

3 Tourist Behaviour and Tourism Motivation

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Introduction

Studies on travel behaviour and tourism motivation concentrate on the tourists and the decision-making process through which they go when booking a holiday. Why do people travel? Why do many British travel to Spain, but not many Spanish to Britain? Why are Germans number one in international travelling, but only a small percentage of Americans own a passport? Why do Afro-Americans travel to African countries and many South Americans to Spain? Why does it seem that American and Japanese tourists travel the whole of Europe in only 2 weeks? Why do only young people travel to Lloret de Mar in Spain? These are just some of many questions that we seek answers for when studying travel activities from a sociological and psychological point of view.

Consumer behaviour is central here as it gives information on the stages that a tourist goes through before booking and how the tourist's background informs the decisions made, while travel behaviour theories explain how tourists behave and in what kind of activities they participate while on holiday. Tourism motivation theories seek to answer why tourists travel and the underlying psychological processes. While these seem simple enough questions, discussions and theories are wide and varied. There is no universally accepted theory, but several frameworks have been offered to understand consumer behaviour, travel behaviour and tourism motivation. At a personal level, no two individuals are alike and there are significant differences in attitudes, perceptions and motivation. An individual's perception of

travelling depends on the individual's perception of the world, but is further determined by a range of external factors such as their childhood, family, work and the media, as well as wider societal and cultural influences.

Despite the difficulty of homogenizing the tourist as a consumer, it is important to the management of tourism to understand the way in which consumers make decisions and consume tourism activities while appreciating the diversity of demand, particularly for the marketing of tourism products and services where an understanding of tourist consumption and consumer behaviour is essential. If we understand what makes the consumer tick, we can cater for their needs and provide the right product and service. It also helps explain why certain types of holiday can be more successful than others and what new products and services might prove popular.

This chapter outlines the decision-making process in tourism consumption before introducing ideas on travel behaviour and tourism motivation from both psychological and sociological perspectives. The chapter also introduces tourist typologies that help us to understand the role of the consumer within the decision-making process and to take personality into account.

Consumer Behaviour and the Decision-making Process

The tourist as a consumer purchases goods and services for personal consumption. The decision process consists of five stages (Kotler *et al.*,

2010). First, there is the recognition of a need; the potential tourist senses a difference between his/her actual state and his/her desired state. This need can be triggered by internal stimuli and from experience – the person has learned what objects, products or services may satisfy this need. The need can also be triggered by external stimuli, through friends, families and other social networks or advertising messages. The theories of tourism motivation that are discussed later provide a valuable insight.

The second stage involves information searching. Some consumers might not search for more information because the consumer's drive is strong and a suitable product/service is near at hand. Information can be obtained from a wide range of sources, such as personal sources (family, friends, neighbours, acquaintances, colleagues), commercial sources (advertising, sales people, displays, other marketing material) or public sources (reviews, newspapers).

Once the customer has gathered sufficient information, the third stage of decision making is the evaluation of alternatives. Given the competitive nature of the tourism industry, there is usually a range of products and services catering for similar needs and the consumer has to decide on one product, service, brand or holiday. The evaluation depends on needs and, as tourism products and services are a combination of different elements or attributes, it depends on what element or attribute caters more towards that need. The consumer attaches different levels of importance to and expects different levels of satisfaction from each of these elements or attributes. Subsequently, the consumer ranks the products or services and forms a purchase intention.

Once the purchase intention is clear, the consumer chooses the most preferred product or services during the purchase decision stage. However, attitudes of others (such as partners, children, friends, family or other social networks) and unexpected situations (increased price, loss of income, illness or other external factors beyond the consumer's control) will have an impact before the purchase is actually made.

The fifth and final stage is post-purchase behaviour. Once a product or service has been purchased and consumed, the consumer will be

satisfied or dissatisfied. This in turn depends on the relationship between the expectation the consumer had pre-purchase and the perceived performance of the product or service. If expectations are met or exceeded, the customer is satisfied. If the product or service falls short, customer dissatisfaction is the result. Although this seems straightforward, expectations are not that clear as consumers base their expectations on past experiences, social influences and other information sources. A range of messages about the product or service reach the consumer on a conscious and subconscious level and therefore impact on the expectations. The larger the gap between expectations and product or service performance, the higher the customer dissatisfaction and the less likely it is that the consumer will buy the same product or service again (Kotler *et al.*, 2010).

To complicate this further, the consumer and his/her purchase behaviour are influenced by cultural, social, personal and psychological characteristics. Societies are made up of small groups or large populations – what makes them a society is the interrelationship that connects them; they are united by structured social relationships and share a unique culture. The British society shares the British culture, which distinguishes it from the culture of French society. Cultural factors are the most basic determinants of a person's behaviour as society influences the person from childhood through to old age. While culture can be tangible (in terms of food, art and clothing), it is also manifested in the beliefs and values that a person holds and influences how we think, how we act, how we make decisions, how we travel and how we behave in social situations. This extends to the demand for tourism. Culture (white, black, Asian) or religion (Christian, Muslim, Hindu) can determine the demand for certain types of holidays (e.g. Afro-Americans travelling to Africa to discover their heritage origin; religious festivals attracting members from different parts of the country/world) and we can further identify the influences of subcultures (determined through linguistic, aesthetic, religious, political, sexual or geographical factors or a combination of factors). Further social networks that can have an influence on the tourist are primary groups

such as family, friends or colleagues as the consumer interacts with them on a daily basis. However, secondary groups (e.g. religious groups or professional associations) can also impact on the consumer decision-making process.

Demographics such as age, gender and social class influence consumer behaviour as people within a given class or age group tend to exhibit similar behaviours, tastes and preferences for certain products, services or information sources. Personal factors play a central role as life-cycle, occupation, level of income, lifestyle and personality have a significant influence when it comes to choosing a holiday. Consumer classifications are used by marketers to identify and design products and services that cater for certain consumer segments. For example, if we take age as a factor, youth tourism and the student market are characterized by tourism offers such as gap travel, backpacking and activity holidays. The silver market, or consumers aged over 55 years, has entirely different preferences when it comes to choosing a holiday – more attention is paid to comfort and learning about cultures.

Social and cultural influences are not mutually exclusive; they combine. One pressure can be more explicit than the other, and while some are obvious in determining the type of holiday chosen, others are more subconscious and the tourist might not be aware of the influence certain aspects, such as culture, have on them. We can call those economic, technological, social, cultural and political factors within any society *determinants*. Because these drive or set limits on travel demand, they determine the volume of a population's demand to travel.

After outlining the consumer decision-making process, it is now worth looking into more detail at how tourists behave while on holiday and why they choose certain types of holidays. First, tourism behaviour is outlined by introducing roles and typologies of tourists as these are, similarly to the consumer decision-making process, determined by their social environment. This allows us to characterize tourists into different categories and explain and predict consumer behaviour within tourism. Second, in contrast to the more sociological

differentiation of tourists, we then look at tourist motivation from a more psychological perspective, which looks in more detail at why tourists travel.

Tourist Roles and Typologies

Sunlust/wanderlust

A first distinction is provided by Gray (1970), who took the purpose of the trip as the key differentiation and categorizes tourists into *sunlust* and *wanderlust* tourists. While *sunlust* is essentially about rest and relaxation in the form of the 3 Ss in tourism (sun, sea and sand), *wanderlust* is characterized by a desire to explore and experience people and culture. As a result, it can be argued that *sunlust* tourists seek pleasant climates, comfort and familiar aspects from home without too much excitement because the focus is on a relaxing, hassle-free holiday. *Wanderlust* tourists are seeking more entertainment on holiday in forms of local cultures because experiences and learning are central to the holiday. This first attempt at differentiating different types of tourists is useful and can be used as a basic form of market segmentation. It describes the demand for tourism, but does not give us much explanation of tourism behaviour. Subsequent typologies have expanded this differentiation.

Venturers (allocentric)/dependables (psychocentric)

Plog (2001) divided tourists into simple categories using personality traits to identify tourist types. The key factors that distinguish different tourists are the level of travel and the nature of the travel experience. The original distinction was between allocentric and psychocentric tourists and this is still the model widely used in tourism textbooks. However, Plog updated his classical study and replaced allocentrics with 'venturers' and psychocentrics with 'dependables'.

First, the venturers (or allocentric tourists) are confident and adventurous, seeking challenges and new experiences, and are prepared

to take risks. They are confident and energetic people who make decisions quickly, easily and often independently without relying on other people's opinions. As they are intellectually curious, they travel more frequently and go on relatively long trips. When they travel, they use all modes of transport and, compared to other tourists, are more frequent flyers. When on holiday, venturers prefer unconventional or local accommodation and they are more ready to spend their disposable income – any purchases they make are mostly authentic local arts and crafts. These can be found in long-haul destinations or off the beaten track in exotic and unusual destinations that have not been discovered by the tourism trade. Engagement with locals and participation in local customs and cultures as well as active past times are central to their holiday experience. As venturers are rather independent and make individual arrangements, they avoid routines or organized, pre-arranged group tours.

Dependables (or psychocentric tourists) are the opposite. They are less adventurous, home loving and prefer familiar surroundings and safety. They travel less frequently and stay for shorter periods. Dependables are cautious and more conservative, and avoiding risk is a central part of their nature. They tend to rely on relatively known brands as the popularity of these brands indicates a safe choice. They visit popular domestic attractions, international mass tourism resorts or other touristy spots where they feel comfortable being surrounded by family, friends or other tourists. When travelling they prefer a home-from-home environment and preferred transportation is their own car or caravans, with limited use of flights. Accommodation reflects the general personality traits and they prefer mobile homes, hotels or motels. On holiday, dependables spend less money and purchases are dominated by souvenirs as a visual reminder of their holiday. As they are less confident, dependables are rather passive and non-demanding. They engage in little activity while on holiday (or only in familiar recreational activities) and prefer the structure and routine of package holidays, guided tours and all-inclusive resorts. In general, dependables travel with family and friends, and they are most likely to return to destinations they have been to before.

This dichotomy presents two extreme types of personality and tourist behaviour, and it would be too difficult to put most individuals into either one of these categories. The largest number of tourists is situated between the two extremes (see Fig. 3.1) and can be identified as dependable, near-dependable, centric-dependable, centric-venturer, near-venturer and venturer. The numbers for the two extremes are relatively low, with the majority of travellers found to be centric-dependables or centric-venturers.

Plog's original idea placed a lot of emphasis on the geographical location of destinations and used (American) tourists to link the tourist types to different destinations (e.g. dependables travelling to beach resorts, centrics to Europe and Hawaii and venturers to Africa and Antarctica). The concept is also applicable to the destination lifecycle (see Chapter 1). An underdeveloped destination is most attractive to venturers, and during the course of becoming a developed tourism destination it becomes more appealing to centrics first and dependables later. Furthermore, Plog later revised the concept to include types of holidays and thereby removed the geographical focus. While most types of holidays are tried and tested by venturers first, they later have mass tourism appeal. Interestingly, cruise tourism offers a different example as it used to be a holiday mainly aimed at dependables, but recent changes (unusual itineraries, smaller boats and more on- and off-shore activities) has made it a suitable holiday for centrics and near-venturers.

Cohen's typology

Cohen's (1972) typology of tourists identifies four different categories based on the tourist's relationship with the tourism industry and the destination and bases them along a continuum, with familiarity on one end and strangerhood on the other. Cohen suggested that all tourists travel within an environmental bubble and are determined by their home environment, society and culture – the degree to which the home environment determines the tourist results in different reactions to and preferences for new places and cultures. In other words, not all tourists are equally constrained by the

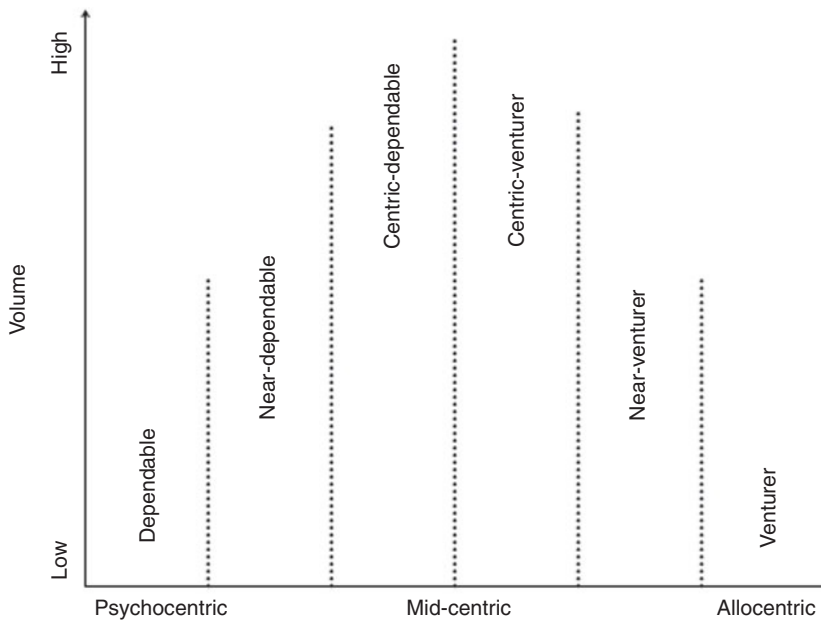


Fig. 3.1. Psychographic personality types – dependable to venturer. (Adapted from Plog, 2001.)

environmental bubble; similarly to Plog's idea, some prefer experiences and places that remind them of their home environment, whereas others are more adventurous and seek out more exciting experiences and places.

The organized mass tourist prefers highly organized package holidays, which are characterized by prearranged itineraries and familiar surroundings. This is the least adventurous type of tourist who prefers to stay within his/her own country or, if travelling abroad, in Westernized hotels and the environment and infrastructure created, supplied and maintained by the tourism industry. This tourist depends on the 'tourist bubble' and prefers all-inclusive, fully packaged holidays that provide the familiar. Any novelty, if sought, is highly controlled.

The individual mass tourist tends to rely heavily on the tourist infrastructure and uses institutionalized facilities (e.g. scheduled flights, tour operator and travel agency services and bookings, transfers) but is more independent than the previous type in that he/she exercises a greater degree of personal choice and does not rely completely on what the industry presents as an option. As much as possible is arranged before leaving home, and when on holiday this

tourist visits the same sights as mass tourists but still retains control of the itinerary.

These first two types are also described as institutionalized tourist types, indicating the heavy influence of the tourism industry in organizing, planning and controlling the travel. Trips are booked with tour operators and while on holiday these types tend to stay on the beaten track without venturing too far from the security of the tourist infrastructure. Domestic tourism and mass tourism within mid- and long-haul destinations are mostly characterized by these types of tourist.

The next two are non-institutionalized tourist types, indicating the individual nature of travelling and its organization. The explorer is an independent traveller who every now and then makes use of the tourist infrastructure, but prefers to travel off the beaten track and engage more with locals. Travel arrangements are made individually and inspiration for activities comes mainly from travel articles, but not so much from brochures. This tourist is keen to stay 'off the beaten track' and only moves back to the 'tourist bubble' if it gets too tough – for the most part of the journey he/she will try to escape the environmental bubble, but every now and then

a certain level of comfort and security is required. Finally, the drifter is completely independent and in close contact with locals. There is no fixed itinerary and every attempt is made to immerse in local culture, living and working with locals. Drifters try to avoid any tourism honey pots and the tourism industry as much as possible and instead seek novelty and excitement at all cost, possibly even seeking danger and discomfort

Smith (1989) identified seven tourist types and in what can thus be considered an extension of Cohen's typology, but the establishment is based purely on numbers and the frequency by which these tourist types can be observed. The explorer is the smallest segment, which is not seen very often. This tourist accepts local traditions and cultures fully. Also rarely seen is the elite tourist, who is able to adapt fully to any local traditions and cultures. The off-beat tourist is rather uncommon and adapts well. The unusual tourist occurs occasionally and adapts in part. The incipient mass tourist is more common than the previous types of tourists and 'seeks' (meaning that individual efforts are being made to contribute to the holiday experience), while the mass tourist is arguably the most common tourist nowadays who 'expects' (meaning that minimal effort is coming from the tourist). The last type, the charter, appears in massive numbers and 'demands'.

Having outlined Cohen's, Smith's and Plog's typology, we can also identify overlaps between the different theories, particular if a familiarity–novelty continuum is used (see Fig. 3.2).

Although these typologies are rather useful in understanding the behaviour, characteristics and personal traits of tourists, and can therefore be useful from a marketing perspective in identifying market segments and developing suitable products and services, we have to take a critical stance towards them. These typologies are rather simplistic and based on observable behaviour, but they do not tell us anything about the reasons for this behaviour. Furthermore, they tend to make assumptions about characteristics as well as personality traits. In some cases, they may be very stereotypical.

The differentiation between certain types is not very distinct. For example, in Smith's typology there is little distinction between the mass tourist and the charter tourist. Social

influences such as travel experience, age, gender or income are not taken into account. Furthermore, the models should not be considered as static as the tourist is likely to move between the different classifications, thus the models are more like continuums. Quite often, the more allocentric tourists (or what Cohen and Smith labelled as drifters, explorers and off-beat tourists) pave the way for mass tourism to be developed. For example, Goa in India used to be visited by only a few travellers, but has now become a mass tourism destination.

The more experienced tourists are in travelling, the more likely they will change their preferences and travel behaviour. Taking Plog's dichotomy as an example, the 'old tourist' has more resemblance with the dependable, psychocentric tourist, while the 'new tourist' (or the modern traveller) shares more characteristics with the venturer, allocentric tourist. Advances in technology have resulted in tourists being able to book their own holidays without relying on tour operators and travel agencies. The internet allows easy access to information about potential destinations, products and services, while developments in transportation allow easy access to these destinations. These developments are coupled with the rise of budget airlines and the wider globalization processes that influence tourism development and have resulted in tourism as a whole being more accessible and the world becoming a global village in which even the remotest places are easier to reach.

This also highlights a complication with the typologies in that there is less room for venturers, explorers or independent travellers to find these experiences. While there is an increasingly large number of independent travellers, they still rely on the tourism industry. Backpackers are a good example as they display the characteristics of the explorer or a venturer. They do not have a fixed itinerary, rely on specialist travel guides (e.g. Lonely Planet and Rough Guides) and try to avoid the mass tourism infrastructure as much as possible. However, they often follow popular tourist trails and in many countries (e.g. South-east Asia and South America), backpacking itself has become a mass tourism industry with a well-established tourism infrastructure. This is a different tourism infrastructure in that it does not have the resorts and Western chain hotels,

Smith (1989)	Cohen (1972)	Plog (2001)	Familiarity ↑ ↓ Novelty
Charter tourist	Organized mass tourist	Dependables/ Psychocentric	
Mass tourist		-----	
Incipient Mass tourist	Individual mass tourist	Near – dependables/ psychocentric	

Unusual tourist		Midcentric	
Off-beat tourist	Explorer	-----	
Elite tourist		Near-venturer/ allocentric	
Explorers	Drifter	-----	
		Venturers/ Allocentric	

Fig. 3.2. Tourist typologies. (Adapted from Cohen, 1972; Smith, 1989; Plog, 2001.)

but it caters for the needs of the individual traveller in the form of professionally run backpacker hostels and many independent tour operators, thus becoming a more institutionalized form of tourism.

Following on from the changes in tourists, there are further discussions to take into account. There is a long-standing debate around the meaning of tourism and the difference between a traveller and a tourist. Historically, little distinction has been made between the two, but with more places being developed as tourism destinations and the advance of mass tourism and a globally well-established tourism industry and infrastructure, Boorstin (1961) was one of the first critics of mass tourists (see also Chapter 4) and lamented the decline of the traveller as a result of the tourist. While travellers are considered to be active and not shying away from adventure and strenuous travel arrangements as part of their experience, the tourist has become a synonym for a pleasure seeker who is passive and expects everything to be done to and for him/her. This differentiation goes beyond behaviour and extends to philosophical differences and diverse ideologies with opposing ideas on tourism and travelling and reflects wider

discussions on tourism and tourism development. Similarly to mass tourism being blamed for the negative impacts that it brings to local communities and reinforcing social distinction between tourists and locals, the word ‘tourist’ itself has received negative connotations and is used derogatorily by travellers. Just as the tourism industry is blamed for commodifying local culture and heritage by packaging it into attractive holidays, tourists and their assumed travel behaviour are criticized for not taking an interest in local life and destinations and therefore reflecting characteristics of the psychocentric/old tourist. However, as outlined above, it is questionable whether a differentiation between the two is adequate. Given that tourists can change their preferences over time and might book different holidays during their travel career, any tourist can become a traveller. Furthermore, ‘traveller’ seems to be a label that those who oppose the institutionalized tourist give themselves, but they cannot consider themselves not to be tourists if they make use of the tourism infrastructure (or use the same infrastructure that is used by the tourism industry – e.g. in the forms of transport used and the sights visited). From a tourist

industry perspective, if we compare a 2-week holiday in the sun organized by a large tour operator to a 6-month overland trip by a more specialist tour operator, the whole differentiation between traveller and tourist does not make any difference to the tourism industry, as the process of packaging remains the same – only the style is different. Instead of opposing tourist versus traveller, we should consider these two types along a continuum that opens the possibility for each individual to be a tourist or a traveller, or we should consider the traveller to be another type of tourist (or vice versa).

Similarly, and following on from the criticisms of mass tourists, new niches of tourism and new tourism developments highlight further discussions. While mass tourism is still very popular, new types of tourism are increasing in popularity. Many of these are under the heading of 'sustainability' and new types of tourists are emerging, such as 'the good tourist', the 'responsible tourist' and the 'green tourist'. Special-interest tourists are also on the rise, such as 'cultural tourists', 'nature enthusiasts' and 'adventure tourists'. On the one hand, these could be considered as more the venturer or non-institutionalized tourist type as they are more interested in the local community and culture and therefore benefit locals more directly, instead of relying on the profit-driven tourism industry and its infrastructure. However, considering them to be less institutionalized is wrong, as new types of tourism rely on the existing tourism infrastructure. Although they might engage in different activities, they still enjoy the comfort and security of the tourist bubble. Furthermore, it is wrong to assume that these tourists are 'better' and culturally more sensitive than mass tourists, as closer interaction with the local community might result in more direct benefits, but also more intense interaction and subsequent negative impacts on the local culture and environment. Hence, niche tourists are different, but no better.

The Tourist Gaze

Having discussed some key concepts of tourist typologies, it is worth pointing out one final concept. The tourist gaze, proposed by Urry

(2002), has received substantial attention. The tourist gaze can be argued to form part of tourist motivation as it results in a need to gaze on sights, places and people that are unusual.

Urry's (2002) idea of the tourist gaze originates from the activity any tourist engages in when being on holiday, namely the importance of the visual gaze: we look at places, we look at people, we look at landscapes and buildings and we look at performances. Tourists choose to travel in order to see and experience something different to their usual daily routine, and the visual consumption is inherent to any travel experience. Why do we decide and go to travel to Paris? We want to see the Eiffel Tower, the Mona Lisa in the Louvre and ideally two people kissing as they represent the romantic Paris. Why do we decide to travel to London? We want to see the attractions and museums that London is famous for. Why do we travel to the Amazon? We want to see the natural landscape of the jungle and hopefully catch a glimpse of some Indian tribes living there. Central to the concept of the tourist gaze is the distinction between the ordinary and extraordinary. Attractions are marked as being worth seeing – they have undergone a process of what MacCannell refers to as site sacralization – a sight is named, framed and elevated, enshrined, reproduced mechanically (in forms of souvenirs) as well as socially (in forms of new sights being established and naming themselves after the original sight). Attractions can be unique objects, such as the Eiffel Tower, the Grand Canyon, Buckingham Palace or the Tower of Pisa. But there are also particular signs the tourists are looking for: the typical English village, the typical German beer garden, the typical Italian trattoria, the typical Amsterdam coffee house. Another example listed by Urry is seeing ordinary aspects in an unusual context, such as everyday routines in China as a communist country. Finally, even carrying out everyday activities on holiday (e.g. shopping, eating, drinking) is extraordinary as these are influenced by the visual gaze of an unusual environment.

Urry has differentiated between the romantic and collective gaze. The romantic form of the tourist gaze is characterized by the solitude, privacy and personal relationships with the object of the gaze. In contrast, the

collective gaze places emphasis on the people who are present when looking at the object. For example, if you travel up the mountains and see beautiful landscape, you can enjoy it on your own – in fact, if there are too many other people present, it will affect the quality of the experience (this has some overlaps with perceptual carrying capacity, see Chapter 6). Thus, this type of attraction necessitates a solitary, romantic gaze. The collective gaze in turn necessitates the presence of other people – if you attend a festival, all other visitors are essential to the atmosphere and attractiveness of this event. Or travelling to larger cities, where the unique attractiveness is the cosmopolitan character – it would be eerie if you were there on your own and you would not enjoy the experience.

The idea of the tourist gaze has been criticized and developed over the years. Much emphasis is placed on the visual aspects, whereas travelling obviously includes physical and corporeal experiences, touching all senses (think of the importance of eating local food to some tourists, going on wine-tasting trips or the soundscapes when travelling to Latin American countries because of interest in music). Furthermore, limiting the tourist experience to the gaze may also fail to identify the 'second gaze', which goes beyond the superficial experience and realizes that there are things unseen and unsaid that are part of the experience. In contrast, as travelling is inherently about being mobile and on the move with limited time available, tourists have been criticized for not even gazing, but just glancing, having become even more superficial in their holiday experiences (think of the American and Japanese tourists travelling through Europe and visiting 12 countries in 3 weeks because of their tight schedules).

Tourist Motivations

So far, typologies have been introduced that serve to describe and observe tourist behaviour. However, as has been criticized, these typologies do not explain why tourists choose to go on a holiday and why they engage in certain behaviour. At this point, let us turn our

attention to motivation theories. Motivation is a state of need or a condition that causes the tourist to take action – in the case of tourism motivation, to take a holiday that is likely to bring satisfaction by addressing the aforementioned state of need or condition. Studying tourist motivation seeks to answer why people want to travel and, if they travel, why they travel to certain destinations and why they engage in certain activities while on holiday. Motivation to travel can be explained as a result of a psychological need (of which the tourist may not even be aware) or through the purpose or choice of the trip. When we refer to the internal factors within individuals, expressed as needs, wants and/or desires, that influence tourism choices, we speak of motivators. No two persons are the same – each individual has a different attitude and different personality, and thus a different motivation to travel. This makes the study of motivation difficult and challenging, but interesting at the same time as we can make some generalizations. However, one has to bear in mind that the motivation to travel is very often subject to societal values, norms and pressures, which are internalized and then become psychological needs. Thus, you can find some overlaps in sociological approaches, mentioned above, and psychological concepts, which are examined next. Travel motivation can be a complex area of research; however, it plays an essential part in the decision-making process. Having determined consumer behaviour and influences on the decision-making process above, we can now turn to investigate different theories on tourism motivation.

Escape-seeking and anomie-enhancement

Iso-Ahola (1982) proposed tourism motivation to be composed of both escape and seeking. While tourists are pushed to escape routine environments, they seek intrinsic rewards. These two motives are not mutually exclusive, but rather act simultaneously. Furthermore, with this idea Iso-Ahola suggested that tourism motivation has both a psychological (personal) and a social (inter-personal) component. Subsequently, he proposed four dimensions – personal seeking, personal escape, interpersonal

seeking and interpersonal escape – that act as push factors and the driving force for tourism behaviour. Similarly, Dann (1977) argued that both social and psychological factors influence tourist motivation. The tourist is in a state of anomie within his own society and daily environment, which he seeks to address by going on holiday to achieve a state of ego-enhancement. In both cases, the tourist expects some kind of reward while being away from their usual environment. Travel is motivated by the expectation of being able to enhance or boost ego and status and the possibility of indulging in behaviour that would not be possible within daily life. The key difference is that Dann assumed that escape is socially determined, while Iso-Ahola argued that the need for escape is driven by psychological circumstances.

These two concepts build on the idea of push/pull factors and further highlight the idea that tourism motivation is essentially about addressing needs and the disequilibrium within the tourist's mind. However, these two concepts do not give us any indication regarding possible motivations or what exactly the tourist needs in order to address this equilibrium. Crompton (1979) attempted to address this in his research and suggested seven psychological (push) motives (escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships and facilitation of social interaction) and two cultural (pull) motives (novelty and education). At this point, it is worth introducing one of the key theories on motivation, namely Maslow's hierarchy of need, explaining how this can be applied to tourism.

Push/pull factors

Following from Iso-Ahola's and Dann's concepts, push/pull factors have become a central idea to explain tourist motivation. Pull factors can be described as destination-specific attributes or outer motivations – attractions or the destination as a whole is so attractive that it is 'pulling' the tourist towards it. During the information collection stage of the decision-

making process, the prospective tourist will have gathered plenty of information about the holiday or destination and attractive products and services will serve as pull factors that influence the final decision. The push factors are internal or inner motivations and the factors that influence an individual when making a decision. These are described as person-specific motivations (e.g. needs, preferences). In this case, aspects such as accommodation, restaurants, entertainment facilities or similar elements of the holiday are not of much relevance to the tourist. Instead, the person just feels the need to 'get away' from his/her current whereabouts.

Although this theory is easily applicable, there are some problems in identifying which factor has more influence on the decision or which comes into play first. Generally, it is the push factors that lead to the decision, but the pull factors can play an equally important role in influencing the final decision. For example, if someone wants to visit one of his two brothers, the push factor is the internal need for love and affection. Assuming that the level of affection and relationship with the brothers is the same, but one of the brother lives near a beautiful beach and the other in noisy and dirty city, the pull factors (beach/city) could be the deciding factor. Similarly, if someone seeks a holiday to relax at the beach, the push factor starts the searching process for various beach holidays, and once enough information on different destinations is available, the pull factors come into play by making one destination more attractive than the alternatives. However, just as the consumer decision-making process is influenced by social, cultural and economic determinants, these determinants can influence push and pull factors.

Maslow's hierarchy of need and its application to tourism

Maslow's hierarchy of need (1943) is considered to be the most influential theory on motivation in general and is easily applicable to tourism motivation. Maslow identified five different needs, namely physiological (thirst, hunger, sleep, sex), safety (security, stability, protection), social (love, affection, belongingness,

interpersonal relationships), esteem (self-esteem, self-respect, prestige, status) and self-actualization (growth, advancement, creativity). It is assumed that lower needs have to be satisfied first before the higher needs become relevant – as long as you are hungry, you are not interested in meeting friends; if you are feeling lonely, it is more important to find social belonging before you concentrate on developing yourself as a person or within your career. Of course this is a rather simplified argument, but explains the essential idea of Maslow and the hierarchy of need. When applying Maslow's hierarchy of need to tourism, the central idea of one area of need being more dominant than the other is still valid. For some tourists, relaxation (and addressing physiological needs) is the key driver in choosing a holiday at the beach. Others visit friends and relatives in order to address the need for love and affection or go travelling to make new friends. Some use their travels to boost their self-esteem and develop skills by engaging in activities and learning about new cultures. Certain types of holidays and destinations carry a certain connotation of luxury with themselves and tourists might choose these to enhance their status and show off to their social networks. However, unlike Maslow suggests, it is not necessarily the lower-end needs that drive tourism motivation; rather, any of the needs can become the driving force. Hence, the hierarchical nature is not applicable. Motivations overlap and the application of this theory is limited.

Travel career ladder

Based on Maslow's hierarchy, Pearce (1988) developed the travel motivation theory that is referred to as the travel career ladder (TCL). This suggests that tourist motivation consists of five different levels and the needs of travellers can be organized into a hierarchy or ladder. At the lowest level, we find relaxation needs; stimulation needs are at the second level, relationship needs at the third level and self-esteem/development and fulfilment needs at the fourth and fifth levels, respectively. This is easily applicable to tourism: tourists might be motivated to go travelling to satisfy their need

for rest and relaxation (hence satisfying physiological needs) or they might visit friends and families to satisfy their social needs. Each level of needs can be divided into two further categories: self-directed and directed at others. For example, relaxation needs that are self-directed focus on the need for bodily reconstitution and relaxation, and concentrate on the tourist themselves. Other-directed relaxation needs in turn require other people to cater for the satisfaction of these needs, through external excitement and novelty. Similarly, relationship needs can be self-directed by visiting friends and family to maintain relationships and give love and affection, whereas other-directed needs are more concerned with initiating relationships (meeting new people), receiving affection or being part of a group. Tourists might take part in a special interest or activity holiday to learn and develop new skills, thus they are motivated by self-esteem or self-actualization needs.

Tourists are not considered to have only one level of need, but instead one set of needs in the ladder acts as the most dominant one. The word 'career' suggests that tourists systematically move through the stages or have predictable travel patterns. Some may ascend the ladder, while others may remain at one particular level. A core idea to the TCL is that tourist motivation changes with travel experience; depending on previous travels or life stage, different needs are prevalent and influence tourism motivation. When a tourist travels overseas for the first time, a major concern might be relaxation within a safe environment. The more experienced traveller might start exploring and may become more curious about local culture and history, or even seek a sense of identification with the place.

While the TCL is easily applicable, there are some shortcomings to the theory. First, Pearce argued that stimulation needs are placed along a continuum of risk and safety and the primary focus is safety of self or others. However, there is a real and distinctive difference between these, as either putting one's own safety at risk to help others or the conscious seeking of risk requires a level of personality that does not fit onto the ladder or where another level of need is far more dominant. Second, as tourist motivation is argued to be the desire to leave an environment

behind and seek an intrinsic reward, the role of the tourist can change while on holiday. While originally looking to relax, the tourist might become bored after a couple of days and start exploring the environment, hence addressing a different level of need within a short period of time. Coinciding with Maslow’s idea, the satisfaction of one need can create awareness of another need that has not been met. Third, tourism demand in general has changed towards several holidays per year and each holiday is assigned a specific function – for example, one holiday is focused on entertaining the children, while a second involves sporting activities and a third might be for visiting extended family. Each holiday caters for a different need. As outlined above, life stage plays another role when deciding to book a holiday (Ryan, 2002).

Motivation by purpose

Travel motivators can also be explained in relation to the purpose of the holiday taken. Referring back to push/pull factors, this approach takes the purpose as the key motivating force. MacIntosh *et al.* (1990) proposed five categories of motivations that reflect the ideas of Maslow’s hierarchy (Table 3.1).

As an example, linking these ideas back to the discussion on cultural heritage and its influence on travel behaviour, heritage itself is a suitable example of a motivator by purpose. Tourists might travel to sites because they consider them to be part of their heritage or they might travel to heritage sites that are not necessarily connected to their own heritage. Italian tourists visiting the Colosseum in Rome might have different motivations to travel there than German tourists.

Further Research

As is clear in this chapter, a range of tourism motivation theories has been proposed and many studies have used, borrowed and adapted these theories within different tourism contexts. What is evident within current tourism research is that most concepts are now applied to niche tourism. As motivation and typologies are useful for market segmentation purposes, further differentiation of motivation is attempted within different market segments and tourism types. For example, studies have been carried out among gay tourists (Clift and Forrest, 1999), wellness tourists (Chen *et al.*, 2008) and senior travellers (Jang and Wu, 2006). Furthermore, the recent rise in popular tourism concepts such as film tourism and dark

Table 3.1. Travel motivation.

Travel motivator	Explanation
Physical	Physical motivators indicate the need for physical activities. This can be either the need for rest, relaxation and simple things like getting a suntan or the need for active participation in exercises and health-related activities – any activity motivated by the desire for reducing tension or refreshing the body while on holiday
Emotional	Emotional motivators indicate the influence of emotions on travel behaviour and may include travelling activities related to romance, adventure, spirituality, escapism or nostalgia
Cultural	Cultural motivators indicate the need or desire to explore and learn about the destination, its culture and heritage, or to generally expand one’s horizons and knowledge by travelling to new places
Interpersonal	Interpersonal motivators indicate the need for maintaining existing relationships or developing new relationships. This includes visits to family, friends and relatives, or the holiday is taken in order to meet new people
Status and prestige	Travelling is motivated by the desire for enhancing ones status and receiving attention and appreciation from others, but can also include travelling for the purpose of personal development (e.g. increasing knowledge or learning new skills)

tourism (see Chapters 14 and 15, respectively) have sparked more interest in motivation and seeking to adapt theories to more specialist types of tourism. Nevertheless, there are some areas that still beg further clarification and invite more in-depth research. Particular determinants and factors influencing the individual provide endless opportunities for research.

While tourism motivation assumes that all tourists have the potential to travel and engage in activities while in holiday, research on barriers and constraints to tourist motivation and decision making is still rather limited. For example, physical and mental disability can prevent people from travelling or change their motivation. The tourist gaze is a very central idea to travelling, but there have only recently been more investigations that challenge the visual focus and incorporate the role of other senses into the tourist experience. Furthermore, are tourism motivations completely obsolete if we refer to non-travellers? Reasons for not travelling can give further insight into tourism motivation.

Similarly, as highlighted above, cultural differences also influence tourism motivation; hence, cross-cultural comparison of traveller motivation presents further opportunities for study. Culture not only influences tourism motivation and tourist behaviour, but most motivation theories have a very Western-centric approach as they originate from Western research. While it is generally assumed that these motivation theories are universally applicable, different cultural philosophies and research paradigms can offer alternative explanations. On a different note, tourism in general borrows heavily from other disciplines (e.g. geography, business, law, anthropology), which makes the study of tourism both a vice and a joy. In the case of tourism motivation, theorists look unsurprisingly at social psychology to explain travel behaviour. Further theories are available that can be adapted – both from sociology and psychology, but also from other disciplines – and added to the body of explanations.

In line with technological advances and globalization processes, current studies challenge the traditional definition of tourism as a temporary movement. As the physical movement has become so easy, new generations are

establishing connections with many localities and the concept of 'home' or 'origin' becomes less and less valid to these global nomads. While the majority of young people might take a gap year, a growing number of people work and live in different corners of the world for short periods of time without necessarily settling down. If there is no home or mundane, daily environment that can be escaped, then what is sought? Similarly, as the internet presents us with the world on a silver plate and allows us to travel it virtually, how does tourism motivation apply here?

Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of the key tourism behaviour and motivation theories. While some theories (such as that of Maslow) have been adopted for tourism purposes, others have proposed concepts that are purely tourism focused. Consumer behaviour in general is important to marketing and promotion of tourism products and services, and understanding the tourist consumer is essential for tourism organizations to survive and succeed. However, identifying tourist motivation is not straightforward and, as the chapter has highlighted, a range of factors and determinants influence tourist behaviour and tourism motivation.

Central to the idea of tourism motivation is the idea that motivation is about satisfying one's needs. Needs can be intrinsic or extrinsic, but essentially result in a state of disequilibrium that tourists seek to balance out by going on a holiday. On the one hand, tourism motivation and tourist behaviour can be socially determined and involve extrinsic motivations that are formed by the tourists' social environment. On the other, motivation can be considered from a psychological perspective to allow for individual differences to be taken into account. Depending on the focus of research, both sociological and psychological considerations can be taken into account – but it is not advisable to differentiate the two as there is a constant interaction between them. The problem is that, in theory, tourism motivation should be a logical process if we follow the consumer decision-making

process and identify the stages that each tourist goes through before booking a holiday. However, most people are not aware of their motivations as motivators can be latent and subconscious. Hence, most theories on tourism motivation only offer a partial explanation.

Given the range of theories, it is subject to debate whether the diversity of research approaches is counterproductive to finding suitable explanations for tourist behaviour or reflects the postmodern nature of today's research and a society that welcomes diversification and many perspectives that both compete with and complement each other. The theories in this chapter indeed represent competitive views, but are not necessarily mutually exclusive. While sociology and psychology seem to remain the dominant disciplines, there is still room for alternative tourism motivation and behaviour theories.

Review questions

1. Think about the holidays you have taken so far. To what extent have they been influenced by your society and cultural environment (e.g. your family, friends, work, previous experiences)? Can you determine some of these influences? How similar or different are they to those of your friends?
2. For your last holiday, go through the decision-making process. Why did you want to go on holiday? How did you search for potential holidays? On what criteria did you base your final decision? What expectations did you have and how were they met (or not)?
3. Ask your friends and family about their reason for going on holidays and travel experiences. Can you match their responses and apply the tourist typologies and motivation theories?

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