepts, a profile to Turkish tourism and importance of tourism in Turkish economy, consumer behaviour in tourism, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, importance of service quality in tourism, and variety seeking behaviour in tourism in order to get a deeper understanding of the issue. This research also attempts to incorporate the experiential application into a construct and tested variety seeking tendency in tourism by an empirical study of 200 potential tourists. The questionnaire has two parts as a demographic and holiday habits and designed to analyse the influences of variety seeking behaviour in tourism.

There are findings, interpretations conclusion parts which are based on the feedback and statistical data from the questionnaire.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Importance of Research

Tourism is the world's largest industry and so is of vital importance to the global economy. Its contribution has risen dramatically over recent decades. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) estimate that in 2015 travel and tourism were directly and indirectly responsible for generating 11.3 % of world GDP and 269 million jobs across the global economy. The economic figures cited show that tourism has grown to be an activity of worldwide importance and significance. For a number of countries, tourism is the largest commodity in international trade. In many others, it ranks among the top three industries. Tourism has grown rapidly to become a major social and economic force in the world.

Besides, in tourism marketing, customer loyalty is a crucial issue as marketing in all areas. It is a well-known fact that keeping customers is less expensive than creating new ones. The success of tourism destination is mostly depend on the ratios of its repeat customers. However, the novelty drive is an underlying motivation for tourism and leads to variety seeking behaviour which is seen as the opposite of repetitive buying behaviour. This thesis studies variety seeking behaviour in Turkish tourism context as a main reason that discourage loyal tourism behaviour.

1.2 The Aim of The Research and Research Questions

The principle aim of this research; to consider the variety seeking behaviour in travel decisions of people and to make recommendations to managers working in accomodation establishments so as to be able to prevent the negative effects, if any, of this behaviour. With this in mind the key questions of this research are as follows:

- Do people visit the same holiday destination a) when they are happy and satisfied with their holidays b) when they are not happy and not satisfied with their holidays?
- Do people stay at the the same accomodation establishment a) when they are happy and satisfied with their holidays b) when they are not happy and not satisfied with their holidays?

- How may demographic differences of tourists and their holiday organising patterns influence their variety seeking behaviour?
- When tourists engage in variety seeking behaviour is it a) due to the attractiveness of other options b) being displeased with the past holiday experience or c) just for the sake of variety seeking?
- What sort of demographic processes may influence the above?

1.3 Research Hypothesis

It is difficult to establish customer loyalty in tourism as tourists engage in variety seeking behaviour even when they are satisfied with their holidays.

1.4 Methodology

To verify the reliability and the validity of the scales, and to test the hypotheses put forward, an empirical study has been carried out. The questionnaire was carried out between October and November 2009 in Istanbul. The sample size was 200 potential tourists. Responses were received from 109 males (52%) and 91 females (48%). Each participant received a survey questionnaire consisting of two parts. The data set included a wide range of questions encompassing demographic and trip characteristics. The population of interest was current tourism consumers. Data were analyzed using SPSS16.0 (*Statistical Packet for The Social Science*). Independent-Samples T Test and ANOVA were employed to analyze the collected data.

1.5 Data Collection Procedure

A structured questionnaire has been developed to collect information. A questionnaire is an efficient data-collection mechanism when the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest (Sekaran, 1992: 200). It is a highly efficient method of collecting a large amount of relatively precise data about many variables. The advantage of using existing procedures is that their reliability and validity have already

been established. The questionnaire consisted of mainly closed questions. The questionnaire also contained two parts and 23 questions. Part 1 included questions about the demographic characteristics of the respondents, Part 2 included questions about trip characteristics such as travel frequency, type of destination experience, satisfaction issues. A Likert scale was employed in many questions as a measurement scale of choice. The Likert scale is one of the most widely used attitude-scaling techniques and it allows respondents to express the intensity of their feelings. In developing the Likert scale for this study, statements were generated corresponding to the important issues that were identified in the literature study. Each statement had to be judged as favorable or non-favorable. Respondents are asked to judge their expectations and experience on a five-point scale ranging between degrees of strongly agree and strongly disagree with a neutral point in the middle.

1.6 Limitations

It is necessary to be aware of the limitations of this study. drawing conclusions and making generalisations a bit difficult. People in different cities may have different motivations.

Another limitation is to do with the sample size of this study. The size of the sample is not very large, which may pose problems regarding sample error. However, as this study is intended to be an exploratory one, findings may further investigated in future research.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis has seven chapters. The first chapter is "Introduction" which provides a preview of the thesis. The second chapter is "Tourism" which presents basic facts about the tourism sector. The third chapter is titled "Turkish Tourism Industry" and it analyzes the development of tourism in Turkey and impacts on Turkish economy. The fourth chapter is "Consumer Behaviour in Tourism" which explains the pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase stages of tourism consumption. The fifth chapter is "Variety Seeking Behaviour in Tourism" which gives information about the causes of variety seeking behaviour and explains how novelty seeking behaviour leads to seek for variety. The sixth chapter is

“Research Methodology and Findings” which explains the characteristics of the research and discusses the collected data. The final chapter of the thesis is titled “Discussion and Conclusion” and it provides recommendations to various practitioners.

CHAPTER 2: TOURISM

2.0.0 Overview

Tourism is vital for many countries because of the large intake of money for businesses with their goods and services and the employment opportunities in the service industries associated with the tourism. This chapter is intended to give basic information about the tourism sector as a general and to emphasize the importance of tourism as an industry and service sector by world tourism statistics of WTO.

2.1.0 Definition of Tourism

Tourism is travel for recreational, leisure or business purposes. Most of scholars agree that tourism involves a trip away from home that is done for pleasure and ends with a return to the traveler's point of origin. The word "tourist" comes from the Greek word *ornos* which means making a circle. The word 'tourism' emerged from the custom of the English wealthy classes, who sent young people on extensive circuits of continental Europe to finish their education (Leiper, 1979). According to definition of The World Tourism Organization tourists are people who "travel to and stay in places outside their usual environment for more than twenty four hours and not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited". The other definition which views tourism as a sociocultural phenomenon concludes that "Tourism is the study of man (the tourist) away from his usual habitat, of the touristic apparatus and networks, and of the ordinary (non-tourism) and non-ordinary (tourism) worlds and their dialectic relationship" (Jafari, 1987, p. 158).

Now, tourism involves almost all aspects of the human society and has multidisciplinary nature. Many researchers have tried to define tourism from different perspectives.

2.1.1 Economic Definition

Tourism was defined by Australian Department of Tourism & Recreation (1975) as an

identifiable nationally important industry, which involves a wide cross section of component activities including the provision of transportation, accommodation, recreation, food, and related services. This limited definition mainly focuses on the economic aspect of tourism.

2.1.2 Technical Definition

Technical definitions provide some statistical, legislative, and industrial components. As tourism is a data-intensive industry, statistics thus become very important. The most widely accepted technical definition of tourism is proposed by the United Nations in 1963, in which, a “visitor” describes a person who visited a country other than his/her usual place of residence, for any reason other than taking up a remunerated job from within the country visited.

2.1.3 Holistic Definition

Holistic definitions attempt to embrace “the whole” essence of a subject. According to Hunziker and Kraph (Burkart and Medik, 1974), tourism is the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non- residents.

2.2.0 Forms of Tourism

United Nations classified forms of tourism in 1994:

- 1- International Tourism consists of inbound tourism and outbound tourism.
 Inbound Tourism: involving non-residents travelling in the given country.
 Outbound Tourism: involving residents travelling in another country.
- 2- Internal Tourism; comprises domestic tourism and inbound.
- 3- Domestic Tourism; involves residents of the given country travelling only within this country.
- 4- National Tourism:comprises domestic tourism and outbound tourism; (the resident tourism market for travel agents, airlines, and other suppliers)

2.3.0 Tourism as a Service

Services have been defined by Kotler and Armstrong (1994) as an any activity or benefit that one party can offer to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything. There is general consensus that services have unique characteristics that differentiate them from goods and there should be different marketing strategies for services and goods. Tourism has also number of characteristics that distinguish it from physical goods.

2.3.1 Inseparability

Production and consumption of tourism services are inseparable. Tourism services are sold first and then produced and consumed simultaneously at the same place and time. As a result, to a greater or lesser extent customer need to be present when the service is being performed even customers have to carry out part of the service delivery process sometimes.

2.3.2 Perishability

The tourism product is perishable because it cannot be stored for sale at a later date. 'Lack of transferable ownership' is another dimension of this characteristic according to Gronroos (1988). Perishability creates particular marketing and sales needs.

2.3.3 Heterogeneity

The interaction between customer and the front-line member of staff is very important aspect in order to manage the service delivery process. As a result, services are almost never the same. Becker (1996) suggests that many delivery service processes require a high level of labour input; therefore spontaneity from front-line employees is possible.

2.3.4 Intangibility

Tourism services are primarily intangible which means that tourism services do not have any physical dimensions. Tourism services cannot be displayed, sampled, tested, or

evaluated before purchase.

2.3.5 Ownership

When purchasing a service, the buyer generally does not obtain ownership of anything. In tourism industry, a customer is merely given the right to use the service for a limited period of time.

2.4.0 The Economic Contribution of Tourism Sector

By the end of the 20th century tourism became the industry of primary importance for the world economy. The tourism industry has showed one of the fastest growing economic sectors in the world at the beginning of the 3rd millennium and much more attention devoted to tourism. For some countries, tourism became the first source of income and foreign currency, and many local economies heavily depend on tourism. From a positive perspective, tourism has provided an important source of income and employment. Tourism increases spending in destinations and also additional demand on services are required as a result of tourism. The economic impact of tourism results from the balance of these costs and benefits (Pearce, 1989). Studies investigating the economic impact of the tourism have concentrated primarily upon the impact of visitor expenditures, the multiplier effect of expenditures, and the employment that is generated as a result of tourism (Butler, 1974; Mason, 2003).

World Tourism Organization(WTO) points out the data below which shows the contribution of tourism to economic well-being.

- From 1950 to 2005, international tourism arrivals expanded at an annual rate of 6.5%, growing from 25 million to 806 million travellers.
- The income generated by these arrivals grew at an even stronger rate reaching 11.2% during the same period, outgrowing the world economy, reaching around US\$ 680 billion in 2005.
- While in 1950 the top 15 destinations absorbed 88% of international arrivals,

in 1970 the proportion was 75% and decreased to 57% in 2005, reflecting the emergence of new destinations, many of them in developing countries.

Tourism undoubtedly makes a measurable contribution to destination economies. The table below which is adapted from Lea and Mathieson & Wall shows the factors that influence the economic impacts of tourism.

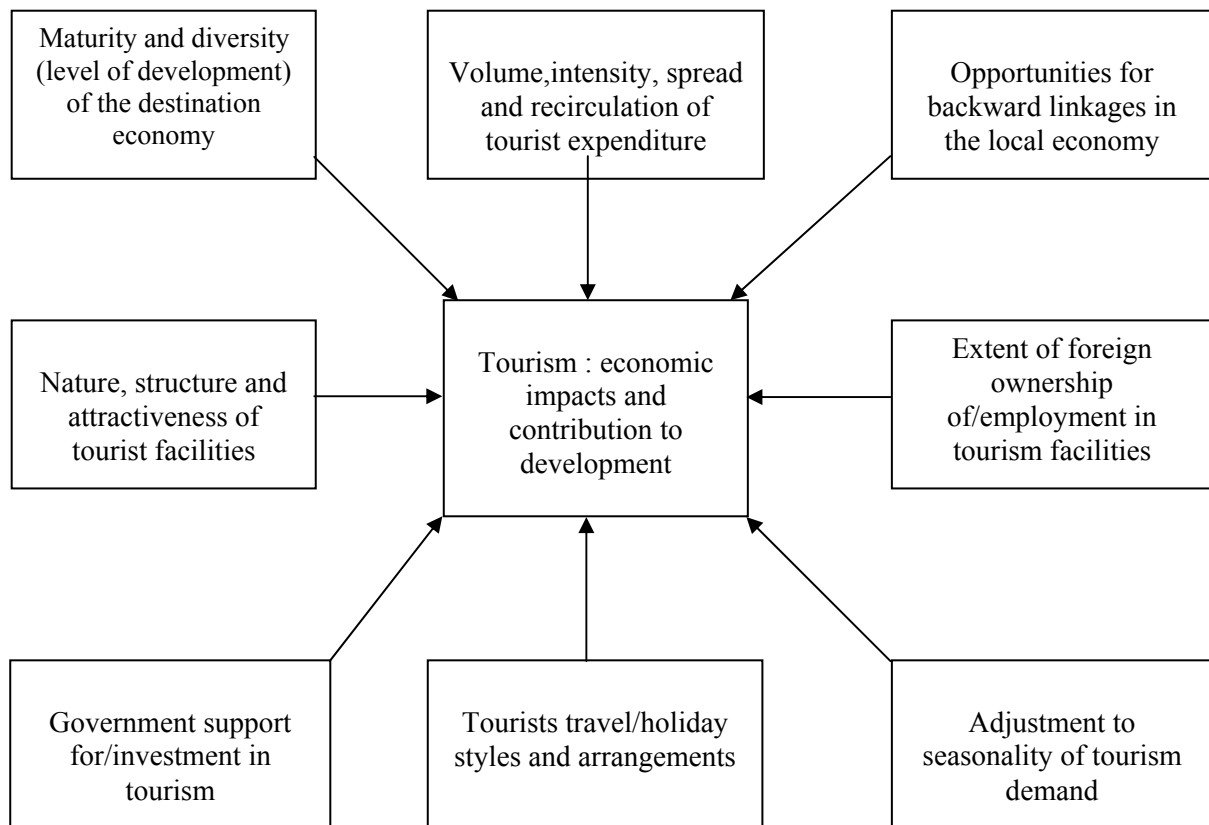


Figure 2.1 Factors that influence the economic impacts of tourism. (Adapted from Lea(1988); Wall and Mathieson (2006 : 90) Lea, J. (1988).”Tourism and Development in The Third World”. London: Routledge. Wall, G., Mathieson, A. (2006). Tourism: Change, Impacts and Opportunities. Pearson.)

2.5.0 Socio-Cultural Impacts

There are made many survey researches and case studies at destinations in order to demonstrate the socio-cultural changes as a result of tourism. There is a general consensus about the association of tourism development consistently with certain cultural impacts. Also, Mathieson and Wall(1982) in their pionering book, highlighted the nature of tourist

impacts in both physical and socio-cultural terms. These socio-cultural impacts result from two main sources: visitor interaction with residents and the destination, and the development of infrastructure (Keogh, 1989). The type and the amount of impact can vary greatly depending on the characteristics of the destination and characteristics of the visitor (Butler, 1974; Mason, 2003). According to WTO, socio-cultural impacts are more evident in tourist destinations in developing countries, where the difference in cultural and economic characteristics between local people and, primarily, relatively wealthy Western tourists is likely to be greatest.

UNESCO study(1976) also shows the relationship between hosts and guests which is characterized by four major features by First, they involve transitory relationships. Visitors are only in a community for a short period, so any interaction between hosts and guests has little chance to progress beyond casual and superficial levels. Second, there are temporal and spatial constraints to visitor-host interaction. Visits are usually seasonal and non-repeated events, so the hospitality business often becomes exploitative to take advantage of this situation. Tourism facilities and services are frequently concentrated in a few locations, due to the locational pull of outstanding attractions and the destination community's desire to minimize the disruption of other activities. Third, with the development of mass tourism visitor-resident meetings lack the spontaneity associated with individual schedules. Most contacts are now arranged via package tours, planned attractions, or even 'arranged' meetings. Such meetings are controlled events and often become commercial arrangements. Fourth, when visitors and residents meet it is generally an unequal and unbalanced experience. Residents often feel inferior when they compare their situation to a visitor's apparent wealth and can become resentful at the contrast. Furthermore, the visitor is on holiday and enjoying novel experiences while for the residents such events have become routine, and represent work not fun.

2.6.0 Current developments and forecasts by WTO

WTO reports the following data about the tourism sector.

- Worldwide arrivals reached 842 million in 2006, representing a 4.6% year on year growth.
- 2007 looks set to be the fourth consecutive year of sustained growth for a global tourism industry that continues to show its resilience to any natural or man-made crises.
- UNWTO predicts a 4% growth of international tourist arrivals in 2007, in line with its long-term forecast growth rate through to 2020 of 4.1%.
- By 2020 international arrivals are expected to surpass 1.5 billion people.

2.7.0 Key Players in Tourism Industry

The World Tourism Organization reports the following ten countries as the most visited in between 2006 and 2008 by number of international travelers. Most of the top visited countries belong to the European continent. When compared to 2006, Ukraine entered the top ten list, surpassing Russia, Austria and Mexico, and in 2008 surpassed Germany. In 2008 the U.S. displaced Spain from the second place.

Table 2.1 Key players in tourism industry

Rank	Country	Regional Market	International Tourist Arrivals (2008)	International Tourist Arrivals (2007)	International Tourist Arrivals (2006)
1	France	Europe	79.3 million	81.9 million	78.9 million
2	United States	North America	58.0 million	56.0 million	51.0 million
3	Spain	Europe	57.3 million	58.7 million	58.2 million
4	China	Asia	53.0 million	54.7 million	49.9 million
5	Italy	Europe	42.7 million	43.7 million	41.1 million
6	United Kingdom	Europe	30.2 million	30.9 million	30.7 million
7	Ukraine	Europe	25.4 million	23.1 million	18.9 million
8	Turkey	Europe	25.0 million	22.2 million	18.9 million
9	Germany	Europe	24.9 million	24.4 million	23.5 million
10	Mexico	North America	22.6 million	21.4 million	21.4 million

(<http://docsonline.wto.org>.)

2.8.0 Top Earners of Tourism Industry

In 2008, there were over 922 million international tourist arrivals, with a growth of 1.9% as compared to 2007. International tourism receipts grew to US\$944 billion in 2008, corresponding to an increase in real terms of 1.8% on 2007. Total receipts in 2008 reached a record of US\$1.1 trillion, or over US\$3 billion a day when the export value of international passenger transport receipts is accounted for.

The World Tourism Organization reports the following countries as the top ten tourism earners for the year 2008. It is noticeable that most of them are on the European continent, but the United States continues to be the top earner.

Table 2.2 Top earners of tourism industry

Rank	Country	Regional Market	International Tourism Receipts (2008)	International Tourism Receipts (2007)	International Tourist Receipts (2006)
1	United States	North America	\$ 110.1 billion	\$96.7 billion	\$85.7 billion
2	Spain	Europe	\$ 61.6 billion	\$57.6 billion	\$51.1 billion
3	France	Europe	\$ 55.6 billion	\$54.3 billion	\$46.3 billion
4	Italy	Europe	\$ 45.7 billion	\$42.7 billion	\$38.1 billion
5	China	Asia	\$ 40.8 billion	\$37.2 billion	\$33.9 billion
6	Germany	Europe	\$ 40.0 billion	\$36.0 billion	\$32.8 billion
7	United Kingdom	Europe	\$ 36.0 billion	\$38.6 billion	\$33.7 billion
8	Australia	Oceania	\$ 24.7 billion	\$22.3 billion	\$17.8 billion
9	Turkey	Europe	\$ 22.0 billion	\$18.5 billion	\$16.9 billion
10	Austria	Europe	\$ 21.8 billion	\$18.9 billion	\$16.6 billion

(<http://docsonline.wto.org>.)

CHAPTER 3: TURKISH TOURISM INDUSTRY

3.0.0 Overview

Turkey with its natural and historical richnesses is one of the most favourable destination for tourists. Especially, the developments after 1980 made Turkey as a one of the key players and top earners in tourism. In this chapter, the recent developments of Turkish tourism, tourism organisation in Turkey and the role of tourism in Turkish economy will be explained by theoretically and statistically.

3.1.0 Recent Developments

For the last two decades, the number of tourists visiting Turkey has been steadily rising. This can be attributed to integration of Turkey with the modern world, free market economy, and the advertising efforts of the government (Yaya, 2008). On the other hand, Turkey has made considerable investments on infra and super structure. Upgrades to airports and roads in the 1990s, have made many types of tourism more affordable. In addition to the international airports in the main cities and resort destinations, there has been an increase too in the number of scheduled and charter flights to all major cities and tourist centres. The highways crisscrossing the entire country; regular comfortable bus services and coach tours make travelling in Turkey easy and enjoyable. The transport infrastructure and the efficiency of services as well as advanced communication network system meet all the requirements of contemporary tourism.

In addition to these efforts, developments in accommodation industry for last decades can not be ignorable. There are build many super modern deluxe category hotels and holiday complexes, summer resort hotels, city hotels which includes variety of recreation, entertainment facilities. There are also a number of ski, winter resorts, spa hotels and golf hotels in many parts of the country.

While sun and sand make up the backbone of the tourism industry for Turkey, the government, along with the private sector, is planning for the future. Also, travel industry

players are upgrading facilities, training staff and diversifying Turkey's tourism product, targeting niche markets such as yacht charters, golf and, surprisingly, skiing. In line with its other economic reforms, the government is encouraging foreign and other entrepreneurs to invest in tourism infrastructure, by offering low-interest loans and releasing land for economic development.

TURSAB points out that there is in fact a huge development potential for Turkey to increase its share in various market segments, and to further diversify its tourism because Turkey has a great diversity of its natural resources, historical treasures, cultural values and activities, life style, attractions and with its efficient, dynamic tourist industry offers wide selection of products that can satisfy the demand of different market segments including the most sophisticated and demanding traveller. Turkish tourism seems so very bright and it will continue to grow at a higher rate than the European and the world average.

3.2.0 Tourism in the Economy

Tourism is one of the most dynamic and fastest developing sectors in Turkey and has been playing an important role in the Turkish economy since 1980s. Tourism in Turkey has emerged as an enormous branch of industry with its approximately US\$20 billion annual foreign exchange earning and direct and indirect employment opportunities it provides for more than 3 million people. Statistical data indicate that there has been a rapid growth in Turkish tourism in volume and value since 1980's. Tourist arrivals were measured at 200,000 in 1963 and 1,341,500 in 1973, which is a 570% increase in a ten-year period. Between 1974 and 1984, international tourist arrivals increased by 90%. International arrivals gained speed between 1984 and 1994 by 206%, and in 2001 11,619,909 foreigners visited Turkey, an increase of 11% from the previous year. Similar growth trends have also been observed in bed capacity and tourism revenues. Tourism revenues were US\$7.7 million in 1963. For 2001, this figure was estimated to be some US\$8.1 billion. Bed capacity and number of lodging establishments were 28,354 and 292 respectively in 1970, and these reached 331,023 and 1911 respectively in 2000.

Table 3.1 Tourism in the national economy

Units	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	
Tourism as % of GDP	Percentage	6.5	5.5	5.3	--	--
Tourism as % of goods exports	Percentage	29.7	25.8	23.7	--	--
Tourism as of sevice exports	Percentage	80.4	69.2	66.1	--	--
Gross Domestic Product	Million USD	183888	240376	301950	360876	399673
Exports of goods	Million USD	40124	51206	67001	--	--
Exports of services	Million USD	14802	19086	24047	--	--
Hotels and similar establishments						
Number of rooms	Rooms	189528	201610	206214	230605	241032
Number of bed-places	Bed-places	393178	418177	428589	481704	506522
Occupancy rate	Percentage	48.7	46.9	50.1	52.4	47.3
Average length of stay	Nights	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/152100806213>

(Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2007).

Foreign tourist arrivals increased substantially in Turkey between 2002 and 2005, from 12.8 million to 21.2 million, which made Turkey a top-10 destination in the world for foreign visitors. 2005 revenues are US\$17.5 billion which also made Turkey the top-10 biggest revenue owners in the world. In 2004, tourism contributed some 5.3% to Turkish GDP, and accounted for 66% of the value services exports and 24% of the value of goods exports. In all three measures, the relative importance of tourism declined in the period 2002-04. The table 3.1 shows the contribution of tourism to national economy between 2002 and 2006.

International arrivals in 2006 were, at 19.8 million, 6.2% down on 2005 (which had been a record year, recording 21.1 million arrivals, 20.6% above the level recorded in 2004). In 2006, 59% of foreign visitors came from OECD countries(60.3% in 2005), with 5.6 million or 28.3% coming from Eastern Europe. The leading origin market for Turkey in 2006 was Germany, which contributed 19% of total arrivals, followed by the Russian Federation with 9.4% and the UK with 8.5%.

International tourism receipts in 2006 were USD 16 851 million (7.2% down on the previous year), of which USD 4.3 million was spent by Turkish citizens resident abroad but returning to visit their homeland. The table below(Table 3.2) shows the international arrivals and the international tourism receipts in Turkey between 2001 and 2006.

Table 3.2 Inbound tourism: International arrivals and receipts

	Units	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Visitors	Thousands	11619	13256	14030	17517	21124	19820
<i>of which:</i>							
Germany	Thousands	2884	3482	3332	3984	4244	3762
Belgium	Thousands	310	314	308	427	504	560
France	Thousands	524	523	471	549	701	658
Netherlands	Thousands	633	873	940	1191	1254	998
U. K.	Thousands	846	1038	1091	1388	1758	1679
<i>Tourism receipts</i>	Million USD	10067	11901	13203	15888	18153	16851

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/157361736883>

(Ministry of Culture and Tourism, International Monetary Fund, Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), 2007).

3.3.0 Domestic Tourism in Turkey

During the last two decades tourism in Turkey has become a mass industry concentrated in the western and southern coastal areas. TURSAB(1998) reported that over US\$ five billion was spent by domestic tourists in 1997. According to Ministry of Tourism(2001a), the vast majority of domestic tourists (66%) visited the coastal regions such as Aegean(24%), Marmara(25%), and Mediterranean(17%), and only a small percentage of them(25%) visited non-coastal regions, including Central(16%), Eastern(4%) and Southeast(5%) Anatolia.

According to Ghimire (2001), the contribution of domestic tourism - that is, people consuming tourism in their own countries – can make to sustainable development. Domestic tourism provides many of the benefits of international tourism, such as employment, income, new business development and economic diversification. In Turkey, domestic tourism is a growing sector and a potential contributor to regional development (Seckelman, 2002). However a careful evaluation of the domestic tourism demand structure suggests that ‘domestic tourism is almost as concentrated in the coastal areas as foreign tourism in Turkey (Seckelmann, 2002;89).

With respect to statistics, in 1983, 6.4 million Turkish citizens travelled within the boundaries of Turkey, this number reached approximately 16.4 million Turkish citizens in 2001. TURSAB points out in the profile of domestic travel market for Turkey that almost

one out of four people travel domestically in Turkey each year. According to Olali(1993, p.63), some of the reasons of increasing domestic travel rate in Turkey; increasing income levels, transportation have been improving to meet the needs of international travellers, Turkish citizens are more educated and cultured than before; and the number of lodging operations has been increasing. According to TURSAB(2003a) the number of travel agencies is 4,494 which help to make travel cheaper and more available than before for Turkish citizens.

3.4.0 Tourism Organisation in Turkey

In order for the Tourism Strategy of Turkey 2023 is to be carried out, the correct institutional arrangements are crucial. The roles and responsibilities of inter and intra-organisational actors in Turkey are as follows.

The National Tourism Council is a guiding and decision making body for determining policies, and realising the implementation of the Turkish tourism strategy. This body, managed by a board of executives, consists of 15-20 members, qualified to represent all shareholders in the industry. It is composed of delegations from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, the State Planning Organisation and a group of representatives from the tourism industry. The Council's duties are as follows:

- Creating national, regional and local brands and co-ordinating efforts to market tourism centers.
- Making all necessary arrangements to ensure that the positive impacts of tourism are received by all, in line with the development of domestic tourism.
- Setting out the minimum quality standards applicable to accommodation facilities, products and labour in the travel and tourism industry.
- Diversifying the tourism product.
- Supporting business enterprises through in-service training.
- Carrying out research and compiling and preparing data for use by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in the policy-making process.
- Measuring and monitoring the consistency of tourism policies and informing the Ministry of Tourism and Culture and Tourism of the results.

- Making suggestions to guide the Ministry in crisis management.

The State Planning Organisation takes full responsibility and plays an active role in the industry's development by being a member of the National Tourism Council. The Ministry of Culture and Tourism has a regulatory role in tourism and is responsible for the planning, implementation, documentation, and orientation of tourism education. The Ministry is thus the main regulatory, supervisory and directing body.

The General Directorate of Promotion (GDOP) within the Ministry, operates 36 offices worldwide and carries out marketing and advertising activities. The GDOP's role, based on market trend assessments and a detailed knowledge of the tourism product, is to carry out strategic marketing activities. It has defined the main points for its activities in the future, which will be based on: funding, market identification, market research, goal setting, marketing and promotion, measuring the effectiveness of marketing initiatives and encouraging year-round tourism.

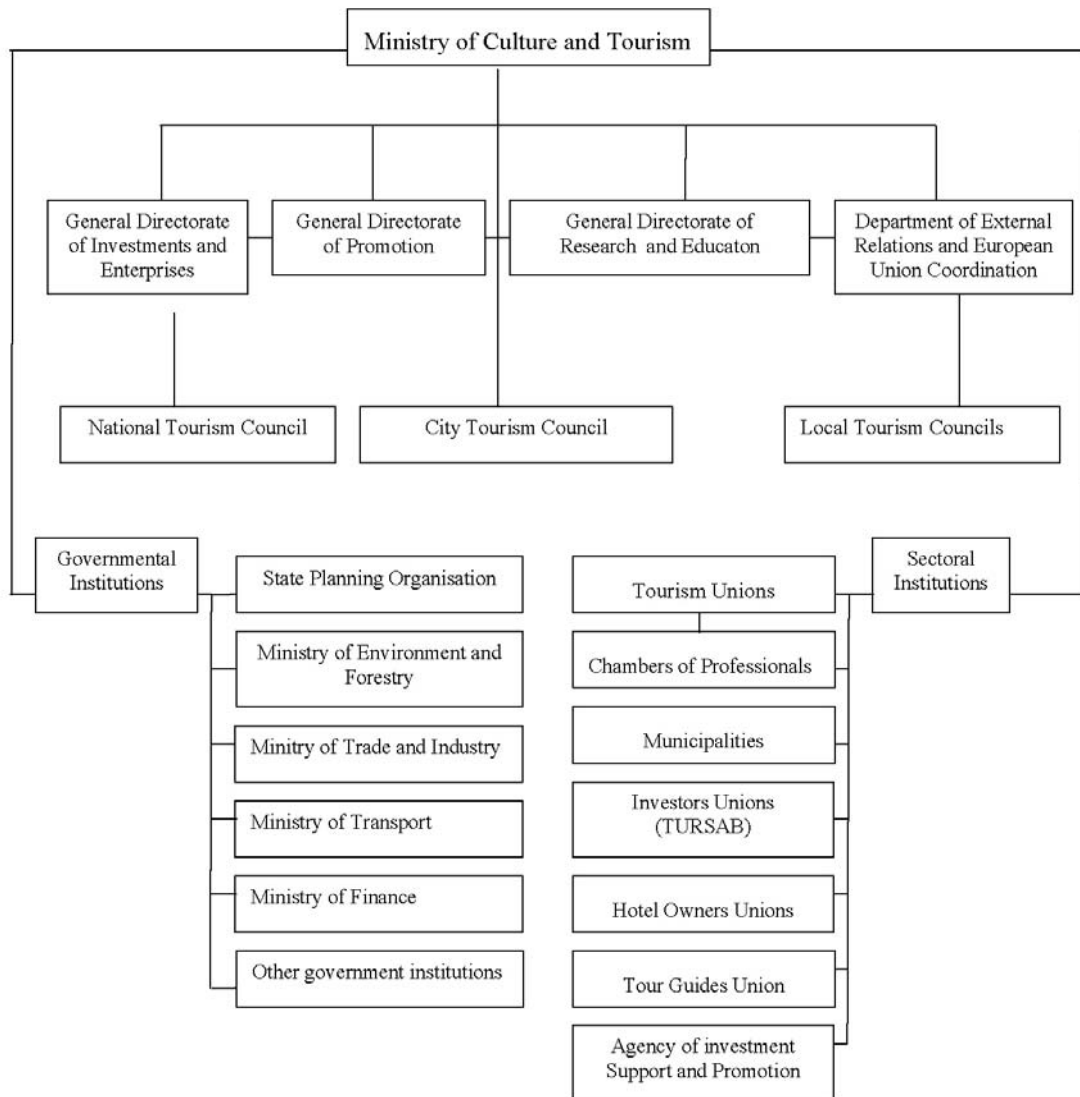


Figure 3.1 Organisational Chart of Tourism Bodies in Turkey (OECD, adapted from Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2007.)

CHAPTER 4: CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR IN TOURISM

4.0.0 Overview

Consumer behaviour is the study of when, why, how, where and what people do or do not buy products. This consumer buying process is a complex matter as many internal and external factors have an impact on the buying decisions of the consumer. This chapter attempts to explain decision process, purchase decision, and postpurchase behavior of tourism consumption. In addition, characteristics of tourism consumers such as demographics and behavioural variables, and other factors which influence the consumer behaviour will be analyzed. The importance of positive post-purchase phenomena such as satisfaction, repurchase intention which lead to loyalty will be explained in the end of the chapter. Loyalty is the reward of repurchasing and it is the opposite phenomenon of brand switch behavior. Like the two sides of a coin, the results of loyalty explain only half of the repurchase phenomena. In order to have a greater understanding the issue, we have to know both why people purchase certain products repeatedly and also why people switch from one product to another.

4.1.0 General Profile to Tourist Consumer Behaviour

Consumer behavior has been defined by Engel, Blakwell and Miniard(1995) as those activities directly involved in obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services including the decision processes that precedes and follows these actions. Solomon(1996) defines consumer behavior by incorporating the concept of consumer needs and wants as the process involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy needs and wants. On the other hand, Horner and Swarbrooke (1996) have defined consumer behavior in tourism as the study of why people buy the product they do, and how they make their decision. Similarly, Foxall and Goldsmith suggest that consumer behavior is a sequence of problem solving stages as follows: the development and perception of a want or need, pre-purchase planning and decision making, the purchase act itself and post-purchase behavior which may lead to repeat buying, repeat sales and disposition of the product after consumption.

In spite of these definitions of consumer behavior, Schmoll (1977) hypothesized that consumer decisions in tourism were result of four elements:

1. Travel stimuli, including guide books, reports from other travellers and advertising and promotion
2. Personal and social determinants of travel behaviour including motivators, desires and expectations
3. External variables, including destination image, confidence in travel trade intermediaries and constraints such as money and time
4. Characteristics and the features of the service destination such as the perceived link between cost and value and the range of attractions and amenities offered.

Tourism is a service rather than a product which may have a considerable effect on consumer behavior. An in-depth exploration of psychological concepts such as attitudes, decision making processes, emotions, experience and satisfaction or loyalty is necessary for understanding the consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure (Crouch, Perdue, Timmermans and Uysal, 2004). Because of this, many researchers developed consumer behaviour models in order to have a deeper insight of consumer behaviour in tourism. According to Gilbert model (Figure 4.1), there are two levels of forces which are effective on consumer behaviour. The first level include psychological factors such as perception and learning. The second level include forces such as reference groups and family influences which lead the socialization process.

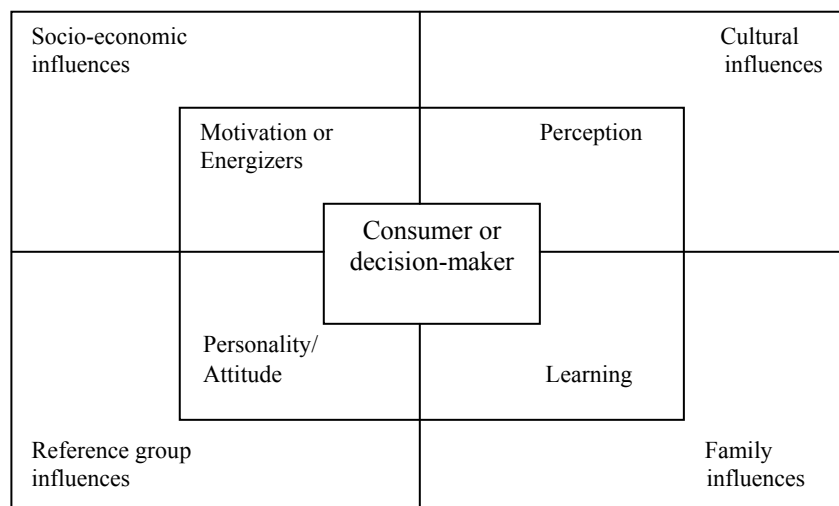


Figure 4.1 Consumer Decision Making Framework (Gilbert, D.C. (1991). "An Examination of the Consumer Behavior Process Related to Tourism.")

In the case of practical implications, the understanding of consumer behaviour will allow a more effective marketing planning process. Calantone and Mazanec (1991) outlined the value of consumer behavior for the marketing management process in tourism. An understanding of consumer needs, attitudes and decision processes will allow the marketing manager to improve their decision making process. It will allow the marketing manager to forecast behavior in the future and therefore avoid over-optimism or underestimates of consumer demand (Calantone, di Benedetto and Bojanic, 1987,1988). The marketing planning process and the usefulness of an understanding of consumer behaviour is seen at the table which is adapted from McDonald (1989).

Table 4.1 The role of consumer behaviour in marketing process.

1	Corporate Objectives	
2	Marketing Audit	And understanding of current consumers and the benefits they seek from our products/services and the competition.
3	SWOT Analysis	Consumer perceptions of our products/services and their Unique Selling Propositions (USPs).
4	Assumptions	Comparisons with competitor views of brand, consumers. Forecasts of consumer demands will allow opportunities to be defined.
5	Marketing Objectives & Strategies	Overall objectives and strategies should reflect consumer demands both now and in the future. Segmentation techniques will be important here.
6	Estimate Expected Results	Forecasting models for consumer demand essential here.
7	Identify Alternative Plans and mixes	Products should reflect consumer wants and needs.
8	Programmes & Promotion	should target customers with effective and well-designed campaigns and understanding of consumer Pricing in relation to demand is essential here. Distribution-an understanding of patterns of consumer purchase essential here.
9	Measurement	Market research of consumer responses essential here.

(McDonald, M.H.B., (1989) "Marketing Plans – How to Prepare Them How to use them"
 "Heinemann, London).

4.2.0 Tourism Demand and Consumption

Tourism demand or consumption is very complex process. The demand process is influenced by many internal and external variables, such as money and time constraints, social stimuli, media influences, destination image. Researchers make explanations about tourism demand in the form of the notions of consumption from different points of view. According to Sinclair and Stabler (1997) , demand and expenditure on tourism have been investigated by a wide variety of economic studies, focusing on the effect of income, prices and information. On the other hand, Pearce (1995: 18) saw demand in a broader behavioural concept ‘in terms of the relationship between an individuals motivation to travel and their ability to do so’. He also described the tourist demand as ‘discretionary, episodic, future-oriented, dynamic, socially-influenced and evolving’. In contrast, Hall and Page (1999: 51) argue that, ‘geographers view demand in a uniquely spatial manner’.

Furthermore, Cooper et al. (2005;53) summarizes the factors which influences the demand process:

- 1- *Energizers of demand.* These are the forces and influences (or personal push factors) that collectively create the motivation to travel or go on holiday, or initiate the demand process.
- 2- *Effectors of demand.* The information search /evaluation process and subsequent purchase decision is influenced by the tourist’s knowledge and perceptions of particular places, destinations or experiences. These are sometimes referred to as destinational ‘pull’ factors which lead the tourist to making particular travel choices.
- 3- *Filteres/determinants of demand.* A variety of economic, social and demographic factors determine particular choices or ‘filter out’ inappropriate products. These include: mobility; employment and income; paid holiday entitlement; education levels; and age, gender, race and stage in family life cycle. In addition, choice may be determined by intangible, pschographic variables, such as attitudes, values and lifestyle.

- 4- *Roles*. Holiday and travel choices are also influenced by roles within the purchasing ‘unit’ (for example, the different roles adopted by family members in choosing a holiday) and as tourists.

On the other hand, Urry (1995:129) sought to outline a sociology of consumption ‘concerned with the differential purchase, use and symbolic significance of material objects’, but more especially the consumption of tourism, a significant feature of which is the ability to buy time and replace work with leisure activities. In his earlier studies, Urry argues that disorganized capital increasingly involves the dissolving of ‘tourism’s specificity’ when tourism as a form of consumption ‘starts to take over and organise much contemporary social and cultural experience’ (p.148). Urry also made many studies about the growth of new forms of tourism. He explained the process of shifting from mass package tourism to post-Fordist forms of tourism consumption (Table 4.2). There are still strong elements of ‘older’ or Fordist forms even there are signs of this shift in tourism consumption.

Table 4.2 The shift to post-Fordist consumption in tourism

<i>Post-Fordist consumption</i>	<i>Tourist examples</i>
Consumers increasingly dominant and producers have to be much more consumer-oriented	Rejection of certain forms of mass tourism (holiday camps and cheap packaged holidays) and increased diversity of preferences
Greater volatility of consumer preferences	Fewer repeat visits and the proliferation of alternative sights and attractions
Increased market segmentation	The multiplication of types of holiday and visitor attractions based on life-style research
The growth of consumer movement	Much more information provided about alternative holidays attractions through the media
The development of many new products each of which has a shorter life	The rapid turnover of tourist sites and experiences because of rapid changes of fashion
Increased preferences experienced for non-mass forms of production/consumption	The growth of green tourists and of forms of refreshment and accommodation which are individually tailored to the consumer (such as country house hotels)
Consumption as less and less functional and increasingly aestheticized	The differentiation of tourism from leisure, culture, retailing, education, sport, hobbies

(Urry, J. (1995). *Consuming Places*. London: Routledge)

4.3.0 Tourist Motivation

As a word meaning, motivation refers to the process by which an individual will be driven to act or behave in a certain way. It is characterized by a 'state of tension within the individual which arouses, directs and maintains behaviour toward a goal'(Mullen and Johnson, 1990, p.178). Many internal and external motivators influence consumers in their decision-making process. Motivations for making holiday decision have been classified (Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Murphy, 1985) as:

- i- physical (or physiological), e.g. search for relaxation, health, sport, or challenge;
- ii- cultural, i.e. the wish to learn about foreign places;
- iii- social, e.g. the visits made to friends and relatives, or for prestige or status reasons; and
- iv- fantasy(or personal), i.e. escape from present reality

According to Mansfeld (1992: 10), different motivations lead to different spatial behaviours in the so-called tourist space. As parallel to this assumption, Cohen (1979) argued that different types of tourist have different motives for travelling. He also proposed that there are five different reasons for travel that are embodied within the tourist experience. These are; recreational, diversionary, experiential, experimental and existential. On the other hand, Pearce (1993: 113) explains, 'tourist motivation is a hybrid concept'. Pearce (p.114) goes on to argue that, 'some of the novel features pertaining to tourist motivation are that tourists select a time and place for their behaviour, often well in advance of the event'. Gnoth (1997) has linked tourism motivation to consumer behaviour models in an attempt to develop a more comprehensive perspective based on motivation and expectation. Tourist motivation is explored from a variety of perspectives because of the complexity of subject.

On the other hand, Mannel and Iso-Aloha(1987) identifies two main types of push and pull factors, personal and interpersonal. According to their suggestion people are motivated to travel in order to escape from the personal or interpersonal problems of the environment and to obtain compensating personal or interpersonal rewards. The personal rewards are mainly, self-determination, sense of competence, challenge, learning, exploration and relaxation. The interpersonal rewards arise from social interaction.

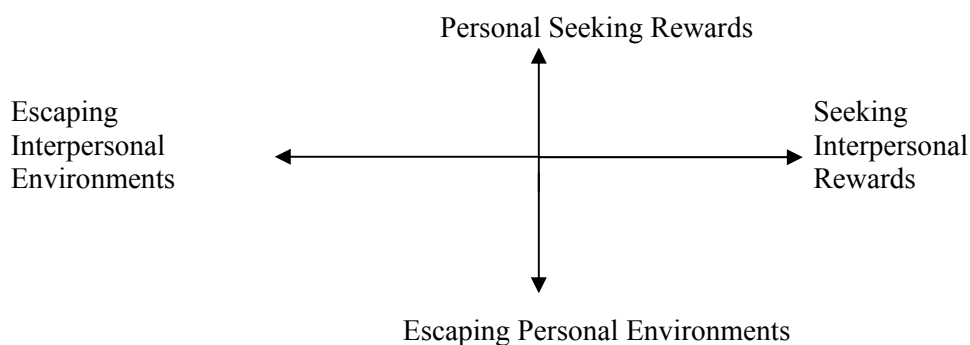


Figure 4.2 The Escaping and Seeking Dimensions of Leisure Motivation
 (Mannell RC, Iso-Aloha SE. (1987). "Psychological nature of leisure and tourism" experience"
Annals of Tourism Research 124(2): 314–331.)

4.3.1 Dimensions of Tourist Motivation

4.3.1.1 Function or Utility; Emotion

This perspective has focused on identifying a series of underlying structures relating to both 'push' and 'pull' factors of motivation. In these approaches motives are linked to needs. According to Crompton's (1979) there are two categories of motivation; socio-physical or push motivators (a combination of the natural and social environments) and cultural or pull motivators. Physical motivators are the search for improvement of mind and body: convalescence for health problems; exercise through golfing, playing tennis, and hiking; and relief from psychological enervation by searching out the exciting, the romantic, or the entertaining. There are also pull factors such as stimuli for new places and attractions of new destinations, curiosity about unusual places and foreign locales.

In addition to push and pull factors for motivation, personal motivation is affective for taking a holiday decision. Most basic form of personal motivation is to visit family or friends. Other personal motivations include the desires: to experience new places and people, to make new friends, desire to escape from home and work environment, and daily routine, and to travel.

4.3.1.2 Self or Identity

The concept of self or identity are also important motivative factors. Russel Belk notes that external objects to which individuals are affectively attached and which are considered as parts of individuality comprise the extended self (Belk, 1988) and these objects are highly congruent with the individual's sense of self. When every holiday in the choice list offers the same utility or meta-experiential options, consumer behavior becomes an identity project (Thompson and Tambiah, 1999) and identity almost wholly determines the purchase decision (Holcomb, 1999).

4.3.1.3 Symbolism or Context

Purchasing a holiday may be seen as a way to raise one's prestige or status. In addition, the socio-cultural context predominantly defines what is prestigious. Prestige is normally accomplished by fostering socially preferable associations with people, places, or events. Prestige enhancement may also be through the pursuit of hobbies, continuation of education, ego enhancement, and sexual indulgence.

Furthermore, this motivation could also include simply doing what is in fashion. In this regard, Bourdieu's (1984) reflection that consumption in modern societies acts as a symbolic statement about consumers as individuals and about their lifestyles and in this way consumption encourages differentiation based on symbolic capital is extremely significant.

4.4.0 Tourist Typologies

There are many types of tourists who have different demands of a destination. Tourist typologies are descriptors of distinctive forms of tourist consumer behaviour. They reflect different motivations, interests and styles of travel on the part of tourists. Most of the typologies attempt to group tourists according to their preferences in terms of destinations, activities while on holiday, independent travel versus package holidays. The purpose of these typologies is to divide the tourists into the different groups in order to find out what the specific tourist want.

The increasing of number and specificity of typologies started by the end of the Second World War, as a result of the scientification of tourism progressed. First of all, Plog(1964) classified tourists according to destinations they prefer. He argued that there was a continuum between types of tourists from the allocentric to the psychocentric tourist. The allocentric tourists seek new destinations, and are prepared to take risks in searching for new cultures and places. On the other hand psychocentric tourists seek the familiar, and are happier in an environment where there are many likeminded tourists. They are not risk takers and adhere to the proven product, being conservative in choice.

During the 1970s typologies based on age and economy dominated led by Cohen(1972) whose initial typology established two non-intitutionalized roles as drifter and Explorer, and two intitutionalized types, organized mass tourists and individual mass tourists.

1.organized mass tourist: These are the least adventurous tourists. On buying their package holiday they remain encapsulated in an ‘environmental bubble’ , divorced from the host community as they remain primarily in the hotel complex. They adhere to an itinenary fixed by the tour operators, and even their trips out of the complex are organised tours. They make few decisions about their holiday.

2.Individual mass tourist: They are similar to organised mass tourists in that they utilise the facilities made available by the tour operator, but they have some control over their own itinerary. They may use the hotel as a base and hire a car for thier own trips. However, many will tend to visit the same places as the mass organised tourist in that they will visit the ‘sights’.

3.Explorer: The explorer arranges his or her trip alone, and attempts to get off the beaten track. Yet such tourists will still have recourse to comfortable tourist accomodation. However, much of their travel will be associated with a motivation to associate with the local people, and they will often speak the language of the host community. Nonetheless, the explorer retains many of the basic routines of his or own lifestyle.

4.Drifter: The drifter will shun contact with the tourist and tourist establishments, and

identify with the host community. Drifters will live with the locals and adopt many of the practices of that community. Income is generated by working with the community, but often through low-skilled work, which creates a tendency to mix with the lower socio-economic groups.

Cohen(1979) also summarised five modes of touristic experience: recreational, diversionary, experiential, experimental and existential.

Furthermore, Valene Smith(1977) described the demographic aspects of tourism, in seven levels as:

1-Explorer: very limited numbers looking for discovery and involvement with local people.

2-Elite: special individually tailored visits to exotic places.

3-Off-beat: the desire to get away from the crowds.

4-Unusual: the visit with peculiar objectives such as physical danger or isolation.

5-Incipient mass: a steady flow travelling alone or in small organized groups using some shared services.

6-Mass: the general packaged tour market leading to tourist enclaves overseas.

7-Charter: mass travel to relaxation destinations which incorporate as many standardized western facilities as possible.

Further, she defined five destination interests and motivations: ethnic, cultural, historical, environmental and recreational.

During 1980s typologies extended and included historic types such as the Grand Tour, north-south tourism, and long-term youth and budget travel, some of which is self-testing(Riley, 1988). Graburn(1983) differentiated two types of contemporary tourism, as the annual vacation or holiday break and the rites of passage tourism associated with major changes in status such as adulthood or career changes.

In decade of 1990, the importance of the links between lifestyle and consumption patterns was increasingly recognized through the construction of broader sets of typologies. Because of this, Gratton(1990), Cooper et al.(1998), Shaw and Williams(2002) and Schott(2002) have all reviewed or applied value and lifestyle typologies to understanding

of tourism trends. Environmental concerns generated numerous new tourist types related to 'appropriate' or alternative tourism, such as ecotourists or green tourists (Smith and Eadington, 1992). Postmodernism has dominated the 1990s with renewed interests in levels of reality (Urry, 1990), concerns with levels of carrying capacity and sustainability, and types of tourist lifestyle and behaviour experiences (Mazanec et al., 1998).

Despite their limitations, the tourist typology models are useful because of the fact that they highlight the broad diversity of tourists, in addition they provide an insight into the motivations of tourists and their behaviour and it is a way to segment tourists into different groups.

4.5.0 Decision Making

As a result of higher levels of disposable income, greater leisure time, improved opportunities for mobility, better education, having more sophisticated tastes and flow of information easily people's attitudes about their holidays start to change. However potential tourists are lost in options due to the fact that there are variety of destinations in many countries, huge number of holiday types, flexibility of travel, accommodations and timing arrangements. Tourists most possibly favour those holidays which offers the fullest realisations of their expectations between these so many choice. Chon(1990) explains decision-making process as a complex process consisting of the following stages: 1-)The recognition of needs. The tourist believes that a holiday purchase will satisfy his or her needs. The tourist has now tentatively decided to go on holiday. Now she/he must decide where to go. 2-)Deciding where to go. This process involves: information searches, the evaluation of alternatives, the choice of a product and post-purchase evaluation

The decision-making process has been conceived in a variety of ways. Buying a holiday is for many individuals and families high-risk decision, the planning stage assumes a major role (Gitelson and Crompton, 1983). On the contrary of retail purchases, a holiday purchase is a highly risky because there is no chance for tourists to observe directly what is being bought nor try it. Also previous experience of holiday-maker does not guarantee the future satisfaction. The degree of planning varies between different types of tourists. The

planning of holiday including decisions whether to go and where to go generally takes place over a long time as a result of systematic process. Systematic information search of external sources is used much more frequently in making holiday and travel-related decisions to purchase most of other types of product(Gitelson & Crompton, 1983).

It should be emphasized the factors that lead an individual to decide on a holiday, variables that may suppress or heighten such factors, and the roles that family members or others may play in the holiday decision process (Hall and Page, 1999). Howard and Sheth (1969) also drew attention to the influence of socio-environmental variables, on the other hand Crompton (1993) explored the importance of imagery and marketing. Ryan (1997) has attempted to conceptualize the whole decision- making process in terms of a model of ‘the tourist experience’. In addition, a linear model of tourism decision-making process which is adapted from Wahab, Crampton and Rothfield(1976) suggested that all decision making goes through the same process and goes through the same steps.

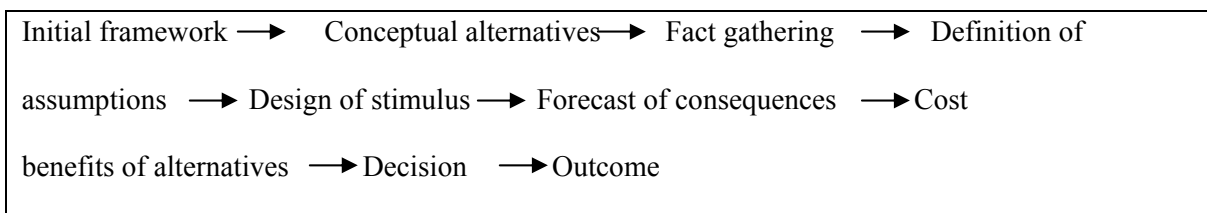


Figure 4.3 A Linear Model of Tourism Decision-Making Process
(Wahab S., Crampton L. J. and Rothfield L.M. (1976). Tourism marketing, London:
Tourism International Press).

4.5.1 Influential Factors on Decision Making

4.5.1.1 Media and Tourism Destination Image

The evaluation or selection process of individual’s choice of destination and holiday type are strongly influenced by the media and images projected of various destinations. Each tourist has a certain level of mental images about their ideal holiday, influenced by their motives. Many researchers have a consensus that that the image is a valuable concept for understanding the process of selection of a destination by tourists. According to Goodall (1988: 3), this ‘conditions their expectations setting an aspiration level or evaluative

image, against which actual holiday opportunities are compared'. Nolan (1976) states that the information on and images of holiday areas are provided by a large media industry (formal sources), and informal recommendations from friends. In many cases, the combination of these formal and informal sources constitute the mental image which provide the basis for holiday selection.

The concept of image was defined by many researchers. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) defines image as a mental schema developed by a tourist on the basis of a few impressions selected from among a flood of all impressions. Bigne' and Andreu (2000) emphasized the importance of image as a "the competitive advantages will no longer lie in the quality of the visible attributes of products, but in those that are not easy to imitate, in intangible resources rather than tangible ones and in particular, a large part of these intangible resources are centred on service and image." Tourists, on their first visit to a destination, or on a repeat visit, will perceive a primary image of the place (Beerli et al., 2002), which will enable them to have a more general perception, as the number of visits made and the time spent there substantially influence the formation of the image of the destination (Baloglu and Mangalolu, 2001).

Also, the image of the tourism destination is a complex construct. Variety of components such as natural and scenic resources, accessibility, cultural resources, security, night life and entertainment, and quality/price ratio, environmental factors, geographical conditions, climate of a destination help potential tourists to form a certain image of tourist destination.

Tourism destination image is crucial for tourism industry because it has direct consequences on the satisfaction experienced by tourists and their loyalty to the tourism destination. Image has elements allowing destinations to make strategic and marketing decisions. The key objective in generating and commercializing a successful destination image is that tourists' perception of the destination should correspond to the one that the marketing managers have tried to project (Andreu et al., 2000).

The image of a tourism destination is made up of both cognitive and affective dimensions. The interaction between cognition and affect has become a major line of research in recent years.

4.5.1.1.1 Cognitive Approach to Image

The tourism destination image is a mental schema developed by a tourist on the basis of impressions. Traditionally, this image has been associated with cognitive impressions. The cognitive view of information processing has predominated in studies of consumer behaviour. Cognitive approach focuses on the evaluations of the functional attributes of the destination, which refer to the beliefs and knowledge held by individuals with regard to the object evaluated.

The model of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) argued that the formation of the consumer's attitudes towards an object is cognitive. It is postulated that the formation of an attitude is based on information processing. This information processing occurs through processes like valuations, interpretations, schemas, attributions and strategies and is based on one's the beliefs. So beliefs are the fundamental elements that generate affects and attitudes.

4.5.1.1.2 Affective Approach to Image

In order to explain the tourism destination image completely it is necessary to bear the affective image in mind. The affective image evaluates the emotions or feelings aroused by the tourism destination. According to the studies of researchers, affective evaluation of the image is of great use in identifying the value that people give to tourism destinations, not only by manifesting their knowledge of the attributes, but through an emotional response related to the place (Liljander and Strandvick, 1997; White, 2002; Yu and Dean, 2001).

The contributions of Holbrook and his colleagues also justify the need to incorporate affective elements of the image. Leisure activities like tourism need to resort to fantasies, feelings and emotions to explain purchasing behaviour. Many products have symbolic meanings, beyond tangible attributes, perceived quality, or price (Havlena and Holbrook, 1986). Affect implies emotions such as love, hate, joy, boredom, anxiety, pride, anger, disgust, stupidity, sympathy, lust, ecstasy, greed, guilt, elation, shame and awe (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Finally, the experiences of purchasing and consumption occur at the level of behaviour.

4.5.1.2 Past Experiences

Past vacation experiences shape our perceptions. Satisfactory experiences most probably lead to repetition. Gartner(1993) argued that image formation is based on past experience with the destination and it is the most credible. Mazursky (1989) also suggested that past experience is determinant in shaping satisfaction and by then future tourism decisions. The process of evaluation based on past experiences is also rationalized according to Walmsley and Jenkins (1992) who report that tourists optimize their time by focusing on those features that provide maximum utility. 'past experience is important in making decisions about holiday purchases' (Ryan, 1998: 949).

4.5.1.3 Age and Gender

Tourist decision-making has also been increasingly affected by age and gender influences within the family structure. Studies in recent years indicate that women are more likely to be the primary leisure vacation planner and "gatekeeper" of house-hold tourism decision-making among western couples and families (Mottiar & Quinn, 2004; McGehee et al.,1996). Smith (1979;52), reporting on vacation decision making by spouses, points out that women more often decide on the destination than men as they know what the couple wants. The study of McGehee et al.(1996) revealed that male and female tourists placed different importance on some push and pull motivational factors. Women were likely to be motivated by culture, opportunities for family bonding and prestige, while men placed more importance on sports an adventure when engaging in the pleasure travel experience. According to Mieczkowski (1990), traditionally males tended to seek action and adventure and were not scared of taking risks, while women were more likely to be searching for cultural and educational experiences, with security as a priority.

In addition to age and gender factor, particular attention has been focused on the role of children in the holidaymaking process (Thornton, 1995; Thornton et al., 1997). The work was based in Cornwall found that children influenced tourist parties either through their direct physical needs or their ability to negotiate with parents. Ryan (1992) had argued in his earlier studies that children were an important catalyst in generating a family to visit an attraction.

Ryan (1997: 35) have also been explored gender differences with raising the issue of whether 'females have different expectations of holidays when compared to males'. In a study of life-cycle effects on holiday motivations he found mixed evidence. Whilst there was little difference between the motivations of young males and females, later stages in the life-cycle highlighted greater variations. Similarly, the influence of age has also been identified by Zalatan (1998) when exploring the involvement of wives in family holiday decisions. Ryan (1997) also draws attention to the complexity of gender issues in tourist motivation and decision-taking, raising the question of whether there are specific male and female tourist experiences.

4.6.0 Perceived Risk in Tourism

The theory of perceived risk assumes that consumer perceive risk in their purchasing behaviour and generally they tend to utilize risk reduction strategies. Perceived risk is defined as 'a consumer's perception of the overall negativity of a course of action based upon an assessment of the possible negative outcomes and the likelihood that those outcomes will occur'(Mowen & Minor, 1998, p.176). As soon as consumers have experienced a certain level of risk, their behaviour changes, from delaying the purchase to using strategies designed to reduce the risk level to a 'tolerable' one (Mowen & Minor,1998; Roselius,1971).

Perceived risk also could be used in part as a variable in explaining decision-making processes of tourists (Maser and Weiermair, 1998) : The higher the perceived risk, the more information tourists seem to seek and the more rational the decision process becomes. Researchs supports correlation between the sensation-seeking personality trait and perceptions of risk. Some individuals, namely high sensation seekers, engage in risky experiences fort the stimulation involved in the experience (Zuckerman, 1994).

Tourism products are highly risky because of their intangible characteristics. Intangibility makes it difficult to evaluate the product before purchase since tourism products are essentially produced and consumed simultaneously(Mitchell and Greatorex,1993). Tourism products are therefore assumed to be associated with a higher risk when purchasing than

tangible products. In high risk situations , consumers' need to search for external information is higher than in low-risk situations. (Dowling and Staelin, 1994; Beatty and Smith, 1987).

Moutinho (1987) refers to five risk components for tourism services. They are 1)functional risk-the risk that the product will not perform as expected. 2)physical risk-the risk that the product will be harmful, 3)financial risk-the risk that the product will not be worth its cost, either in time or Money 4)social risk-the risk that a poor product choice may result in embarrassment before others, and 5)psychological risk-the risk that a poor product choice will harm the consumers' ego.

In tourism context, Roehl and Fesenmaier(1992) also identified three basic dimensions of perceived risks: physical-equipment risk, vacation risk and destination risk. Tsauro, Tzeng, and Wang (1997) focused on two main types of risk: which refers to the possibility that an individual's health is likely to be exposed to injury and sickness because of conditions such as law and order, weather and hygiene, as well as equipment risk, which refers to the dangers arising from the malfunctioning of equipment, such as insufficient telecommunication facilities, unsafe transportation and breakdown of vehicles.

Furthermore, Sönmez and Graefe(1998) examined types of risks associated with international travel and the overall degree of safety felt by the tourists. They identify several types of risk such as equipment/functional risk, financial risk, health risk, physical risk, political instability risk, psychological risk, satisfaction risk, social risk, terrorism and time risk. The results revealed that perceived risks were found to be strong predictors of the likelihood of avoiding destinations. The higher the perceived risk of the foreign destinations, the higher the likelihood that consumers will decide to avoid visiting it (Sönmez and Graefe).

4.7.0 Satisfaction with the Tourism Destination

Tourist satisfaction is a critical issue for marketing. First of all, it should be identified the elements that influence the satisfaction experienced by the tourist. Satisfaction is the tourist's sense that consumption provides outcomes against expectations and a standard of

pleasure versus displeasure. Satisfaction has both cognitive nature and, on the other, affective nature. Oliver (1981) defines satisfaction from the cognitive perspective as a consumer's comparison between performance and expectations. Oliver (1997,1999) also made definition has an affective nature that 'satisfaction is defined as pleasurable fulfilment'.

In the case of tourism, satisfaction is a function of pre-travel expectations and post-travel experiences. Satisfaction has a one-dimensional construct, which varies along a continuum from dissatisfaction to satisfaction. When experiences compared to expectations results in feelings of gratification, the tourist is satisfied; when they result in feelings of displeasure, the tourist is dissatisfied (Pizam et al., 1978). Similarly, Hughes(1991) suggested that the tourist whose expectations are fulfilled by their experiences report satisfaction, on the other hand those whose expectations are not fulfilled report dissatisfaction.

The tourist satisfaction can also affected by a positive or negative image. Previous experience must be taken into consideration because that it causes tourist to have a different perception from those who have never visited it (Baloglu, 2001). Since, the image of the tourism destination influences the satisfaction experienced by the tourist. It has been found that the image is associated positively with consumer satisfaction in luxury hotels (Mazanec, 1995). It is therefore necessary to generate studies of image and its relation to the satisfaction obtained in order to know the visitors' intentions to return and to recommend the destination (Bigne' et al., 2001).

If the tourists are satisfied with the destination, it is difficult to affect the attraction felt for a place for holiday-making (Vogt and Andereck, 2003). An aspect related to satisfaction is when an attempt is made to establish an emotional bond with tourists through the image of the destination, projecting 'emotional satisfaction' (Ekinci, 2003) and not only through the basic needs, such as food, rest or enjoyment (Chaudhary, 2000; Kandampully and Suartanto, 2000).

4.7.1 Satisfaction and Revisit Intention

There is a general consensus that satisfaction brings positive behavioral outcomes and the understanding of satisfaction provides managerial guidance in the tourism industry.

Oliver (1997) defined satisfaction as customer judgment about product or service fulfillment. Similarly, Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (1990) proposed a definition that satisfaction is the outcome of the subjective evaluation about whether or not the chosen alternative meets or exceeds the expectation.

Many theories are developed to explain satisfaction. The expectation-disconfirmation paradigm and the equity theories are two of these theories. Engel, et al. (1990) defined satisfaction as the most frequently cited one in accounting for satisfaction is expectation-disconfirmation paradigm (EDP) that suggests a comparison between expectation and performance. According to Oliver (1980), EDP suggests confirmation, positive disconfirmation, and negative disconfirmation. If service or product perceptions exactly meet expectations customers' expectations are confirmed. When performance exceeds expectations positive disconfirmation occurs, on the other hand, if expectations exceed performance negative disconfirmation occurs. Thus, confirmation and positive disconfirmation result in satisfaction, while negative disconfirmation leads to dissatisfaction. Another theory on customer satisfaction is based on the equity theory (Oliver & Swan, 1989). Satisfaction occurs when customers receive more value than what they spent in terms of price, time, and effort. According to Grewal, Monroe, and Krishnan (1998, p. 48), perceived value is "the perception of psychological satisfaction obtained from taking advantage of the financial terms of the price deal." The equity theory suggests that value is an appropriate measure to evaluate satisfaction (Heskett, et al., 1994; Kumar, 2002; Oliver & Swan, 1989; Su, 2004).

In addition to satisfaction theories, the relationship between satisfaction and repurchase intention has been explored in various product and service markets. By proposing the existence of manifest satisfaction and latent satisfaction, Bloemer and Kasper (1995) argued that the relationship between consumer satisfaction and repurchase intention is not monotonic because of the disparity of customers' motivation and capability to evaluate the purchased product/service brand relative to the reference point. Manifest satisfaction occurs when an explicit comparison is made between expectation and performance and when the customers can be conscious of the outcome of their own evaluation and satisfaction. When there is no explicit comparison made because of a lack of motivation and/or capability of the customers to evaluate their own choice,

customers cannot be fully aware of their own satisfaction, which is called latent satisfaction. An empirical test by Bloemer and Kasper (1995) indicated that the positive influence of manifest satisfaction on repurchase intention is greater than that of latent satisfaction, so the general idea that satisfaction has a positive relationship with repurchase intention is still valid. Similarly, many researches show that the positive relationship between satisfaction and revisit intention has been found in tourism destination choice settings.

4.8.0 Customer Loyalty in Tourism

Loyalty is also critical issue for tourism as many sectors. Rundle-Thiele and Lockshin (2000) defines loyalty as the future behaviour commitment to purchase a product or service, or the link with a provider on all occasions when other alternatives are possible. Equivalently, customer loyalty is defined by Backman and Compton (1991) thus involves a positive attitude towards the firm's product or service, followed by favourable behavior that leads to purchasing it and recommending to others. Gaining the loyalty of customers today takes place in both product and services markets and is identified frequently with the retention of customers because both concepts refer to the repetition of the purchase of products or services from a single firm by customers over a prolonged period of time (Petrick, 2004; Tsaur et al., 2002). Reid and Reid (1993) also pointed out the importance of customer loyalty because it is also a stable source of revenue for firms, serving at the same time as an information channel that acts informally by recommending the product or service to family and friends.

In addition, Yim and Kannan (1999) argued that the definition of loyalty should include both exclusive and reinforcing loyalties. Exclusive loyalty was further termed as hardcore loyalty, for those consumers who have been won over by a particular alternative over time. Reinforcing loyalties are potential switchers that tend to purchase more than one alternative, exhibit divided loyalties among a few alternatives, and have an increased tendency to repurchase the alternative after their initial purchase. Yim and Kannan's study (1999) pointed out that the reinforcing loyalty was associated with variety seeking, which is similarly based on the optimum levels of stimulation (Zuckerman, 1971, 1994).

Enlightened by the findings of Gyte and Phelps (1989) and the reinforcing loyalty of Yim and Kannan (1999), Feng and Jang (2004) argued a trichotomous TDRI tourist segmentation with a 5-year time frame: continuous repeater (travelers with consistently high revisit intentions over time), deferred repeater (travelers with low revisit intentions in the short-term but high revisit intentions in the long-term), and continuous switcher (travelers with consistently low revisit intentions over time). Among the three segments, deferred repeaters tend to reinforce visit intentions. Thus, they are also potential switchers who tend to visit more than one destination, showing divided loyalties and displaying an increased tendency to revisit the destination after their initial visit. Therefore, focusing on the deferred repeaters, this study is based on the idea that tourists' visit intentions vary depending on time and that the intention could be split from a temporal perspective into short-term, mid-term, and long-term revisit intentions.

According to Oppermann (2000) there are various alternatives for measuring a tourist's loyalty. First, loyalty can be measured through behaviour, by considering repeat purchasing. Secondly, it can be measured through attitude, analysing the tourist's predisposition towards the tourism destination. Finally a composite measure is proposed, which integrates behaviour and attitude, considering that the tourist must have positive attitude and behaviour towards a destination for it to be considered true loyalty.

Loyalty is a concept related closely to customer satisfaction, and there is even a consensus that a high degree of satisfaction results in loyal customers. This makes loyalty the central concept of marketing and any discussion of it must take into account the elements involved in the process of its formation, such as customer satisfaction (Petrick and Backman, 2002; Baker and Crompton, 2000) and brand image (Bigne' et al., 2001).

For marketing implications, the model of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) suggests that attitudinal loyalty towards the tourism destination is directly and positively affected by the the image of the tourism destination. According to this model; a particular behaviour is determined by a single attitude. An attitude towards an object may determine different behaviours, such as the repetition of the visit, word of mouth or complaints. The attitude, in turn, is determined by beliefs, are image and satisfaction. Image and satisfaction indirectly influence behavioural loyalty through attitudinal loyalty.

4.8.1 The Effect of Service Quality on Customer Satisfaction and Loyalty

In tourism context there is a strong relationship between the customer satisfaction, loyalty and service quality. According to Dimanche and Havitz(1994) , quality of service is generally assumed to affect business performance and loyalty in a positive way. Hurley and Hooman (1998) point out that perception of service quality affect feelings of satisfaction, which will then affect loyalty and future buying decisions.

Service quality is linked to six performance indicators according to PIMS (Profit Impact of Marketing Strategies) database which contains information about strategy and performance on 2600 business worldwide : (1) customer loyalty, (2) repeat purchases, (3) reduced vulnerability to price wars, (4) ability to command high relative price without affecting market share, (5) lower marketing costs, and (6) market share improvements. The Table 4.3 also explains the different service quality models of researchers.

Table 4.3 Service quality models, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty

Model	Focus of The Model
The service profit chain model, developed by Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser and Schlesinger (1994).	This model proposes a series of relationship linking profitability, customer loyalty, customer satisfaction, employee satisfaction, retention and productivity. According to this model, profitability and revenue growth are derived from loyal customers, and loyal customers are a result of customer satisfaction, which is influenced by the perceived value of the service. Service value is created by satisfied, committed and productive employees, and internal service quality.
The service quality gap model, suggested by Parasuramani Zeithaml and Berry(1985)	The model defines five distinctive gaps between what customers expect and what they perceive they receive. The first four gaps leads to Gap 5, which is the difference between customer expectations and perceptions. However, the service performance gap (Gap3), which occurs when there is a difference between service quality specifications and the service actually delivered, stresses the influence of the behaviour of the service provider on the service quality.
The model of service success, developed by Beddowes, Gulliford, Knight and Saunders (1987 cited in Ghobadian, Speller and Jones, 1994).	According to this model, one of the most important service quality success factors is the balance between customer and staff expectations. This model also links employee attitudes and behaviours with customer loyalty and profit.
Service quality trade-off continuum, developed by Haywood-Farmer(1988).	According to this model , service quality is described as comprising three elements: (a) physical facilities, processes and procedures; (b) personal behaviour on the part of the servicing staff ; and (c) professional judgement on the part of the serving staff. To obtain good quality service, the appropriate mix of these three elements must be found and carefully balanced.

(Ghobadian A., Speller S. & Jones M. (1994). "Service Quality: Concepts & Models", *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*; (11), 9; 43-66).

4.9.0 Revisit Intention and Repurchase in Tourism

Some people prefer repeat visitation to the same destination, whereas others prefer to try some new place every time however, repeat purchase is crucial component for contemporary marketing in order to be successful. According to Markin(1969) prior satisfaction with a vacation destination may lead to repeat purchases. Also Cronin and Taylor(1992) suggested that customer satisfaction affected repurchase intent significantly. Reichheld & Sasser (1990) and Shoemaker & Lewis (1999) arrange the

benefits of repeat purchase as (1) attracting previous customers is more cost-effective than gaining new ones; (2) 5% increase in customer retention could increase profit by 25–85%; and (3) customer retention tends to yield positive word-of-mouth referral.

Also, Jones and Sasser (1995) used the customers' stated intent to repurchase a product as a measure of the behavioural component of loyalty. They argued that intent to repurchase is a very strong indicator of future behaviour. Assael (1995) reported on a range of studies that were conducted which supported the view that intentions could be used to predict overt behaviour. In addition, Gitelson and Crompton (1984) pointed out that although satisfaction with a particular destination appears to be a necessary condition for explaining much repeat visitation, it is not sufficient to explain the phenomenon since many respondents reported satisfactory experiences and yet did not return to the same destination. They also suggested that there were five factors that can motivate repeat visitation:

1. it reduces the risk of an unsatisfactory experience;
2. there is an assurance that they would find their 'kind of people';
3. an emotional childhood attachment;
4. to experience some aspects of the destination which had been omitted on a previous occasion;
5. to expose others to the satisfactory experiences that tourists had previously.

As parallel with these explanations Witt and Witt (1995) suggested why people paid repeat visit to a destination: once people have been on holiday to a particular country and liked it, they tend to return to that destination. Similarly, Oppermann (1998) argued, 'if tourists were happy with the previous (or even the immediate past) destination choice, they may not even look for information on other destinations for their next destination selections'. These arguments suggest that previous experience with a destination may affect the intention and the actual decision to revisit it.

At the level of the economy as a whole and for the individual attraction, repeat visits in tourism have also been accepted as an important phenomenon (Darnell and Johnson, 2001). In addition, many travel destinations rely heavily on repeat

visitors (Darnell & Johnson, 2001; Gitelson & Crompton, 1984). Many studies in recent years have focused on the antecedents of destination revisit intention to understand why travelers make repeat visits. As a result of these studies; major antecedents of revisit intention are satisfactory, quality related constructs, perceived value, past vacation experience, safety, image, attachment, and cultural difference.

According to Oppermann (1999, p. 58), time is significant in tourist retention and loyalty because “time firstly plays a role in identifying appropriate time intervals during which a purchase may or may not take place”. Darnell and Johnson (2001, p. 125) also noted the significance of temporal viewpoint to destination management, indicating, “the time profile of repeat visiting has important implications for visit flows.” The study of Baloğlu and Erickson(1998) also showed that most international travelers to one destination are more likely to switch to another destination for their next trip, but many of them hope to revisit the same destinations in the future. However, their explanation on revisit intentions reflects the two implicit assumptions of former rerearches (Hughes, 1995; Schmidhauser, 1976; Woodside & MacDonald, 1994): (1) revisit intention lapses over time; and (2) the strength of revisit intention tends to be constant once it is created. The first assumption which argues revisit intention lapses over time is implied by the recency-frequency-monetary value (RFM) paradigm. It is one of the essential operational principles for many loyalty building programs (Hughes, 1995). According to RFM paradigm individuals who buy one’s product more recently, more frequently, and spend more money are more likely to repurchase or respond to an incentive to repurchase. Furthermore, the notion of recency indicates that recent customers tend to repurchase and that the strength of their repurchasing intention will decrease over time.

The second assumption is closely related with tourist typologies. There are two distinct tourist segments according to Woodside and MacDonald (1994) : first one is visitors returning to a destination due to familiarity and the other one is visitors not returning due to familiarity. Schmidhauser (1976) argued that there are, at least, two different types of tourists: continuous repeaters who choose the same destination over and over again and continuous switchers who do not come back even

though they are satisfied with the destination in their current visit. On the other hand, Gitelson and Crompton (1984) categorized repeat visitors into three subgroups: infrequent, frequent, and very frequent, however they did not specify the frequency of visits for each group. Oppermann (1999) discussed a conceptual typology as a function of multiple visits, based on a New Zealand resident data: somewhat loyal (infrequent), loyal (regular), and very loyal (annual and biannual); and further extended this typology to cover the entire population by introducing four other traveler types: non-purchasers, disillusioned, unstable, and disloyal.

According to Jones and Sasser (1995), in non-competitive markets, satisfaction has little impact on loyalty as the customers are captive customers without having choice. On the other hand, in competitive markets, there is great difference between the loyalty of “satisfied” and “completely satisfied” customers. Totally satisfied customers are more likely to repurchase products than merely satisfied customers (Jones and Sasser, 1995).

4.9.1 The Effect of Word-of Mouth Communication on Repurchase Intention

Word-of-communication is a powerful force on consumer behaviour in tourism. In tourism research, loyalty has been measured using two main indicators: willingness to recommend or word-of-mouth, and likelihood of return (Bigné et al., 2001; Chen and Gursoy, 2001; Baloglu et al., 2003; Petrick, 2004). Word-of-communication is defined by Anderson (1998) as informal communication between private parties concerning evaluations of goods and services. It is likely that satisfied visitors will come back and will tell others about their favourable or unfavourable experiences (Kozak, 2001). Ashworth and Goodall (1988) observed that if a tourist is dissatisfied they will not recommend the destination to others.

Word-of-mouth has more significant impact on tourist perceptions than other forms of mass communication since, it is the most effective communication for the tourism industry. When making purchase decision for services, consumers generally rely more heavily on verbal messages (Davis, Gultman and Jones, 1979). According to Bateson (1995), consumers believe that personal sources provide the most adequate and up-to-date information. Moreover, word-of-mouth techniques are perceived as more credible and less

biased (Lovelock, 1991). Payne (1993) also suggested that dissatisfied customers tell more than two times as many people about their poor experiences than those who are satisfied.

Word-of-mouth communication behavior of customers is positively affected by high service quality (Bone, 1992; Helm, 2000; Harrison-Walker, 2001). Positive word-of-mouth communication will attract new customers and, hence, lead to higher revenues. Therefore customer satisfaction is central for realizing profits. Moreover, extremely dissatisfied customers are even more likely to engage in word-of-mouth than satisfied customers (Anderson, 1998; Harrison-Walker, 2001). Negative word-of-mouth will probably lead to lower customer loyalty and negative consequences for the attraction of new customers. Past research further revealed that customer loyalty is positively related to word-of-mouth communication (Zeithaml et al., 1996; Harrison-Walker, 2001). Not only loyal customers are satisfied with the service but also they feel attached to the service provider.

CHAPTER 5: VARIETY SEEKING BEHAVIOUR IN TOURISM

5.0.0 Overview

There are four types of buying behaviour based on the type of the products that intends to be purchased. In order to develop an effective and efficient program for the target market, marketers must plan differently for four types of consumer buying behavior: complex buying behavior, dissonance-reducing buying behavior, habitual buying behavior, and variety-seeking buying behavior. In this chapter, there is an attempt to explain the psychological processes that lead to variety seeking behaviour. It will be discussed the factors which will lead to variety-seeking behaviour in tourism sector.

5.1.0 Variety Seeking Behaviour as a Concept

Given its widely acknowledged importance as a key factor in consumer choice, variety seeking as a research topic has received extension attention in the consumer behavior literature (McAlister and Pessemier, 1982; Van Trijp, 1995). Variety-seeking behavior is defined as the tendency for an individual to switch away from the item consumed on the last occasion (Givon, 1984; Kahn et al., 1986).

Sometimes people choose to switch to a less preferred option even though repeating the more preferred option would lead to greater enjoyment (Ratner, Kahn, & Kahneman, 1999). They concluded that there are two different benefits from variety-seeking behavior. First, consumers intentionally sacrifice enjoyment now for better memories later. Second, consumers may choose variety because they believe that they will be considered fun-loving people if they do so. Therefore, individuals utilize variety-seeking behavior strategically to gain more memorable experiences and to be seen as a fun person. Similar explanations can be found in Elster and Loewenstein (1992), Huber et al. (1997), and Ratner and Kahn (1998). Furthermore, Kahn et al. (1997) provided two explanations to describe consumers' variety-seeking behavior. They argued that consumers try to create the best memory of the entire sequence of choices. And the choices include diversified experience sequences instead of only comprise the most favorite experiences. They also pointed out that consumers need contrasted hedonic experiences to maximize their

pleasure. The enjoyment of a favorite alternative may occur when it is compared to a less preferred alternative. That is, in order to experience pleasure certain types of pain may be necessary.

The degree to which people seek variety or diversification in their choices is influenced by many factors, such as current mood and whether the options will be consumed immediately or later (Kahn & Isen, 1993; Simonson, 1990). According to the results of a field-based study of Tang and Chin, need for variety, gender, type of product, purchase history, and number of available alternatives are significant factors of consumer variety-seeking behavior.

Over the past decade, there have been some theoretical developments about the nature of variety seeking behaviour. One of the contribution to this phenomenon in consumer choice was made by Maddi (1968) who contends that human beings have a basic internal need for variation, and they seek novelty or varied experience for the satisfaction it brings. Venkatesan(1973) and McAlister(1982) suggested that variety-seeking behavior in purchases can be motivated by this internal need for stimulation. McAlister and Pessemier (1982) further suggest that sources of variety seeking can be categorized as “Derived” and “Direct”. Derived varied behavior relates to extrinsically motivated variation, whereas intentional varied behavior relates to intrinsically motivated variation. Derived variation is variation in consumption patterns not for the purpose of variation as such but as a “by-product” of other phenomena, for example, multiple needs, multiple users, multiple situations or the changes in the choice problem. Direct variation results from internal motives leading to a preference for variety in and of itself (Burns and Krampf, 1992). The two direct sources are sensation seeking (an intrapersonal motivation), and uniqueness seeking (an interpersonal motivation).

Another noteworthy contribution is the body of research on explanations of variety seeking (e.g., McAlister and Pessemier, 1982; Kahn, 1995; Van Trijp, Hoyer, and Inman, 1996; Inman, 2001). They have provided research evidence on a number of drivers of such behavior from both the psychological and consumer behavior disciplines: (1) individual factors, for example, satiation, need for stimulation, and uncertainty about future preferences; (2) external factors, for example, a price change, introduction of a new

product, and marketing mix elements; and (3) product category factors, for example, involvement, perceived risk, and interpurchase frequency.

Also, Hoyer and Ridgway (1984) organized and integrated previous work in the area of variety seeking and developed a comprehensive theoretical framework in which to study consumer variety seeking in the purchase environment. As shown below, determinants of exploratory purchase behavior include individual-level characteristics, product-level characteristics, and also such factors as decision strategies, situational variables, dissatisfaction with current brand/product, and problem-solving strategies.

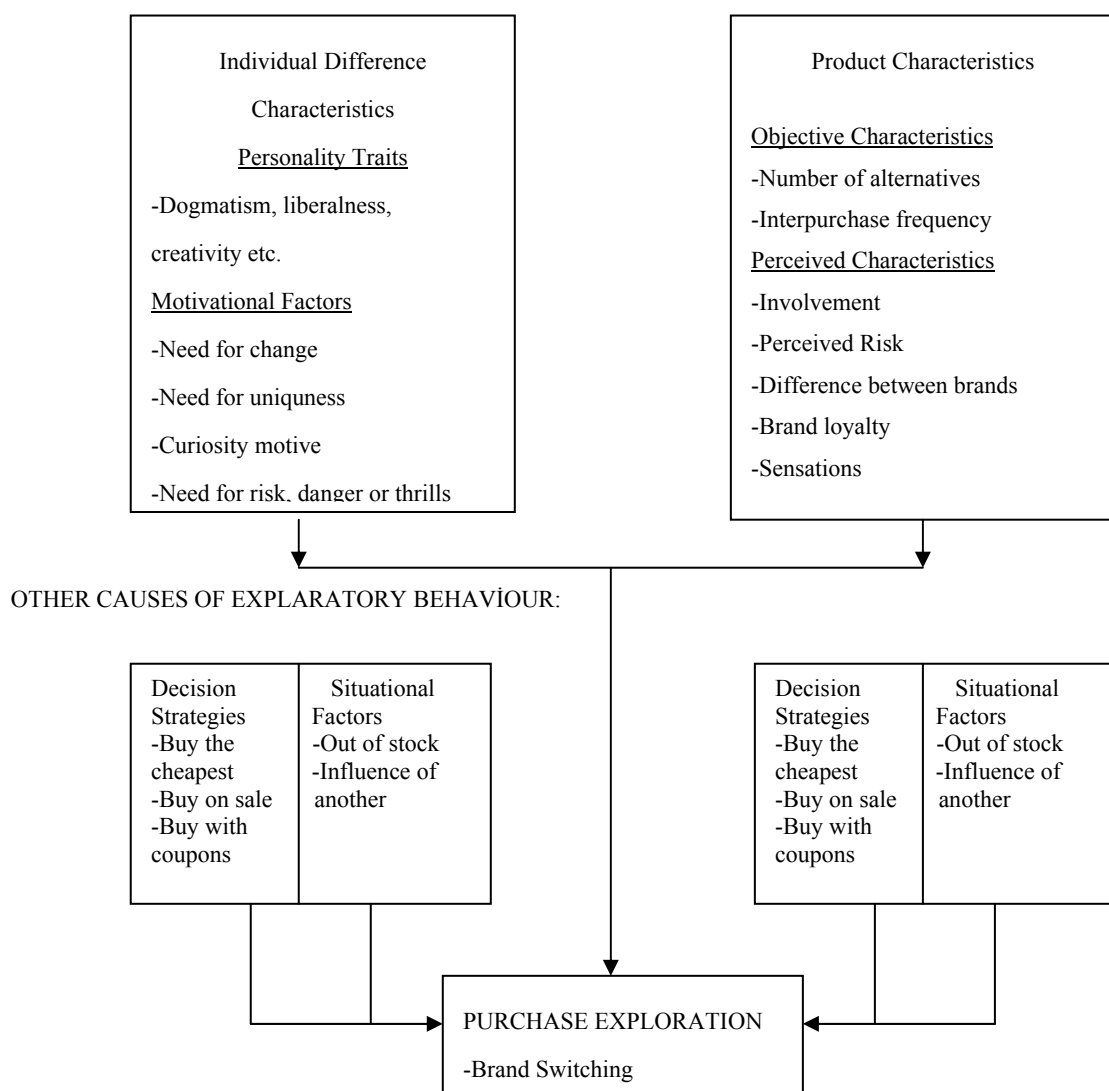


Figure 5.1 Theoretical Model of Exploratory Purchase Behaviour
(Adapted From Hoyer & Ridgway 1984)

5.2.0 Product Specific Characteristics on Variety-Seeking Behaviour

It should be noted that the role of product specific characteristics have an important role on variety seeking behavior across different product categories. Van Trijp et al. (1996) support this notion by stating that variety seeking behavior is a product category specific phenomenon suggesting that such behavior is the result of a need-for-variety motive and that it is influenced by product category-level factors. Consequently, need for variety, gender, type of product, purchase history, and number of available alternatives are significant predictors of consumer variety-seeking behavior.

5.2.1 Need For Variety

A number of personality and motivational factors are potentially related to variety seeking in purchase behavior. There are individual difference characteristic of need for variety hence the impact of consumers' cognitive need for variety on variety-seeking intensity should be examined as a predictor of consumer variety seeking behaviour.

5.2.2 Purchase Frequency

Frequent purchases are stimulating factor for variety seeking behaviour. As consumers engage in repetitive purchase decision processes over time, boredom with the repetitive choice task may activate the variety drive (Howard and Sheth, 1969; Hoyer and Ridgway, 1984). Frequency and intensity of using product increases the level of satiation of consumer. Further, as postulated by McAlister (1982), changes in the configuration of attribute inventories for frequent consumption is likely to be less dramatic given the relatively short interconsumption time and as a result, may lead to likely satiation with the product's attributes.

5.2.3 Perceived Difference Between Brands

Perceived differences between brands is another influential factor on consumers' choice behavior. By implicitly assessing the satiation or need fulfillment provided by the various

brand alternatives, consumers are more likely to choose brands with attributes that are superior to others. As a result, in purchase situations when perceived differences among the brand alternatives are large, these brands will be more strongly preferred by consumers and are more likely to be chosen over time (Bass, Pessemier, and Lehmann, 1972; Hoyer and Ridgway, 1984). On the other hand, for product categories with considerable degree of substitutability, variety seeking will be more likely to occur as these brands are perceived by consumers to be equally satisfactory in fulfilling his/her needs.

5.2.4 Available Alternatives

Theories of exploratory behavior which postulate an optimum stimulation level (Berlyne, 1960; Driver and Streufert, 1965) point out that each individual has its own specific optimal level of stimulation, which is relatively constant over time (Helmig, 1997). In situations containing an increased level of arousal, further stimulation will be avoided. In situations where the level of stimulation is below the optimum, individuals will seek additional stimulation.

A purchasing situation may provide a less than optimal level of stimulation for a consumer, thus leading to a state of boredom. As a consequence, the consumer will try to increase the arousal potential of the situation, for example, by exhibiting variety-seeking behavior (Helmig, 1997; Menon and Kahn, 1995).

According to Kahn (1995), If there are more brand varieties in the category, the phenomenon will increase consumers' need for stimulation in that product category, even when they are provided the option of repeating consumption. Furthermore, a high-variety product category offers consumers the opportunity to enjoy a diversity of options over time and therefore, more likely to induce consumer variety-seeking behavior (Kahn, 1998). As highlighted by the study of Kahn and Lehmann (1991), a varied portfolio of options offers greater variety as represented by the greater number of items in the assortment. As a result, the amount of diversity available in a product-category portfolio influences the need for diversity in choices. When the number of competitive brands increases, the cost of switching from brand A to brand B decreases (Tsao and Chen, 2005). Therefore, buyer

loyalty to brand A is less consolidated and is more easily switched to another.

5.2.5 Purchase History

Consumption history has an influential factor on consumers' exploratory behavior. According to the the OSL (theory of optimal stimulation level) theory, need for stimulation for consumer can be derived from switching among products in order to bring the suboptimal ASL(arousal seeking tendency) into closer correspondence with OSL. However, such variety-seeking behavioral tendency differs across purchase occasions and varies over time, depending on the individual's choice history (Bawa, 1990; Ansari, Bawa, and Ghosh, 1995; Chintagunta, 1998). In terms of the product's attributes, changes in the attribute accumulations of past purchases may result in stronger preferences for items that provide different attributes as consumers' consumption history evolves over time (McAlister, 1982). If the previous transaction was a repeat purchase, it is likely that variety-seeking consumers would switch brand due to satiation or boredom. However, If the previous transaction was already a brand switch, the consumer might still switch again if the purchased brand fails to satisfy the consumer's needs. Further, as pointed out by Bawa (1990), there exists varying extent of heterogeneity among and within consumers in terms of variety seeking or inertial tendencies at different points in time, which is affected by the individual's choice history. According to Givon (1984), the choice made on the last purchase occasion can either increase or decrease the probability of repeat purchasing on the next occasion or have no effect. Chintagunta et al. (2001) also confirmed that brand choice at a given point in time is affected by different exogenous variables as well as the choice made by the consumer in the previous period.

5.3.0 Motivation For Variety Seeking Behaviour

5.4.0 Hedonic and Utilitarian Motivational Factors

Motivation is identified by variety of consumer literature as key to the analysis of variety-seeking behavior. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors are determinants of variety seeking behavior. Staw(1976) pointed out that the motivation for variety

seeking behavior may be the result of hedonic motivations or utilitarian motivations, depending on whether the value derived is intrinsic (hedonic) or extrinsic (utilitarian). These two types of underlying motivations (intrinsic and extrinsic) of variety seeking behavior have been identified by researchers.

5.4.1 Hedonic Motivational Factors

McReynolds (1971) suggested that hedonic or intrinsically motivated behaviors are carried out because the variety seeking behaviors themselves have appeal or are enjoyable; that is, a variety seeker gains pleasure from the acts themselves. In addition, intrinsically motivated behaviors may be self-sustained without any external inducement. For instance, purchasing a new brand out of boredom is considered to be an intrinsically motivated behavior. It is considered that experiential shopping value and shopping impulsiveness are hedonic factors.

5.4.1.1 Experimental Shopping Value

Baugartner & Steenkamp (1996) and Kahn & Louie (1990) identified experiential shopping value as a hedonic attribute measured by novelty seeking behavior, brand consciousness, and the enjoyment of shopping as a fun and entertaining activity. Internal drives activate individuals to like new and innovative products and to gain excitement from seeking out new products (Acker & McReynolds, 1967; Cattell, 1975). Shopping for or purchasing brand-name products could satisfy the desire for a hedonic shopping experience (Dawar & Parker, 1994; Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991). The experiential value of shopping encourages consumers to shop just for the fun of it (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

5.4.1.2 Shopping Impulsiveness

Impulse buying is characterized by spontaneity or a lack of planning (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Rook, 1987), and impulse buyers have a higher hedonic and emotional orientation which plays an important role in understanding impulse purchase behaviors. Researchers

like Bellenger and Korgoankar (1980) found that innovations such as home shopping television networks and telemarketing have made it easier for consumers to purchase goods on impulse. Furthermore, a number of studies (e.g., Dittmar, Long, & Bond, 2007; Zhang, Prybutok, & Strutton, 2007) have argued that this is similarly the case for the World Wide Web the continuously growing online realm and the ways in which shopping online is more easily facilitated also provide impulsive consumers with a space to fulfill their shopping desires.

5.4.2 Utilitarian Motivational Factors

According to Nan Kwon and Jain(2009) extrinsically motivated behavior provides satisfaction that is not inherent on engagement in the behavior per se, but rather is derived from the achievement of a goal that is external to the behavior itself. Brand switching to take advantage of promotion offers is an example of extrinsically motivated behavior. Information seeking, shopping convenience, and price consciousness are considered as utilitarian factors.

5.4.2.1 Information Seeking

Information seeking motivation (McDonald, 1994;Messinger & Narasimhan, 1997) stimulates consumers to search for information regarding product assortment, price, and product quality and to make an optimal decision with respect to retail channel selection. The literature identifies information seeking as a motivation of shopping both offline and online (Alba et al., 1997; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Hoffman & Novak, 1996).

5.4.2.2 Shopping Convenience

Utilitarian shopping convenience is typically linked to achieving efficiency (Oliver, Rust, & Varki, 1997). McDonald (1994) suggested that consumers' time perception in their personal daily life is a critical factor in explaining their shopping channel decisions. Consumers cognitively gauge benefits against costs to determine shopping convenience (e.g., Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal, 1991; Gomez, McLaughlin, & Wittink, 2004;

Krishnan,1998). Convenience is generally perceived as an important advantage of nontraditional shopping methods (e.g., catalogs and the Internet; Eastlick& Feinberg, 1999; and Keeney, 1999). Furthermore, Wang, Yeh, and Jiang (2006) reported in their lifestyle research that consumers with variety-seeking lifestyle tend to value convenience in Internet shopping more than consumers with other lifestyles.

5.4.2.3 Price Consciousness

Price consciousness is another motivational factor for utilitarian shopping. Price consciousness is the degree to which consumers focus exclusively on paying low prices (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, & Burton, 1990). Laroche et al. (2003), Trivedi and Morgan (2003), and Wakefield and Barnes (1996) suggested a positive relationship between price promotion proneness and variety seeking tendencies in brands and products to buy. These studies suggest that variety seekers utilize promotional offers for the purpose of experiencing the variety of goods and the hedonic values associated with the deals. Waldfogel and Chen (2006) suggested that price comparison increases the diversification of shopping sites.

5.5.0 Innovativeness as a Trait

The tendency to seek variety is a personality trait that seems to vary between individuals suggesting that the optimum level of variety is specific to the individual. Raju (1980) labeled this trait as ‘sensation-seeking’, ‘optimum stimulation level (OSL)’, and ‘arousal-seeking tendency’. Going further Raju (1980), Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1992) have suggested that the individuals with high OSLs are more willing to take risks, less rigid in their response patterns, tend to brand switch, and are more innovative.

Most authors have a general consensus that innovativeness has an innate nature as a personal trait. Steenkamp et al (1999) defines innate innovativeness as a “predisposition to buy new and different products and brands rather than remain with previous choices and consumer patterns” and they made four explanations to show forces of such a

predisposition: (1) stimulation need, (2) novelty seeking, (3) independence toward others' communicated experience and (4) need for uniqueness.

5.5.1 Innate innovativeness as an expression of the need for stimulation

Hebb (1955) and Leuba (1955) seem to be the first to suggest that the individual seeks stimulation, and there is an individual optimal level of stimulation. After a thorough review of the different theories concerning this need, Venkatesan (1973) suggested that a relationship of direct dependency between the need for stimulation and innovative behavior should be considered. Building on Berlyne's (1960) approach, he shows how new products can help people maintain their inner stimulation at an optimum level in different situations. The empirical results of Mittelstaedt et al. (1976), Etzel and Wahlers (1984), Valette-Florence and Roehrich (1993) also validate this theoretical perspective.

Empirical results show a positive and significant relationship between need for stimulation and innovativeness. Raju (1980) suggests that innovativeness may intervene between need for stimulation and innovative behavior as a mediator variable. Either directly or indirectly, need for stimulation may be perceived as an antecedent of new product adoption, through innovativeness.

5.5.2 Innate innovativeness as an expression of novelty seeking

Inherent novelty seeking is an "internal drive or a motivating strength," which motivates the individual search for new information (Pearson, 1970). Hirschman (1980) suggests that inherent novelty seeking is "conceptually indistinguishable from the willingness to adopt new products." She considers it a cardinal trait, linked to different forms of behavioral innovativeness through actualized novelty seeking.

Actualized novelty seeking translates into a series of activities aimed at finding new information, which leads to three types of behavioral innovativeness: (1) informative innovativeness is the actual acquisition of new information about a new product, (2) adoptive innovativeness is the adoption of a new product and (3) use innovativeness, which

has two expressions: (1) using a product in a different way or (2) knowing all the different uses of a specific product. This proposal broadens the scope of innovativeness from interest in new products to interest in any kind of newness: information, ideas or behavior.

Venkatraman and Price (1990) also build on Pearson's (1970) work to make the distinction between cognitive and sensory innovativeness: cognitive innovativeness is a "tendency to engage with pleasure in new experiences that stimulate thinking," which may be either internal or external, whereas sensory innovativeness is "a tendency to engage with pleasure in internal experiences like fantasy, dreaming or stimulating and risky activities like ski jumping." This latter innovativeness may be activated by stimuli, which can be internal (dreaming) as well as external (experiences).

By focusing on novelty, Pearson (1970) and Hirschman (1980) push innovativeness beyond the realm of new product consumption. For Mudd (1990), rather than solving questions about its nature, this adds more ambiguity to the concept.

5.5.3 Innovativeness as independence toward other's communicated experience

Midgley (1977) makes a clear distinction between innate innovativeness, a trait possessed by every human being, and actualized innovativeness, which is actual innovative behavior. Arguing that an innovator will be the first to use a new product, he defines innate innovativeness as "the degree to which an individual makes innovation decisions independently from the communicated experience of others." Midgley and Dowling (1978) adopt this approach, but they question whether it might not be better to add "receptivity to new ideas" to Midgley's definition. They finally choose to consider that "receptivity to new ideas" and "independence toward others' communicated experience" may probably be equivalent.

Certain empirical results tend to invalidate this theoretical position. Hirschman (1980) obtained a negative correlation between "receptivity to new ideas" and "independence of judgment in innovative decisions." This result leads Hirschman to

conclude that “these two operationalizations of innovativeness address probably two different domains of behavior.” Carlson and Grossbart (1984) and Bearden et al. (1986) obtain a positive but weak correlation between independence of judgment and innate tendency toward newness. Finally, the “independence in innovative decision” dimension of Le Louarn’s (1997) innovativeness scale is revealed to be independent of the “attraction to newness” dimension of the scale and of possession of new products. Although attractive, the proposal to consider innovativeness as an expression of independence of judgment lacks empirical support. As a conclusion, although useful in the innovative decision process, autonomy in decision may probably be neither an antecedent nor a facet of innovativeness.

5.5.4 Innovativeness as an expression of need for uniqueness

People may tend to seek variety in their choice making because of the desire to appear unique. Ariely and Levav (2000) argued that individuals try to make different choices from other people’s in order to portray oneself as unique in the eyes of others rather than risking the appearance of imitation by making the same choices as others. Simonson and Nowlis (2000) recall that there is tension between two opposite objectives in decision making: conformity and distinction. Furthermore Fromkin (1968) suggested that the need for uniqueness pushes the individual to distinguish himself through the possession of rare items, a socially accepted behavior.

Individuals show specialness by displaying variation in their own choice behavior (Fromkin & Snyder, 1980; Snyder & Fromkin, 1977). A moderate amount of variation in behaviors and attitudes is often perceived more positively than consistency (Ratner & Kahn, 2001; Sherman, Nelson, & Ross, in press). Ratner and Kahn (2001) argued that variety-seeking is socially perceived to be normative. As parallel to this view, they suggested that “variety seekers” are viewed more positively than those who do not, and that most individuals seek to vary their behavior to follow this implicit social rule.

According to Snyder and Fromkin (1980) there are three consequences of the need for uniqueness: (1) the absence of interest in the reaction of others to one’s own different ideas

or acts, (2) the desire not to always follow the rules and (3) the willingness to publicly defend one's opinions. Fromkin (1971) is the first to suggest a link between innovative behavior and need for uniqueness, whereas Gatignon and Robertson (1985) conclude that "consumers who depend highly on normative influences (desire for conformity) adopt more slowly." Burns and Krampf (1991) provide the first empirical validation of this theoretical proposition. They demonstrate positive correlation between need for uniqueness and the number of new products possessed. Moreover, this correlation was higher for new products than for new brands.

Fromkin's sound theoretical proposal suggests that the need for uniqueness can be considered to be a credible antecedent of innovativeness. Firstly, because innovativeness is an easy way to satisfy the need for uniqueness and, secondly, because need for uniqueness includes independence in judgment, which is necessary for innovative purchasing.

5.6.0 Novelty Seeking in Tourism

Variety seeking behaviour appears to be at least partially a product category-specific phenomenon, in which consumers may seek variety in one product category but not in another (Trijp, Hoyer, and Inman, 1996). However, tourism researches used the novelty seeking theory to explain the switching behaviour of consumers because the novelty seeking theory is an important theoretical foundation in explaining destination choice behavior (Bello & Etzel, 1985; Zuckerman, 1971). These two theories share the same idea that consumers seek optimal levels of stimulation in their choice of behaviour.

Novelty seeking has been found to be particularly important in the tourism context because it is a key motive in tourism according to many researches. According to Hirschman (1980), the basic notion underlying the construct of novelty seeking appears to be that, through some internal drive or motivating force the individual is activated to seek out novel information. It is the opposite of familiarity. Novelty seeking is referred to as a curiosity drive, sensation seeking, and an exploratory drive in the behavioral science literature. It represents the opportunity for unusual experiences, for behaviours very

different from the ordinary (Ryan,2002). Because of wide selection of substitute holiday destinations, the perceived switching costs are lower and there is a lower perceived risk involved with exploring a new holiday destination (Raj, 1985; Rivers et al., 1991; Driver, 1996). Two of the predominant aspects of novelty seeking are: Seeking information that is altogether new; and, propensity to try out varied items within the already known set (Manning, *et al.*, 1995).

Many researchers tried to explain the novelty seeking tendency from different perspectives. Pearson (1970) defines novelty seeking behaviour as the degree of contrast between present perception and past experience. Crompton (1979) referred to novel as new experience but not necessarily new knowledge. Faison (1977) defined novel travel as a trip characterized by new and unfamiliar experiences that differ from prior life experience. Lee and Crompton (1992) further proposed the novel sources of pleasure travel as thrill, adventure and surprise, and boredom-alleviation. According to Bello and Etzel (1985), the novelty seeking theory is based on optimum levels of stimulation that can be described by three propositions: (1) an organism prefers a particular level of stimulation; (2) when the stimulation in the environment does not reach this optimal level, an organism is motivated to seek novelty, complexity, adventure, or other conditions; and (3) when stimulation exceeds this optimal level, the organism will find ways to reduce it.

In addition to these explanations; Berlyne (1960) went further by suggesting that (1) the arousal potential of the stimuli and the arousal state of an organism are distinct; and (2) between seeking and avoiding arousing stimuli is arousal tonus (the individually desired optimal level of arousal), or the average level of arousal wanted by an organism in its particular circumstances. It is thus derived that the desire for new and unfamiliar experiences is frequently compromised by the need to reduce the uncertainty of exposure to novelty (Crompton, 1979); and a novelty-familiarity continuum can thus be defined to cover the entire range of preference from the highest to the lowest optimal level. Feng and Jang (2004) claimed that while continuous repeaters may be comparable to lower novelty-seeking travelers and continuous switchers may be the higher novelty-seeking travelers, deferred repeaters represent travelers with at a mid-range level of

stimulation.

Cohen (1979) argues that the novelty seeking theory became important in tourism decision making because seeking novelty is innate in travelers, in addition seeking various types of novelty motivates many pleasure travelers or vacationers to travel (Lee & Crompton, 1992). Each individual has a different degree of novelty motivation. Cohen also classified tourists into four groups: organized mass tourists, individual mass tourists, Explorer and drifter. These four types of tourists is differentiated by the amount of novelty they seek with their travel choices. An organized mass tourists look for familiarity, therefore they are the least likely to be influenced by novelty in thier travel decisions, while drifters are novelty-seekers (Cohen, 1972). This classification also argued that there is an inverse relationship with age and novelty-seeking. Older travellers were less likely to seek novelty.

It is widely accepted that novelty seeking plays a role in tourist decision-making (Petrick, 2002). Four of Hirschman (1984) propositions are relevant in the tourist setting regarding the role of novelty in travel experience seeking. First, some may desire a high level of novelty on a vacation, while others may prefer a lower level of novelty. Second, the attitudes of tourists towards a destination may be influenced by their predispositions towards levels of novelty seeking. Third, different destinations may satisfy similar desires for novelty. Fourth, it may be possible to determine the types of destination that will satisfy an individual by understanding the relative level of novelty they desire.

5.7.0 Why People Seek For Variety in Tourism

All the studies above mentioned that consumers' variety-seeking behavior is broadly observable in their tourism experiences because of the fact that the novelty drive as a component of variety seeking behaviour is an underlying motivation for pleasure travel. Recreational choice is often influenced more by a conscious drive or by variety-seeking behaviour then by a habit (Timmermans, 1985). Hence, tourists' product and destination choices were understood in light of their sensation seeking, novelty seeking and variety seeking. Furthermore the OSL (Optimum Level of Stimulation) theory of

Baumgartner and Steenkamp (1994) as a tendency to aspire to a medium degree of stimulation also embraces variety, novelty or sensation seeking as well as curiosity, all of which are well suited the holiday behaviour context. Variety seeking is the primary motivational mechanism maintaining the OSL because variety seeking is intrinsically motivated behaviour where a change from routine is rewarded by pleasure. The strong correlation has been found between variety seeking behaviour and optimum stimulation levels; the higher the stimulation needs are, the more likely people show variety seeking behaviour (Joachimsthaler and Lastovicka, 1984; McAlister and Pessemier, 1982; Raju, 1980; Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 1992).

In the tourism context, variety seeking can be manifold : switching to different tour operator, to another hotel or even to another destination all refer to variety seeking in a tourism related context(Decroio, Kozak, P:91). Typical variety seekers are tourists who want to experience something new and who are not afraid of taking chances in trying unfamiliar travel destinations. In addition to that, changing purposes of leisure travel also refer to an individual's motivation to seek variety.

Recently, there has been growing interest among marketing and decision scholars in studying the marketing and management strategy implications of variety-seeking behavior in order to examine the impact of variety-seeking recreation behavior to tourists and firms in the recreation industry.

Two recent studies in the tourism and recreation literature have investigated the role of variety-seeking recreation behavior. Kemperman et al. (2000) reported that tourists' variety-seeking recreation behavior affects their choice of theme parks in Netherlands. Hailu et al. (2005) discussed the variety-seeking recreation behavior of tourists may lower the emotional ties to specific sites.

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS

Table 6.1 Demographic characteristics of participants

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
GENDER		
Male	109	54,5
Female	91	45
AGE		
16-24 years	74	37,0
25-44 years	69	34,5
45-64 years	39	19,5
65 years and older	8	4,0
MARITAL STATUS		
Married	92	46,0
Single	108	54,0
EDUCATION		
Primary School	8	4,0
Secondary School	10	5
University	113	56,5
Master's Degree	66	33
PhD	3	1,5
OCCUPATION		
Employed	118	59,0
Student	29	14,5
Housewife	33	16,5
Retired	9	4,5
Unemployed	11	5,5
HOUSEHOLD SIZE		
1 person	17	8,5
2 people	68	34,0
3 people	65	32,5
4 people	41	20,5
5 people and more	9	4,5
MONTHLY INCOME		
0 – 1000 YTL	11	5,5
1000 - 2500 YTL	88	44,0
2500 – 5000 YTL	81	40,5
5000 YTL and more	20	10,0

This section of the research shows characteristics of the sample in detail as described at Table 6.1. According to the findings, 54,5 % of respondents are male, 45,5 % of respondents are female. Differences in age distribution varied among respondents with 37 % of participants between the ages of 16-24; 34,5 % between the ages of 25 to 44, 19,5 % between the ages of 45 to 64. In addition, 4 % participants are at the age of 65 and older. The potential visitors are mainly single accounted for 54%, on the other hand, married participants 46% of the whole. Regarding the education level, primary school graduates are 4 %, secondary school graduates are 5 %, university graduates are 56,5 %, participants with master's degree are 33 %, and participants with PhD are 1.5 %. The occupation distribution shows that respondents are mainly employed. 14,5 of participants are students, 59 % are employed, 16,5 % are housewife, 4,5 % are retired and 5,5 % are unemployed. According to results of the questionnaire; the household size of 68 % respondents is two people, 65 % has three people household, 41 % have four people, 17 % have one person. In addition to this; 9 % of participants have 5 and more household size. The income level of respondents are between 1000 and 2000 YTL for 88 % of participants, 81 % of participants have income between 2500-5000 YTL, 11 % of participants have income level under 1000 YTL, 20 % of participants have 5000 YTL monthly income and more. Monthly income distribution shows that the monthly income level of participants is mainly between 1000 YTL and 5000 YTL.

TRAVEL CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS

Table 6.2 Frequency of Travel

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
No travel	6	3,0
1 time a year	52	26,0
2 times a year	72	36,0
3 times a year	60	30,0
More than 3 times	10	5,0
Total	200	100,0

Table 6.2 shows the distribution of frequency of travel of the participants. According to the table; 36 % of the respondents travel 2 times a year, 30 % of the respondents travel 3 times a year, 26 % of respondents travel 1 time a year, 5 % of the respondents travel more than 3 times a year and finally 3 % of the respondents do not travel. As general, most of the participants travel one to three times a year.

Table 6.3 Being on holiday in all life

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
1-5 times	11	5,5
6-10 times	52	26,0
11-15 times	87	43,5
16-20 times	50	25,0
Total	200	100,0

Table 6.3. shows that the distribution of holiday numbers of the participants. 43,5 % of respondents have been on holiday 11-15 times in their life, 26 % of the respondents have been on holiday 6-10 times, 25 % have been on holiday 16-20 times and 5,5 % participants have been on holiday 1-5 times. It is seen that most of participants have been on holiday more than 5 times as general.

Table 6.4 Vacation accompanying

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Alone	24	10,7
Family Members	69	30,8
Friends	57	25,4
Colleagues	46	20,5
Other	28	12,5
Total	224*	100,0

*It is answered more than one option

Table 6.4. shows that the distribution which belongs to vacation accompanies of participants. 25 % of participants travel with their friends, 30,8 % of participants travel with their families, 20,5 % of participants travel with their colleagues, 10,7 % of participants travel alone. In addition to this, 12,5 % of participants choose the other option.

Table 6.5. Individually organization of holidays

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Never	18	9,0
1-5 times	46	23,0
6-10 times	31	15,5
11-15 times	56	28,0
16-20 times	33	16,5
20 and more times	16	8,0
Total	200	100,0

Table 6.5. shows the distribution belongs to number of holidays which are individually organized by participants. With respect to results; 28% participants organized their travel between 11 and 15 times, 23% of participants organized their travel between one to five times, 16.5% organized their travel between 16 and 20 times, and 8% of participants organized their travel more than 20 times. As general, most of the participants organize their travels by themselves according to table.

Table 6.6 Organization of holidays by travel agency

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
0 times	15	7,5
1-5 times	85	42,5
6-10 times	37	18,5
11-15 times	32	16,0
16-20 times	22	11,0
20 and more times	9	4,5
Total	200	100,0

Table 6.6. shows the distribution of participants' holiday organization by travel agency. According to table; 42,5% participants organized their travels by travel agency one to five times, 16% of participants organized their travels by travel agency between 11 and 15 times, 18,5% of participants organized their travels between 6 and 10 times. Most of participants organize their travels by travel agency.

Table 6.7 Reasons for travel

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Rest and relaxation	127	52,2
Visiting relatives and friends	21	8,0
Business reasons	11	4,5
Attending a conference, congress, seminar, and other forms of educations	6	2,5
Culture	3	1,25
Fun	43	17,0
Sports and recreation	19	7,5
Health	12	5,0
Religious reasons	1	0,5
Total	243*	100,0

*It is answered more than one option

Distribution of travel reasons of participants are shown at Table 6.7. 52.2% of participants travel for rest and relaxation, 17% of participants travel for fun, 7.5% of participants travel for sport and recreation, 8% travel for visiting relatives and friends. According to table 6.7, the basic reason for travel is rest and relaxation.

Table 6.8 Holiday preference

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
I like adventurous holidays	17	7,5
I'd rather do something active instead of doing nothing when I am on vacation	37	16,5
I like stimulation and excitement when I am on vacation	38	16,5
I like relaxing holidays	39	17,0
I'd like to spend lots of time lying on a beach sunbathing,	43	18,0
I like quiet and peaceful tourist destinations	39	17,0
I would like to take off a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetable	11	5,5
Total	225*	100,0

*It is answered more than one option

Table 6.8 shows the distribution of holiday preference. According to Table 6.8., 39 participants prefer relaxing holidays, , 38 participants prefer quiet and peaceful travel destinations, 37 participants prefer to being active on holiday, 17 participants like adventurous holidays. In addition, 43 participants prefer sunbathing on holiday. Generally, there are many reasons to travel for participants according to table 7.8.

Table 6.9 Frequency of visiting the same destination

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
1-3 times	38	19,0
4-6 times	62	31,0
7-9 times	59	29,5
10-12 times	35	17,5
13 and more times	6	3,0
Total	200	100,0

Table 6.9 shows the distribution of visiting the same destination frequency. According to data; 31% visit the same destination between 4 and 6 times, 29,5% visit the same destination between 7 and 9 times, 19% visit the same destination one to five times, and finally 3% of participants visit the same destination more than 13. Most of participants prefer to visit same destination again according to this table.

Table 6.10 Staying at the same accommodation

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
1-3	38	19,0
4-6	60	30,0
7-9	47	23,5
10-12	37	18,5
13 and more	18	9,0
Total	200	100,0

Table 6.10 shows the distribution of staying at the same accommodation. According to this table; 60 participants stayed at the same accommodation between 4 and 6 times, 55 participants stayed at the same accommodation between 10 and 12 times, 47 participants stayed at the same accommodation between 7 and 9 times and 38 participants stayed at the

same accommodation one to three times. Most of the participants prefer to stay at the same accommodation according to this table.

Table 6.11 Satisfaction with last travel

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Extremely Dissatisfied	22	11,0
Dissatisfied	27	13,5
Undecided	43	21,5
Satisfied	52	26,0
Extremely Satisfied	56	28,0
Total	200	100,0

Table 6.11 shows the distribution of satisfaction level of participants' last travels. According to the table; 27 participants dissatisfied with their last travel, on the other hand, 52 participants satisfied with their last travel. 22 participants extremely dissatisfied with their last travel, on the other hand, 56 participants extremely satisfied with their travel. In addition 43 participants are undecided about the issue.

Table 6.12 Preferring the same destination next time

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Extremely uninterested in visit	17	8,5
Uninterested in visit	49	24,5
Undecided	42	21,0
Interested in visit	66	33,0
Extremely interested in visit	26	13,0
Total	200	100,0

Table 6.12 shows the distribution of participants' preference the same destination next time. According to Table 7.13.; 33% prefer to visit the same destination next time, on the other hand, 24.5% do not want to go to same destination next time. In addition, 21% of participants are undecided and 13% of participants extremely interested in visit the same destination again.

VARIETY SEEKING TENDANCY

Table 6.13 Preferring different destinations, just for a change

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Strongly Disagree	17	8,5
Disagree	42	21,0
Undecided	51	25,5
Agree	57	28,5
Strongly Agree	33	16,5
Total	200	100,0

Table 6.13 shows the distribution of participants' opinion about the preferring different destinations just for a change. 57 participants agree with this statement, on the other hand, 42 participants disagree with this statement. 51 participants are undecided about this statement, 17 participants strongly agree with this statement and finally 33 participants strongly disagree with this statement. The majority of participants prefer different destinations just for change. It is closely related with the assumption of variety seeking behaviour. Beacuse variety-seeking behavior is defined as the tendency for an individual to switch away from the item consumed on the last occasion (Givon, 1984; Kahn et al., 1986). As Maddi (1968) explains majority of participants need for variation, and they seek novelty or varied experience for the satisfaction it brings.

Table 6.14 Buying unfamiliar brands just to get some variety

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Strongly Disagree	9	4,5
Disagree	45	22,5
Undecided	29	14,5
Agree	83	41,5
Strongly Agree	34	17,0
Total	200	100,0

Table 6.14. shows the distribution of buying unfamiliar brands in order to get some variety. According to this table; 83 participants agree with this statement, on the other hand, 45 participants disagree with this statement. 34 participants strongly agree with this statement, on the other hand, 9 participants strongly disagree with this statement. In addition, 29 participants are undecided about this statement. The result of this analysis also shows the variety seeking tendency of people. Perceived differences between brands is another influential factor on consumers' choice behavior. Various brand alternatives provide satiation or need fulfillment, consumers are more likely to choose brands with attributes that are superior to others. As a result, in purchase situations when perceived differences among the brand alternatives are large, these brands will be more strongly preferred by consumers and are more likely to be chosen over time (Bass, Pessemier, and Lehmann, 1972; Hoyer and Ridgway, 1984). On the other hand, for product categories with considerable degree of substitutability, variety seeking will be more likely to occur as these brands are perceived by consumers to be equally satisfactory in fulfilling his/her needs.

Table 6.15 Doing things on impulse

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
True	110	55,0
False	90	45,0
Total	200	100,0

Table 6.15. shows the distribution of the statement of ‘doing things on impulse’. According to Table 6.15; 55% of participants do things on impulse, on the other hand, 45% of participants do not things on impulse. Impulse buying is also a component of variety seeking behaviour. It is intrinsically motivated behavior and characterized by spontaneity or a lack of planning (O’Guinn & Faber, 1989; Rook, 1987), and impulse buyers have a higher hedonic and emotional orientation which plays an important role in understanding impulse purchase behaviors. In addition to this, telemarketing and shopping online more easily facilitate impulsive buyers.

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS FOR VARIETY SEEKING BEHAVIOUR

Table 6.16 Changing a holiday accommodation from one year to another

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
I do not change a holiday accommodation from one year to another	52	24,0
This is usually for fun and entertainment	50	23,0
This is usually for impulsive purchase behaviour	12	5,5
This is usually in order to explore strange places.	67	31,0
This is usually to do with the fact that I was not happy with the holiday accommodation somehow (i.e. due to some sort of dissatisfaction with the accommodation)	20	9,5
This is usually to do with the sales campaigns, advantages of other destinations	15	7,0
Total	216*	100,0

*It is answered more than one option.

Table 6.17 Changing a holiday destination from one year to another

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
I do not change a holiday destination from one year to another	31	14
This is usually for fun and entertainment	62	30,5
This is usually for impulsive purchase behaviour	15	7
This is usually in order to explore strange places	68	31.5
This is usually to do with the fact that I was not happy with the destination somehow (i.e. due to some sort of dissatisfaction with the destination)	35	16,8
This is usually to do with the sales campaigns, advantages of other destinations	11	0,5
Total	222	100,0

*It is answered more than one option.

Table 6.16 shows the distribution of causes for changing holiday accommodation from one year to another. According to Table 6.16.; 50 participants change holiday accommodation for fun and entertainment, 12 participants change holiday accommodation because of impulsive purchase behaviour, 67 participants change in order to explore strange places, 15 participants change because of other accommodation' promotions. In addition, 52 participants don't change holiday accommodation from one year to another. On the other hand, 15 participants do not change holiday destination one year to another.

Table 6.17. shows the distribution of causes for changing a holiday destination from one year to another. According to Table 6.17.; 62 participants change for fun and entertainment, 15 participants change because of impulsive purchase behaviour, 68 participants prefer different destinations in order to explore strange places. Both tables show us variety seeking behaviour in tourism is mostly because of hedonic motivational factors. The majority of participants change their holiday accommodation and destination because of to have fun and entertainment as McReynold (1971) suggested variety seeker gains pleasure from the act themselves. In addition, novelty seeking factor is another underlying factor for changing destination according to tables. Hirschman(1980) defines novelty seeking as an internal drive or motivating force the individual is activated to seek

out novel information. Dissatisfaction also has a role in switching the tourism destination. On the other hand, utilitarian motivational factors such as price consciousness, sales promotions do not play a major role in changing tourism destination according to results.

SATISFACTION AND REVISIT INTENTION

Table 6.18 The cross table of satisfaction and revisit intention

		VISITING THE SAME DESTINATION AGAIN					Total
		Extremely uninterested to visit	Uninterested to visit	Undecided	Interested in visit	Extremely interested in visit	
SATISFACTION WITH THE LAST TRAVEL	Extremely Dissatisfied	13	4	4	1	-----	22
	Dissatisfied	1	22	4	----	----	27
	Undecided	2	19	11	8	3	43
	Satisfied	1	3	12	20	16	52
	Extremely Satisfied	-----	1	11	37	7	56
	Total	17	49	42	66	26	200

The cross table 6.18 shows the correlation between satisfaction and revisit the same tourism destination. The analysis indicated that overall satisfaction is highly correlated with intention to revisit. The majority of participants who satisfied with their last travel intent to revisit the same destination again. Satisfaction is defined by Oliver (1981) as a consumer's comparison between performance and expectations. High degree of satisfaction most probably results in loyal customers. If the tourists are satisfied with the destination, it is difficult to affect the attraction felt for a place for holiday-making (Vogt and Andereck, 2003). Many researches show that the positive relationship between satisfaction and revisit intention has been found in tourism destination choice settings. However some participants who satisfied with their last travel do not intend the revisit the same destination because in tourism context satisfaction is not the guarantee of visiting

the same destination. Sometimes people choose to switch to a less preferred option even though repeating the more preferred option would lead to greater enjoyment (Ratner, Kahn, & Kahneman, 1999). The novelty drive may lead to switch tourism destination.

ORGANIZATION OF HOLIDAYS BY INDIVIDUALLY

Table 6.19 Ids analysis of revisiting and individual organization of holidays

		MEAN DIFFERENCE	STANDARD ERROR	P-VALUE
1-3 times	4-6 times	-,703*	,290	,016
	7-9 times	,595*	,292	,043
	10-12 times	,016	,329	,962
	13 times and more	-,684	,617	,269
4-6 times	1-3 times	,703*	,290	,016
	7-9 times	-,107	,256	,675
	10-12 times	-,687*	,297	,022
	13 times and more	-1,387*	,601	,022
7-9 times	1-3 times	-,595*	,292	,043
	4-6 times	,107	,256	,675
	10-12 times	-,580	,300	,055
	13 times and more	-1,280*	,602	,035
10-12 times	1-3 times	-,016	,329	,962
	4-6 times	,687*	,297	,022
	7-9 times	,580	,300	,055
	13 times and more	-,700	,621	,261
13 times and more	1-3 times	,684	,617	,269
	4-6 times	1,387*	,601	,022
	7-9 times	1,280*	,602	,035
	10-12 times	,700	,621	,261

A one-way analysis of variance was used to test possible differences among groups in visiting the same destination and individually organization of travels because of a statistically significant effect ($p < 0.05$), means among groups were compared by LSD. According to table 6.19, there are statistically significant differences ($p > .05$) were identified between the revisiting numbers of the same destination and individually organisation of travels. Participants who travel the same destination between 7-9 times organise thier travels by themselves more than revisiters the same destinations between 4-6 times. Also. participants who travel the same destination between 10-12 times organise thier travels by themselves more than revisiters the same destinations between 7-9 times. As a result, the number of revisiting the same destination increases organization of travels individually increases.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Tourism marketers seek repeat customers as many businesses due to the fact that repeat visitors are believed to produce more sales revenue and help reduce marketing costs. Because of a flood of tourism products and services, destination marketers have greater difficulties in drawing travelers to their destinations in increasingly competitive market environments. It is certain that continuous repeaters make up the most attractive segment from the destination perspective, because they would reduce long-term marketing costs. However, destination managers and marketers should focus on both continuous repeaters and variety seekers in order to understand the movement of their market and allocate their resources efficiently.

Variety seeking is understood as the novelty seeking tendency in the tourism field. Because the term expresses a tendency to seek new and adventurous experiences, novelty seems to be a factor in switching behavior. It is one of the most important motivations for tourists and explains why people participate in tourism activities. People participate in various tourism activities because the activities increase their degree of arousal. At the same time, it plays a critical role to understand the nature of revisitation. Logically, novelty negatively influences the revisit intention. Many researches show that high novelty experiencers indicated a lower likelihood of returning to the same destination. Even if tourists are satisfied with prior destinations they may seek out other travel destinations because of novelty seeking tendency. This implies the belief that a previously satisfied customer will automatically repurchase, as proposed by studies in consumer behavior, cannot be directly applicable to tourism. Instead, the results suggest that leading people to revisit may be more difficult than previously thought due to the unique characteristics of tourism including intangibility and infrequent purchase. It is clear novelty must be given particular consideration when considering revisitation.

From the perspective of revisitation, tourist satisfaction is another critical issue for marketing. Satisfaction has a positive relationship with revisit intention. The tourist whose expectations are fulfilled by their experiences report satisfaction, on the other hand those whose expectations are not fulfilled report dissatisfaction. Customer satisfaction is

also closely related with customer loyalty which is the central concept of marketing. High degree of satisfaction leads to repetition of the purchase of products or services over a prolonged period of time and this results in loyal customers. In addition to this; the quality of service in the tourism context can not be ignorable. It is generally assumed to affect loyalty in a positive way. Perception of service quality affect feelings of satisfaction, which will then affect loyalty and future buying decisions.

This research mainly discuss the disturbing factors of variety seeking behavior in tourism context as an obstacle on revisit intention and customer loyalty. It is true that variety seekers exclude previously visited places because they think new places are a better alternative or they want a different experience from their previous trip. However, recommendations of variety-seekers might be valuable for gaining new customers. As it is discussed, customer satisfaction and positive word-of-mouth communication are positively correlated. Although variety seekers will change the service provider at the next purchase, they have been satisfied with the service quality offered and are likely to engage in positive word-of-mouth communication. Variety seekers probably meet more potential customers because they seem to be more extrovert, spontaneous, venturesome, etc., thus possibly they are more communicative. This reflects the positive approach on variety-seeking behavior of consumers.

The theoretical and empirical findings of this study may be of a great significance for practical reasons. It gives advices how each tourism site can develop their competitive power. Unlike previous findings in consumer behavior, these study results indicate that revisitation is not the result of the nominal decision making process and satisfaction does not necessarily lead to revisitation. Thus, the belief that satisfaction with a previous purchase increases brand/product (i.e. destinations) loyalty and that loyalty leads to repeat purchases might not be applicable to tourism. It is essential for destinations to understand how to satisfy repeat travelers. Travel destinations can motivate travelers to revisit by maximizing traveler satisfaction by providing quality service. Therefore customer satisfaction is central for realizing profits. Moreover, extremely dissatisfied customers are even more likely to engage in word-of-mouth than satisfied customers. Negative word-of-mouth will probably lead to lower customer loyalty and negative consequences for the attraction of new customers. Thus, destination

management should take special care of visitor satisfaction because satisfied visitors will come back if they are not variety seekers. If they are variety seekers, high service quality most probably will generate positive word-of-mouth communication. It can be suggested that positive recommendations of variety-seekers will reduce the negative consequences of such behavior and positively affect the service profit chain.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire has been developed for the master thesis of Doğuş University Institute of Social Sciences. Thank for your participation.

Meltem Aydınöđlu

PART 1

Please circle the box that corresponds to your response

1-) Gender

Female

Male

2-)Age

16-24 years

25-44 years

45-64 years

65 years and older

3-)Marital Status

Single

Married

4-)Education Level

Primary school

Secondary school

University

Master's Degree

PhD

5-)Occupation

Employed

Student

Housewife

Unemployed

Retired

6-)Household Size

- One person
- Two people
- Three people
- Four people
- Five people and more

7-)Monthly income

- 0-1000 YTL
- 1000-2500 YTL
- 2500-5000 YTL
- 5000 YTL and more

PART 2

Please circle the box that corresponds to your response

1-)Frequency of travel

- No travel
- 1 time a year
- 2 times a year
- 3 times a year
- more than 3 times

2-)How many times have you been on a holiday in your life?

- 1-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- 21-25

3-)Who does accompany on your vacation?

- alone
- family members
- friends
- colleagues
- other (please write)

4-)How many of these holidays were individually organised (i.e. not package holidays)?

- 0
- 1-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- 21-25

5-)How many of these holidays were organized by a travel agency / another organizer?

- 0
- 1-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- 21-25

6-)What are the main reasons for your visit to this tourist destination?

- Rest and relaxation.
- Visiting relatives and friends.
- Business reasons.
- Attending a conference, congress, seminar, and other forms of educations.
- Culture.
- Fun.
- Sports and recreation.
- Health.
- Religious reasons.
- Other, what : _____

7-)How do you describe your holiday preference?

- I like adventurous holidays
- I'd rather do something active instead of doing nothing when I am on vacation
- I like stimulation and excitement when I am on vacation
- I like relaxing holidays
- I'd like to spend lots of time lying on a beach sunbathing,
- I like quiet and peaceful tourist destinations
- I would like to take off a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetable

8-)How many times have you had your holiday in the same destination (city, holiday town, etc)?

- 1-3
- 4-6
- 7-9
- 10-12
- 13 or more

9-)How many times have you stayed in the same accommodation establishment?

- 1-3
- 4-6
- 7-9
- 10-12
- 13 or more

10-)In general, you prefer to travel different destinations, just for a change

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Undecided
- Agree
- Strongly agree

11-)How satisfied were you during your most recent travel? Were you ...

- Extremely dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Extremely satisfied

12-)Would you prefer to visit same destination the next time? Are you ...

- Extremely uninterested in visit
- Uninterested in visit
- Undecided
- Interested in visit
- Extremely interested in visit

13-)When you change a holiday accommodation from one year to another

- I don't change a holiday accommodation from one year to another
- This is usually for fun and entertainment
- This is usually for impulsive purchase behaviour
- This is usually in order to explore strange places.
- This is usually to do with the fact that I was not happy with the holiday accommodation somehow (i.e. due to some sort of dissatisfaction with the accommodation)
- This is usually to do with the sales campaigns, advantages of other destinations.

14-)When you change a holiday destination from one year to another

- I don't change a holiday destination from one year to another
- This is usually for fun and entertainment
- This is usually for impulsive purchase behaviour
- This is usually in order to explore strange places.
- This is usually to do with the fact that I was not happy with the destination somehow (i.e. due to some sort of dissatisfaction with the destination)
- This is usually to do with the sales campaigns, advantages of other destinations.

15-) I enjoy taking chances in buying unfamiliar brands just to get some variety in my purchases

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Undecided
- Agree
- Strongly agree

16-)I often do things on impulse.

- True
- False

ANKET

Bu anket Dođuş Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü'nde gerçekleştirilen bir yüksek lisans tezinin uygulaması kapsamında yürütölmektedir. Zaman ayırdığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Meltem Aydınöđlu

BÖLÜM 1

Lütfen size uygun olan kutuyu işaretleyiniz.

1-) Cinsiyetiniz

- Kadın
 Erkek

2-)Yaşınız

- 16-24
 25-44
 45-64
 65 yaş ve üstü

3-)Medeni Durumunuz

- Bekar
 Evli

4-)Eđitiminiz

- ilköđretim
 Lise
 Lisans
 Yüksek Lisans
 Doktora

5-)Mesleğiniz

- Çalışan
 Öğrenci
 Ev hanımı ,
 İşsiz
 Emekli

6-)Hanedeki kişi sayısı

- 1 kişi
 2 kişi
 3 kişi
 4 kişi
 5 kişi ve üstü

7-)Aylık geliriniz

- 0-1000 YTL
 1000-2500 YTL
 2500-5000 YTL
 5000 YTL ve üstü

BÖLÜM 2

Lütfen size uygun olan kutuyu işaretleyiniz.

1-)Seyahat etme sıklığınız

- Hiç seyahat etmem
- Senede 1 defa seyahat ederim
- Senede 2 defa seyahat ederim
- Senede 3 defa seyahat ederim
- Senede 3'den fazla seyahat ederim

2-)Hayatınızda kaç kere tatile gittiniz?

- 1-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- 21-25

3-)Tatillerinizde size kim eşlik eder?

- Yanlız olurum
- Aile fertleri
- Arkadaşlarım
- İş arkadaşlarım
- Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz)

4-)Seyahatlerinizden kaç tanesini kendiniz organize ettiniz (herhangi bir seyahat acentesi vs. olmadan)?

- 0
- 1-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- 21-25

5-) Seyahatlerinizden kaç tanesini seyahat acentesi ya da başka bir organizatör vasıtasıyla satın aldınız?

- 0
 1-5
 6-10
 11-15
 16-20
 21-25

6-)Turistik bir yöreye gitmekteki temel amacınız nedir?

- Dinlenmek ve rahatlamak
 Akraba ve arkadaş ziyaretleri yapmak
 İş nedeniyle
 Konferans, kongre, seminer ya da başka eğitimlere katılmak
 Kültürel nedenler
 Eğlence
 Spor ve rekreasyon
 Sağlık
 Dini nedenler
 Diğer _____

7-)Tatil tercihinizi nasıl tanımlarsınız?

- Macera içeren tatillerden hoşlanırım
 Tatilde hiçbir şey yapmamak yerine aktif olmayı tercih ederim
 Tatilde kışkırtıcı ve heyecan verici deneyimlerden hoşlanırım
 Rahatlatıcı tatillerden hoşlanırım
 Zamanımın çoğunu güneşlenerek geçiririm
 Sessiz ve sakin turistik yöreleri tercih ederim
 Plansız ve programlanmamış tatillerden hoşlanırım

8-)Aynı tatil yöresine kaç kere gittiniz (şehir, tatil beldesi vs.)?

- 1-3
 4-6
 7-9
 10-12
 13 ve üstü

9-) Aynı turistik işletmede kaç kere konakladınız?

- 1-3
 4-6
 7-9
 10-12
 13 ve üstü

10-) Genel olarak farklı tatil yörelerini sadece değişiklik olsun diye seçerim.

- Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
 Katılmıyorum
 Kararsızım
 Katılıyorum
 Kesinlikle katılıyorum

11-) Son tatilinizden ne kadar memnun kaldınız?

- Hiç memnun kalmadım
 Memnun kalmadım
 Ne memnun kaldım ne de memnuniyetsizim
 Memnun kaldım
 Çok memnun kaldım

12-) Gelecek tatilinizde aynı tatil yöresine tekrar gitmek ister misiniz?

- Asla gitmek istemem
 Gitmem
 Kararsızım
 Gitmek isterim
 Kesinlikle çok isterim

13-) Her yıl farklı tatil işletmesini tercih etmenizden sebebi...

- Her yıl farklı tatil işletmesini tercih etmiyorum
 Sadece eğlence amaçlıdır
 Düşünmeden verilen satın alma kararından dolayıdır
 Yeni yerleri keşfetmek içindir
 Daha önceki tatil yöresindeki memnuniyetsizlikle ilgilidir
 Diğer tatil alternatiflerinin kampanya ve avantajlarından dolayıdır

14-)Her yıl farklı tatil yöresini tercih etmeniz sebebi

- Her yıl farklı tatil yöresini tercih etmiyorum
- Sadece eğlence amaçlıdır
- Düşünmeden verilen satın alma kararından dolayıdır
- Yeni yerleri keşfetmek içindir
- Daha önceki tatil yöresindeki memnuniyetsizlikle ilgilidir
- Diğer tatil alternatiflerinin kampanya ve avantajlarından dolayıdır

15-)Sadece çeşit olsun diye farklı markalar satın almaktan hoşlanırım.

- Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
- Katılmıyorum
- Kararsızım
- Katılıyorum
- Kesinlikle katılıyorum

16-)Genellikle dürtülerle hareket ederim.

- Evet
- Hayır

CIRRICULUM VITAE

The researcher was born February 1, 1978 in Istanbul. She completed elementary, middle, and high school education in Istanbul. She graduated from Bilkent University, Faculty of Economics, Administrative and Social Sciences in Ankara with a degree of Bachelor of Arts in Political Science and Public Administration in June, 2001. After completing her university education, she worked for an international insurance company and in PR sector. In September, 2008 she started studying at Dogus University in order to obtain her master degree. She is married and has a child .