ANALYSING THE CHOICE OF MALAYSIA AS A LONG-HAUL TOURIST DESTINATION

BY

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
at the University of Strathclyde.

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April 1992

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate how the British tourists move through a decision process in choosing Malaysia as a long-haul holiday destination. The purchase of a long-haul holiday is thought to be complex with high involvement and deliberation as well as being more expensive and bought less frequently (may be once a year). As such, a five-stage decision process is used: i) problem recognition, ii) information search, iii) evaluation of alternatives, iv) purchase decision and v) postpurchase behaviour.

The research was conducted at two levels. The first level was self-administered tourists' survey questionnaire carried-out over a three-month period in Malaysia. The second level involved a British tour operators' survey which was supplemented by personal interview in order to get a better insight into the problems and potentials of Malaysia as a long-haul destination.

"In search of new experience," "rest and relaxation," and "cultural attraction" were ranked as the three most important motivational factors influencing the decision to travel long-haul. Personal sources of information seemed to dominate in every stage of the decision process.

Tourists evaluated Malaysia very favourably only on two tourist-attracting attributes - entertainment and shopping facilities; but these attributes were less important to them when selecting their holiday destinations. Husbands and wives were found to be in agreement on nine of the eleven subdecisions.

Generally, tourists expressed high degrees of satisfaction with their holiday experience in Malaysia. Nevertheless some significant differences were found between independent and packaged tourists. Independent tourists were more satisfied with all the "product and service superiority" factors compared to the packaged tourists. With local services, independent tourists were significantly more satisfied than the packaged tourists with pleasant attitudes of the people and the personal security aspects of the "health and safety" factor. With regards to overall value for money and overall satisfaction, the independent tourists were significantly more satisfied than the packaged tourists. Comparison between destinations within the region also revealed different satisfaction levels across various dimensions.

The study provides useful empirical support which enable tourism planners in making specific improvements in order to maintain and/or increase tourist satisfaction. For tourism marketers, creation of unrealistic tourist expectation through excessive promotional exaggeration should be avoided to circumvent tourist dissatisfaction.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere appreciation to those who gave generously of their time and support in order that this research could be completed.

I am indebted to Professor C.L.Jenkins, my research supervisor, for his support throughout my entire doctoral programme. His encouragement and confidence were never relenting nor were his demand to do more and do it better.

Acknowledgement for contribution without which the completion of my study could not have been possible is due to the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia for financial assistance and execution of the fieldwork.

This endeavour could never have been undertaken and completed without the help and confidence of my family. To my wife and three children, I thank you for your patience and understanding.

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CHAPTER ONE

THE PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

Despite criticism of tourism as a strategy for economic development because it is associated with dependency upon external source of growth (de Kadt, 1979) as well as the share of international tourists received by the developing countries is relatively small and highly skewed (Jenkins, 1991), competition among them for the international tourist trade seemed to be as vigorous as ever.

For some countries like Thailand, Mexico, Kenya and Jamaica, it is already a leading export earner. For others, tourism is viewed as a potential source of future economic expansion based on a potential high income elasticity of demand as well as the resulting positive multiplier effect of tourism expenditure. Furthermore, tourism may be prioritised because of the rapidity with which economic growth can be generated, even in virtually uncommercialised region (Williams & Shaw, 1988).

The relative success of particular destination countries in attracting tourists has been attributed to numerous factors. Williams & Shaw (1988), listed 5 that were frequently cited:

i. Ability to deliver the type of tourism which is in demand. The delivery of the type of tourism - be it sunshine beach holidays, urban and cultural tourism, business/conference tourism, rural tourism and safari tourism can only be exploited fully if its development in terms of attraction, amenities, accessibility are undertaken to the expected standard.

ii. Comparative advantage in terms of their climate, location and accessibility. Some destination, however attractive, may find it difficult to attract sufficient number of tourist due to their locations which are off the international airline routes. Conversely, some countries which may not have any significant tourism resources could still show a respectable number of arrivals just by virtue of its being in a convenient locations and, due to the special interest that they hold, they are considered logical stopover points for the passing tourists enroute to other major destinations.

iii. Ability to offer "value for money" in the form of a superior product is another factor contributing to the success of any destination in attracting a continuous flow of tourist arrivals. This is important in view of the fact that the products of mass tourism are often little differentiated in which even a small price change in a destination country brought about by inflation not to mention currency devaluation or revaluation, may cause potential tourist to look for alternatives.

iv. Positive government policies designed to expand the tourist industry - whether in a relatively infant stage or in a more mature stage of the economy, will also contribute to the ability of particular countries to capitalise on their tourism resources. As tourism cannot prosper under "benign neglect", its prosperity will depend on government to become concerned with the problem of tourism supply and with the link between this and regional development as well as providing a regulatory framework for the smooth and orderly operation of the industry.

v. Tourism advertising is unlikely to influence the magnitude of total demand, but may affect the destination chosen (Jenkins, 1991). Adoption and execution of appropriate marketing strategies in giving the destinations clear identities in the marketplace can be instrumental in improving their appeals.

However, it is worthwhile to mention that in most cases the choices of tourist destination is susceptible to large fluctuation from year to year. This phenomena may be due to recession in the generating countries which has the effect of reducing overall demand. Another factor is the change in competitiveness of individual destination due to political uncertainty or perceived security risk. As an example of the former, the number of foreign tourist arrivals were halved between 1974 and 1976 following the coup of 1974 in Portugal while for the latter, was the overall decline of American tourists in Europe following the bombing of Libya in 1986. There is also the more general decline in world-wide tourist activity as a consequence of the Gulf war in 1991.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Malaysia, as a destination has been enjoying an ever increasing number of tourist arrivals at a rate that began to attract the attention of the government to rate it as a priority industry deemed to contribute toward continuous economic expansion of the country. The year 1990 has been an impressive year for the Malaysian tourism industry. It recorded an unprecedented growth of 54.3 per cent in foreign tourist arrivals to 7.5 million tourists, as compared to 4.8 million in 1989.

However, these percentage growth figure tend to hide the fact that Malaysia is suffering from two fundamental problems which if not minimised will severely undermine direction for future investment in the industry:

i. <u>Distance decay effect</u>

Malaysia is particularly susceptible to a geographical concept of distance decay effect in long-haul international tourist flows in comparison with other countries within the region. In fact long-haul markets represented only between 5.0 to 9.0 percent of the total arrivals during the 1986-1990 period. While arrivals from ASEAN countries accounts between 78.4 to 73.2 percent over that time. The contribution of the same intra-regional markets for the neighbouring countries especially Singapore, Thailand and Indonesia only amounted to between 20.0 to 35.0 percent of their total arrivals. This severe inverse relationship between the intra-regional arrivals and the total number of arrivals is made worse by the dominance of arrivals from Singapore and Thailand with a combined total ranging from 73.4 to 69.0 percent of the total market to Malaysia within the same period. To add salt to injury, even with the United Kingdom market, traditionally an important source of market in terms of language and historical, especially colonial heritage, Malaysia failed to register a comparable number of arrivals with those recorded by Thailand.

ii. <u>Identity crisis due to poor positioning</u>

The main problem here is related to the product of mass market which possess little "unique selling proposition" that feature which sets it apart from the competition. This difficulty is compounded by the fact that Malaysia is between two very high-profile tourist destinations, Thailand and Singapore. "Its Subang International Airport - as a gateway is not as sought after by foreign airlines as Don Muang and Changi, thus strapping national carrier Malaysian Airline System from expanding its wings; its shopping is inferior to Singapore's; and its beaches and culture are not as well known as Thailand's (Hoon, 1987). Attempt to create a favourable image as a destination has been plagued by poor direction not to mention coordination.

THE LONG-HAUL MARKET - Definition, Significance and Future

At the moment, there is no generally accepted definition as to what constitute "long-haul travel", though it has been used widely by those in the travel trade. The most frequent are the travel writers and the travel consultants in presenting a particular phenomena or trends. Shelton (1987), for example referred long-haul travel as inter-regional in reporting the growth of Australian/New Zealand as international tourist destinations. To illustrate his points, the statistics published by the Australia Travel Commission which considered all arrivals to Australia as long-haul were used. However, the same concept of inter-regional travel was implied by Behbehani (1983) as long-haul international markets when studying demand for air travel.

In European context, long-haul travel is generally taken to mean travel outside Europe (Devas, 1986). To avoid the confused and contradictory usage above, and for the purpose of this study, the term "long-haul travel" will be referred to as inter-regional travel of international nature which involve a minimum journey time of at least 10 hours by commercial aeroplane; 6 to 10 hours will be "medium-haul travel" while 1 to 5 hours to be considered as "short-haul travel". The time element in this concept is the determining factor in differentiating inter-regional crossing of neighbouring continents. While cost factor is important, it does however, shows a declining travel cost effect in term of passenger-mile over a long-haul journey.

In contrast, the longer the journey the more difficult it is to be a motivating factor, and consequently will have the effect of reducing the number of journeys. ASEAN Tourism Industry Report 1991 expected that the long-haul travel from Europe to expand at 8 - 12 % per annum over the next decade. It was also reported that in 1990 European made 14 million long-haul trips and this is expected to increase to about 25 million by the year 2000.

The most popular travel to long distance destinations are by scheduled flights. In fact, around three quarters of European long-haul vacation travellers use scheduled air services. Charter flights are only important for short to medium-haul destinations notably North Africa, Israel, North America, Kenya, Sri Lanka and Brazil. However, even for these, charters only account for less than half of all traffic (Devas, 1986).

This poor presence of charter flights to long-haul destinations was due to the diverse markets from generating countries which are too small to individual destination for whole charters to be supported as a viable commercial operation. Even within Europe, attempts to feed passengers from different countries to one central departure airport operating a charter is expensive and difficult to organise due to relatively high air fares (Cockerel,1986). While charter airlines can operate on short to medium routes with passenger/mile cost as low as 30 top 40 percent of those of a scheduled operator, the cost advantage of charters are much lower on thin long-haul routes involving 15 to 18 hour flights. India, Thailand, Australia and New Zealand have significant number of incoming European charters, which are an exception, although they represent a small proportion of the total passenger traffic from Europe (Doganis,1986). Direct price competition from scheduled airlines (especially non-IATA members) offering large number of seats at charter-competitive fares resulting from excess capacity also contributed to early demise of any, long-haul charter development.

Despite their minor share of the total arrivals, long-haul tourists are not only being encouraged but deliberately sought after by all the destinations. This is because their spending capacity is far higher than that of the regional markets coupled with the fact that this sector of the markets tend to come from the wealthier strata of society, whose propensity to travel long-haul are not affected by the general economic conditions. In fact, demand for air-travel for long-haul international markets (across Atlantic and Pacific) was found to be price inelastic than in medium-haul markets (Behbehani,1983).

A study conducted by the Australian Bureau of Industry & Economics in 1982 also suggested that income levels were the major determinant of pleasure travel (to Australia) and that fares and prices are relatively unimportant. Air fares are stronger determinants for the more price conscious, largely visiting friends and relatives (VFR) United Kingdom and New Zealand markets. Long-haul tourists are more likely to participate in quality tours and tend to venture further inland and therefore normally will stay longer.

Trends for the future growth of long-haul travel looked very encouraging. Based on 1984 pan-European survey conducted by Research Services Ltd., Cockerell (1986) reported that there was an increased preference for long-haul travel. In fact, 20 to 30 percent of those university educated, mid to upper income brackets already took regular long-haul vacation trips. It was also noted that the latest national holiday surveys covering most European markets showed that long-haul travel as a increased priority by lower and mid income levels, also particularly in the winter months. Long-haul travel is becoming less and less a luxury readily dispensable in times of economic hardship (Cockerell, 1986).

In terms of long-haul travel across the Pacific from North America to Asia, forecast issued by Boeing which was based on projected GNPs of the countries involved suggested that it will increase by 7 - 9.8 percent each year to 1990; while International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) forecasted 11 percent annual growth rate for the Asian carriers and Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) confirmed that US interest in travel to Asia was growing at a higher rate than from anywhere else in the world (Sheldon, 1987).

International Tourism Forecasts to 1995 by the Economist Intelligence Unit indicated that there is a positive shift to long-haul travel from most originating countries. The share of long-haul travel is expected to grow by 4.1 per cent between 1991-1995. The long-haul tourists seems also to be less price and income sensitive than other "mass" tourists (Jenkins, 1991).

PURPOSE AND JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Although long-haul travel in particular has been growing and is expected to grow at a faster rate than the overall trend of world travel, not all countries/ destinations are enjoying a similar growth pattern. Competition is getting more intense. Therefore, it is apparent that any destination wishing to survive and grow will have to adopt a strategic marketing plan to develop identities in distinguishing itself from other destinations that offer basically identical and easily substituted products. The basis for developing a significant and effective marketing programme for the target market is to understand the buyer's behaviour at each stage of the decision process and what influences are operating (Kotler,1991).

Consumer behaviour researchers have suggested that the consumer process starts long before the actual purchase decision and has consequences long after the purchase. In complex buying behaviour, the buyer goes through a decision process consisting of five-stages: 1) problem recognition, 2) information search, 3) evaluation of alternatives, 4) purchase decision and 5) post-purchase behaviour (Kotler, 1991).

Research into the tourist's buying behaviour has been fragmented and sketchy at best. There has been no published studies of buyer's behaviour for long-haul travel. In travel, there are great differences between buying a short-haul holiday and a long-haul holiday. The latter is more complex with high involvement and deliberation as well as being more expensive and bought infrequently (may be only once a year).

It is generally accepted that any studies need to be product specific to be of value to the planning and implementation of marketing and advertising strategies. Therefore, the general objective of this study is to extend the existing body of literature regarding the buyer's decision process by investigating its application to the purchase of long-haul holiday to Malaysia. Relative to this general objective, the specific research objectives are:

i. to identify the internal and external circumstances (stimuli) that trigger the need: what brought them about, and how they led to long-haul travel to Malaysia.

ii. to identify what are major information sources that the tourists turned to and the relatives influences each had on the subsequent purchase decision.

iii. to identify what are the buying criteria used as the tourists moved from the awareness set to the choice set.

iv. to compare tourists' beliefs and importance for tourist-attracting attributes of Malaysia.

v. to identify the relative influence of family members on various vacation sub-decisions or by stage in the decision process.

vi. to identify tourist satisfaction levels with the various services encountered in Malaysia.

vii. to explore the tour operators' perception of the potential of Malaysia as a long-haul destination.

In particular, this study will examine how the British tourists move through a decision process in choosing Malaysia as a long-haul holiday destination.

ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

As background for this study, Chapter Two discusses tourism in Malaysia, its resources, its roles and features as well as its trends and current policy development for the growth of the industry in the future. The chapter concludes with a brief presentation of the marketing functions at international level undertaken by the Tourist

Development Corporation of Malaysia - the official National Tourist Organisation of Malaysia. The next five chapters will be devoted to each stage of the buying process. It will first cover the theoretical foundations before reviewing relevant past works. Hypotheses and methodology of the study are described in Chapter Eight. Chapter Nine and Ten present the analysis of the findings of the tourists and the tour operators' surveys. Discussion, conclusions, contributions and implications are presented in Chapter Eleven.

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CHAPTER TWO

AN OVERVIEW OF MALAYSIAN TOURISM

Introduction

> "Malaysia is a place that does not immediately create strong visual impression as does Thailand, where saffron-clad monks stroll serenely along the impassive gilded Buddhas, or Bali, where exquisite dancers perform under the stars in the velvet magic night." - Fador Travel Guide, 1983.

The above statement could not have more succinctly described the dilemma faced by those involved in marketing Malaysia - be it as a single destination, within a multiple destination to the region, or even as a stopover destination. However, despite such a handicap, tourism in Malaysia has been expanding over the decade.

Against the background of world recession which began to hit hard on the export earnings, where the current account of the balance of payment is showing a negative figure, where real gross domestic product growth is the lowest since Independence, tourism suddenly emerged from the shadow of other economic activities. It began to be recognised and was accorded high priority with various decisions and measures taken to promote its status. Foremost among these decisions are:

- the formation of the Cabinet Committee on Tourism in 1985;
- the extension of attractive investment incentives to tourism (Promotion of Investment Act, 1986) to promote both the accommodation and non-accommodation sectors of of the industry;
- the reduction of government service tax from 10% to 5%;
- the provision of preferential electricity tariff for the hotel industry;
- the establishment of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in May 1987;
- the additional budget allocation of M$100 million for marketing in 1988.

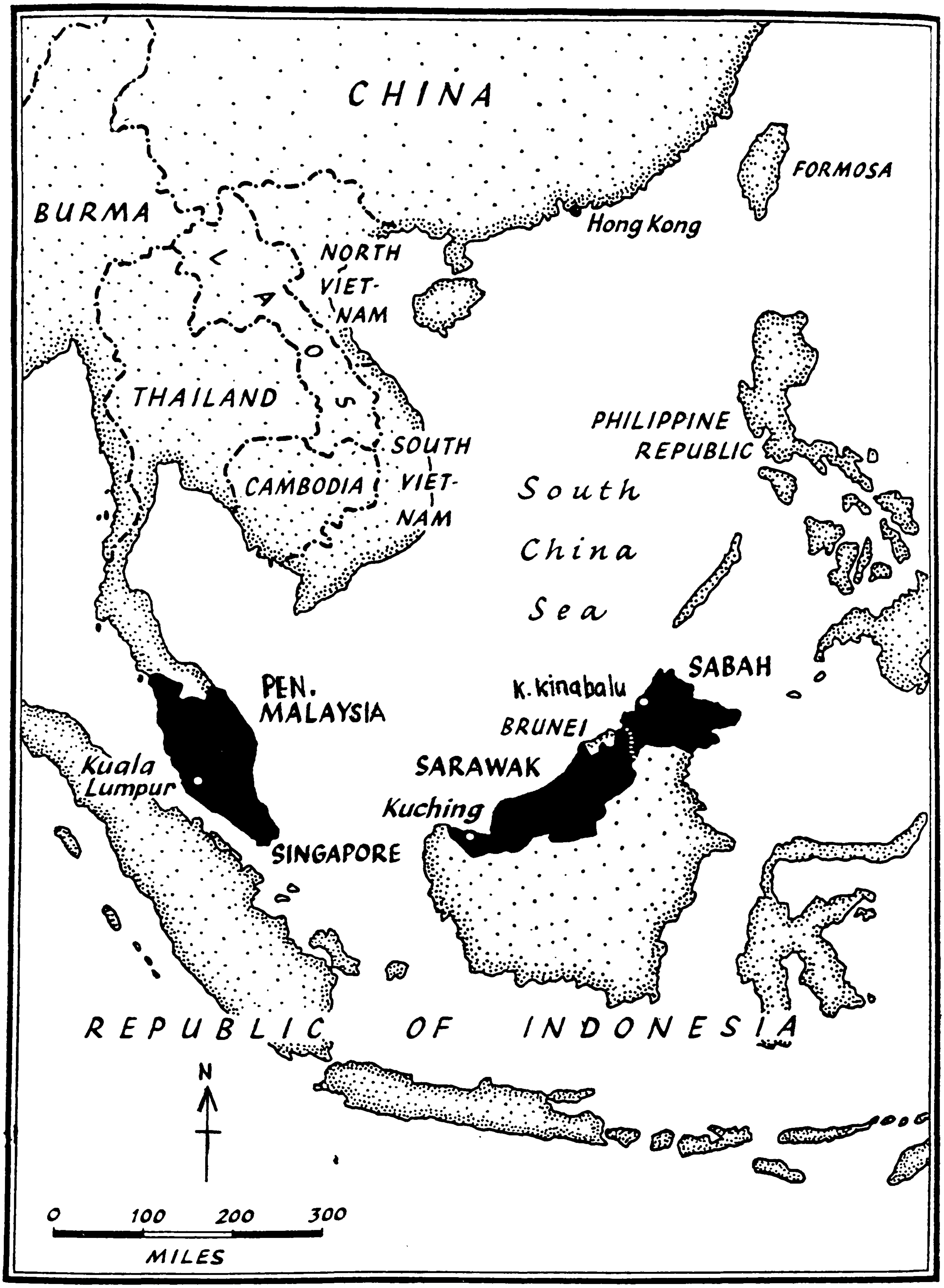
This chapter aims to provide a broad introduction to the Malaysian tourism industry and is divided into 5 main parts. Firstly, there is a description of its tourism resources of contrasting experience from cosmopolitan cities and traditional villages, highland resorts and casino, long stretches of beaches and primeval jungle and tropical islands. It is then followed by a broad classification of established tourist regions with various appeals and resources. This leads to an analysis of national and regional features of the industry. Current development in government policy in encouraging future growth of tourism in Malaysia is highlighted. The chapter ends with an overview of the international marketing activities of the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia.

Malaysia is a federation of 13 states which constitutes two regions separated by about 530 km of the South China Sea. These regions are the states of Peninsular Malaysia - Perlis, Kedah, Perak, Penang, Selangor, Malacca, Johore, Pahang, Trengganu and the states of Sabah and Sarawak located on the Island of Borneo, respectively (Figure 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3). In addition there are two federal territories: Kuala Lumpur, the capital, and the free port of Labuan Island in Sabah.

Malaysia occupies a central position within Southeast Asia and the only country that has its border surrounded with all ASEAN member countries namely Thailand, Singapore, Brunei, Indonesia and the Philippines. Being in the tropics the average temperature throughout the year is constantly high ranging from 32 C during the day to 22 C at night. relative humidity, likewise high between 85 % - 95 %. Rainfall is common throughout the year, averaging 200 -250 cm a year.

Tourism Resources and Potential

Malaysia is part of a region with an exotic image of the mystical Far East among international tourist from



A general map of Malaysia and its neighbours

Figure 2.1

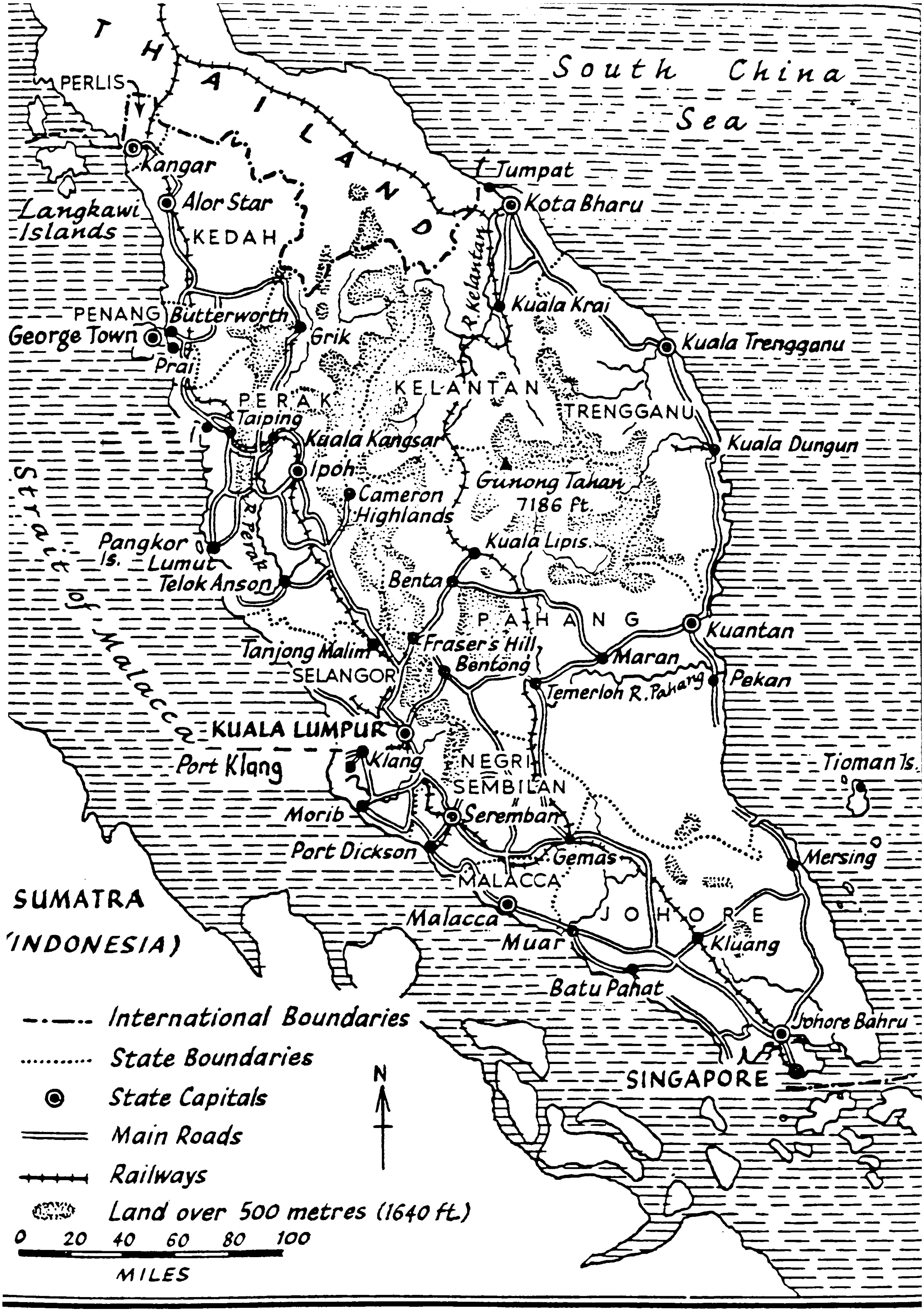
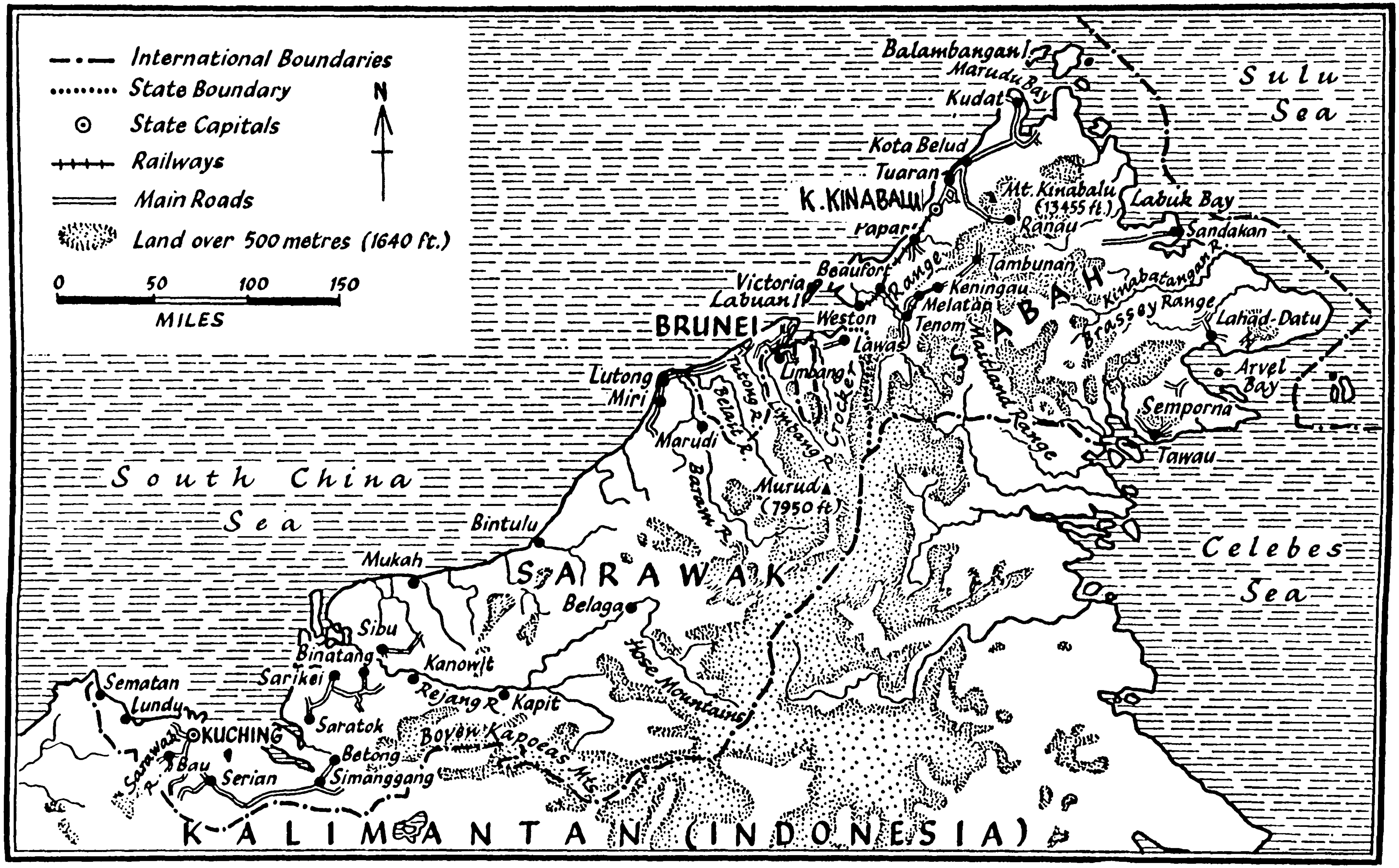


Figure 2.2 The Map of Peninsular Malaysia

Figure 2.3



Map of Sarawak and Sabah in Eastern Malaysia

Western countries. The resources are presented below in four general categories as stipulated by the Malaysian Tourism Development Plan (1975).

1. Scenery and National Features.

Malaysia offers the visitor great scenic variety. It is a land of colours in its coastal settings of excellent beaches and picturesque fishing activities, its rural agrarian landscapes and its dense forest and jungle areas and mountainous region. Malaysia possesses the world's oldest rain forest (130 million years old), housing an awesome diversity of life from nomadic man to many still undiscovered species. Already there are 1000 species of fauna, which includes 350 different types of birds, 100 snakes, 300 types of fish, and 10,000 species of flora. It is so beautiful perhaps because it is so old, older than the rain forest of the Congo or the Amazon (Rodrigo, 1991). Access to such areas is well organised and efficient.

Blessed with excellent natural resources, Malaysia provides an opportunity for visitors to experience a sampling of its diverse scenery during relatively short drives and outing from urban areas. Many of the roads and highways are within the corridors which are in themselves highly scenic and picturesque. They are generally well maintained and organised. Other scenic access corridors to hinterland areas are Malaysia's numerous rivers, particularly those of Sarawak and Sabah. River excursions are highly popular with foreign and domestic tourists.

ii. Cultural Resources

The cultural heritage and the people are the country's tourism resources. One of the outstanding characteristics of Malaysia's population is its highly variegated ethnic mix which makes it one of the prime examples of multi-racial society in the whole world. Malay and other indigenous people (61%), Chinese (30%), and Indian (8%) are the major ethnic groups. Ethnic variety inevitably entails a variety of languages as well as religions. The Malay culture is considered to be one of the oldest and most interesting culture in the world. In addition, the Chinese and the Indian cultures provide both striking contrast and surprising similarities. The colourful customs and traditions of its multicultural society present visitors with a vivid kaleidoscope of fascinating festival. There are numerous festivals and celebrations indigenous to Malaysia alone such as the Main Pantai, the Kadazan Harvest Festivals, the Rice Harvest Festivals, the Spitang Tamu Besar and the Dayak Festival Day. There are also festivals which are not entirely unique to Malaysia - those events held in neighbouring countries especially those directly related to the Muslim, Buddhist and Hindu religions. These typical Malay festivals as well as other regional events combined offer a bundle of attractions available within a single destination.

iii. Sports and Recreational Resources

Malaysia offers the visitors a wide range of sports and recreational opportunities. They include almost all form of water sports, hiking, mountain exploration and golf.

Malaysia has some of the most picturesque and magnificent stretches of sandy white beaches in South East Asia. The coastline on the eastern side of the peninsular in particular is the most impressive, perhaps because of its remoteness and absence of extensive development of people. From Kota Bharu in the north to Desaru in the South lies hundreds of miles of picturesque fishing villages and unspoilt sandy beaches. For hinterland exploration lovers, Malaysia offers an exciting and adventurous experience. This includes wild life viewing in jungle and mountainous area, mountain climbing, hunting and hinterland "safaris" for photography and nature study.

iv. Shopping Activities

Malaysia offers a wide number of shopping opportunity for unique,high quality and reasonably priced items. This includes batik fabrics and paintings, silver, pewter, silk fabrics, chinese jewellery, tailor-made apparel and duty free items such as electronic equipment.

Tourist Regions

Malaysia has five distinct areas which have somewhat different combinations of tourism resources and, therefore, offer different tourist experience. These five are:

i. The West Coast Cities

The most important single destination within Malaysia is Kuala Lumpur. The capital, as well as the gateway to Malaysia, financial, educational, and cultural centre offers attractions and activities which are characteristic of a major urban centre. Many fine examples of the old Moorish, European and Asian architectural are depicted in various places of the city. Kuala Lumpur is an attractive blend of modernity and old-fashioned charm. It has something of an Arabian Night atmosphere with its mosques as well as the excitement of a fast growing city. These and other diverse settings, characterise the charm of the city against a background of greenery seldom seen in European and other Asian cities.

A 158 km drive from Kuala Lumpur is Malacca - the living museum of Malaysia's past and history. Founded in the 15th century it had been a rendezvous of every seafaring nation. Malacca has been under so many different cultural influences. India, Javanese, Chinese, Arabs, Siamese, Portuguese, Dutch and British all ventured to the harbour town in search of profit through trade, piracy or plunder, and in turn left something of its own culture behind to be forged and blended with what had never been before. This region provides the short-stay visitor a seaside resort at Port Dickson which is popular with leisure and recreational-seekers residing within 100 km of Kuala Lumpur.

ii. The Hill Resorts.

As opposed to the activities and attractions of the lowlands and coastal areas, Malaysia has a little cooler and more bracing climate for those who tire, or are unaccustomed to the high humidity of summer conditions. The hill resorts are within easy reach; they include its Cameron Highland, Fraser's Hill and Genting Highland.

Genting Highland which is an hour's drive from Kuala Lumpur is an established international tourist destination with varied grades of accommodation. The resort facility at Genting Highland - the Las Vagas of Malaysia is enough to keep seniors and casual gamblers busy. As for non gamblers, Genting Highland provides various kinds of leisure facility. There is an 18 hole golf course, bowling alleys, horse riding, many other sports and for nature lovers there are jungle treks through the virgin rain forest. For businessmen Genting also incorporates conferences facilities.

Cameron Highlands has a wide appeal to the foreign and domestic tourists. Escapists from city life will enjoy its physical beauty, its rolling forested hills, tropical fauna tea plantation, exotic orchids and colourful butterflies, golfing and wild nature.

Fraser's Hill which is three hours drive from the capital city is well developed to provide every kind of recreational facilities for families and others. It provides children playground, golf, tennis, jungle path, pony rides and a grand fresh water natural swimming pool and waterfalls.

iii. Penang

This island is naturally set for a perfect holiday. It is situated on the north-western coast of the Peninsular, covering an area 285 km square and is approximately 24 km north to south and 14.5 km from east to west. Despite the smallness of its geographical area, Penang is the largest single destination for visitors to Malaysia. Known as the "Pearl of the Orient", Penang is a delightful mixture of rural Malay and commercial Chinese. Georgetown, its capital city is a marvellous jumble of colonial building, temples, restaurant and shops. The island is approachable from the mainland by the spectacular 13.5 km Penang bridge, the longest in Asia and the third longest in the world. Apart from stretches of beautiful beaches, the island offers excellent shopping centres and plenty of water sports for visitors.

A short distance away is Langkawi, a cluster of 99 islands, the largest of which (Langkawi itself) is bigger than Penang with a population of under 35,000. These islands sparkling like beautiful jewels in the sea have the charms and appeal of an island paradise in Polynesia. Langkawi is famous for its legends, herbal medicine and marbles.

iv. The East Coast

The region is enclosed with some excellent beaches which stretch for miles, interrupted only by scattered fishing villages, hillock and promontories which collectively renders the environment serene. This is Malaysia's enchanting East Coast, a place to refresh the spirit with its simplicity and natural beauty. This region also has maintained Malay traditions and culture in their purest forms which has wide appeal to regional and international tourists. Top spinning, shadow playing and kites have a long tradition in this coastal village. A visit to the open market places could provide an intriguing experiences for many visitors to another aspect of life styles which is distinct from those known to the western world. The local market is crammed with a splendid array of handicrafts, it's a major attraction to locals and visitors alike.

This region, particularly at Rantau Abang is considered to be one or two places in the world where giant leatherback turtles beach in large numbers to lay their eggs. This unique feature is currently attracting large numbers of residents as well as international visitors.

v. Sabah and Sarawak

The states of Sabah and Sarawak are larger than Peninsular Malaysia but most of the land is covered by mountains and tropical rainforest. Sabah and Sarawak offer unique adventures of primeval times especially to special interest groups. Both states are rich in cultural traditions, homes to people with many backgrounds - Iban, Dayaks, Kadazans, Malay, Chinese and Melanaus. The longhouse villages feature a unique way of life of some of the most interesting and friendliest people in the world. Living the life lead by their forefathers, an entire Iban village literally stays under one roof.

Nature lovers are in for a treat on a visit to Kinabalu National Park in Sabah. It is most famous for Mount Kinabalu, Southeast Asia's tallest mountain at 4101 metres above sea level. The park is a home to some 800 varieties of orchids and 500 species of birds.

Tourism and the National Economy

Foreign exchange earnings from tourism grew at an average rate of 19.4 percent per annum during the Fourth Malaysia Plan period (1981-1985) from M$688 million in 1980 to M$ 1,411.9 million in 1985. This is indeed a respectable achievement when compared with the projected growth rate of 18.9 percent per annum during the same period.

As can be seen from Table 2.1 below, receipts from international tourist expenditures continued to grow steadily in 1986 and 1987. However, in relative term, the growth rate declined in 1987 achieving only 12.6 percent increase compared to 18 percent in 1986. Its importance has grown considerably within a short period of time from seventh position in 1985 to third largest source of foreign exchange earnings in 1990.

The share of tourism and travel in the total invisible earnings has also been significant in reducing a continuous travel account deficit in the current account of the balance of payment. As can be seen from Figure 2.4, the share of tourism and travel in the total invisible earnings rose steadily from 11.07 per cent in 1986 to 20.48 per cent in 1990. In 1987, Malaysia was the only country in the Asean region recorded a negative tourism balance. The deficit was reported at US$555 million. Amongst other countries within Asia, only Japan experienced similar phenomena but with much bigger deficit (WTO, 1989). For

Table 2.1
Malaysia's Top Foreign Exchange Earners By Item
1985 - 1990
(M$ Million)

Item/Year	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
M'facturing	12,153	14,911	18,147	**	36.592	46,654
Petroleum	8,698	5,401	6,290	6,116	7,883	10,109
Palm Oil	3,951	3,010	3,279	3,884	4,681	4,312
Rubber	2,872	3,183	3,915	5,256	3,949	3,128
Sawn Logs	2,748	2,847	4,274	4,007	4,356	4.200
LNG*	2,300	1,848	1,741	1,836	-	-
Tin	1,648	650	839	910	1,161	800
Sawn Timber*	973	1,191	1,652	1,843	-	-
TOURISM (ii)	1,543	1,669	1,795	2,002	2,803	4,473
Ranking Among Major Exports	7	6	5	5	6	3

Source: i) Ministry of Finance - Malaysia Economic Report 1985/1990

ii) Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia

* LNG and Sawn Timber are not included in 1989/1990

** Included in Other Merchandise Exports

Japan, this travel account deficit is a much welcome development in view of its huge trade surplus figures. However, for Malaysia this trend was finally reversed when estimates from the Malaysian Economic Report 1990/1991 showed that the country became a net foreign exchange earner with travel account surplus of M$465.

In terms of percentage contribution of tourism to total Gross National Product (GNP) of the country, Figure 2.5 again shows positive trend of its importance from 3.02 per cent in 1988 to 3.88 per cent in 1989 and 5.64 per cent in 1990.

With the expansion of the industry, employment numbers in the accommodation sector expanded by almost 59 percent from 25,174 in 1985 to 39,961 in 1990. As can be seen from Figure 2.6, direct employment in travel agencies and tour operators and airlines amounted to 11,820 and 17,060 respectively. In 1987, it was estimated that 25,000 Malaysian were employed in the handicraft industry. The induced employment effect in other tourism-related activities should be considerable even though precise measurements have yet to be undertaken.

SHARE OF TOURISM AND TRAVEL IN THE TOTAL INVISIBLE EARNINGS FOR 1986 - 1990

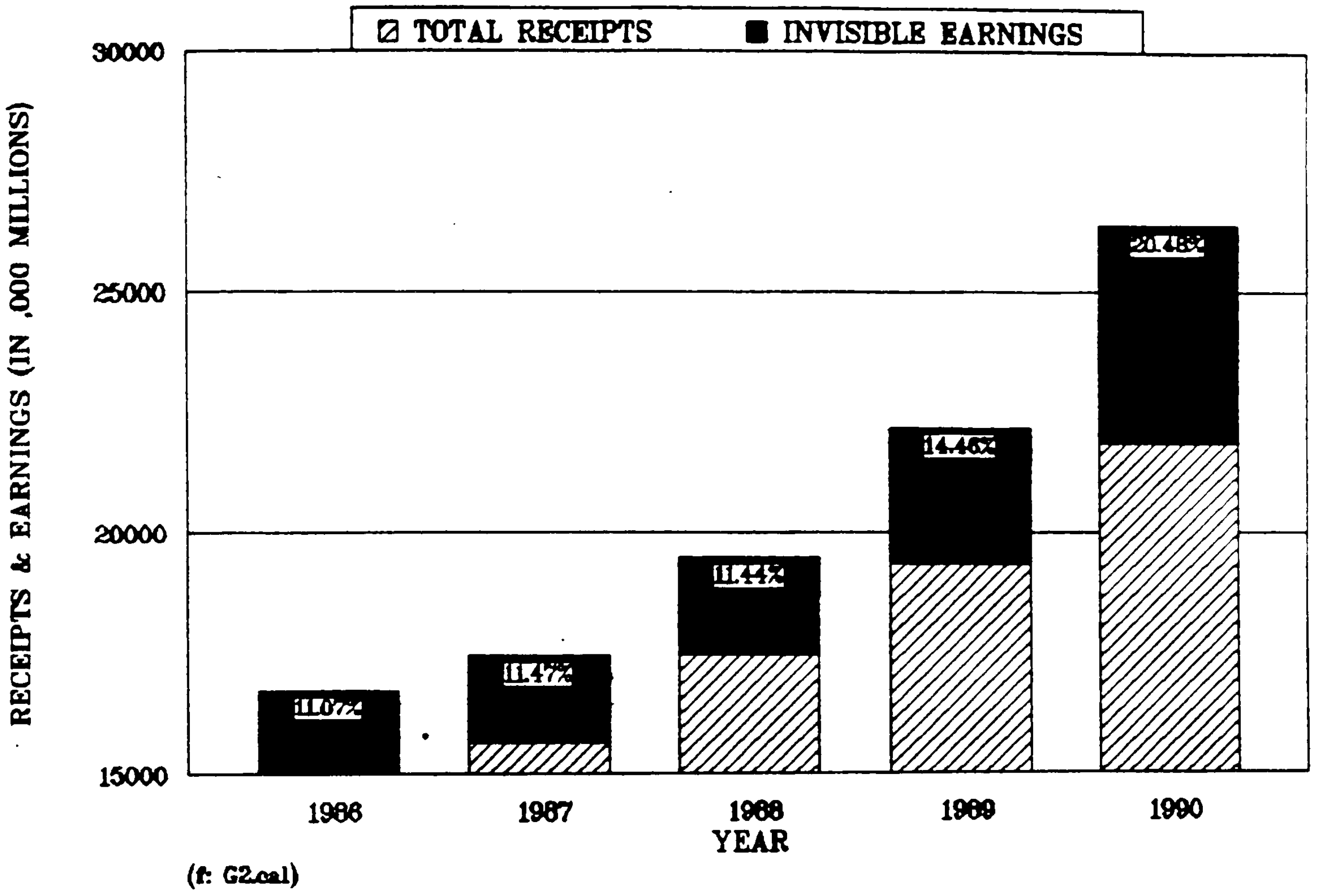


Figure 2.4

Source: Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia

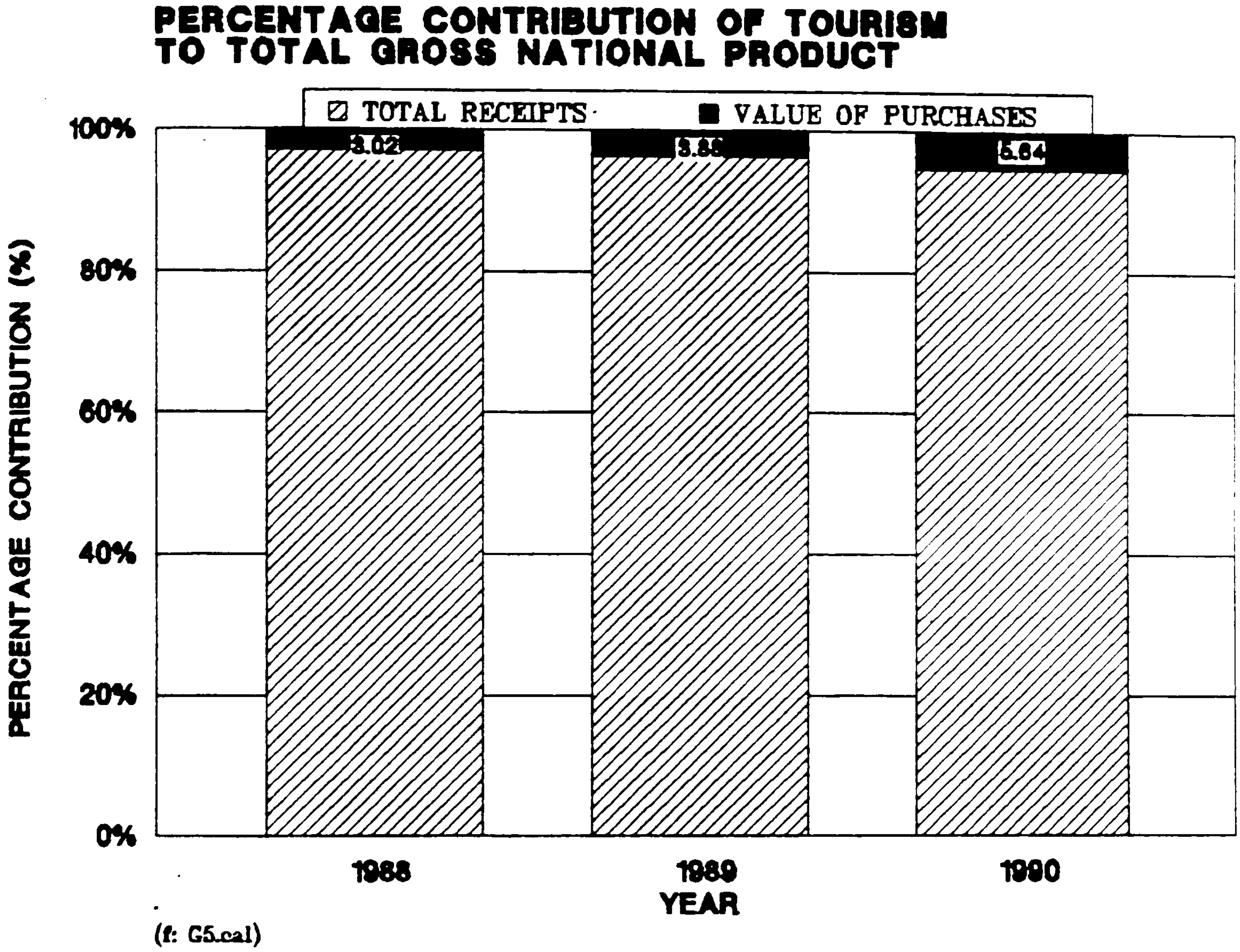


Figure 2.5

Source: Tourist Development Corporation Of Malaysia

EMPLOYMENT IN MALAYSIA TOURISM INDUSTRY FOR 1990

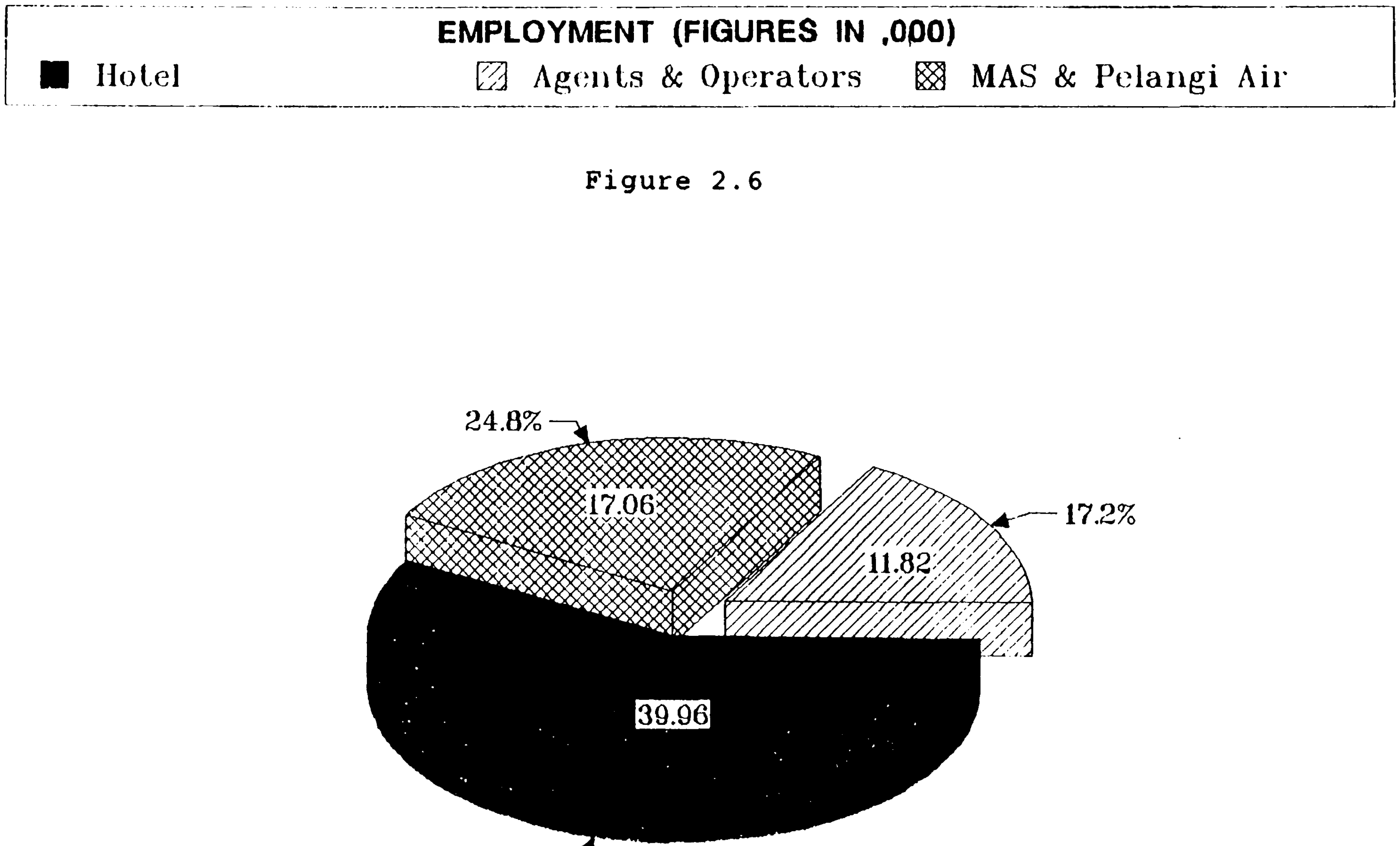


Figure 2.6

Source: Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia

General Trends

The number of tourist arrivals into Malaysia increased from 2,250,509 in 1980 to 3,109,106 in 1985 achieving an average growth rate of 6.76 per annum. This growth rate not only compares favourably with 6.6 percent targeted figures of the Fourth Malaysia Plan (1981 - 1985) but also exceeds those registered by ASEAN and Asia-Pacific region which grew at 6.0 percent and 4.3 percent per annum respectively during the same period.

Lower than average growth rates of tourist arrivals were recorded in 1986 and 1987 with 3.5% and 4.4% respectively. 1988 saw the rate increased to 7.9%. However, a phenomenal growth rate were achieved in 1989 and 1990 when the percentage increase was recorded at 33.7% and 54.3% respectively. This was due to the additional funding with corresponding increased in marketing activities such as the launching of Visit Malaysia Year 1990 Promotion.

The number of arrivals does not tell the entire story of Malaysian tourism. Although Malaysia is a net recipient of international visitors, a situation that prevailed since 1980, (Table 2.2) it did little to help cover the continuous and serious deficit on its invisible trade which reached M$10 billions in 1988.

Table 2.2
Comparison of Foreign Arrivals to Peninsular Malaysia and Malaysians Going Abroad (1980 - 1990)

Year	Foreign Arrivals	% Change	Visit Abroad*	% Change	Balance
1980	2,067,020	-	1,507,842	-	559,178
1981	2,344,933	13.5	1,614,899	7.1	730,034
1982	2,588,772	10.4	2,584,337	60.0	4,435
1983	2,750,397	6.2	2,447,274	-5.3	303,123
1984	2,779,081	1.0	1,928,969	-21.2	850,112
1985	2,933,271	5.6	1,836,752	-4.8	1,096,519
1986	3,027,781	3.2	2,166,275	15.2	911,506
1987	3,146,226	3.9	2,439,054	15.3	707,172
1988	3,374,443	7.3	2,974,015	21.9	400,428
1989	4,553,392	34.9	2,828,064	-4.9	1,725,328
1990	7,079,107	55.5	3,577,649	26.5	3,501,458

Source: Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia
Note: The figures exclude road departure via Johor Bahru

This deficit could be attributed to some 50,000 Malaysian students studying abroad as well as similar number of Malaysians making the pilgrimage to Mecca annually. This phenomena of travel account deficit is unique in itself for a developing country. Perhaps, Malaysia is the only developing country confident enough with its economics strength and potentials not to impose any travel restrictions to its citizen as witnessed in other countries such as Korea, Philippines, Indonesia, Thailand, or even in developed countries like France and Greece.

The source of foreign tourists by country of residence and its contribution to overall arrivals are shown in Table 2.3. Over time, the composition of the international tourist arrivals has not changed significantly. ASEAN countries remained the dominant feature of tourist arrivals into Malaysia. However, over the last five years there was a downward trend in its share from 78.4 percent in 1986 to 76.6 percent and 73.2 percent in 1988 and 1990 respectively. This is an encouraging sign in view of the government long-term efforts to reduce dependence on any one particular market.

This is particularly important in view of the fact that the determinants of demand, the prime exogenous factors in generating countries cannot be directly influenced by the receiving country. Therefore, strong dependence on a single market will place the host country

Table 2.3
Tourist Arrivals to Malaysia by Main Market
(1986-1990)

Origin/Year	Thousand 1986	Thousand 1988	Thousand 1990	% of Total* 1986	% of Total* 1988	% of Total* 1990
ASEAN countries	2,523	2,779	5,472	78.4	76.6	73.2
Singapore	2,156	2,330	4,566	67.0	64.3	61.1
Thailand	206	239	514	6.4	6.6	6.9
Indonesia	56	43	182	1.7	1.2	2.4
Brunei	87	147	151	2.7	4.0	2.0
Philippines	18	20	59	0.6	0.6	0.8
Long-haul markets	170	207	662a	5.3	5.7	8.9
U.S.A.	46	56	149	1.4	1.6	2.0
U.K.	80	101	201	2.5	2.8	2.7
W.Germany	28	32	70	0.9	0.9	0.9
France	16	18	33	0.5	0.5	0.4
Medium-haul markets	227	271	776b	7.1	7.5	10.4
Japan	133	162	501	4.1	4.5	6.7
Australia	85	99	151	2.6	2.7	2.0
New Zealand	9	10	26	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries:	298	367	524	6.3	6.6	1.6
India	37	41	111	1.2	1.1	1.5
Hong Kong	34	49	100	1.1	1.4	1.3
Taiwan	24	37	194	0.7	1.0	2.6
Total	3,217	3,624	7,477	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia
a - Includes Scandinavia, Belgium, Italy, Switzerland, Canada, Latin America and other European countries.
b - Includes China, South Korea and Middle East.
* - Subject to rounding errors

in a competitively weak position (Jenkins, 1991).

Within the ASEAN region, Singapore is by far the most important source and together with Thailand accounted for the highest number of tourist arrivals, contributing 61.1 percent and 6.9 percent respectively in 1990. By purpose of visit, the latest survey figures by the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia reported leisure (52.3%) and visiting friends and relatives (33.4%) as the two most important reasons for visiting Malaysia in 1985. While 37.9 percent of the ASEAN market came to Malaysia to visit friends and relatives, with 67.5 percent of them did not use accommodation units in 1985.

The medium-haul markets, with Japan, Australia and New Zealand as dominant sources contributed between 7-10 percent of the total arrivals. Japan, however, is the second most important market after the ASEAN countries with its share of the market increased from 4.1 percent in 1986 to 6.7 percent in 1990. In fact, the number of arrivals from Japan rose by a remarkable 139.6 percent (following a 29 percent rise in 1989) to 501,342 in 1990. Although the number of tourists from Australia and New Zealand continued to increase steadily, their relative importance is declining from 2.9 percent in 1986 to 2.3 percent in 1990 combined.

The decline of ASEAN's share of arrivals is partly matched by an increase in relative importance of the long-haul markets with 5.3 percent, 5.7 percent and 8.9 percent in 1986, 1988 and 1990 respectively. The United Kingdom market leads non-Asian arrivals taking over the third position from Australia since 1988. The United States market is in fifth place with a marginal but significant increase of its share from 1.4 percent in 1986 to 2.0 percent in 1990.

In terms of its contribution to tourism receipts, figures for Peninsular Malaysia published by the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia showed that non-Asean visitors are much more important as revenue generators (Table 2.4). In 1988, not only their per diem spending were more than 50% higher, the figures for their average length of stay were almost twice that for visitors from Asean countries. Japan and Australia/New Zealand were the two most important contributors.

In term of length of stay, the average United Kingdom tourist stayed 8.9 days. This was longer than any other market. However, it recorded the lowest per diem expenditure when compared with the other major tourist markets outside ASEAN, apart from visitors from India.

Table 2.4
Tourism Receipts, Expenditure and Length of Stay
By Major Markets for Peninsular Malaysia (1985 - 1988)

Markets	Total Receipts (M$ mn)		Per Diem Expenditure (M$)		Average Length of Stay (Days)	
	1985	1988	1985	1988	1985	1988
Indonesia	21.8	22.4	91.7	88.7	6.4	7.8
Philippines	9.1	11.6	94.1	103.9	7.6	7.7
Singapore	686.9	861.5	94.4	103.8	3.5	3.6
Thailand	51.8	66.0	41.9	52.3	6.3	5.3
Brunei	5.7	9.1	111.0	120.6	9.2	9.6
Total Asean	775.3	970.6	87.6	98.3	3.8	3.8
Japan	129.8	177.2	190.8	182.2	5.8	6.3
Australia/ N.Zealand	86.8	107.0	136.0	127.5	7.3	8.1
U.Kingdom/ Ireland	64.6	84.1	119.0	106.6	8.4	8.9
W.Germany	-	35.9	-	166.5	-	7.3
Continental Europe	-	72.8	-	196.0	-	5.2
U.S.A/ Canada	45.1	53.6	120.7	110.2	7.3	7.5
Hong Kong	23.9	36.6	145.0	122.3	6.1	6.8
Taiwan	18.8	29.0	171.8	120.3	6.1	7.8
India	-	30.3	-	97.2	-	7.9
Other	268.0	236.5	-	214.5	-	7.4
Total Non-Asean	637.0	863.0	148.8	150.3	7.1	7.4
Total all countries	1,412.3	1,833.6	107.0	120.8	4.5	4.5

Source: Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia

Seasonality

Monthly arrivals pattern for 1980-1985 period (Figure 2.7) reveals a trend towards a less seasonal pattern of arrivals of foreign visitors to Malaysia. In 1980, 29% of all tourists arrived in the last three months of October, November and December. These figures declined to 25% in 1985. Conversely, the figures for the first quarter of 1980 of 21% improved to 24% in 1985, resulting in a lower concentration of arrivals in 1985. During that period, December is the peak month maintaining a share of between 10-11% of the total arrivals annually. January and October are the valley months with 6-7% each.

The difference between the highest and the lowest months in terms of percentage of all arrivals is only 5 percentage points, showing a minimum variation of visitors flow. Being in the tropic, Malaysia is certainly in the position to benefit from the flow of both winter traffic from the northern and southern hemispheres.

Figure 2.8, displays variation of tourist arrivals between the highest and the lowest months of only 3.91 and 3.32 percentage points for 1989 and 1990 respectively, indicating an improved seasonal pattern of tourist arrivals compared to 1980-1985 period (Figure 2.7). Similar peak and valley months were observed for 1989. However, for 1990, April was the peak month while July and August were the valley months.

Figure 2.7

SEASONALITY TRENDS IN MALAYSIA (1980 - 1985)

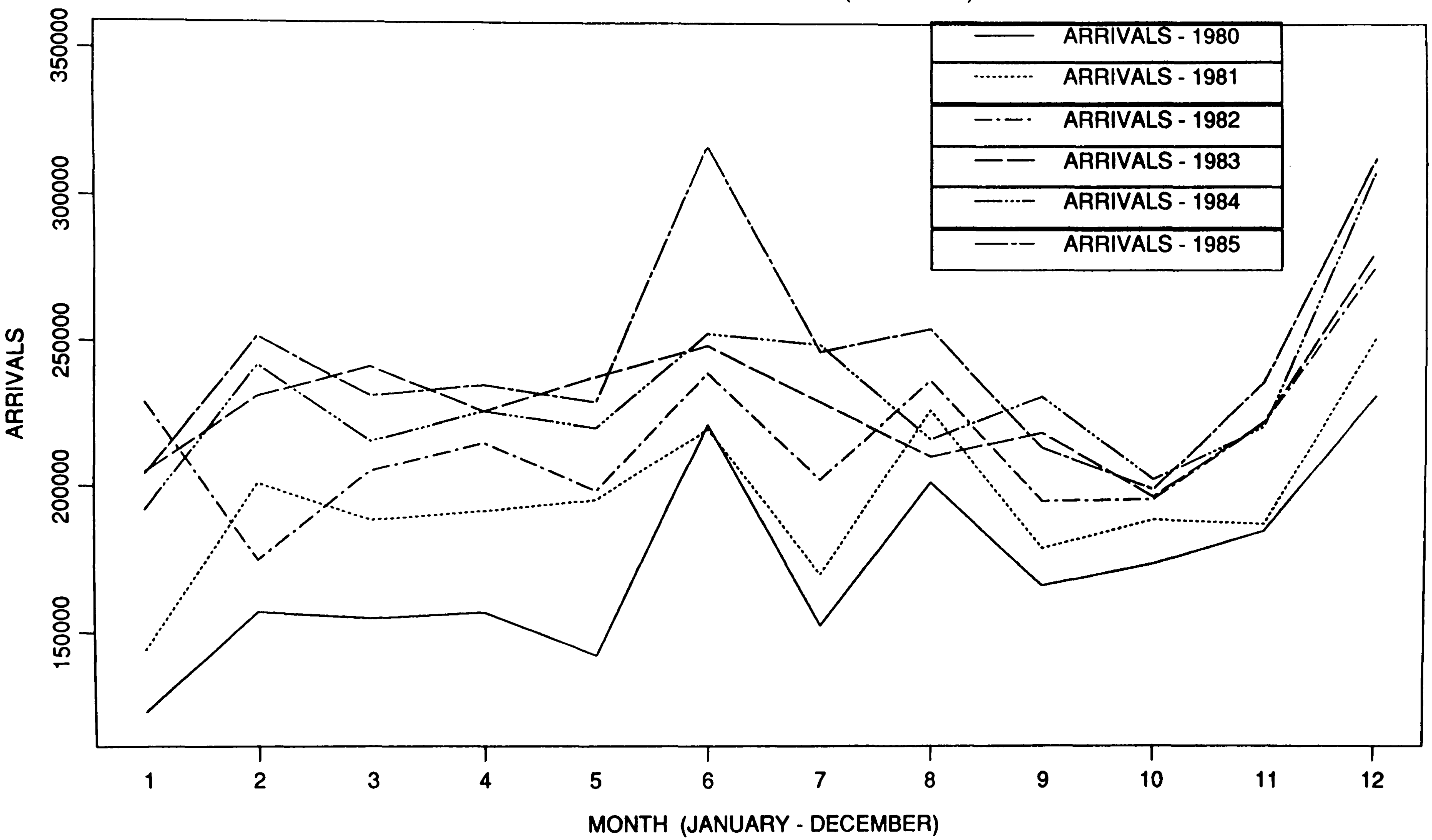
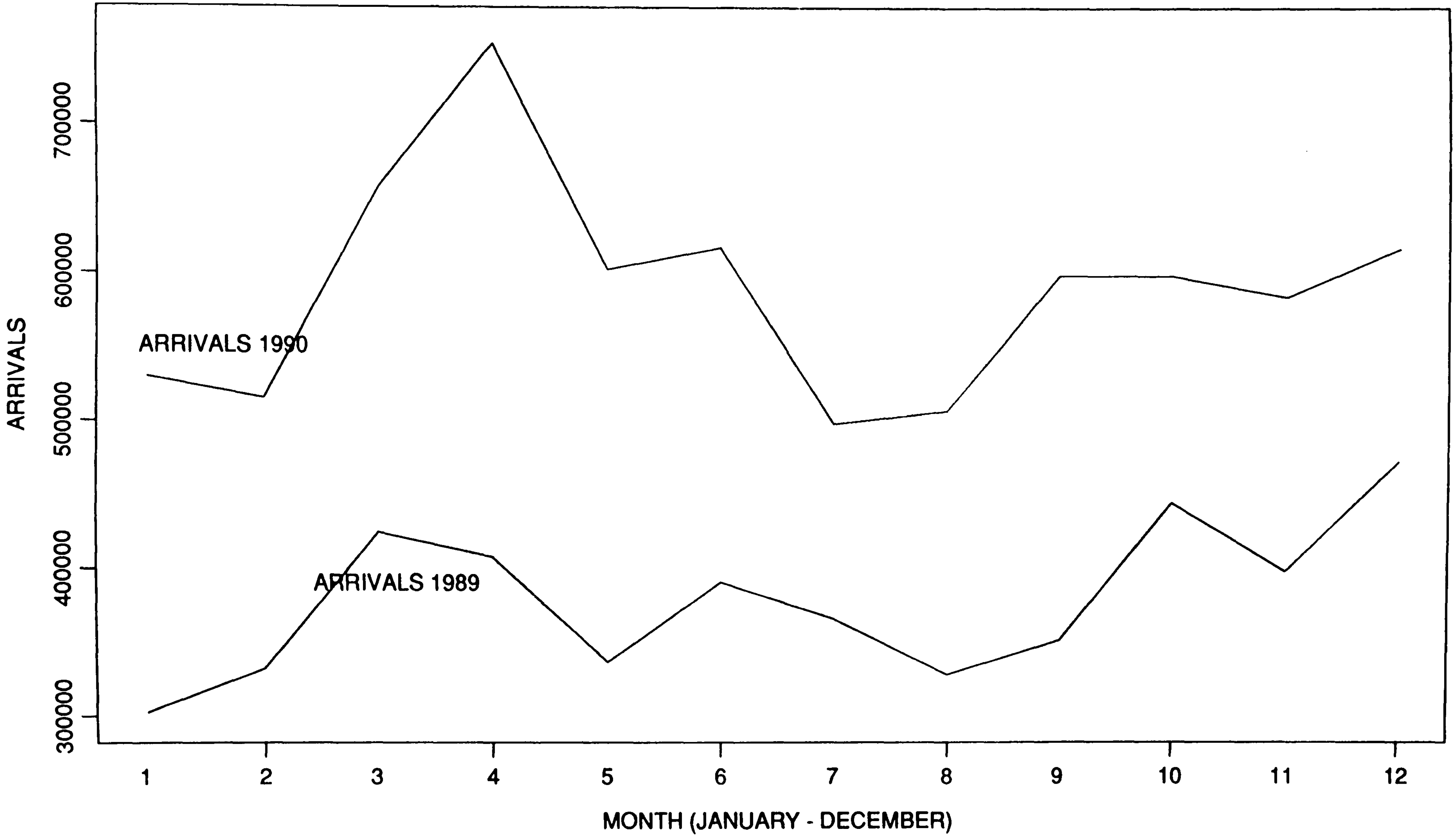


Figure 2.8

SEASONALITY TRENDS IN PENISULAR MALAYSIA (1989 - 1990)



Regional Distribution of Tourist Flow

Table 2.5 and Table 2.6 display the distribution of hotel guestnights by foreigners (Singaporeans and Bruneians and "other foreigners") and domestic tourists for a three-year period respectively. As can be seen from the tables, domestic tourists played a major role in contributing to the local hotel industry. On average, it accounted for 50% of the guestnights over the three-year period. The Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia has estimated domestic arrivals to grow by an average 8.8% annually from 1991 to 1995, while its receipts are expected to increase on average by 12.5% per year during the same period. Its regional distribution was quite different to that of foreigners, in that there was a greater geographical spread and Kuala Lumpur was far less prominent as a destination.

Nevertheless, Kuala Lumpur being the administrative, economic and cultural capital of Malaysia, it is the most popular destination attracting the biggest share of both foreigners and domestic tourists. However, its relative share of the guestnights by domestic tourists and "other foreigners" were declining over the three-year period between 1988 - 1990. Its share of domestic tourists dropped to 14% in 1989 and 1990 compared to 20.2% in 1988. While "other foreigners" recorded a gradual reduction over the same period from 28.3% in 1988 to 26.9% in 1989 and to 25.4% in 1990.

Table 2.5
Distribution of Foreign Hotel Guests in Malaysia
('000 Nights)
(1988-1990)

Locality	1988		1989		1990	
	Brunei/ S'pore	Others	Brunei/ S'pore	Others	Brunei/ S'pore	Others
K. Lumpur	**240.3**	**1,026.9**	**323.7**	**1,755.4**	**328.0**	**1,679.1**
Penang	**130.1**	**841.2**	**247.6**	**1,813.3**	**271.6**	**1,303.3**
Other W. Coast States	**387.2**	**772.1**	**809.3**	**1,542.7**	**768.8**	**2,049.0**
Selangor	36.8	272.5	112.2	712.8	214.9	844.7
Kedah	2.1	6.6	2.6	7.4	14.2	6.9
Perlis	.1	.8	.3	1.5	.7	2.8
Perak	53.9	92.6	34.8	100.0	59.3	257.8
N.Sembilan	8.8	88.9	6.9	20.3	6.5	89.3
Malacca	89.7	222.3	418.9	628.2	390.5	708.7
Johore	196.0	88.4	234.1	72.4	926.5	138.9
East Coast States	**82.1**	**321.3**	**184.9**	**566.2**	**113.6**	**383.1**
Pahang	61.7	204.0	147.3	456.9	52.4	198.4
Terengganu	11.7	94.4	21.4	78.4	36.5	133.6
Kelantan	8.7	22.9	16.3	31.0	24.8	51.1
Hill Resorts	**695.7**	**221.0**	**857.8**	**383.3**	**504.9**	**299.6**
Fraser's Hill	-	-	8.7	6.9	-	-
Cameron H	57.8	50.2	70.1	66.8	52.7	61.9
Genting H	637.9	170.9	779.0	309.8	451.9	237.8
Island R'ort	**9.3**	**125.6**	**52.9**	**230.5**	**168.0**	**448.0**
Langkawi	43.1	19.8	11.0	54.0	93.7	159.8
Pangkor	4.7	66.5	6.0	94.4	23.9	185.8
Tioman	11.4	39.3	35.6	82.1	50.9	102.4
P. Dickson	**18.5**	**18.2**	**33.7**	**37.8**	**18.5**	**39.1**
Total for P. Malaysia	**1,613**	**3,326**	**2,510**	**6,329**	**2,173**	**6,201**
Sabah	**10**	**202**	**7**	**84**	**14**	**216**
Sarawak	**6**	**97**	**7**	**107**	**27**	**184**
Total for Malaysia	**1,629**	**3.625**	**2,524**	**6,520**	**2,214**	**6,601**

Source: Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia

Table 2.6
Distribution of Domestic Hotel Guests in Malaysia
('000 Nights)
(1988-1990)

Locality	1988	1989	1990
Kuala Lumpur	1,307.0	1,145.3	1,136.6
Penang	460.9	721.8	1,263.6
Other West Coast States	2,584.5	3,043.6	2,697.7
Selangor	203.9	394.3	469.1
Kedah	170.4	186.9	141.1
Perlis	34.8	42.2	39.0
Perak	859.5	624.3	697.4
N.Sembilan	98.4	96.2	109.8
Malacca	374.7	769.7	762.7
Johore	842.9	929.8	478.6
East Coast States	661.1	938.6	901.3
Pahang	340.0	391.0	390.8
Terengganu	167.9	254.5	292.9
Kelantan	153.2	293.1	217.7
Hill Resorts	686.2	1,154.7	563.5
Fraser's Hill	-	69.0	-
Cameron Highland	91.2	178.6	155.0
Genting Highland	595.0	907.0	408.5
Island Resorts	150.6	342.5	441.1
Pulau Langkawi	85.3	161.0	230.0
Pulau Pangkor	50.5	62.0	175.3
Pulau Tioman	14.7	119.6	35.9
Port Dickson	95.6	136.3	170.1
Total for **Peninsula Malaysia**	5,946.0	7,482.8	7.174.0
Sabah	258.1	407.0	443.0
Sarawak	281.6	295.7	498.8
Total for whole of Malaysia	6,485.7	8,185.5	8,115.8

Source: Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia

Penang island is the second most important tourist region in Malaysia. Its share of foreign bednights ranged between 18% to 23%. However, the figures for "other foreigners" tend to fluctuate from 23.2% (1988) to 27.8% (1989) to 19.7% (1990). The contribution of domestic tourists increased from 7.1% in 1988 to 15.6% in 1990. The island has a relatively broad spectrum of hotel sizes of 10-99 rooms in the town area, thus showing a greater concentration of domestic tourists utilising lower priced accommodation units. While it does attract domestic tourists, the primary appeal of the beach area is to the foreign tourists, it accounts from 65% (1988) to 56% (1989) and 55% (1990) of the total foreign markets to the island.

Amongst the other west coast states, Selangor is the most popular with "other foreigners" accounting between 35%-46% of all their bednights in the region. I t s proximity to the capital city is an apparent advantage. Next in importance, is Malacca - the state with a rich historical heritage. It is well situated geographically, conveniently located between the two gateway cities of Kuala Lumpur and Singapore which also contributed to its popularity. On the other hand, the state of Perak noted as the "tin state" of Malaysia, is much more frequented by domestic tourists. Similar trends were also observed for the state of Johor over the same period.

Efforts to break the dominance of the west coast tourist regions have been slow to show result despite massive government investment in highway improvement and special promotion on the east coast. Its share of foreign tourists improved to 8.3% in 1989 but declined to 5.6% in 1990. Enjoying more than 65% of the share is the state of Pahang. This could be attributed to its direct airlinks with Singapore as well as availability of good variety of beach resorts including Club Mediterranee. Culturally rich states of Kelantan and Terengganu are still considered too far for car/coach bound tourists from Kuala Lumpur or Penang.

The hill resorts, although popular with both domestic and foreign tourists are showing a mixed fortune in the three-year period. Its bednights count in both type of tourists appeared to increase dramatically in 1989 but declined in the following year by almost the same percentage point. It was particularly hard for Genting Highlands whose actual total number of guestnights in 1990 fell below its 1988 level. However, the figure for "other foreigners" are much more encouraging with only 23.3% drops when compared to 1989.

The island resorts of Pangkor, Tioman and Langkawi increased its share of the total bednights from 2.9% to 3.6% to 6.2% in 1988, 1989 and 1990 respectively. Over the period, foreign tourists contributed 54% of the total hotel occupancy. Pangkor Island is much more attractive to the "other foreigners" while Langkawi Island - the official resort for the 1989 Commonwealth Head of Governments

Conference is popular with the domestic tourists. However, its total foreigners bednights exceeded that in Pangkor in 1990. This was of course, a direct result of the government's efforts to meet the competition from Phuket Island in South Thailand. Government investment here was not only in the basic infrastructure but also in extending the runway capable of handling the Boeing 747: hotel construction was undertaken and it was declared as a duty-free port.

Similar to the arrival trends, Table 2.5 also portrays that Peninsular Malaysia has maintained its dominant share of the total foreign hotel bednights over the period. However, its relative share fluctuated from 94% in 1988, 98% in 1989 and 95% in 1990. Compared to Peninsular Malaysia, both Sabah and Sarawak failed to register better arrival figures even from their next door neighbour Brunei, not to mention the tourists from Singapore which is two hours away by air. Domestic tourism played a much more important role in Sabah and Sarawak when compared to other regions in Malaysia. Poor accessibility and limited basic and tourist infrastructures need to be addressed if they hope to attract other market segments other than their present strength in adventure tourism.

Capacity of Accommodation

Infrastructure and accommodation facilities improved rapidly in the past 10 years. Capacity in 1990 included 989 hotel units with 45,032 bedrooms (Table 2.7). In terms of number of rooms, this represent 18.8 per cent increase in a four year period since 1986.

As with demand, hotel capacity is highly concentrated in the Kuala Lumpur and Penang areas which together account for 38% of the country's total room capacity. But it is distinctly up-market, with for example, 39% of all 100 rooms or more size of hotel accommodation. The majority of the remaining international standard hotelrooms are spread around the various state capitals and resorts.

Occupancy levels during the mid-1980's were disastrously low with only 50.1% in 1985 and 50.9% in 1986 prompting cries from hoteliers for a moratorium of hotel construction for five years in 1986, to slow down the expansion of supply in excess of demand. Since then, despite large capacity increases, the average hotel occupancy rates for the country slowly began to recover achieving 55.8% in 1987; 62.2% in 1988; 66.9% in 1989 and 72.9% in 1990.

Table 2.7

Distribution of Hotel Rooms and Numbers by States 1988-1990

States	No. of Rooms			No.of Hotels		
	1986	1988	1990	1986	1988	1990
Kuala Lumpur	9,090	9,725	10,215	133	138	138
Penang	5,715	6,063	6,897	100	103	105
Selangor	1,102	1,360	1,435	22	24	25
Perlis	146	151	154	4	4	5
Kedah	987	952	2,103	23	21	38
Perak	2,788	2,928	3,091	98	108	112
N.Sembilan	780	875	875	27	34	34
Malacca	1,941	1,893	1,940	36	35	36
Johor	3,600	3,655	4,141	102	104	119
Pahang	3,984	4,161	4,317	89	92	94
Terengganu	1,085	1,224	1,178	31	37	36
Kelantan	740	685	889	27	25	30
Sabah	3,315	3,610	3,570	93	100	95
Sarawak	2,628	3,478	4,227	76	91	122
Total	37,901	40,760	45,032	861	914	989

Source: Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia

Tourism Policy

Government involvement in tourism in Malaysia largely stemmed from a variety of economic considerations such as to improve the balance of payment deficit; to foster regional development; diversification of the national economy; to increase employment and income level as well as to increase government revenue.

The means to this end could be viewed from two perspectives. Indirectly, the development of basic infrastructure undertaken by the government such as airports, highways, communication and water supply not only to promote economic development to sustain or further the growth of its domestic economy, but also to produce the spin-off and side effects which benefitted tourism greatly.

Government inputs to various projects directly linked to tourism have increased tremendously. Under successive Malaysian Development Plans, the allocation was continuously increased from M$17.2 million in the Second Malaysian Plan (1971-1975) to M$54.4 million in the Third (1976-1980) to M$148.5 million in the Fourth (1981-1985) and M$571.6 million in the Fifth Malaysian Plan (1986-1990). The funds were made available to the various government's development agencies for projects such as construction of new or extension of existing hotels, visitor centres facilities, handicraft centres, facilities in National Parks and the National Zoo. The rationale here is to stimulate investment in areas where private sectors are slow or reluctant to exploit.

However, the danger here is that the government is stretching itself too thin in trying to develop too quickly and in too many places only to burden itself with misdirected investment in those tourist development areas which are supposed to "improve" the regional imbalance in the first place. While, "tourism, by its very nature, tends to distribute development away from the industrial centres towards those regions in a country which have not developed" (Peters, 1969) or with few alternatives for development, it does of course require more than a 200-room hotel, a golf course to "create its own demand". Lack of adequate conditions for development and site prerequisites also posed another concern for some investments which could only be made possible by decisions based on political expediencies.

The provision of the Investment Incentives Act, 1968 could be viewed as another direct involvement by the government in tourism. To attract investment for the development of hotels, that is for new as well as for the expansion and modernisation programme, the Act provided several incentives which were primarily related to the relief of income taxes and payroll taxes. In particular:

i. Income tax exemption

This provided for the total relief of income taxes (40 percent of net income) and development tax (5 percent of net income) for a period of two to eight years depending on the level of capital investment if it qualified as pioneer status.

ii. Income tax abatements

This was a partial relief of income taxes for a period of twelve years for those project not electing pioneer status.

iii. Investment tax credit

Available to those companies not enjoying either of the above incentives. It provided for a tax credit representing 25 percent of the total capital expenditure incurred by the project.

These incentives vary by area and generally were more liberal in those regions that were classified as development areas such as the states of Kedah (including Pulau Langkawi), Perlis, Pahang, Terengganu, Kelantan, Malacca, Sabah and Sarawak. The Act also allowed for all losses or tax credits to be carried forward to offset future income. It also allowed for accelerated depreciation and increased capital allowances which allowed depreciation of fixed assets over a four-year period rather than a 20-year period for those companies that qualified.

The incentives, though quite competitive and which compared favourably with those of most other developing countries, had tended to favour large capital-intensive international hotel projects at the expense of the budget class accommodation. The Act was unable to generate sufficient non-accommodation tourism attractions required not only to prolong the average length of foreign tourist, but also to encourage domestic travel. Another weakness of this Act was that its failure to refine the geographical classification of the development areas resulting in imbalance investment or ineffective incentives to promote those areas that needed it the most rather than the state capitals which enjoyed the same privileges. Too little differences in the incentives between the regions also contributed to the over supply of hotel rooms in Kuala Lumpur and Penang in the early 1980's.

To address some of the above shortcomings, a new incentives scheme was introduced and came into effect in January 1986. Known as Promotion of Investment Act 1986, it provided a range of incentives to include a wider scope of investments covering:

i. Accommodation sector including hotels, chalets, hostel and resthouses.

ii. Non-accommodation sector such as safari parks, zoos and amusement parks.

Under this scheme, an investor is given two options to choose:

i. Pioneer Status - It is a modified form where it is no longer given on the basis of capital investment. Instead, a project, be it of an accommodation or non-accommodation type, will be given tax relief for a period of five years. Dividends paid out to shareholders are also exempt from tax in the hand of shareholders.

ii. Investment Tax Allowance - Allowance of up to 100 per cent is given in respect of capital expenditure incurred within 5 years from the date of approval of the project. The allowance to be granted will depend on the features of the project, the maximum being 100 per cent. In the case of non-accommodation project, capital expenditure refers to expenditure incurred in respect of the following:

a. clearing of land for purpose of a tourist project.
b. planting of trees or plants
c. construction of roads and other infrastructure facilities provided they are on land-forming part

of the land used for the purpose of tourist projects.

d. provision of birds, animals and other exhibits.

e. provision of plant and machinery.

f. provision of buildings, structural improvement on land used for purpose of tourist projects.

An Industrial Building Allowance in the form of an allowance of 10 percent and an annual allowance of 2 percent is also granted as an additional incentive for an accommodation project in respect of the capital expenditure incurred by a pioneer company, or a company qualified for investment tax allowance.

The extension of the incentives to cover hostels, chalets and resthouses reflects the government's commitment to encourage a wider choice of accommodation standard to be made available to discerning tourists - foreign or domestic alike. Under the scheme, the minimum number of rooms required in order to qualify has been reduced from 40 rooms to 20 rooms in Kuala Lumpur and Penang, and from 20 rooms to 10 rooms for other areas.

The government has also provided other incentives to further enhance the investment climate for the tourism industry. They are:

1. Tax exemption on machinery and equipment - where custom duties and sales tax are waived for

the purchase of equipment and machinery bought locally or imported for use of accommodation or non-accommodation projects.

2. Service Tax - government's tax on customers' charges on rooms, restaurants and entertainments are reduced from 10 percent to 5 percent in 1986.

3. Incentives for Tour Operators - tax exemption is given in respect of income derived from foreign tourist business. This incentive is only given to those tour operators who bring in at least 500 tourist through group inclusive tours. This incentive, however, will continue until the year of assessment 1990.

4. Electricity Rates - electricity rates for hotels have been reduced from M$0.24 per unit to M$0.20 per unit. This means a saving of up to M$15.000 per month for hoteliers.

5. Double deduction on certain expenses for tax purposes - including that for hotels and tour operators on overseas promotions and on costs of training approved by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism. This incentive is to start from year of assessment 1991.

6. New Investment Fund - introduced in September 1985, this incentive was to stimulate new fixed

investments in the manufacturing, agriculture and tourism sectors at a reasonable rate as part of the government's effort to promote exports. Under this scheme, the Central Bank will channel government deposits to the commercial banks for on-lending. The New Investment Fund funding rate is computed as the average of the Base Lending Rate (BLR) of the two largest commercial banks, less 1.5 percent. This rate will float with the BLR. The minimum amount of financing is M$250,000 per project. The maximum being M$50 million. Funding is available up to 75 percent of the total cost of the project. The maximum period of loan under this facility is five years.

7. Preferential government loans for low-cost tourist accommodation units - available to indigenous Malaysians for 5-7 year period and each chalet loan is for M$7,000. This is to provide additional accommodation in areas such as the east coast and the island resorts. It is hoped to spread the benefit of tourism by improving the standard of living of those enterprising local people who would have a difficulty in raising personal loans.

Apart from the above incentives which are specifically related to tourism, two other incentives are created to attract foreign private investment. Namely:

1. Avoidance of Double Taxation Agreements (DTAs) - Malaysia has entered into various Avoidance of Double Taxation Agreements (DTAs) with a number of countries. These DTAs provide for the avoidance of incidence of double taxation on international income that is derived in one country and remitted to another country.

2. Investment Guarantee Agreements - Malaysia also enters into Investment Guarantee Agreements with interested countries to safeguard the interest of foreign investors.

While the investment incentives were provided to encourage the provision of better and varied accommodation and attractions, the priority that the government placed on tourism could further be emphasised by the establishment of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in May 1987. With respect to tourism, specifically, its responsibilities are two-fold:

1. To coordinate the activities in respect of the tourism industry conducted by the government department and non-governmental organisations.

2. To make recommendations to the government on the methods, measures and policies to be adopted

to facilitate the development of the tourism industry.

Its inception was widely applauded as timely as the industry was looking for more effective leadership in view of its growth and importance. Already it has been instrumental in the decision by the government to reduce the operating licences required to operate the various services at a typical international standard hotel from 63 to just 1 only.

To integrate and coordinate development planning, the Ministry has established three committees:

1. Main Committee on Tourism - chaired by the Minister, this committee discusses general problems and issues relating to planning at the States level. It also considers certain policy issues proposed by the Product Development Committee before they are submitted to the government for final approval.

2. Product Development Committee - chaired by the Secretary-General of the Ministry, this committee discusses the topics related to a particular product before implementing it or referral to the Main Committee.

3. Sub-committee on Infrastructure; Superstructure and New Projects - these are in fact the technical working groups appointed from the various professionals to serve the Product Development Committee.

The government, to facilitate co-ordination has maintained the Cabinet Committee on Tourism which was first established in 1985. This Committee is chaired by the Prime Minister, with the other members drawn from selected Cabinet Ministers whose ministries have direct influence on the development of the industry.

Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia (TDC)

With the setting up of the Ministry, the tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia - a statutory body incorporated in 1972, is now free to concentrate its effort in marketing of tourism products locally and internationally. Part II, Section 4(1) of the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia Act, 1972 states that:

> 4(1) The functions of the Corporation shall be to coordinate the activities in respect of the tourist industry conducted by departments or governmental or non-governmental agencies;
>
> to make recommendations to the government as to the methods, measures and where approved by

government, to implement and assist in the implementation of the same; and

generally to promote locally and internationally, and to participate in the development of the tourist industry in Malaysia.

In order to achieve its marketing objectives i.e. to increase tourist arrivals, foreign exchange and Malaysia's share of the convention and incentive markets as well as to stimulate the growth of domestic tourism, the following short and medium term strategies were adopted by TDC:

- Concentration of resources through market segmentation.
- Strengthening linkages with major tour wholesalers and operators both domestically and internationally.
- Sustain media saturation.
- Appropriate image building activities.
- Establishing linkages with airlines and charter operators.
- Co-operation in bilateral and multi-lateral organisations including ASEAN, PATA etc.
- Participation in selected fairs and exhibitions.
- Creating presence in various market through an equitable marketing mix.
- Creating greater rapport with travel trade writers, journalists and film producers.

From the above strategies, it was apparent that the TDC is integrating both promotional and facilitation approaches in marketing the country as a destination. The former included not only funding and organising overall destination awareness but also image building campaigns. An image campaign involved planning and executing promotional mix which typically comprised advertising, hospitality programmes, publicity and public relation and promotion (domestic and international):

Advertising

The advertising activities carried out were aimed at enhancing Malaysia's image as an attractive tourist destination. The objectives were:

- to increase awareness as the first choice destination for holiday, convention, incentives and special interest travels.
- to reinforce and maintain "top-of-mind" awareness of Malaysia and its attraction as an ideal holiday destination.
- to promote Malaysia as an all-year-round destination.
- to elicit direct responses from potential tourists.
- to encourage the trade to give greater emphasis to the promotion of travel to Malaysia.

The integrated promotional theme used for both international and domestic markets was "Fascinating Malaysia." To ensure its effectiveness in the minds of prospective customers the same themes were echoed over the last three years (1988-1990). The advertising campaign in the international and regional markets was significantly increased from M$11.4 million in 1987 to M$38.7 million in 1988 and M$33.5 million in 1989. The consumer media used were television, newspaper, magazines, radio and billboard. As for the commercial media, magazine was the most popular.

Hospitality Programmes

In 1989, 304 travel writers and foreign journalists, were hosted on familiarisation tours of Malaysia through the hospitality programmes. TDC also entertained and assisted 28 film companies on location shootings of places of interest in the country. The Corporation also played host to 340 travel agents and tour operators.

During the same year, another 30 travel writers and foreign journalists were invited to witness the launching of the Visit Malaysia Year ceremony. In addition to covering the event, they also visited several places of interest of Malaysia.

Sales Promotion

As part of the overall "umbrella campaign" intended to promote destination awareness and influence prospective consumers' attitudes , the Corporation participated in major scheduled tourism exhibitions and trade fairs on the international and regional markets. In 1990, the TDC with the cooperation and assistance of the respective government departments, Malaysia Airlines, foreign airlines companies, tour operator, hoteliers and private sector organisations participated in the following promotional events, to name a few:

- Pasadena Rosebowl Parade, Los Angeles
- Malaysia International Air Race (Paris-Langkawi-Paris)
- BIT, Milan
- Make It Malaysia, Australia
- ITB, Berlin
- Internatinal Business Trade Show (Tokyo)
- Garden and Greenery Expo (Osaka)
- PATA Chapter Congress/Conference/ PATA Mart
- SMTV (France)
- EIBTM, Geneva
- Food and Cultural Festival (Japan)
- American Society of Association Executives Convention, Chicago.
- Teipei Import Fair
- Top Resa Deauville, France
- Travel Incentives and Meetings Exhibition, London
- ITME, Chicago
- Sales Mission to Milan, Paris, Munich and Stuttgart
- World Travel Mart, London
- World Travel Fair, Japan.

The Corporation also assisted overseas tour operators in their planning for marketing of tour packages to Malaysia. Financial assistance was granted for purposes of printing tour brochures and programmes leaflets and also for advertising purposes.

Representations in Markets of Origin

The Corporation maintained a network of twelve foreign travel promotion offices around the world, namely: London, Paris, Frankfurt, Los Angeles, Vancouver, Sydney, Perth, Hong Kong, Tokyo, Taipei, Bangkok and Singapore. The promotional activities undertaken include the following:

- disseminating information
- participating in travel trade exhibitions
- organising seminars/workshops/promotion for travel trade organisation
- promoting new tour packages to Malaysia
- generate flow of marketing intelligence.

Public Relations and Publicity

Public relations activity at the strategic level would continue to be used to enhance, sustain corporate and product images and positions through printed material of all kinds. While at the tactical level, regular and up-to-date news and articles on tourism in Malaysia would be used to communicate to the general public or target groups. Professional public relations/marketing consultants were normally engaged to lend supporting services to overseas offices.

Visit Malaysia year 1990

"Visit Malaysia Year 1990" (VMY) was an event conceptualised to highlight the campaign to promote Malaysia as one of the leading tourist destinations in the region. It was a year of celebration of festivals, feasts, exhibitions, sports and colourful traditions. The objectives were:

- to promote Malaysia as an attractive tourist destination to countries identified as potential market areas.
- to increase the number of tourists to Malaysia at the minimum rate of 10 per cent per annum.
- to increase tourists length of stay and per capita expenditure so as to enhance foreign exchange earnings from the tourism sector.
- to promote and popularise culture and art activities and existing tourist destinations.
- to promote domestic tourism through creating greater awareness among Malaysian of the country's tourist destinations.

Besides the festivities, to attract foreigners to Malaysia a number of special "offers" such as: travel passes were made available which unlimited first class travel on the railways at economy prices; low cost domestic air travel; concessionary express coach travel and car hire packages of up to 50 per cent discount. This made Malaysia an even lower cost destination that it would normally be.

In conclusion, Malaysia is well positioned to exploit the future growth in international tourism demand. It is blessed with a variety of product mix of sufficient width and depth. Its importance to the national economy is well reflected by the government's involvement in its promotion and expansion. However, there is a danger that the country is joining the growing number of "identikit" destinations which take on an increasingly similar and familiar appearance of relatively substitutable tourism products.

In as competitive an industry as tourism, destinations cannot afford to learn their lessons from mass tourism the hard way. Changing tastes and circumstances can quickly erode established markets. This means for destination area the problems of matching supply and demand is more difficult. Identifying and capitalising on its comparative advantage in one or more tourism products not only protects its appeal but also guards against the actions of competing destinations.

A prerequisite for this strategy remains in the understanding of the tourist's holiday choice process which could certainly provides new insight of value in linking destination marketing and planning. It focuses not only on the satisfaction of tourist needs but at the same time respects the long-term interest of the community.

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CHAPTER THREE

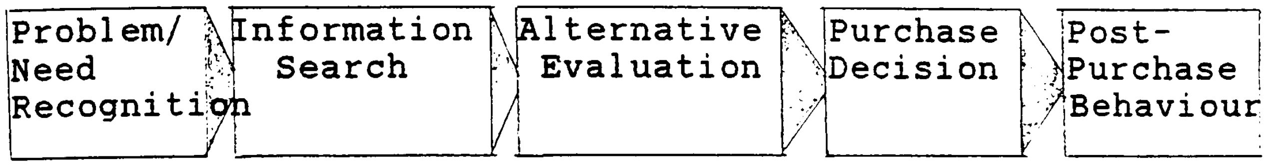
PROBLEM OR NEED RECOGNITION

Introduction

Consumer-behaviour researchers have suggested that the consumer decision process starts long before the actual purchase and has consequences long after the purchase. "Stage Models" of the buying process were proposed to encourage the marketer to focus on the buying process rather than on the purchase decision. Kotler (1991) adopted a 5-Stage Model of the Buying Process which shows the consumer as passing through all five stages in buying a product. The model had it origin from decision process stage of the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell model of consumer behaviour. Figure 3.1 shows the full range of considerations that arise when a consumer faces a highly involving new purchase.

Of course, for the low-involvement purchase, the consumer would go right from the need recognition to the purchase decision, skipping information search and evaluation. Long-haul holiday decision process certainly involves a complex buying behaviour as it is relatively expensive product. As such, the greater will be the

Figure 3.1
Five Stage Model of the Buying Process



Source: Kotler, Philip., (1991) Marketing Management - Analysis, Planning, Implementation & Control, 7th edition, Englewood Cliffs, New Jerseys: Prentice Hall.

consumer's involvement and deliberation. Therefore, the application of this model to the purchase of the long-haul holiday is most relevant.

As the model suggested, the buying process starts with the buyer recognising a problem or need. This results when a consumer perceives a difference between his actual and desired state of affair. When this happens, the human system is energised and goal-directed behaviour begins. Seemingly unrelated activities now become organised to satisfy this state of arousal. In other words, the system is turned on and motivated to engage in purposeful activity or it is a state of desire that triggers decision process (Engel et al, 1986), Block and Roering, 1979).

Some factors produce problem recognition by affecting the consumer's ideal/desired state of affairs, whereas others affects the consumer's actual state of affairs.

Certain factors can, of course, affect both ideal and actual states.

Factors Affecting the Ideal State

There is perhaps an infinite number of factors that affect a consumer's ideal state of affairs. The most important factors affecting the consumer's ideal state are: (1) family characteristics, (2) financial considerations, (3) other decisions, (4) reference groups, (5) marketing efforts and (6) motives. Engel et al, (1986) however, suggested that motives served as the primary determinant.

Motives

In the context of travel, Lunberg (1974) suggest that what the traveller says are his motivations for travelling may be only reflection of deeper needs. Therefore, it is appropriate that any discussion on motivation should start with an attempt to understand the concept of human needs.

Though everything consumers do in the marketplace is related to satisfying their needs, evaluating these needs can be difficult. There is not a one-to-one match between a specific need and any one particular purchase. Many different kinds of goods may meet a particular need, and many different needs might be satisfied by a single product or services (Settle and Alreck 1986).

The Basic Human Needs

Psychologist Abraham Maslow identified that man has five sets of basic need that can be arranged into a vertical "hierarchy of needs" (Figure 4.2). This hierarchy model has stood the test of time and is the basis of much of what is known about human behaviour. The most primary needs are at the lower end of the hierarchy and those of the highest order at the top. People seek satisfaction for higher-level needs only after lower-level needs are satisfied. In other words, until psychological needs are satisfied, they remain primary in human motivation. Once these are fulfilled, the need for security becomes primary, and so forth up the ladder.

Figure 3.2
Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Self-Actualisation Needs
(self-development, self-fulfilment)

↑

Esteem Needs
(self-esteem, recognition, prestige, success and achievement)

↑

Social Needs
(sense of belonging(family and friends), self-respect and identification)

↑

Safety Needs
(security, protection, stability and order)

↑

Physiological Needs
(hunger, thirst and sex)

Source: Maslow, A. (1984), Motivation and Personality, London: Harper and Row.

Physiological Needs:

This is life sustaining needs that must be satisfied before human beings can acquire other drives that are not physiological. This includes the needs to drink, to sleep, to keep warm and to reproduce.

Safety Needs:

Once an individual has learned to satisfy his physiological needs, Maslow lists safety as the next dominant needs which occupies large amount of times and energy in trying to satisfy them. This group of needs refers to the individual's concern with physical survival, safety and security.

Social Needs:

To be loved by other people and to feel that one is accepted, either as a member of a family, or a peer group are strong and continuing needs. This belonging needs may extend to national, religious groups, occupational as well as to the social and economic class to which a person belongs.

Esteem Needs:

Having attained security and love and acceptance of others, the individual tries to obtain admiration and achievement and recognition. Esteem needs also include the desire for self-respect, reputation, independence, mastery and self-confidence in eyes of others. This need related to the individual's feeling of usefulness in his world. Most psychologists agreed that this need together with love and belonging needs are not satisfied very easily in the developed western societies, thus remaining as a continued source of problem or need recognition.

Self-Actualisation Needs:

This is the highest state in Maslow's need hierarchy. Once all other needs have been satisfied, self-actualisation is the final step for individual to pursue. It is the complete fulfilment of all of their human capacities. This means enlarging and enhancing themselves, extending their personal identities, their individuality and their uniqueness. Because it takes a lot of time, experience and wisdom in trying to stay alive and healthy, to be secure ,to maintain relationship with family and friends, and to get some respect and recognition, most people do not really get to pursue this need satisfaction until they have a few decades behind them.

The Basic Intellectual Needs

Maslow also suggested a separate hierarchy of intellectual needs coexist with the five basic physiological needs to explain the intellectual activities of man. The first need in this category is the need to know, and the second, is the need to understand. It involves satisfying curiosity and exploration needs. It is also governed by the principle of prepotency which means that people will typically try to fulfil the need to understand only after the need to know has been satisfied.

Travel and the Level of Needs

Psychologists agree that travel is a complex, symbolic form of behaviour through which the tourist is usually striving to satisfy multiple needs. It satisfies many physical, social, psychological and intellectual needs. Travel during the earlier times can be said to be undertaken to satisfy the lower-level needs: where man ventured into no-man's land in search of food and water: soldiers pursued their enemies to prevent sudden attacks on their territories. Even today, travel is undertaken to satisfy survival-related needs as travel can sometimes be essential for health as in the case of going overseas for a complex medical treatment or the need to travel to a warm climate to recover from or to avoid illness such as asthma and tuberculosis.

Those living in the urbanised and industrial society need a break from mental and physical stress of their daily routine to avoid a breakdown in health. At the same time it provides them with a source of variety - an opportunity to escape from boredom and reality. Escape from reality refers to travel as an activity in which one's lives out one's own fantasies - that is, doing things that are at variance with one's everyday life (Dumazedier, 1967).

The need for love and belonging are often fulfilled through travel away from home as it offered a chance to make new friends or seek romance. It can assure acceptance into an important reference group for affection and companionship (Dann,1977), (Cohen and Taylor,1976).

Travel to little known or distant tourist destinations are very prestigious and provides the individual with a new social position which can be exploited for personal needs of power and recognition. This aspect of the escape motivation is termed ego-enhancement by Dann (1977) which could be described as self-esteem needs in Maslow's terminology.

Cultural travel provides opportunities to their fullest. Travel for self-actualisation could mean trying to obtain achievement in literary, educational or scientific fields.

Travel can help to satisfy unfulfilled intellectual needs. This is allowing one to fulfil the need to know by seeing by oneself what cannot be delivered by reading through the media. Research by the Irish Tourist Board has found that holidays in Ireland tend to meet the needs of those seeking to know and understand themselves better (Holloway and Plant, 1988).

Hudson (1980) asserts that recreational travel motivation is subject to push-pull tendency. Maslow's hierarchy of needs discussed above act as a basis for "push" factor while the attractiveness of destination areas are the "pull" factor.

It is interesting to note that the multiplicity of needs as a motive to travel is not a modern phenomena - where people are thought to travel for its own sake resulting from the emergence of a large middle class with significant disposable income, technological advances in transportation and the promotional effort of the industry. In fact, the Romans were said not only to have travelled considerable distances for relaxation at their summer resorts to escape the stifling heat of the main cities but were also improving their knowledge of the Empire and their social contacts (Wolfe, 1967) (Pliny, 1966). Thus, satisfying their physical, social, esteem and intellectual needs.

Travel Motivation

A need can lie dormant for hours, days, months, even years. But once it is excited and the person feels the urge to satisfy the need, that creates a motive to act. If needs were heat, motive would be the spark that ignites the fire of action (Settle and Alreck, 1986). It functions both to arouse behaviour and to direct it to certain ends (Engel et al., 1986). In term of travel motivation, aroused behaviour would mean an intention to select a travel destination, while the other function, would direct potential traveller to select specific destination through evaluation of subjective beliefs about destination attributes.

McIntosh (1977) suggests that basic travel motivations can be grouped into four categories:

i. Physical Motivators, which are related to physical relaxation and rest, participation in sporting activities and other activities connected with health considerations.

ii. Cultural Motivators, which are concerned with the individual desire to travel in order to acquire knowledge of other countries - including their music, folklore, art, dances, paintings and religion.

iii. Interpersonal Motivators, which are connected with the desire to meet new people, to visit friends and relatives, or to escape from one's own family, fellow workers and neighbours, or to forge new friendships or to escape from boredom and reality.

iv. Status and Prestige Motivators, which are associated with the need for recognition, attention, appreciation, personal development and good reputation.

A further sub-division of each of the these four groups is given by Robinson (1976) reflect a more precise travel motivations:

i. For relaxation and refreshment of body and mind, which are clearly related to the need to escape from stress and strain of everyday life.

ii. For health purposes, which is to recover from illness, for medical treatment as well as to seek fresh air and warm climate to avoid specific medical disorders.

iii. For sheer pleasure of fun and excitement. This is to satisfy the need to escape from boredom.

iv. For active participation in a wide variety of sporting activities, be it in the context of competition or pleasure such as skiing, tennis, surfing, jungle-trekking, mountaineering, etc.

v. For the interest in "foreign part" especially in destination rich in historical and cultural heritage.

vi. For interpersonal reasons which include visit to one's friends and relatives, to meet new people and to seek new friendship.

vii. For spiritual purpose to sacred places undertaken because of religious commitments.

viii. For professional or business reasons like attending a conference related to the profession, business, or to some organisation to which an individual belongs to.

The existence of multiple motivations before holiday travel takes place could be explained by the concept of the utilitarian ethic which dictates that every activity to be undertaken by man should have a useful purpose or achieve something beneficial. Even one's leisure should be productive if one's is to avoid the feeling of guilt (Kerr, 1962). This pushes people to search for more purposeful reasons to justify a trip. The implication of this puritan philosophy is that all other thing being equal, a journey is likely to take place if it serves some instrumental purpose other than the pleasure that it promises (Mayo and Jarvis, 1982).

Burkart and Medlik (1974) distinguish two broad categories of travellers when they examine tourist motivation:

- The first group of travellers are those who have to visit a particular place because of business, conference or special interest reasons. For them, the decision to travel, where to go and when to go is, to a great extent, outside their control. They are less influenced by price fluctuation or distance.

- The second group are those who travel for holiday purposes. These pleasure tourists have the freedom of choice in deciding for themselves the destination for their holidays, the mode of transportation, the choice of lodging facilities to stay and the type of activities to participate. To a greater or lesser extent, they can decide when to go as well as being susceptible to price inducements. Burkart and Medlik reckoned that the reasons for this type of travel are varied and not always clearly evident or easily identifiable. They went on to suggest that the prime motivation for this group in engaging in tourism was to be elsewhere and to escape, however, temporarily, the routine, constraints and stress of everyday life.

Crompton (1979) is another researcher who explicitly supports a multi-motive view of the determinants of travel behaviour. In his study, Crompton identified ten motives for travelling. Eight of these were classified under the generic heading of socio-psychological disequilibrium. These were:

1. escape from a perceived mundane environment
2. exploration and evaluation of self
3. relaxation
4. prestige
5. regression
6. enhancement of kinship relationships
7. facilitation of social interaction
8. companionship
9. novelty
10. education

The last two motives were classified under the alternate generic heading of cultural disequilibrium which are related to the particular cultural opportunities that a destination offered.

The Choice of Long-Haul versus Short-Haul Holiday

Individual choice of whether to take a short-haul holiday against a long-haul holiday could be based on theoretical foundation of the following concepts:

i. Consistency Theory: This theory holds that people nearly always seek balance, harmony, sameness, the absence of conflict and predictability. This means that people are expected to seek out things which are predictable and consistent in order to reduce psychological tensions.

According to this theory, individuals would prefer to visit only reasonably well-known destinations, patronising established hotel chain offering standardised accommodation and services. As such, they would encounter little risk of undesirable experience during their journey and stay away from home. This probably explained why far-away and not so well-known destinations are actively encouraging transnational companies to expand their operations in their respective countries in an attempt to balance the complexity of long-haul travel with the consistency of many of the comforts used by the tourists at home.

ii. Complexity Theory: The essence of this theory is that people would pursue novelty, unexpectedness, change and unpredictability because they are inherently satisfying. Proponents of this theory argue that life is too complex to be properly lived and understood through a reliance on easy consistencies as consistency theory fails to explain how people cope with the unpleasant experience of boredom (Maddi, 1968).

According to this theory, individual would visit destinations that he/she had not visited before, seeking a change from what he/she is accustomed to at home or what he/she experience during his/she lazy vacation.

As mentioned earlier, long-haul travel suffers from the distance-decay concept in the sense that the further away a destination is from the target market, the lesser would be the number of tourists. The obvious reason for this is that the further away is the destination, the cost of travelling also increases - including the monetary costs, convenient costs, physical costs as well as emotional costs.

However, this distance-decay concept does not necessarily present itself as a hindrance to the development of far-away tourist destinations. Research suggests that far-away destinations are especially attractive to the pleasure traveller simply because it is far-off (Mayo, 1975). The greater distance in this case help to create a perception of the far-off destination that makes it more attractive. This phenomena could also be contributed to the fact that people will purchase differently from those established buying patterns simply for the sake of novelty (Venkatesan, 1973). Therefore, the same could explain why the British might find Malaysia more attractive or more appealing than Spain or Morocco. Thus, when finance does not prohibit the traveller, he/she might easily be persuaded to travel to the more distant destination.

Stanley Plog (1973) classified tourists into two broad categories as either psychocentric or allocentric. These two personality traits type showed different predispositions and attitudes toward travel. The psychocentric personality are self-inhibited, nervous and lack of desire for adventure - naturally has a strong need for predictability in his life. Thus, he typically visits familiar or popular destinations and prefers well-packaged holidays of sun, sea and sand variety. The allocentric, on the other hand, are much more outgoing, has varied interests and are keen to explore new places and find new things to do. He has a strong need for unpredictability in his life. He typically visits out-of-the-way, less well-known destinations and more likely to travel independently. Some of these differences are presented in Figure 3.3.

Plog also shows that there are three in-between categories for those people who belong to neither of the two extreme personalities. Figure 3.4 illustrates the influence of the five personality characteristics on the vacation destination areas to which they are attracted to respectively. Coney Island, Miami and Monterey are some

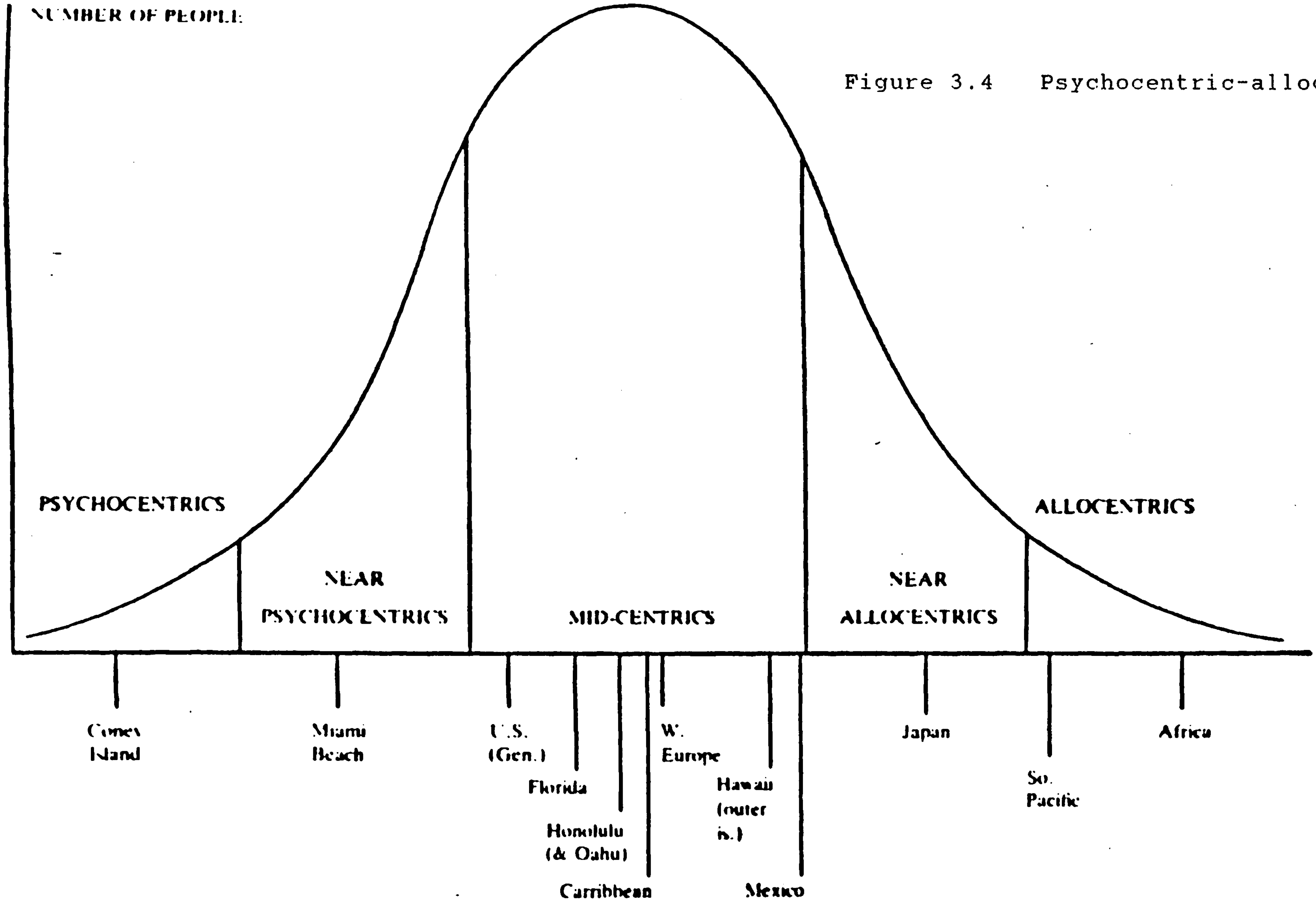
Figure 3.3
Travel Characteristics of Psychographic Types

Psychocentric	Allocentric
Prefer the familiar in travel destinations	Prefer non tourist areas
Like common place, activities travel destinations	Enjoy sense of discovery before others have visited the area
Prefer sun and fun spots, including considerable relaxation	Prefer new and unusual destinations
Low activity level	High activity level
Prefer destinations they can drive to (short-haul)	Prefer flying to destinations (long-haul)
Prefer heavy tourism development area with complete faclities	Require only adequate to good hotel and few tourist attractions
Prefer family atmosphere, familiar entertainment, absence of foreign culture	Enjoy meeting and dealing with people from strange or foreign culture
Complete tour packaging with appropriate heavy cheduling activities	Tour arrangement should include basics (transport, hotels) and allow freedom and flexibility

Source: Plog, S. (1973), "Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity," Cornell Hotel Restaurant Quarterly, November: 13-16.

examples of popular destinations for the American population with psychocentric personalities. Those with strong allocentric personalities will normally be attracted to novel and exotic destination like Cuba, South Pacific, Africa and the Orient. The group that represent the mass market for pleasure travel is called mid-centrics - who are neither very adventurous nor fearful of travelling. The group is willing to travel further away from the

Figure 3.4 Psychocentric-allocentric scale



Source: Plog, S. (1973), "Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity," Cornell Hotel Restaurant Administration Quarterly, November, 13-16.

traditional playground near their homes to destinations that are foreign but not completely unfamiliar like Hawaii, the Caribbean, Europe and Mexico.

However, it was suggested that the model should be viewed as a terms of reference only at a particular point of time. This is because people change, as they gather more experience they become more adventurous and active - moving from psychocentric to be less so, and makes mid-centric persons more allocentric. Perhaps, this explain why people who have visited short-haul destinations will later leave for long-haul destinations.

Furthermore, it has been verified that prepotency is reflected in consumer buying behaviour to the extent that previously ignored desires exert themselves after a purchase has satisfied a predominant motive (Katona, 1960). This could prove to be conceptually helpful in understanding a strong desire for long-haul travel for those who have been holidaying near to homes.

Pearce (1987) reported a survey undertaken by Opinion Research Corporation for Pacific Area Travel Association (PATA) in 1980 of over 600 past and potential long-haul travellers from United States for reasons of vacation to the Pacific areas. The results were reproduced in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

United States Long-Haul Travellers' Reasons for Travelling Abroad

Change of environment	36%
Cultural attraction	31
In search of new experience	27
See how others live	27
Visit family/friends	24
Adventure/excitement	16
Sense of history	16
Sun,sea, and sand	12
New/variety foods and wines	12
Seek own cultural heritage	8
Like to shop abroad	7
Visit religious sites	6
Others have business abroad	6
Broaden education	2
Romance	1
Prestige/status	-
Keeping up with the Joneses	-
Other	15

Source: Adopted from Pearce, Douglas G.,(1987), " Tourism Today: A Geographical Analysis", Essex: Longman.

These differing motivations not only broadly correspond the work of Iso-Ahola (1982), but also supported propositions of Crompton (1979), Dann (1977) and Leiper (1984). Notice that the need for change of environment was found to be the single most important motive for travelling long-haul by the past and potential American tourists. Other factors such as search for new experiences, see how others live, adventure and excitement and new/varied foods and wines seemed to reinforce this desire for change.

In terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, this desire for change not only satisfy survival-related needs which are essential for the maintenance of good health but also fulfilled the upper-level needs of social, esteem and self-actualisation. This is implied from earlier discussion though nobody acknowledged the prestige aspects of long-haul travel due to direct questioning technique of the survey. Most people do not know exactly of the specific needs they are trying to fulfil when they make a purchase decision, and even if they did, they would often be unwilling to report on their motives (Settle and Alreck, 1986) or would likely give favourable explanations of their own behaviour, in terms of socially acceptable motives (Pearce, 1982).

From the preceding sections it is possible to gain a reasonable insight into what kind of felt needs or problem arose when one is considering holiday-travel - irrespective of distance whether it is to a short, medium or long-haul destination. The tourist industry has been quick in exploiting these socio-psychological factors in their marketing communication by depicting their respective products or services in the most favourable light in terms of motives it is designed to satisfy. Thus, stimulating a desire or need for a particular product or brand triggering decision process behaviour. However, understanding motives alone is not enough. There is also a need to identify the circumstances that trigger the particular needs or interest in potential tourist. In other words, there is a need to find out what brought them about and how they led to this particular travel.

Specifically, identification of these external stimuli which can lead an individual to recognise a problem or need is possible if we look further into other factors that affect perception of the ideal state.

<u>Family Characteristics</u>

Changes within the nuclear family may indeed produce considerable changes in the ideal state of affairs, creating new needs and commensurate redefinitions of ideal states. For instance, as the older couple's children "leave the nest," redefinition of the ideal vacation travel may follow. Since they no longer have dependent children to support and availability of longer period of time for travel, they are in the market for long-haul travel, expensive cruises or round-the-world tours. Honeymooning may also bring about the interest to travel long-haul. Knowledge of family considerations of the specific markets will help astute marketers to understand specific individual and group needs and interests. This in turn not only helps them to design a tailor-made package for them but also incorporate an appropriate marketing strategies to reach them.

Financial Considerations

Changing financial status and financial expectations can also affect a consumer's ideal state and, thus, trigger problem recognition. A salary increase through promotion coupled with favourable currency exchange rate, high interest rate at home can cause a consumer to substantially alter his or her ideal state of affairs. Such a change in financial status can, for example, cause the ideal state to go on long-haul vacation when prior to that period ideal state might have been to medium-haul destinations. This group presents an additional opportunity for travel marketers by adjusting the market offering in such a way that the potential customers will see an obvious advantage of choosing long-haul travel. The offer could be in the form of reduced-price package without meals or local tours at the destination.

Other Decisions

Problem recognition can also arise when perception of the ideal state changed as a result of other purchase decisions. In this, the present solutions no longer suffice and the consumer can become dissatisfied and alter the ideal state of one product because of the recognition of problems in related areas. The example here would be the visit to a group of destinations that are geographically close to each other. This perhaps, resulted from the consumer's perception of the desirability of visiting other neighbouring destinations to justify travel expenses or taking advantage of the marginal cost of extra destinations. This may explain the joint promotions by a group of destinations of close proximity during the various travel trade exhibitions.

Reference Group

The state of affairs perceived to be ideal can be affected by changes in reference groups. The change in reference group from struggling executives to aspiring professionals, the consumer's ideal state of affair may change from short-haul travel as a new problem.

Marketing Efforts

Various marketing efforts - including advertising, trade exhibition, personal selling and other forms of persuasive communication can affect consumer's perception of the ideal state of affairs and thus trigger problem recognition. For example, the advertisement for long-haul travel could touch one or more of several motives - desire for status, longing to be different and presented in a decidedly socially "upscale" setting would amplify existing group influence, thus enhancing its appeal by creating a new problem or need.

Factors Affecting The Actual State

As mentioned earlier, problem recognition can also be caused by perceived inadequacy of the actual state. Although numerous factors can affect the consumer's actual state of affairs, the most important determinants are: (1) Depletion of previous solutions, (2) dissatisfaction with the previous solutions, (3) family circumstances and (4) marketing efforts.

Depletion of Previous Solution

Since holiday-taking are now regarded by many as a right and a necessity (Cleverdon, 1983), it follows that its consumption is becoming an annual affair if not to be taken frequently in short durations within the same year. Once indulged in the holiday habit, it enjoys a high ranking in people's future budget: even an increasing consumer priority (Goodall, 1988). Thus, those who have taken their holiday the previous year will soon realise that another is needed for the obvious reasons mentioned earlier. This need is in fact a realisation of depletion of an existing solution to a problem produces problem recognition. The marketing implication here is that determining when the likely depletion time as well as the pattern of behaviour used to replenish the depleted supply (making holiday reservation) in order to influence choice and assure availability of the product.

Dissatisfaction with the Present Solution

Problem recognition can also result from a consumer's dissatisfaction with the present solution to a problem. In the context of travel, this could result from dissatisfaction with the present destination choice caused by higher expectations. Similarly, new information which showed the rejected alternative destinations are offering more and better benefits can also cause dissatisfaction. This shows that marketers need to monitor customer satisfaction in order to accurately focus marketing efforts.

Family Circumstances

Family circumstances not only affect ideal but also the actual state of affairs which result problem recognition. New needs and redefinitions of actual states occur as the size and age composition of the family change. A changed financial status or anticipated change also can have the same effect. Salary increase resulting from promotion at work, tax refund, settlement of mortgage will naturally activate a new set of desires. A favourable financial expectations such as a favourable exchange rates or price discount in the period immediately preceding the purchase obviously provide an incentive for purchase.

Marketing Efforts

Marketing efforts through advertising or promotion can present a product in such a way that present alternatives are clearly perceived inadequate and consequently, trigger problem recognition. However, if this strategy is to be successful, the underlying motives and product benefits must be stressed (Engel et al., 1986). Projecting long-haul travel as fashionable with much more fun and benefits would certainly create a problem recognition.

Marketing Implications of Problem Recognition

The value of understanding the determinants of problem recognition in the consumer's buying process lies in the effort to develop an effective marketing for the target market. This is in view of the fact that funds are much too limited to be spent without strategic planning. Given the fact that people see and hear what they want to see and hear, marketing efforts are more effective after a problem is recognised and search began. This is because the targets are much more receptive and more open to new information.

Marketing efforts certainly contribute in triggering problem recognition either by highlighting the ideal state or by showing the inadequacies of the actual state. Researchers agreed that the best strategy is to find consumer segments that, for one reason or another, are dissatisfied with present solutions and are receptive to something different. Then, appropriate changes can be introduced in product, package, price, promotion as well as distribution to capitalise on a responsive segment of prospective customers (Block and Roering, 1979). It is expected that this approach would produce better result than those attempt to stimulate problem recognition to indifferent world at large that are being inundated by all sort of sorts of other persuasion.

People may wish to use holidays as a means of escape or of fulfilment. It is seen by the individual and the family as a most desirable product. Once indulged, in the holiday habit enjoys a high ranking in people's future budgets: even as an increasing consumer priority (Goodall, 1988). Long-haul travel in particular has been shown to be less price and income sensitive (Jenkins, 1991). As such it is a built-in need which has to be fulfilled.

Having recognised the existence of a problem, and assuming that it is of sufficient magnitude, the consumer (tourist) then, moves to the next stage in the decision making process. This stage is called the information search. It is where the consumer (tourist) acquires information about products or services that may eliminate the problem/need.

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CHAPTER FOUR

INFORMATION SEARCH

Introduction

Information search as defined by Block and Reoring (1979) is a deliberate and purposeful action in gathering and assembling of information within a reasonable period of time prior to the anticipated purchase. Although exposure to information and persuasive messages about various goods and services is accumulated over an extended period of time, information search begins when a consumer perceives a need/problem that might very well be satisfied by the purchase and consumption of a product (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1983). Search results when existing knowledge accumulated through continuous exposure to information and persuasive messages over time are found to be inadequate, that is, insufficient information about the advantages and the disadvantages of various alternatives upon which a choice has to be made.

Normally the amount of consumer search activity increases as the consumer moves from the decision situations of limited problem solving to extensive problem solving (Kotler, 1988).

Type of Search

The need for information could simply require the consumer to consciously recall from his or her memory the recollection of past experiences and reserve of knowledge that might provide adequate information for the decision to be made from the various alternatives. This is internal search. Normally, the consumer will search his or her memory first before seeking out external source of information related to the satisfaction of some particular need, want or desire. It is also widely believed that the greater the relevant knowledge and past experience an individual possesses the less external information the consumer is likely to need to reach a decision.

On the other hand, if the consumer has had no prior experience or existing knowledge which is inadequate to reach a resolution, there is a need for additional information from outside sources such as friends, advertisements, packaging, sales personnel or consumer reports. This is external search. In most consumer purchase decisions, however, it is likely that a combination of both of internal sources and external sources of information is used before a decision is reached.

Bloch et al. (1986) suggested another type of search behaviour in which distinctions between prepurchase search and ongoing search were made. The former involves the information seeking activities that consumers undertake to facilitate a decision concerning a particular purchase. While the latter involves the search activities that are independent of specific purchase needs or decisions.

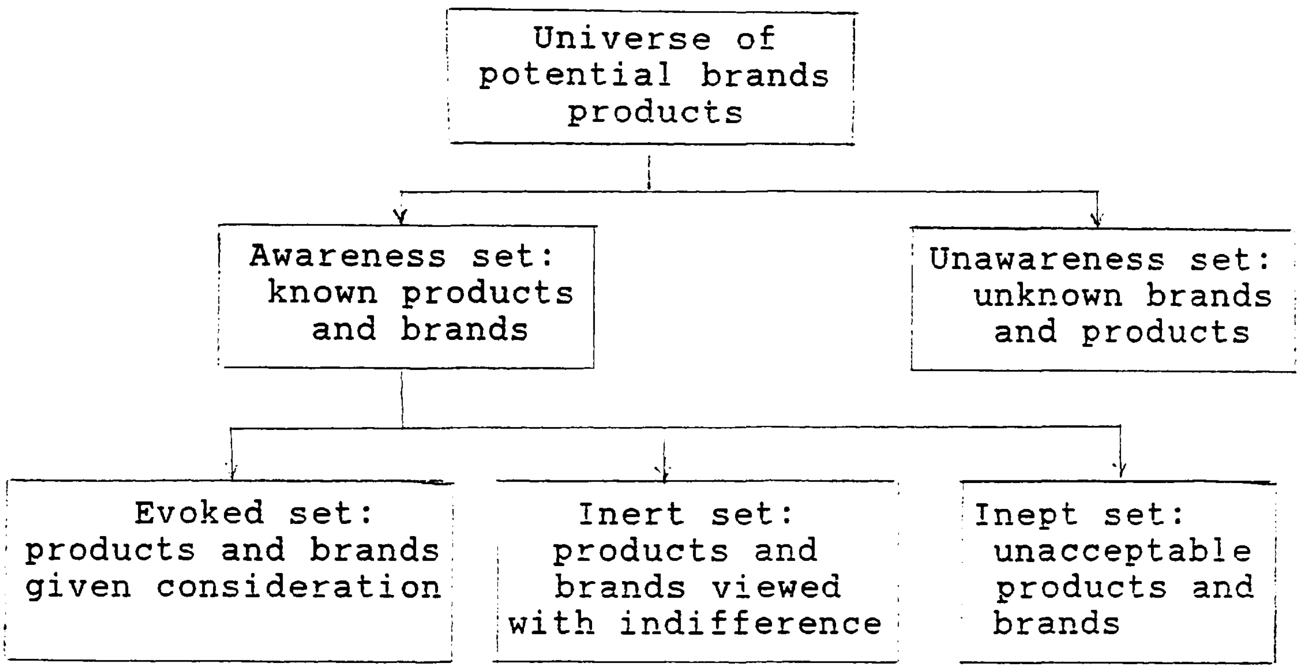
Internal Information Search

This is the first stage to occur after the consumer experiences problem recognition. It is a mental process of recalling and reviewing information stored in memory that may relate to the purchase situation (Loudon and Della Bitta, 1988). The degree of internal search will vary. In a low-involvement or habitual purchase process, internal search tends to be highly limited. In this situation, the recall is immediate when a single and satisfactory solution are found and the consumer purchases the recalled brand without any further search or evaluation.

However, when the purchase involves extensive decision making or limited decision making, the recall may occur slowly as a conscious effort is made to bring the information to mind. The consumer will engage in an internal search by attempting to retrieve from long-term memory information relevant to the problem. Although the relative importance of external information search tends to increase, internal information often provides some or all of the appropriate alternatives that the consumer may or may not consider for purchase.

Mowen (1990) suggested that internal search can be viewed as proceeding via a two-stage process as shown in Figure 4.1 below:

Figure 4.1
Categories of brands that consumers may retrieve from memory during internal search.



Source: J.C.Mowen (1990), Consumer Behavior, 2nd ed. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company. Chapter 9.

First, the consumer retrieves from long-term memory those products and brands of which he or she is aware. This awareness set is the subset of the total brands and products available. The unawareness set consists of those brands that the consumer cannot recall from long-term memory or that were never placed into long-term memory.

After identifying the awareness set the consumer can be viewed as separating the awareness group into three additional categories - the evoked set (Howard, 1963),(Howard and Sheth, 1969), (Campbell, 1973) the inert set and the inept set (Narayana and Markin, 1975). Howard (1963) originally defined evoked set as "the collection of brands the buyer actually considers in his purchase decision process," thus, suggesting those brands that are acceptable for further consideration.

Kotler (1991), however, called the evoked set as the consideration set as only some of those brands in the awareness set will meet the initial buying criteria of the consumer. He believed that the set of brands of interest to the consumer keeps changing as information comes in, and therefore, suggested that it is more useful to distinguish different sets as he or she goes through the buying decision process. As information comes in about those brands in the consideration set, only a few will remain as strong choices and make up the choice set. The consumer, thus, will make his or her final decision from the choice set based on the decision evaluation process used.

Narayana and Markin (1975) further expanded the concept of evoked set by suggesting two more mutually exclusive categories into the buyer's awareness set: inert set and inept set. The inert set consists of brands and products to which the consumer is indifferent toward because they are not perceived as having any particular advantages. Best

(1978) found that consumer will generally accept favourably information in the inert set, although they do not seek out such information. Brands in this set are generally acceptable when preferred brands are not available. While the inept set consists of the brands and products that the consumer excludes from purchase consideration, either because he has had unpleasant experience or because he has received negative feedback from external sources.

Results from various studies clearly indicated that the consumer's evoked set tend to be small. Jarvis and Wilcox (1973) found that the mean evoked set sizes for coffee, dish washing liquid, and table napkin were 4.2, 5.6 and 5.0 respectively. While the size of the evoked set for durable were found to be smaller with automobiles averaging only 3.58 (Horton, 1983a) and 2.45 for microwave ovens (Belonax and Mittelstaedt, 1978).

Horton (1983a) rationalised that the purchasing task for the durable placed a much heavier information processing burden on the consumer than purchasing non-durable. This notion was supported by Hawkins et. al (1983) whom after reviewing related literature concluded that as the information processing becomes more difficult, more evaluative criteria may be added but fewer brands considered in order to manage the information processing task and arrive at a brand choice decision. The small size of evoked set is not really surprising since research indicated that processing capacity of most people varied from four to five chunks (Simon, 1974) to seven, plus or minus two (Miller,1956).

However, those studies also reported that the number of brands in the awareness sets were two to three times more than the size of the reported evoked sets (Jarvis and Wilcox, 1973),(Narayana and Markin, 1975). It was also found that the size of evoked sets increased with increases in the sizes of the awareness sets (Jarvis and Wilcox, 1973). While Horton (1983b) in his information processing experiment for automobiles found that the subjects acquired to four times as much information as those using non-durable products.

Another interesting finding regarding the size of the evoked set was that it was found to be positively correlated with education (Campbell, 1973),(Maddox et al., 1978). This suggests that people with better education will make their brand choice from a wider choice set.

Internal search and alternative evaluation will result in any one of the following outcome: first, the consumer will likely forgo external search and proceed to the purchase stage should the process produces satisfactory result acceptable solution to the recognised problem. Second, internal search may help the consumer decide from further search as there is no feasible way of solving the problem. The third outcome is the realisation that there is a need for further information, so that external search is undertaken (Block and Reoring, 1983),(Loudon and Della Bitta, 1988).

External Information Search

As noted earlier, external search is the process of obtaining information from other sources in addition to that which can be recalled from memory. It is information acquisition activities that are active and goal directed. That is, external search is directed by the need to solve a specific purchase under consideration (Beatty and Smith, 1987). Consumer external information sources fall into four groups:

i. Personal sources - the opinions and attitudes of friends, family, neighbours and acquaintances.

ii. Commercial sources - marketer-controlled information presented in advertisement, sales personnel, dealer, packaging and displays.

iii. Public sources - this is professional information provided in mass media (pamphlets, articles, books etc.) and consumer-rating organisation.

iv. Direct experiences - this is product handling, examining or product trial.

The relative amount and influence of these information sources varies with the product category and the buyer's characteristics (Kotler,1991). Generally speaking, consumers receive the most information exposure about the product from marketer-dominated sources in the early stages of product awareness and are informed about possible alternative choices. While personal sources enjoy the most use in the latter stages of the decision process (Katona and Mueller, 1955),(Berning and Jacoby,1974),(Rogers, 1974). There is also a tendency for consumers to prefer personal sources of information for a new and high-involvement product (Arndt, 1967),(Settle, 1972). The perceived trustworthiness of personal sources is usually cited as a reason for these findings, thus suggesting it to be more effective. It can also be concluded that consumers rarely rely on a single source of information and that different information sources are complementary rather than competing (Horton, 1984).

In terms of preferred media, television appeared to be a primary source of information where physical appearance of the product, including its styling and design, are important to the consumer (Houston, 1979). While both Krugman (1979) and Rothchild (1979) suggested that print media may be more important in high-involvement purchase situation with television a more important source of information in low-involvement situations. Claxton and Anderson (1980) found that consumers preferred to rely on a sales person when evaluating major durable representing complex and high-involvement decisions.

Types of Information Sought

Howard and Sheth (1969) suggested that the type of information sought depends upon what the consumer already know. When the consumer has little knowledge on available offerings, search effort tends to focus on learning about the existence of various alternatives and forming appropriate evaluative criteria. Only after this is the search is likely to be directed toward learning more about the performance level or characteristic of available alternatives in order to evaluate them:

> Evaluative criteria - this is the standards which are employed to compare and evaluate alternatives. It is the appropriate characteristic for the solution of a problem (products or services).
>
> Appropriate alternatives - this is information about the existence and availability of various products or services in the market.
>
> Alternative characteristics - this is information on properties and characteristics of alternatives

which the consumer compares on the relevant evaluative criteria.

Amount of external search

Newman (1977) has reviewed much of the literature (up to the mid-1970's) which attempted to examine the amount of external search undertaken by the consumers prior to purchase. It was observed that whatever measurement criterion used, external information search is skewed toward limited search with greatest proportion of consumers performing little external search prior to purchase.

In terms of the number of stores visited, Dommermuth (1965) found that 42 percent of the refrigerator purchases are made after visiting only one store. Newman (1977) reported one-stop shoppers accounted for approximately 60 percent of the purchase of new automobiles and major household appliances.These are relatively expensive purchases. For a less expensive product, electric irons, the figure rises to 82 percent (Dommermuth,1965). Another study quoted 77 percent of the consumers visited only one store when purchasing a small appliance (Udell,1966).

The number of alternatives considered also showed a limited amount of search prior to purchase. The refrigerator's study above found that 41 percent of the respondents considered only one brand. While those considering only one brand of new automobile were almost half (Gronhaug and Troye,1980). The figure for small appliance, in particular the electric iron, was 65 percent (Dommermuth,1965).

The same level of information-seeking behaviour has been observed by the number of information sources used prior to purchase. For example, Newman and Staelin (1972) showed that 15 percent of major appliance and car buyers used no external source of information before purchase; 30 percent consulted only one; 26 percent used two sources of information; 18 percent used three sources; and 12 percent used four or more external information sources before purchase.

Hawkins, Coney and Best (1983) suggested that consumers can be categorised according to their tendency to engage in external search. Based on four separate studies that span over 25 years (Katona and Mueller,1955; Newman and Staelin, 1972; Claxton, Fry and Portis, 1974; Kiel and Layton, 1981), they classified the consumer into three groups: i) non-searchers, ii) limited information searchers, and iii) extended information searchers.

Non-searchers, who comprised some 50 percent of all buyers, engaged in little or no external search; 37 percent were associated with limited information search; and only 12 percent involved in extensive information seeking prior to purchase. Thorelli and Engledow (1980) suggested that those who were associated as extended information seekers tended to share similar higher demographic profile with above average income and educational level, heavy users of a variety of media, opinion leaders, and to have high-performance standards for products.

It is clear from the evidence above that consumers engage in little external information search. It does not, however, imply that the consumer make ill-informed or irrational purchase decisions. Horton (1984) put forward four reasons for believing that research for external search may understate the degree of decision making by consumers:

i. The consumer is likely to know a great deal about a number of choice alternatives at the time a need to purchase is recognised due to previous product experience and passive learning.

ii. Recognising how to solve the problem, the buyer will likely be able to obtain sufficient information for making a satisfactory brand choice decision from internal search from memory (Bettman, 1979).

iii. Measures of external search tended to be limited and there was reason to believe that reported studies of external search probably understate the total amount of search (Newman, 1977).

iv. The consumer may feel that the costs of additional external information were greater than the benefits that might be gained.

Costs and Benefits of External Search

The variability of the amount of search sought could be explained by the differences between the consumers in terms of their awareness and perceptions of the benefits and costs of search associated with a particular situation (Hawkins, Best and Coney,1983). This perspective holds that external search will be undertaken and will continue as long as the consumer perceives the benefits outweigh the costs involved.

The tangible benefits of external search can be a more comfortable feeling about making a lower price purchase (Ratchford and Von Raaij,1980) as well as greater satisfaction in obtaining a desired style or higher quality product (Cox and Rich, 1964), (Dommermuth,1964). While the intangible benefits are the feeling of greater confidence in the purchase due to superior products or services knowledge (Green,1966); an increase chances of making a choice with less risk (Cox and Rich,1964); and providing pleasure from shopping activities (Tauber,1972).

The costs associated with search can be several. From financial point of view, it can be expensive in terms of costs of transportation, parking and lost wages

(Becker,1975). In term of time-related costs, both Mincer (1964) and Marby (1970) mentioned about lost opportunities by foregoing other pleasant activities. The consumers can also incur some psychological and physical costs as they search for information. Most frequently stated in the literature are the frustration and tension of traffic jam, dealing with uncooperative salespeople in the store, resolving conflicting opinions and facts as well as fatigue (Bender,1966), (Thorelli,Becker and Engledow,1975).

Some studies have suggested that consumers can become overloaded with too much information. This may increase the psychological cost of obtaining and processing the information to the point that they distract from consumers' ability to make a satisfying purchase decisions. Thus, resulting in some people allotting little time to gathering information beyond some minimum level. (Schroder, Driver and Streuleit, 1967),(Sieber and Lanzetta,1964) and (Jacoby, Speller and Berning, 1974). However, the issue of whether increased information helps consumers or otherwise is still unresolved as others have challenged the above conclusions (Russo,1974),(Summers,1974),(Wilkie,1974).

<u>Factors That Influence the Amount of Search</u>

The degree of external search can be influenced either directly by factors affecting the consumer's cost/benefit perceptions or indirectly by factors acting as constraints on the process. As can be seen from Table 4.1, four primary

Table 4.1
Factors affecting external search

Influencing factors influencing search to:	Increasing the factor causes
I. Market characteristics	
A. Number of alternatives	Increase
B. Price range	Increase
C. Store concentration	Increase
D. Information Availability	Increase
1. Advertising	
2. Point-of-purchase	
3. Sales personnel	
4. Packaging	
5. Experienced consumers	
6. Independent sources	
II. Product characteristics	
A. Price	Increase
B. Differentiation	Increase
III. Consumer characteristics	
A. Learning and experience	Decrease
B. Personality and self-concept	Mixed
C. Social status	Increase
D. Age and stage in the family life cycle	Decrease
E. Perceived risk	Increase
IV. Situational characteristics	
A. Time availability	Increase
B. Purchase for self	Decrease
C. Pleasant surroundings	Increase
D. Social surroundings	Mixed
E. Physical/mental energy	Increase

Source: Hawkins, Best and Coney (1983), Consumer Behaviour: Implication for Marketing Strategy, Revised edition, Plano, Texas: Business Publication Inc., 491.

categories of factors influence the extent of external search a consumer will pursue: market characteristics, product characteristics, consumer characteristics and situational characteristics.

It is clear from the table below that the list of such correlates is large, thus suggesting that quite complex forces acted upon the consumers in determining the amount of external search.

Characteristics of the marketplace play a major role in determining the level of external search behaviour. Among the conclusions drawn from the various studies are that external search is greater when:

- More number of alternatives (products,stores or brands) available (Lehmann and Moore, 1980).
- Price differences between brands are greater (Bucklin, 1969).
- A close proximity of stores (Cort and Dominguez, 1977).
- Readily available external information from advertising, point- of-purchase displays, sales personnel, packaging, experience customers and other independent sources.

Product characteristics are also important determinants of external search. It has been found that the higher the price level of the product category, the greater the amount of external search (Bucklin, 1966)(Dommermuth, 1965)(Newman and Staelin, 1972). While Claxton, Fry and Portis (1974) found a general tendency for external search to increase when substantial differences exist between product alternatives.

Consumer's own characteristics also influence the extent of external search behaviour. Listed below are some of the relevant findings:

- As consumers gain experience with a product, their information-search behaviour decreases (Moore and Lehmann, 1980). On the other hand, external search is greater for consumers having a limited purchase experience with brands in a particular product category (Swan, 1969). However, consumers who are satisfied with past purchases engage in less search while unsatisfied customers will search for information even though they have substantial prior experience (Bennett and Mandell, 1969).

- Consumers who perceived themselves as information seekers were found to engage in more extensive information search prior to purchase (Kelly, 1968). Open-mindedness and self-confidence personalities have been found to engage in greater amount of external search (Locander and Hermann, 1979).

- Higher educational levels and income as well as higher-status occupations have been associated with greater search (Capon and Burke, 1980).

- External search tends to decrease as people grow older (Newman and Staelin, 1972).

- Consumers tend to engage in more extensive search when the perceived risk of the product increases (Dedler, et al 1981). This include customers in gift-giving situations (Vincent and Zikmund, 1976).

Other situational factors can also influence the amount of external search. Consumers search for more information about products that are socially visible, such as clothing or automobiles (Katona, 1964). Pleasant physical surroundings will increase the tendency to search for information (Hawkins et al, 1983). However, search activity may be reduced when:

- The time available to solve a particular consumer problem decreases (Wright, 1974).

- Store conditions are perceived to be overcrowded (Harrell and Hutt, 1976).

- Special opportunities to purchase at an attractive price (Katona and Mueller, 1955).

- Customers with limited physical or emotional energy (Hawkins et al, 1983).

Information Search and Marketing Implications

For marketers, the period of search is one of the most important stages in the decision process. It is at this stage that the consumers consciously recognise his brand as a possible alternative for purchase.

The literature clearly suggests that a large proportion of consumers are unlikely to engage in an extensive information search, even in high-involvement purchase decisions. This places the burden on the marketer not only to assure that product information is highly visible but also to provide the amount and type of information needed by the consumers.

The need to be highly visible is due to the fact that a large number of consumers of package goods considered very few brands between the time that search is initiated and a final purchase is made. Silk and Urban (1978) have found that the evoked sets of respondents typically contain three to five brands. Other studies of major appliances have found that 50 to 70 percent of the respondents considered only the brand they finally purchase (May and Homan, 1977)(Maddox et al, 1978). This clearly suggest that a major goal for the marketer should be to create top-of-the-mind awareness; that is, having their brands included in the evoked sets of the consumers. In the situation of extended decision making that involves an extensive search, the adoption of the acceptance strategy to move the brand into the evoked set was considered most appropriate (Hawkins et al, 1983). This strategy would incorporate the following activities:

i. Adequate product quality on those attributes important to the target market.

ii. Information must be provided in all the appropriate sources. May require extensive advertising to groups that do not purchase the brand but recommend it to others. Encourage brand testing by independent groups. Sales personnel must be provided with detailed information on the brand's attributes.

iii. Provide the sales personnel with extra motivation to recommend the product.

iv. Point-of-purchase displays and pamphlets should be made available.

v. Attract attention or otherwise motivate target market to learn about the brand.

Other techniques such as long-term advertising designed to enhance low-involvement learning and extensive advertising with strong emphasis on attracting attention can also be effective for gaining acceptance (Hawkins et al, 1983).

Effective marketing programmes not only provide the amount and type of information required but also make it accessible to the consumers. In order to increase the probability that their information will be used by the consumers, it is important that the marketers minimise the economic and psychological costs of acquiring and processing the information. It is also important that the information be presented in a format that is compatible with consumer information processing.

<u>Information Search and Travel Destination Choice Behaviour</u>

Like most other product categories, consumers for holiday travel too, have an evoked set which guides their search process. The brands in the evoked set are those acceptable and limited brands recalled from long-term memory during the internal search. Those are the alternative brands that consumer would be willing to consider further, seeking additional external information on during the remaining internal and external search process.

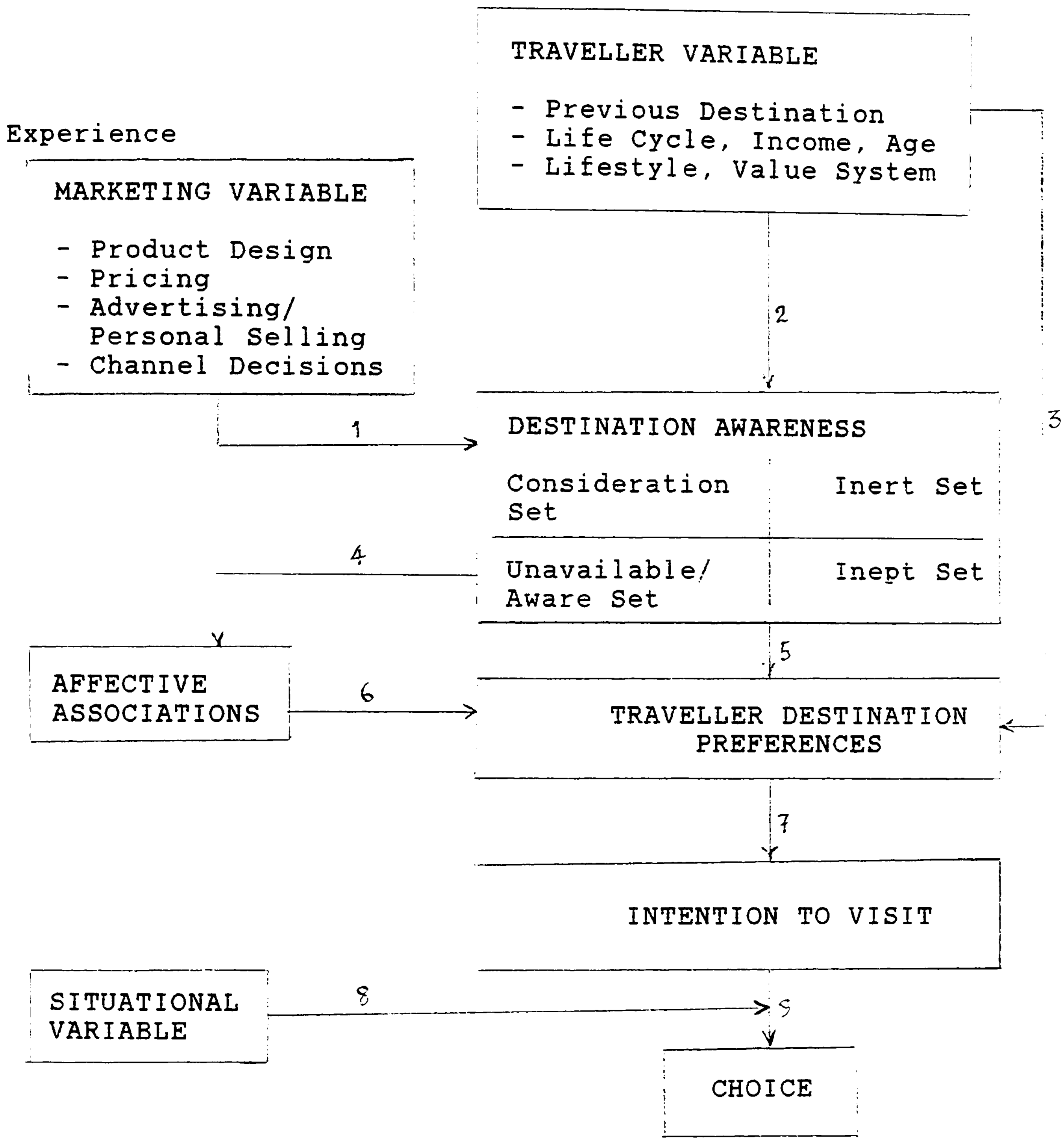
Woodside and Sherrell (1977) and Woodside and Ronkainan (1980), were among the first to apply the concept of evoked set to travel destination choice behaviour. Their adapted definition was as follow:

> Evoked set: the travel destinations of which a potential traveller is aware and has some likelihood greater than zero of visiting within a given time period.
>
> Inert set: The travel destinations that the consumer is aware of and has not considered visiting within a given time period. That is, the consumer is essentially indifferent towards those destinations.
>
> Inept Set: The travel destinations of which the consumer is aware and has zero likelihood of visiting within some time period. That is, the destinations are considered unacceptable.

Woodside and Ronkainen (1980) defined awareness set as travel destinations that the consumer might think about visiting within some time period.

In studying consumer mental categorisation in travel destination decision making, Woodside and Ronkainen (1989) used a general model of traveller's leisure destination awareness and choice. The model (Figure 4.2), first developed by Woodside and Lysonski (1989), incorporates four categories; consideration set, inert set, unavailable

Figure 4.2
General Model of Traveller Leisure
Destination Awareness And Choice



Source: Woodside, Arch G. and Steven Lysonski, (1989), " A General Model of Travel Destination Choice," in Consumer Mental Categorisation in Travel Destination Decision Making by Woodside and Ronkainen, Proceedings of the Twentieth Annual Conference of The Travel and Tourism Research Association, Salt Lake City: Utah, 247.

and aware set and inept set. As for the effective associations, there are negative and positive feelings which are linked with a specific destination considered by a traveller.

The destination awareness is shown as a one-way directional influence on affective association. To activate the specific feelings (positive, neutral or negative) some minimal amount of recognition may be necessary. Tourists assemble their alternative preferences based on the destination affective associations and awareness. In this model actual destination choice is predicted by both intention to visit and situational variables.

The study found that in the consideration set, respondents were most favourably inclined toward destinations of shorter distance both geographically and psychologically. As for the inert set, it was characterised by destinations easily reached. The unavailable and aware set is dominated by destination in the Pacific (except Hawaii) and Asia indicating a correlation with physical distance.

Results from various studies clearly supported the hypothesis that potential travellers are likely to consider a limited number of destinations when planning for a holiday. Woodside et al. (1977) and Thompson and Cooper (1979) reported the average evoked sets size of 3 destinations. While Woodside and Ronkainen (1980) found that potential domestic (U.S.A.) travellers had an average size of 6.27, 3.52 and 1.99 for awareness, evoked and inept sets respectively. The figure reported for potential foreign travellers were 6.66 for awareness set; 3.50 for evoked set and 1.84 for inept set. However, it was found that potential travellers who had made recent foreign destinations visit had larger average evoked set sizes (Woodside et al, 1977). Ronkainen and Woodside (1978) reported that the average size of the destination evoked set for Finns with recent foreign travel experience was 5.2 and domestic only travellers was 2.8.

As can be seen, the average size of evoked sets for holiday travels are very much similar with those reported for durable (Horton,1983a). The result was also within the lower range of two, with the findings that the number of brands in the awareness sets were two to three times more than the size of the reported evoked sets (Jarvis and Wilcox, 1973)(Narayana and Markin, 1975).

Holiday travel destination purchase is thought to be a highly involved decision process in which the holiday-maker normally invest a substantial amount of money and time for its consumption. This notion is further substantiated by the above findings of the existence of fewer brands in the evoked sets. Thus, suggesting that the holiday travel destination purchase placed a much heavier information processing burden for the consumer.

Confirmation of the limited size of an evoked set in the holiday travel destination decision process means that there is a tremendous challenge for tourism marketers. In that, they have got to compete with limited resources, in their efforts to create top-of-the-mind awareness in order to increase the probability of their brand being selected as a final choice. Other management implications are listed in Table 4.2 below:

Table 4.2
Management Goals and Policy Implications of Travel Destination Sets

Travel Destination Set	Management Goal	Policy Implication
Chosen	Repeat visit	Create Membership or ownership groups
Evoked set but not chosen	Initial visit	Special event or inducements
Inert set	Interest and evaluation	New advertising campaign, publicity
Inept set	Attitude change	Product modification
Unaware and available	Awareness change	Heavy advertising
Aware and unavailable	Travel access	Product development, special package, travel arrangements
Unavailable and unaware	Market entry	New venture Management

Source: Woodside, A.G. and Ronkainen, I.A. (1980), "Tourism Management Strategies For Competitive Vacation Destination" in Tourism Marketing and Management Issues, Hawkins et al.,(eds.), Washington, D.C.: G. Washington University, 3-19.

Um (1988) extended the concept of evoked set to explain actual destination choice behaviour and suggested appropriate strategy at each stage of the travel choice process. At the stage of evolving an evoked set from awareness set, tourism marketing efforts should focus on enhancing perceived net utility by increasing perceived facilitators rather than reducing perceived inhibitors. This is because perceived inhibitors (cognitive dissonance) was found to be insignificant factor in the choice decision at this stage. At the same stage, long-term tourism promotion was thought to be more efficient to create or change a potential traveller's attitudes toward vacation destination.

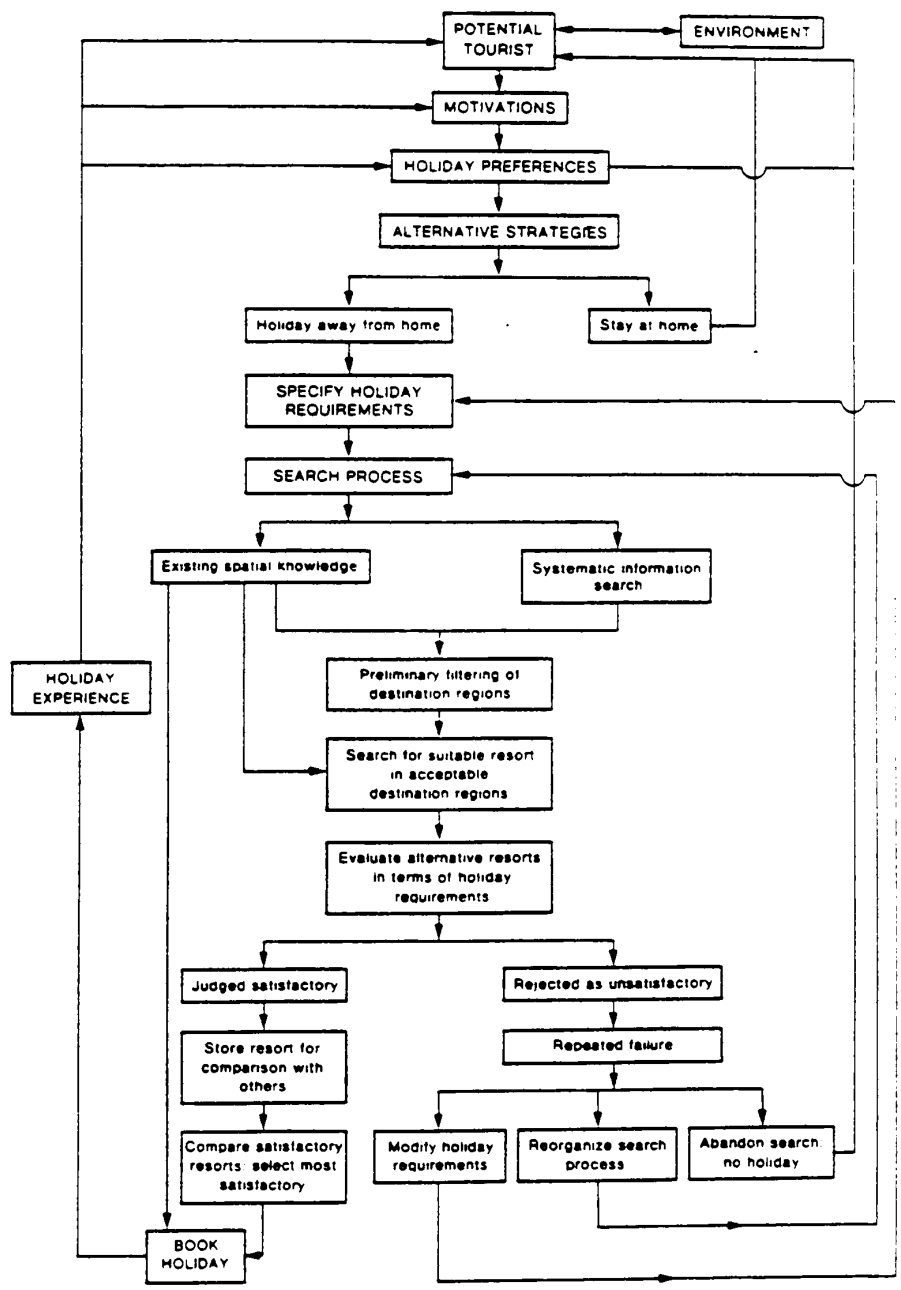
While at the stage of final destination selection from an evoked set, marketing efforts should focus not only on increasing perceived facilitators but also reducing perceived inhibitors. It was suggested that short-term tourism promotion should focus on providing tourism information which is consistent with, as well as confirmative to, potential traveller's prior beliefs about a vacation destination in the evoked set, ultimately enhancing perceived facilitators and reducing perceived inhibitors in selecting that place as a destination. Um (1988) identified social judgement theory as a basis for this strategy as people are more likely to perceive market stimuli selectively based on their prior beliefs.

Figure 4.3 presents the tourist's annual holiday search process developed by Goodall (1988). According to this model the tourist begins a search process after decisions to go away on holiday have been made and the requirements of the holiday specified. As mentioned earlier, one of the results of internal search is the realisation that there is a need for further information, so that external search is undertaken. The rationale for this shift to active information search is to increase the degree of confidence in the ability to evaluate alternatives for satisfactory purchase decision. In this case it is to find the holiday which best matches his requirements within the limits imposed by what he can afford and the timing of his other commitments.

Between the extremes of "impulse buyer" and "meticulous planner" holiday search behaviour involved an enormous variety of combinations of existing spatial knowledge and specific information gathering. Preliminary filtering of destination regions is made by many tourists to which their existing spatial knowledge is important in ruling out some alternatives in order to achieve a balance of opposing requirements of novelty and security. The model also suggested that where existing knowledge comprises good previous holiday experience the potential tourist may by-pass this step and proceed directly to the search for a

Figure 4.3

The tourist's annual holiday search process



Source: Goodall, B. (1988), "How Tourists Choose Their Holidays: An Analytical Framework" in Marketing in the Tourism Industry - The Promotion of Destination Regions, Goodall, B. and Ashworth, G. (eds.), London: Routledge, 6.

suitable resort in an acceptable destination area.

The search process undertaken by a potential tourist seeking further information on the various attractions, amenities and facilities, travel arrangements and price levels can either be formal or informal. The formal sources are those sources which have to be actively sought out would include: tour operators' brochures, official guidebook, tourist board promotional literature. While advice from travel agents and recommendation from friends and relatives are considered to be informal.

It was found that systematic information search of external sources is used frequently in making holiday and travel related decisions than other consumer decisions (Gitelson and Crompton, 1983). This is particularly true in view of the nature of holiday as a high-risk purchase with its unique "service untouched and sight unseen" (Jenkins, 1989) that unlike most other retail purchases, the tourist can neither directly observe what is being bought nor try it out inexpensively (Goodall, 1988).

Destination-specific literature and the media, which are non-personal and formal sources, generally perform an informing function, whereas friends and relatives as well as travel agents, assume and evaluating or legitimising function (Gitelson and Crompton, 1983) (Etzel and Wahlers, 1985).

Nolan (1974) identified the various information sources that the tourist turned to and the relative measure of credibility of each. It was found that the most popular information source category was the advice of friends and relatives. This source was also rated among the highest in attributed credibility along with government information services. The least credible source category was advertisements in magazine and newspapers.

Francken and Van Raaij (1979), monitored information sources and media used by a panel during vacation decision process with measurements taken in January, April, June and September; measurement was also taken to indicate its usage after the vacation. The result showed that commercial information sources are most called on in the early stages of the vacation decision process (January, April). However, in the later stages, advisory sources (tourist offices, automobile association) are consulted more frequently (June, September). Supporting earlier finding by Nolan (1974), personal and social information sources remained the most important categories consulted throughout the four occasions of the vacation decision process, probably for new information, others' opinions and legitimisation. Similar results were also reported by Jenkins (1978) in that social sources were considered the most important information source with member of immediate family, relatives, friends, public sources and travel agencies were ranked in the order of importance respectively.

On different types of information used to find out about national parks and forests in the United States, Uysal et al. (1989) found that international travellers used multiple information sources. For West German and French tourists, word of mouth from friends and relatives, and advice from travel agents were ranked first and second respectively. The Japanese, on the other hand, relied heavily on print media (brochures and pamphlets) and the library. Equally important was advice from travel agents, friends and family members.

The search process determines what the alternative are, the third stage of the consumer's decision process is alternatives evaluation, which is the process by which the consumer evaluates alternatives to make a choice. It may have been noticed earlier that this evaluation is normally carried out simultaneously with the search process.

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CHAPTER FIVE

EVALUATION OF ALTERNATIVES

Introduction

The alternative evaluation process will vary with different type of decision making. For high-involvement decisions, the consumer will tend to use an extended decision process. In this situation, Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1986), suggested that the consumer will engage in the process depicted in Figure 5.1. As can be seen, the process consists of four components: evaluative criteria, beliefs, attitude and intention. However, when engaging in low-involvement decision making such as a routine decision process, the consumer may only form a few basic beliefs about a product or service and then develop little or no affect or attitude towards the decision objects (Ray, 1973). Indeed, under such low-involvement circumstances, attitudes towards the object may form only after it is purchased or consumed (Mowen, 1990).

This chapter will first examine the various components of the evaluation process and their respective marketing implications. Particular attention will be given to the procedures or strategies in evaluating alternatives.

Finally, where appropriate, its application in travel research will also be presented as a basis for this study.

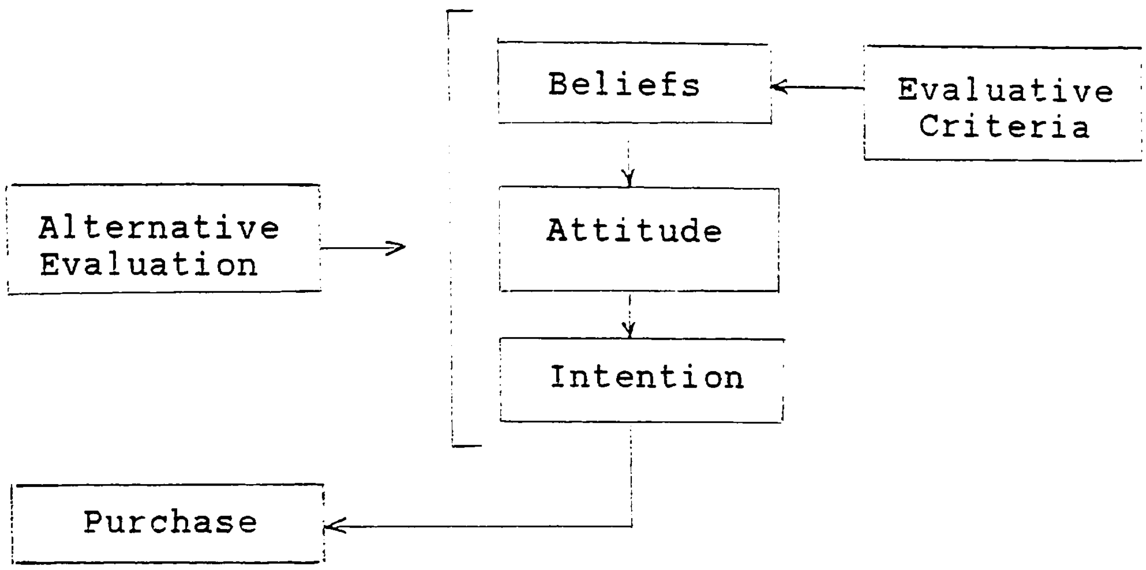
Evaluative Criteria

A consumer selects alternative brands based on their relative performance on the appropriate evaluative criteria. These are the standards and specifications used by consumers to compare and evaluate different products and brands (Engle et al, 1986). Howard (1977), expressed them as the preferred product/brand attributes or features that a consumer seeks in a purchase and may be either objective or subjective in nature.

The number and type of evaluative criteria may vary by product. Generally, however, the number of evaluative criteria used in a single consumer decision is six or fewer (Engel et al, 1986). While Fishbein (1975), suggested that the number of criteria used may go as high as nine depending on the product in question. Consumers would tend to use fewer evaluative criteria for low-involvement products and more for high-involvement products.

Consumers differ greatly in their selection of evaluative criteria and the relative importance they attach to them. They will pay the most attention to those attributes that are connected with their needs (Kotler, 1991), usually with one or two criteria will have a greater

Figure 5.1
Alternative Evaluation Process



Source: Engel, J.F., Blackwell, R.D. and Miniard, P.W. (1986), Consumer Behavior, 5th ed., New York: Dryden Press.

impact than others (Hawkins et al., 1983). Some criteria are referred to as salient in the sense that they are important to the consumer, some are known as determinant attributes in that they influence the evaluation process and are perceived to differ among the alternatives (Alpert, 1971). A salient evaluative criterion will cease to influence the evaluative process when the alternatives under consideration perform equally well (or poorly) on this criterion. This problem can be avoided if the importance weights that consumers attach to the salient attributes can be determined (Myres and Alpert, 1976).

Evaluative criteria may also change over time. This may happens either through passive learning or direct persuasion from marketers and personal sources. Myres and

Alpert (1968), suggested that marketers must conduct longitudinal research to stay informed of possible shifts in attitudes related to buying behaviour.

An understanding of customers' evaluative criteria allows the marketer to employ benefit segmentation - a marketing concept which involved dividing the market on the basis of the benefits or evaluative criteria sought by the consumers making a purchase (Haley, 1968). Dickson (1982), however, offered its refinement in person-situation segmentation incorporating different benefits for different market segment across different usage situations.
Both approaches can provide valuable guidance in:

- selecting appropriate product-positioning strategies.

- new product development or improving existing product to fulfil specialised needs.

Beliefs

The second component of the evaluation process is beliefs. Beliefs are consumers' subjective perceptions about the extent to which a particular brand possesses various attributes and provides various benefits. Such perceptions about a particular brand are often referred to as the **brand image** (Engel et al., 1986). Such beliefs may be formed from the exposure to and the processing of information obtained from cultural background, media, family, peer groups and personal experiences with the product (Lutz, 1980). However, the consumer's beliefs may be at variance with the true attributes owing to his or her particular experience and the effect of selective perception, selective distortion and selective retention (Kotler, 1991).

Understanding consumers' brand beliefs are important not only because it leads to identifying a brand's competitive strengths and weaknesses but also they are the building blocks upon which consumers base their brand attitudes and intentions.

Attitude

Over time, the beliefs that a person has about a brand may combine to form an attitude about the brand. Consumer attitudes represent the amount of affect or feeling a person holds for or against the stimulus object (Mowen, 1990). In other words, attitude is the evaluation of alternatives, such as "acceptable," "unacceptable,""the best," or "the worse." (Engel et al., 1986). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), defined an **attitude** as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object.

The consumer arrives at attitudes toward the brand or choice alternatives through some evaluative procedures or choice strategies often referred to as decision rule (Bettman, 1979).

Decision Rules

Such rules serve to reduce the burden of making extended or complex decisions by providing guidelines or directions that make the process more manageable. It specifies how a consumer compares between brands on his/her evoked set.

Consumer decision rules have been broadly classified into two main categories as compensatory and non-compensatory. Both describe a multi-attribute approach to decision making, that is, consumers use more than one attribute to determine choice.

Compensatory Decision Rule

In linear compensatory decision rule, a consumer's beliefs about each brand's attributes considered to be relevant are multiplied by the respective importance weights and summed to derive an attitude score. Thus, brand that rates highest on an attitude score will be chosen. As can be seen, this rule involves the simultaneous consideration of alternatives on a number of attributes, that is, attribute information is processed by brand. This strategy allows a positive evaluation of a brand on one attribute to compensate a negative evaluation on other attributes. This means that a brand which is rated poor on one attribute may still be considered acceptable because it is high on other attributes.

This decision rule is similar to the Fishbein multi-attribute model which is also referred to as the expectancy value model of consumer choice. It can be expressed in equation form as follows:

$$Ajk = \sum_{j=1}^{n} Wik\ Bijk$$

where:

Ajk = consumer K's attitude score for brand j
Wik = the importance weight assigned by consumer k to attribute j
Bijk = consumer K's belief as to the amount of attribute j offered by brand j
n = the number of important attributes in the selection of a given brand

Affect-referral rule

Affect-referral rule is the second strategy under compensatory category (Wright, 1975). It does not involve consideration of product attributes. Instead, the consumer forms an overall attitude toward each alternative based on his prior experience with the products or from a strong positive feeling from the various information sources. Under this rule, a consumer will select the brand with the highest perceived overall rating , in that the product may be selected because it is "nice" or "the best available" (Williams, 1982).

Non-compensatory Decision Rule

Non-compensatory decision rules are based on the assumption that each attribute is independent in that the weakness in one attribute cannot be balanced out by a strength in another attribute. Non-compensatory rules involve consideration of alternatives to one attribute at a time. Several varieties of non-compensatory rules may be used by the consumers: conjunctive, disjunctive, lexicographic and elimination-by-aspects.

Conjunctive Rule

This rule assumes that the consumer has establish a minimum performance standard for each evaluative criterion. Any brand falling below this critical level on any attribute is eliminated from further consideration. When the consumer is confronted with many alternatives, this rule is commonly used as a screening tool to reduce the alternatives to a manageable number.

Disjunctive Rule

Disjunctive rule is similar to the conjunctive rule. However, the cutoff point for each attribute is set higher than the one normally established for conjunctive rule (Bettman, 1979). Brand alternatives that meet the minimum standard are acceptable. This rule seldom results in a single alternative. Final decision can be made either by choosing the brand that exceeds the others by the greatest amount on the criterion selected or after application of another decision rule.

The Lexicographic Rule

This requires the consumer to rank attributes in the order of their importance and then evaluates each brand on only one attribute at a time. If one of the brands performs best on the most important attribute, it is selected. If two or more brands are perceived to be equally good, they are then evaluated on the second most important attribute. This process of comparing on single attribute continues until the tie is broken. This decision strategy was found to be the most commonly employed by the consumer. Reilly and Holman (1977), found that 60 percent of the respondents used this rule of choice. Amongst its advantages are: it is a simple procedure; new attributes can be added until a single alternative emerges and it will always results in the selection chosen alternative.

Elimination-by-Aspects Rule

This rule is similar to the lexicographic rule in that the brands are first evaluated on the most important attribute by comparing them one attribute at a time. This rule, however, establishes a minimum acceptable cut-off point for each attribute. If several brands pass the cut-off point, then they are evaluated on the next most important attribute. This process continues until only one brand remains to be selected.

Implications

An understanding of which decision rule is actually employed during evaluating choice alternatives may suggest a number of marketing strategies to influence consumer decisions (Kotler, 1991):

- **Modifying the product.** The marketer could redesign his brand so that it offers characteristics desired by that particular segment of the market. This is called real repositioning.

- **Altering beliefs about the brand.** The marketer could try to alter buyer's beliefs of where his brand stands on key attributes. This is called psychological repositioning.

- **Altering beliefs about competitors' brands.** The marketer could try to change buyers' beliefs about where competitive brands stand on different attributes. This is appropriate where buyers mistakenly believe a competitor's brand has more quality than it actually has. This is called competitive depositioning and is often carried out through running comparison advertisements.

- **Altering the importance weights.** The marketer could try to persuade buyers to attach more importance to the attributes in which the brand excels.

- **Calling attention to neglected attributes.** The marketer could try to draw the buyer's attention to neglected attributes.

- **Shifting the buyer's ideals.** The marketer could try to persuade buyers to change their ideal levels for one or more attribute.

Intention

The last component of the evaluation process is **intention.** Following evaluation, the consumer is ready to choose the alternative that seems to have the best chance of satisfying his problem. The first thing to occur here is that the consumer will form an intention to buy that particular brand. Engel et al. (1986), defined intention as the subjective probability that a particular action will be undertaken by the consumer. In other words, intention may or may not actually result in actual purchase, depending on a variety of intervening forces.

Tourist Evaluative Criteria

Various studies, either from tourism planning and development or tourism marketing perspectives, have utilised fairly similar attributes in evaluating holiday destinations. Gearing, Swart and Var (1974), developed a list of 14 attributes of tourism attractiveness index for judging the attractiveness of each of the 65 tourism regions in Turkey. They used the following categories of the individual criteria:

1. Natural factors

   (a) Natural beauty
   (b) Climate

2. Social factors

   (a) Architecture
   (b) Festivals
   (c) Other folk cultural attractions

3. Historical factors
   (a) Ancient ruins
   (b) Religious shrines and practices
   (d) Historical importance

4. Shopping and recreational resources

   (a) Sport opportunities
   (b) Museums, zoos, aquaria and gardens
   (c) Health and relaxation opportunities
   (d) Stores and shops

5. Tourism infrastructure

   (a) Adequate roads, utilities and health services
   (b) Adequate food and lodging facilities.

Similar criteria were used by Var, Beck and Loftus (1977), in their study in determining the attractiveness of the touristic areas in British Columbia. While Ferrario (1980), as part of his study in assessing tourist potentials and resources of South Africa, developed preference index by asking tourists to mark their preferences in the list of 21 general categories. The results were ranked as follows:

Category	Percent
Scenery and landscape	77
Wildlife	69
Natural vegetation	56
Tribal African life	43
Town visit and shopping	43
Participation in local life	38
Sun and beaches	37
Historical monuments	35
Zoos and animal farms	34
Gold mine visits	21
Other ethnic groups	21
Sport amenities	21
Sea sports	20
Nightlife entertainment	19
Rock art and archaeology	18
Open air activities	18
Technology and progress	16
Hunting safaris	11
Casinos	9
Spectacular sports	9
Spa resorts	7

As can be seen, the result showed that about one-half to two-third of the foreign tourists expressed a strong preference for the three environmental features: scenery and landscape; wildlife and natural vegetation. The second preference cluster consisted of about one-third of the visitors included most of the categories related to local people and their typical way of life. The final, and less well-defined cluster, which attracted 1 out of 5 or 10 overseas tourists contained those who expressed interest in tourist amenities, sport and recreational activities.

Goodrich (1978a), in his study to show how perceptions of tourist regions strongly influence the choice of holiday destinations, used 10 attributes in evaluating the attractiveness of nine tourist-attracting areas, namely: Florida, California, Hawaii, Mexico, the Bahamas, Jamaica, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands and Barbados. The ranking of each attribute's relative importance in the respondent's choice of one or more of the regions as a place to spend a holiday is listed below:

1. Scenic beauty (sight-seeing)
2. Pleasant attitudes of the people
3. Availability of suitable accommodations
4. Opportunity for rest and relaxation
5. Historical and cultural interest
6. Cuisine
7. Availability of facilities for water sports
8. Shopping facilities
9. Availability of entertainment (e.g., night-life)
10. Availability of facilities for golfing, tennis etc.

Goodrich (1978b), used the same criteria in applying a special Multidimensional Scaling technique to image analysis of the same tourist-attracting regions. Similar criteria were used by Witter (1985), in comparing the attitudes about a resort area between a sample of tourists and a sample of local retailers.

Scott et al., (1978) used 18 state attributes to approximate the tourist 's state judgement process. They found that tourists selecting Massachusetts as a place to visit viewed the state differently, on the attributes measured, than the other New England states. Tourists living closer to Massachusetts perceived the state to have friendlier people, to be more cultural, less commercialised, more relaxing and less historical than those tourists preferring Maine, New Hampshire or Vermont. While people who came from more than 200 miles viewed Massachusetts as having a clean environment, high familiarity, good highways, relaxing, better in warm weather than cold, very cultural, not cultural, cold people and not commercial. They suggested that communication programmes (advertising, brochures, billboards and mail campaigns) directed toward both group should emphasise the lack of commercialisation and the high cultural attractiveness of the state. Promotional programmes targeted primarily at the 200 miles or less group should emphasise the friendliness of the people. While, the attributes of clean environment, relaxing atmosphere, good highways and the attractiveness of cold weather activities should be highlighted for those who lived further than 200 miles away.

Crompton (1979), reported that there was considerable disparity between respondents' descriptive image attributes of Mexico, and attributes which they considered important in any decision to visit or not to visit the country for a pleasure vacation. Table 5.1. below showed a comparison of the highest mean scores recorded on each scale of both the descriptive and the importance instruments.

As can be seen, attributes associated with personal safety and sanitation were identified as those which were most likely to determine whether or not vacationers would visit Mexico. It was suggested that the Mexican tourist agency's promotional effort should maximise the strength of the attribute "Friendly people" which was the only attribute to appear in the Table 5.1 above as one of the most positive and most important attributes.

Destination Image in the Tourist's Holiday Decision

As mentioned earlier, consumers' beliefs or perception of a particular brand are often referred to as brand image. In destination marketing, this second component of the evaluative process has received a considerable attention in the form of destination image studies. Among the more important findings are:

- The principles of image are applicable to tourism destination (as a product) in that it also possesses an image. This is confirmed by image studies of Colorado, Montana, Utah and Wyoming (Hunt, 1975), Ireland (Ehemann, 1977), Florida, California, Mexico, Hawaii, the Bahamas, Jamaica, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands (Goodrich, 1978b), the Third World (Britton, 1979) and the United States (McLellan and Dodd Foushee, 1983).

- Destination images are not static and they change over time. State image changes slowly. However, successfully changing state image will result in that state becoming a more desirable destination (Gartner and Hunt, 1987).

Table 5.1
The Eight Most Positive Attributes of Mexico Compared With The Eight Image Attributes Considered Most Important In Making A Decision to Visit Mexico

Descriptive Scales		Importance Scales	
Varied physical geography	5.67	Sanitary food	6.58
Mild Winters	5.45	Safe environment	6.18
Inexpensive food	5.09	Safe resorts	6.11
Inexpensive public transportation	4.86	Safe public transportation	5.93
Mild summers	4.76	Friendly people	5.63
Low annual rainfall	4.69	Uncrowded resorts	5.44
Friendly people	4.65	Law abiding people	5.35
Inexpensive goods	4.65	Clean public transportation	5.35

Source: Crompton, J.L. (1979), "An Assessment of the Image of Mexico as a Vacation Destination and the Influence of Geographical Location Upon that Image," Journal of Travel Research, 17(Spring): 18-23.

- There is a strong and direct association between respondents' preferences for a vacation destination and their perception of that destination. That is, the more favourable the perception of a given vacation, the more preferred that destination will tend to be (Goodrich, 1978a).

- Travel destination choice decision will depend upon the image of a destination's attributes because of the lack of concrete information (Hunt, 1975) (Mayo, 1973).

- In holiday travel destination choice decision, the greater distance may create a perception of the destination being more attractive (Crompton, 1979). This perception may mean that the choice are simply made for the sake of novelty (Mayo, 1973).

Evaluation Procedure Used in Holiday Choice Process

Since attitude represents the evaluation of a given alternative (Engel et al.,1986), studies that focused on tourists' attitudes toward a specific tourist destination are basically evaluating the various evaluative criteria and beliefs held about that destination. A multi-attribute attitude model, or its variations, appeared to be successfully applied in travel research. Goodrich (1978a), used the Fishbein attitude/choice model to ascertain the relationship between tourism destination (region) preferences and tourist perceptions of those regions. The model states that an individuals's attitude toward an object (relative preference for each region as a vacation spot) is a function of (determined by, associated with) the amount of valued attributes that the individual perceives the object (region) to have, and the importance of those attributes to the individual. The algebraic form of the basic Fishbein-type used is as follows:

$$Rj = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Ii \quad Aij$$

where:

i = attribute or touristic characteristic
j = region
Rj = respondent's preference ranking of region j as a vacation destination
Ii = the average importance rating of attribute i by respondents
Aij = respondents' belief about the amount of attribute i that region j possesses
n = the number of attributes

While Witter (1985), used the Fishbein multi-attribute attitude model in comparing an attitude assessment about a resort between a sample of tourists and a sample of local retailers. The model is represented as:

$$Ar = \sum_{1}^{n} Bi \; Ai$$

where:

Ar = Attitude about resort area
Bi = The belief that a resort offers a particular attribute
Ai = The importance of the attribute (i)
n = Number of beliefs

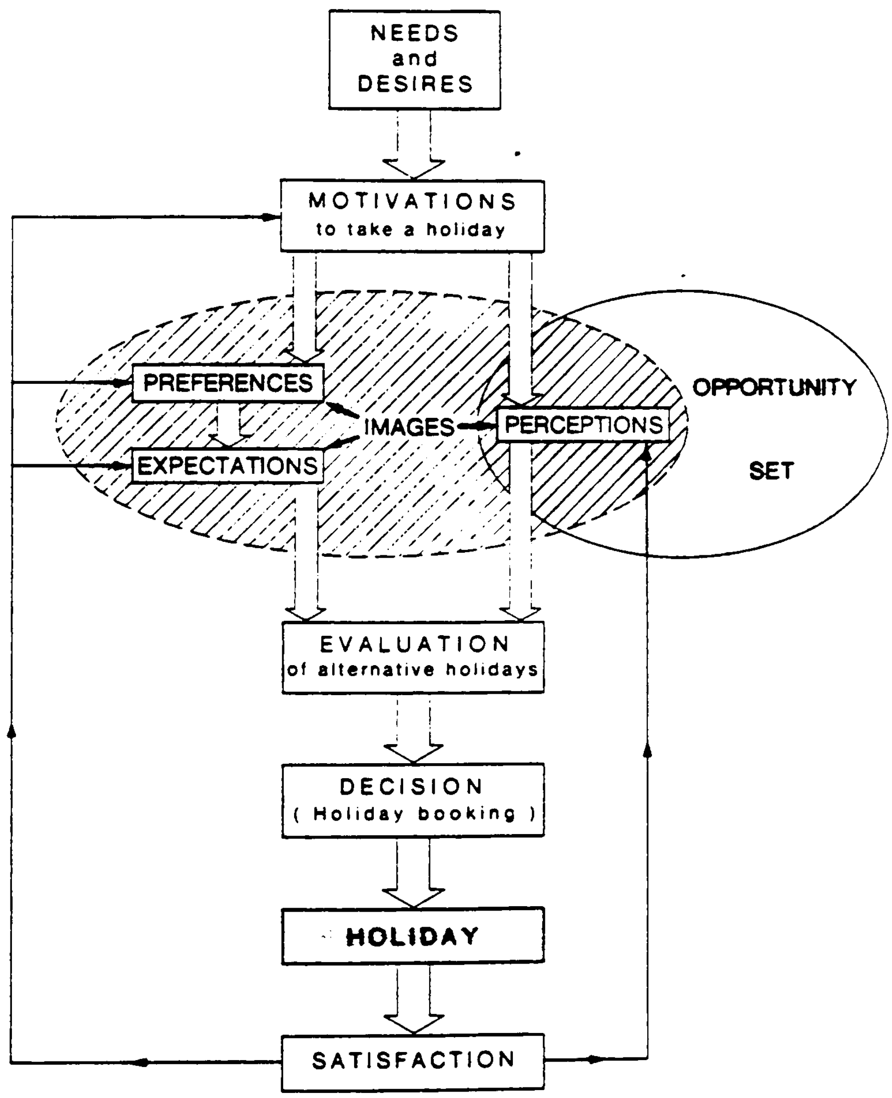
Since multi-attribute model is a form of the compensatory rule, this suggests that strategy used in the evaluating alternatives in determining preferences for, or choice of, holiday destination is based on the compensatory decision rule. As mentioned earlier, this strategy allows positive attributes to compensate for negative attributes, supporting the idea that tourists preferences or choice of a destination because of a number of attributes rather than just one (Witter, 1985). Furthermore, execution of this procedure involves evaluating each brand individually across attributes, that is, attribute information is processed by brand. The appropriate marketing strategy here would be to stress the strong features as well as promoting the best "overall" value of the destination.

Goodall (1988) reckons that to convert motivations into a holiday trip requires the identification of the tourist's preferences and a knowledge of holiday opportunities. He felt that mental (destination) images is the basis of the evaluation or selection process. In his model of tourist's holiday decisions (Figure 5.2), Goodall considers that all activities and experiences are given mental rating (good or bad), and each individual has their own preferential image of their ideal holiday. This conditions their expectations, setting an aspiration level or evaluative image, against which actual holiday opportunities are compared.

He termed individual's perception of holiday destinations as perceived opportunity set. This in fact is their travel awareness set which is conditioned by the information available. Several destinations which appear to meet the individual's holiday expectations amongst the perceived opportunity set will further be evaluated. The evaluating criteria used for this was suggested to be: family circumstances; home and work circumstances; value for money and destination attractions.

Figure 5.2

The tourist's holiday decision



Source: Goodall, B. (1988), "How Tourists Choose Their Holidays: An Analytical Framework" in Marketing in the Tourism Industry - The Promotion of Destination Regions, Goodall, B. and Ashworth, G. (eds.), London: Routledge, 6.

As can be seen from Figure 4.3 (Chapter 4), evaluation of alternative resorts/destinations were made in terms of their detailed holiday requirements. In which case final selection was made in anticipation that it will best satisfy the tourist's requirement on the basis that the tourist is practising a form of optimising behaviour within a context of bounded rationality. If the potential tourists are unable to find an acceptable resort/ destination then they will either consider modifying their holiday requirements, and/or reorganising their search process: failing which they discontinue the search and postpone about going away on the holiday.

Since the consumer forms an overall attitude toward each alternative based on his prior experience with the products or from a strong positive feeling from the various information sources, it can be assumed that the choice is based on affect-referral rule. Under this rule, a consumer will select the brand with the highest perceived overall rating. As such, similar marketing strategy with that of other compensatory decision rule would be appropriate.

The decision evaluation stage results the consumer to forms brand preferences among the various alternatives. It follows that the consumer may form a purchase intention and bend toward buying the most preferred brand. The next chapter will discuss the influencing factors between the purchase intention and the purchase decision.

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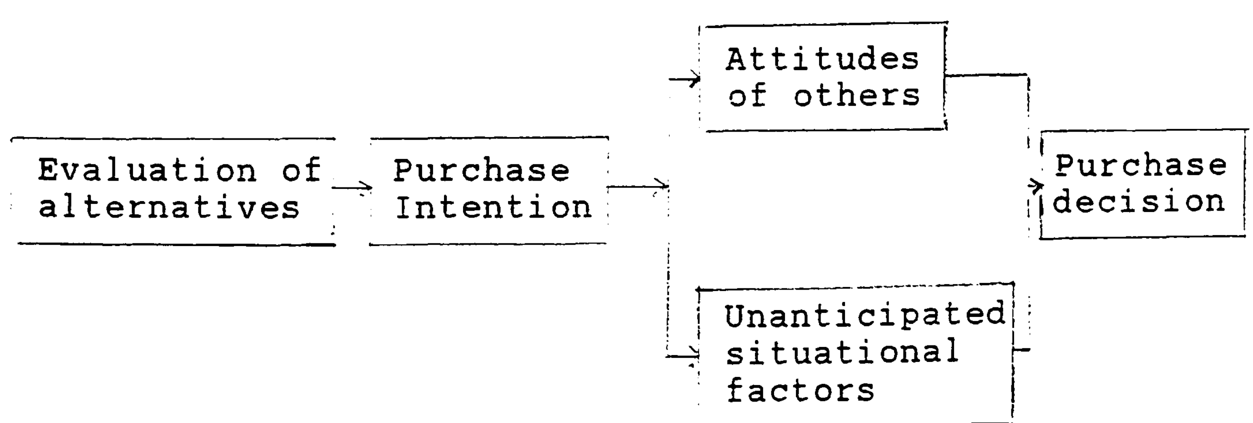
CHAPTER SIX

PURCHASE DECISION

Introduction

Following evaluation, the consumer forms preferences among the brands in the choice set. The first to occur here is the formation of the intention to buy that most preferred brand. According to the model of decision making (Figure 6.1), intention is the immediate determinant of actual purchase. In general, this intention will culminate in an actual purchase, although there are factors that may disrupt this flow (Engel et al., 1986).

Figure 6.1
Steps Between Evaluation of Alternative and a Purchase Decision



Source: Philip Kotler (1991), Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation and Control, 7th edition, Englewood Cliffs,N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Chapter 6.

In this chapter, we will look into intervening factors between the purchase intention and the purchase decision. These factors are shown in Figure 6.1 (Kotler, 1991).

Attitude of Others

Consumers are often influenced by their perceptions of what relevant others (family, friends, boss, neighbours) would think of the actions being contemplated. This means that even though a consumer may have favourable attitudes toward making a particular purchase, he may not proceed with the decision if he believes that others who are important to him may not approve of the action.

This means that consumer's purchase decision may often be affected by the perceived "social benefits" of the product. It was found that the consumers rated their beliefs about a product according to how this would affect the image others hold of them. This was relevant to their purchase decisions across a broad range of products (Park and Lessig, 1977).

Two factors in turn influence the extent to which another person's attitude will reduce or change one's preferred choice alternative. They are: (1) the degree of the other person's negative attitude toward the consumer's preferred choice alternative and (2) the consumer's motivation to comply with the other person's socially sanctioned standards of behaviour. The more intense the other person's negativism, and the closer the other is to the consumer, the more the consumer will revise downward his or her purchase intention. However, the converse is also true: A buyer's preference for a choice alternative will increase if someone he or she likes favours the same alternative (Kotler, 1990).

The influence of reference groups was found to vary with the "conspicuousness" of a product in terms of its exclusiveness and its visibility by others (Bourne, 1961). This concept was further expanded by Bearden and Etzel (1982), by combining the public-private (measure of exclusivity) consumption and luxury-necessity (measure of visibility) items to determine the strength of reference group influence on product and brand decisions. In general, the result showed that the strength of reference group influence was greater for brand choices as opposed to product choice decisions. Specifically, it generates the following set of eight relationship:

i. For publicly consumed luxury product:

- The reference group influence is strong for a luxury good.
- The reference group influence is strong for the brand of the product.

ii. For privately consumed luxury product:

- The reference group influence is strong for the product.
- The reference group influence is weak for the brand of the product.

iii. For publicly consumed necessity product:

- The reference group influence is weak for the product.
- The reference group influence is strong for the brand of the product.

iv. For privately consumed necessity product:

- The reference group influence is weak for the product.
- The reference group influence is weak for the brand of the product.

As can be seen, the reference group influence over product class choice is strong for luxury goods and weak for necessities. For reference group influence to have an impact on brand choice, it must be publicly consumed so that the brand can readily be identified.

Bourne (1961), suggested that knowledge on which classification a product falls can help the marketer to adopt the following appropriate advertising strategies:

i. Where neither product nor brand appear to be associated strongly with reference-group influence, advertising should emphasise the product's attributes, intrinsic qualities, price and advantage over competing products.

ii. Where reference-group influence is operative, the advertiser should stress the kind of people who buy the product, reinforcing and broadening where possible the existing stereotypes of users. The strategy of the advertiser should involve learning what the stereotypes are and what specific reference groups enter into the picture, so that appeals can "tailored" to each main group reached by the different media employed.

Even though reference groups can be very potent influences, it was however, reported that the consumers still perceive their own personal preference to strongly outweigh that of reference groups' in arriving at their product and brand decisions (Lundstrum, Zikmund and Sciglimpaglia, 1979). The study also found that for major durable or "family product," the greatest group influence comes from the family. While other reference groups are more influential for products associated with social visibility or social status.

The strength of the family's influence can be derived from a combination of factors. Firstly, the family is a primary group characterised by intimate and face-to-face interaction. Secondly, it is also a reference group with members referring to certain family values, norms and standards in their behaviour. Thirdly, the bonds within the family are likely to be much more powerful than those in other reference groups. Fourthly, contrary to most other groups to which the consumer belongs, the family functions directly in the role of ultimate consumption. Finally, consumer's attitudes toward spending and saving and even the brands and products purchased have been moulded, often quite indelibly, by the families they grew up in (Laudon and Della Bitta, 1988).

Since many family purchase decisions are the result of a combination of players, it is important for the marketer to identify which family members are influential in making the relevant purchase decision.

<u>Husband-Wife Influences</u>

The extent and the nature of husband and wife influence on family decision making has been found to vary on role-structure depending on specific product, the specific stage in decision process, sub-component of the purchase decision and in term of individual differences among families.

The classic study by Davis and Rigaux (1974) provide a detailed conceptualisation of the relative influence of husband and wife on the purchase decision on 25 specific products. Using Wolfe (1959) decision classification system they recorded four different patterns of husband and wife decision making:

i. Husband-dominated purchase in which the husband plays a largely independent role in the purchase of product categories such as life insurance.

ii. Wife-dominated purchase in which the wife plays a largely independent role in the purchase of cleaning products, kitchenware, child clothing, furnishing and food.

iii. Syncratic decisions in which husband and wife participate jointly in the purchase of housing, outside entertainment, children's schooling, living room furniture, children's toys and vacation.

iv. Autonomic decisions which show a high degree of role specialisation which either the husband or wife may make independently of the other in the purchase of garden tools, alcoholic beverages, non-prescription drug, housing upkeep, appliances, cosmetics, husband's clothing, saving objectives, forms of saving and car.

The same study also examines the influence of husband and wife across three stages of decision making process: problem recognition, search for information and final decision. It was noted that with the exception of wife dominated products there was a definite trend toward role specialisation (autonomic decision- making) as the decision process moves from problem recognition to search for information. However, a very different pattern emerges when they move from information search to final decision. There was a marked shift over many product categories toward syncratic decisions. Such purchases include housing upkeep, household appliance, husband's clothing and savings. Automobile purchases experience the most variation, moving from autonomic for problem recognition, to husband-dominant for information search, to syncratic for the final decision. These results suggested that for many products it would be better to develop two target advertising campaigns with separate messages that appeals to the needs and perceptions of the problems of each party.

Shuptrine and Samuelson (1976) reported on the relative influence of husband and wife, as perceived by each, on different component of the purchase decision for automobile and furniture. The purchase decision for each product was divided into six steps as follows:

Automobile decisions

1. When to buy
2. How much money to spend
3. What make to buy
4. What model to buy
5. What colour to buy
6. Where to buy

Furniture decisions

1. What pieces to buy
2. How much money to spend
3. Where to buy
4. When to buy
5. What style to buy
6. What colour and fabric to use

The study showed that for the automobile purchase the husband dominated most of the decision stages. Only on the question of what colour to buy did the wife share or dominate the decision. The results for the furniture purchase were quite different. Here the wife tended to dominate all aspects, except on the question of how much money to spend. Furthermore, it was found that there was a substantial perception of equal influence among the spouses although wives are more likely to perceive equal influence than husbands. The wives also indicated less often that they dominated the furniture purchase.

The influence of husband and wife in the purchase decision also varies by the stage in the life cycle. Wolgast (1958) reported that families in the early stages of the life cycle show a very high frequency of joint decisions. However, this tendency tends to decline over the life cycle as people develop increased efficiency and competence in making purchasing decisions which are acceptable to their spouses without much interaction (Granbois, 1963).

There are evidences to suggest that, over time, and in contrast to earlier years, that there is a general increase in egalitarianism. The wives are increasingly involved in activities outside the home, thus participating more in joint decisions. This trend towards more syncratic decisions could be accounted to the changing employment and roles of women (Cunningham and Green, 1974) and (Qualls, 1982). These changes in relative influence of husbands and wives overtime was contributed to the theory of relative resource contribution which suggests that the greater the relative contribution of an individual (to family income), the greater will be the influence in decision making (Cunningham and Green, 1974) and (Hampel, 1975). A variation of this theory is called the "least interested partner" hypothesis, which states that the greater the value of one partner relative to the other as valued by society, the greater influence that partner will have (Engel, et al., 1986).

Unanticipated Situational Factors

The second factor that can intervene between the purchase intention and the purchase decision are the unanticipated situational factors.The formation of consumer purchase intention is based on the basis of such factors as expected family income, expected price and a particular satisfaction bundle from the product. Any event that may cause these factor to change will provoke the consumer to change his or her purchase intention. Sudden changes in family income due to sickness or unemployment or even a promotion , other purchase might become more urgent, changes in the satisfaction bundle of the product reported by relevant others, an introduction of new products or brands are some of the examples of the unanticipated events that can influence the actual purchase. This suggests that preferences and purchase intentions are not completely reliable predictors of purchase behaviour.

However, it has been found that the strength of the intention-behaviourial relationship are affected by the time interval between the measurement of intention and performance of the behaviour. Wilson, Mathews and Harvey (1975), reported that the correlation between intention and actual behaviour tends to be high when the intention and actual behaviour measures occur close together in time. As the time increases between measurement of intention and the actual behaviour, the correlations drop considerably (Bonfield, 1974). Thus, the lengthening of time will provide increasing opportunities for unanticipated factors to arise to influence purchase intention of the consumer.

Perceived Risk

Perceived risk can also influence a consumer to modify, postpone or avoid a purchase decision. Consumer perceives risk because he or she may have little or no experience with the product or product category under consideration - either through product usage or it is new in the market. Unsatisfactory experience with other brands may cause consumers to be concerned about making another similar mistake. Consumer may realise that limited financial resources may result in the choice of one product at the expense of another. Finally, the consumer may feel lack of self- confidence in his or her ability to make the "right" decision with limited knowledge (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1983).

Many purchases involve some risk taking (Kotler, 1988). Jacoby and Kaplan (1972), listed several kinds of risk perceived by the consumers in a purchase situation:

Financial risk - The consumer may lose money if the brand does not work or need frequent maintenance.

Performance risk - The consumer is worried if the brand may not work as expected.

Physical risk - The brand may become harmful to one's physical health.

Psychological risk - The brand may not fit well with one's image or self-concept.

Social risk - The consumer is worried that the brand will affect the way his reference group think about him.

Roselius (1971), however, mentioned about time-loss risk which may cause consumer a considerable waste of time, convenience and effort getting it adjusted, repaired or replaced should the brand fail.

The amount of perceived risk varies with the characteristics of the individual consumer (Mowen, 1990), range of alternatives (Pettigrew, 1968), product category, shopping situation and culture (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1983).

Because some degree of risk is present in nearly all purchase situation, consumers will normally develop unique strategies to make decisions with more confidence. Those risk-reduction strategies commonly quoted in the literature are:

- Buy the brand which the consumer has used before and found to be satisfactory.

- Buy a well known brand name which normally is associated with quality, dependability and performance.

- Buy the brand with guarantees or warranties.

- Buy the brand which has received endorsements of satisfaction from opinion leaders.

- Buy the brand which has obtained approval from reputable organisations or authorities.

- Buy the most expensive model as consumers rely on price as an indicator of product quality.

- Seeking out more information about brands and thus, lower the perceived risk.

It was found that the most-favoured strategies of all the risk-reduction strategies listed above were brand loyalty and brand image. The least-favoured strategies were buying the most expensive model, private laboratory tests, money-back guarantees and endorsements (Roselius, 1971).

Thus, understanding the concept of perceived risk could help marketers to develop and implement strategies for dealing creatively to reduce risk in facilitating consumer's acceptance of their products.

Decision Sequence

A consumer who decides to execute a purchase intention will be making up to five purchase sub-decisions. These additional activities associated with the decision to purchase a product are: (1) decision on brand choice, (2) decision on the dealer choice, (3) quantity decision, (4) timing decision and (5) decision on financing the purchase. This full range of behaviour will normally be expected for products that involve extensive problem solving although the decisions are not necessarily made in that order. However, for low-involvement products with much less buyer deliberation, it may involve fewer of these decisions (Kotler, 1991).

Travel and Tourism Related Purchase Decision

As mentioned earlier during the search process, personal sources such as friends and relatives and recommendations from travel agents assume an evaluating or legitimising functions in the decision process of the tourists. This fact shows that the consumers of tourism products are heavily influenced by the perceptions of relevant others. It also minimises the perceived risk between the purchase intention and the purchase decision because of the "service untouched and sight unseen" factor.

In a study to identify the relative influence of family members on household decisions, Davis and Rigaux (1974) found that vacation as a purchase decision tended to be syncratic. This means that the decision is important in which the husband and wife participate jointly. The study also examined marital roles across three stages of the decision making process. The problem recognition phase is mainly syncratic. However, between problem recognition and search for information stages, there is a trend toward specialisation (autonomic decision-making) as couples seek to gather information about vacation separately. When the couples move from information gathering to making the final vacation choice, there is a marked shift toward syncratic decision.

Another study investigated who had the most influence in the buying process of a vacation. Jenkins (1978) divided the buying process of a vacation into 9 sub-decisions:

1. Information collection.
2. Length of vacation.
3. Period of vacation.
4. Amount of money to spend.
5. Whether to take the children.
6. Mode of transportation.
7. Kind of activities.
8. Selection of lodging.
9. Selection of destination.

It was reported that the first four decision stages tended to be dominated by the husband while the remaining five stages were joint decisions. The study also found that the children exert an influence on the kind of activities, period of vacation and choice of destination. Both husband and wife felt that children have relatively little influence on other decisions.

Filiatrault and Ritchie (1980) studied how the nature of influence structure in the decision-making process differs for two types of household Decision-Making Unit (family - husband, wife and children versus couple -

husband wife only) across identical vacation travel decisions processes. The result revealed substantial variations in patterns of role dominance and response consensus. Specifically, in term of role structure, husband tended to dominate decision making more in family DMUs (Decision-Making Units) than those where no children were present. The dominance was related to those decisions concerning budget levels, timing and specific characteristics of lodging. Joint decision making was more prevalent in couples travelling alone than among those travelling with children. In both cases, shares decision making was observed primarily for those decisions involving the actual vacation destination. The degree of dominance and shared decision appeared to be similar to those vacation sub-decisions reported by Jenkins (1978).

The study also reported that within family Decision-Making Units, children exerted relatively little influence on the overall decision process. Nevertheless, children may have the potential to influence family decisions by forming alliances with either husband or wife to produce a "majority" position. In general, however, it was observed that the influence exerted by children tended to come at the expense of the wife rather than the husband.

Tourism products in particular the long-haul vacation travel with its long planning horizon would be susceptible to the increasing opportunities for unanticipated factors (such as family income, expected price level and satisfaction bundle from the product) to arise to influence purchase intention of the tourist. At the same time long-haul tourist seemed to be less price and income sensitive than other "mass" tourism (Jenkins, 1991) while Behbehani (1983) reported that demand for air travel to be price inelastic in long-haul international markets than in medium-haul markets. These findings would therefore suggest that the attitudes of relevant others were of more important consideration as an intervening factors between the purchase intention and the purchase decision.

The roles of advice from friends and relatives and recommendations from travel agents in the choice process of the tourists were well documented in the earlier part of this study. The interaction that occurs among family or household members within the processes leading to the purchase of vacation concluded this chapter after relevant foundations were touched upon. To the marketers, understanding spousal influence level could certainly improve the effectiveness of their sales and advertising strategies.

After a brand of a product is purchased, the consumer moves from the pre-purchase to the post-purchase phase of the consumer buying process.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

POST-PURCHASE BEHAVIOUR

Introduction

The consumer decision process is not over with the actual purchase of a brand. Rather, the consumer makes an evaluation of whether consumption of the product has solved the problem that was originally recognised. In doing so, the consumer is assessing purchased product in terms of its performance to determine if it meets his or her desires and/or expectations. The result will be that consumer will experience some level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

The consumer who is disappointed is not likely to repurchase the product, spread negative word-of-mouth information, complain or seek redress. He or she may even take legal actions against the company. Few firms can afford this type of negative image. On the other hand, satisfied consumers may lead to brand loyalty and recommend it to their reference groups.

The consumer will also engage in post-purchase action and product use in ways that differ from the manner envisioned by the marketers which can be of interest to the marketer.

This means that the marketer's job does not end when the product is bought but continues into the post-purchase period (Kotler,1991). The goals for the marketers relevant to post-purchase processes are two-folds: Firstly, to ensure the post-purchase satisfaction of consumers which can seriously affect long-term success of any organisation. Secondly, to study product use and disposal for clues to possible problems and opportunities (Jacoby, Berning and Dietvorst, 1977).

This chapter will first discuss the concept of post-purchase satisfaction/dissatisfaction and the resulting reaction as a foundation before examining its application to the travel industry.

Post-purchase Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction

Woodruff, Cadotte and Jenkins (1983) viewed post-purchase satisfaction/dissatisfaction as emotional feelings that result from the confirmation or disconfirmation of expectations about how the product should perform. These feelings arise during the post-consumption evaluation in which the consumer is conceptualised as comparing actual product performance with expected product performance.

Consumer's product expectations could be in the forms of (1) the nature and performance of the product or service or the benefits bundle offered by the product, (2) the costs and efforts to be expended before experiencing those benefits and (3) the social benefits or costs resulting from the purchase (Day, 1977).

Mowen (1990) listed a number of factors that will influence the level of performance expected of a product:

> <u>Product factors</u> - A consumer's prior experiences with the product, its price and its physical characteristics all influence how consumers expect it to perform.
>
> <u>Promotional factors</u> - Advertising and communications of sales personnel employed by the company to promote the product can often influence the performance expectation of consumers.
>
> <u>The effect of other products</u> - Consumer's experiences with other products of similar nature may result in the formation of norms or standards about the level of performance that a particular brand should be able to achieve, thus will influence his expectations of performance.
>
> <u>Characteristics of the consumer</u> - Some consumers simply expect more of products than others and

consequently, set higher standards. Consumers with very narrow regions of acceptance around the adaptation level could be expected to be more easily dissatisfied than those with broad regions of acceptance.

The perception of actual performance will also be influenced by a number of factors. Among those mentioned by Mowen (1990) are:

i. Consumer's prior experience with the product and his or her prior attitudes towards the brand.

ii. Expectations of brand performance.

Satisfaction is the result when the performance of the chosen alternative is consistent with prior beliefs and expectations with respect to that alternative. While dissatisfaction, is the outcome when this confirmation does not take place (Engel et al., 1986). Woodruff et al. (1983) further suggested that if performance is not perceived to be different from expectancies, confirmation occurs. In this circumstances, the consumer may not consciously consider much about his or her feelings about the product.

La Barbera and Mazursky (1983) suggests the following model of consumer satisfaction:

$$S = f(E,P)$$

in which the consumer's satisfaction (S) is the function of the closeness between the consumer's product expectations (E) and the product perceived performance (P).

Linda (1979) reported that several factors, including demographic, personality, reference groups have been found to influence satisfaction. In terms of demographic variables, older consumers tend to have lower expectations and to be more easily satisfied. Higher education tends to be associated with lower satisfaction. Women tend to be more difficult to satisfy than man. In terms of personality variables, it was found that the more confidence one has with the purchase decision making and the more competence in a given product area, the greater one's satisfaction would be. There is also greater satisfaction when relevant others are perceived to be more satisfied. While Westbrook (1980) reported that higher degree of product satisfaction by those persons who were more satisfied with their lives as a whole, and by those with more favourable attitudes toward the consumer domain, that is , the marketplace, business firms and consumerism.

In terms of consumer satisfaction for specific purchases, Westbrook, Newman and Taylor (1978) found that consumers reported that they found enjoyment and satisfaction in their buying experiences for durables considerably more often than they found difficulty and discontent.

Postpurchase action

As mentioned earlier, the two outcomes of purchase in which the consumer either be satisfied or dissatisfied will subsequently influence his or her future behaviour. Satisfied customer will exhibit a higher probability of purchasing the product again, will tend to say good things about the product to relevant others.

A dissatisfied customer, on the other hand, are likely to respond differently. Day and Landon (1977) listed five alternative courses of action available to the consumer should he or she decided to take action. The consumer can:

i. Seek redress directly from business firms.
ii. Take legal action to obtain redress.
iii. Complain to business, private or governmental agencies.
iv. Decide to stop buying product or brand or boycott seller.
v. Warn friends about the product and/or seller.

Engel et al.(1986) in their survey of literature on the extensiveness of dissatisfaction found evidence that it ranged from about 20 percent to around 50 percent, depending on the type of product, with an average of approximately one third of all buyers. Andreason and Best (1977) reported that less than 50 percent of those dissatisfied consumers did take some kind of action. Less than 15 percent of consumers for low-cost and frequently purchased products compared to over 50 percent for household durables and automobiles were found to take some action if they were dissatisfied. While Krapfel (1985), identified the need to recover an economic loss and the need to rebuilt the person's self-image as the two major reasons for engaging in some kind of complaint behaviour.

The trend from the above studies clearly suggested that as the cost and social importance increase so do the tendency to complain. Whether a complaint will be lodged is also influenced by other related variables that can be drawn from Landon's (1977) model of consumer complaint behaviour:

Complaint Behaviour = f (Dissatisfaction, Importance of Product, Benefit from Complaining, Personality)

The model suggested that dissatisfaction, although necessary but insufficient by itself to act as a basis for complaint behaviour. Secondly, the product must be perceived to be important enough in term of cost, search time, well-being associated with the product and ego-involvement to warrant the trouble of complaining.
Thirdly, the expected benefits of complaining must be greater than the cost of complaining. The firm's image and reputation, previous complaining experience as well as the nature of product's defect may influence the expected

benefits of complaining. Finally, an individual's personality and personal characteristics also influence complaining behaviour. It was found that those who engaged in complaining behaviour after experiencing dissatisfaction tended to be young, to have higher levels of income and education (Bearden and Mason, 1984), and those with high self-confidence (Bearden and Teel, 1981).

Complaining behaviour may also be related to the nature of attributions consumers make regarding product failures. Consumers are more likely to complain when they attribute product failure to the retailer or manufacturer (external causes) than when they attribute failure to their own fault (internal causes) (Wall, Dickey and Talarzyk, 1977). Howard and Hulbert (1973), however, found that the likelihood of complaining is related to personal characteristics and "internal" factors of how the product is experienced and used rather than to product performance.

Post-purchase Dissonance

As mentioned earlier, dissatisfaction is the emotional feelings resulting from disconfirmation of expectations about how the product should perform. This in turn leads to dissonance. Post-purchase dissonance - occurring after a purchase is quite a common feelings because purchase decisions often require some amount of compromise among several alternatives brands and that consumer cannot buys everything, and rejected alternatives are likely to have attractive features. This feelings of cognitive dissonance becomes particularly strong for durable and luxury goods because they require larger consumer investment in time, money and ego (Loudon and Della Bitta, 1988).

Engel et al.(1986) in their survey of literature identified six probable conditions under which cognitive dissonance is likely to occur when:

i. After a certain threshold of dissonance tolerance is passed. That is, the feelings of cognitive dissonance will occur beyond a certain level of inconsistency.

ii. The action is irrevocable.

iii. Rejected alternatives have attractive attributes and each one may have some unique characteristics (qualitatively dissimilar).

iv. A number of desirable alternatives are available.

v. There is a high level of involvement in terms of time, money and ego.

iv. The choice is made entirely by free will.

According to the theory of cognitive dissonance, the resulting dissonance produces tension, which serves to motivate the individual to rationalise or assimilate the discrepancy in order to reduce the psychological discomfort of dissatisfaction (Robertson, Zielinski and Ward, 1984). This theory has been widely used by marketing strategists to explain post-purchase dissonance.

To reduce post-purchase dissonance a number of consumer-initiated tactics have been reported. They are:

i. Re-evaluate the desirability of the chosen alternative by increasing its perceived attractiveness and/or downgrading unchosen alternatives (Cummings and Venkatesan,1975), (LoSciuto and Perloff, 1967). Dissonant consumer may change his attitude to make them consonant with his behaviour.

This view is based on the assimilation theory in that the customer tries to resolve the psychological tension by bringing personal perceptions of the product more in line with expectations. Motivation to achieve consonance will likely take the form of attitude change because it is easier than renouncing the purchase and returning the product (Loudon and Della Bitta, 1988).

ii. Seeking new supportive information and avoiding those of dissonance-creating competing brands. This is based on the cognitive dissonance theory in which individuals would be expected to actively avoid information that would tend to increase their dissonance and seek information that support their decisions. Cummings and Venkatesan (1976), however, expressed doubt that dissonance factors to have any effect on the post-purchase information- seeking behaviour due to methodological problems.

While Engel et al. (1986) agreed with the conclusion that postpurchase advertisements readership had nothing to do with dissonance despite quoting Bogart's (1984) evidence that people are far more prone to read advertisements for products they already own. They further suggested that advertisement sensitivity more likely reflects a natural tendency to be sensitive to appeals for something that is familiar and interesting.

iii. There is also evidence to suggest that the consumer seeks to lower his dissonance by returning the product or by engaging in negative word-of-mouth communications (Mowen, 1990).

From the perspectives of marketing managers, the first option has been the basis of their efforts in assisting consumers to reduce postpurchase dissonance by reevaluating the chosen alternative in a more favourable direction. Here, the focus is to ensure postpurchase satisfaction of consumers. This is achieved by building realistic consumer expectations that can be reasonably delivered by product performance. Combining a two-sided advertising campaigns incorporating both the positive attributes as well as the brand's deficiencies with strict product quality control proved to be very effective strategy.

Another means of maintaining post-purchase satisfaction is the provision of outstanding postsale reassurance. Although support from the published literature is still not forthcoming, the following approaches are widespread: stronger guarantee or warranty, supplying sufficient literature for buyer reinforcement, stressing product superiority in instruction manuals and on the package.

In addition, some firms spend a large sum of money to provide excellent after sale service in order to forestall dissonance. Evidence, however, provide support for the practice of following up buyers after sales to reinforce the wisdom of choice as part of dissonance-reducing campaign. Hunt (1970) found that sending letters to customers after a purchase of a refrigerator reduced doubt or dissonance in comparison to those who received no information. Another study found that after sale communications to automobiles buyers have resulted in fewer product returns and order cancellations (Donnelly and Ivancevich, 1970).

Provision to encourage consumer complaints and having mechanisms in place to handle them have been reported to have a definite correlation with the degree of consumer satisfaction and owner loyalty (Gilly and Gelb, 1982).

Post-purchase use and disposal

The final step in the postpurchase behaviour is how the buyers use and dispose of the product they purchase. Jacoby, Berning and Dietvorst (1977) classified how consumers use or dispose of products into three alternatives: keep it, get rid of it permanently or get rid of it temporarily. Each of the these alternatives has sub-options.

The first strategy is to keep the product. The consumer can either use it to serve the original purpose, convert it to serve as a new purpose or store it. Consumers do not always use products in the ways assumed by the manufacturer. In the event that the consumers finding a new use for the product, it could certainly be of interest to the marketer in that it can be advertised as a more attractive alternative to the competing brands. Knowledge on how the consumer actually use the product can also influence new product design. Thus, presenting new opportunities for the company in terms of new market offerings. Such innovativeness could certainly give the company an added advantage to be ahead of its competitors or to be a market leader.

Avoiding product liability problems is another area in which information on actual product usage can be important to the manufacturer. To avoid lawsuit from injuries while using the products, Mowen and Ellis (1981) suggested that companies must take steps to investigate unintended uses for their products and either design them for safe use or provide warnings that they should not be used in certain applications.

The secondly strategy of how consumer use or dispose the product is to remove it temporarily in which the consumer can either rent or loan it. Finally, the product is to be removed permanently. In this case, the options would either be to give away, trade, sell or throw the product away. Both of these strategies could indicate that the product is not delivering its promises at the expense of expectations, and consequently, the word-of-mouth would not be supportive.

Jacoby et al. (1977) also reported that method of disposition varies considerably across products. In general, the higher the value of the product, the greater would be the tendency for the consumer to sell it as a mean of disposing of the product. Products such as refrigerators and stereo amplifiers are more frequently sold than any other method of product disposal.

Loudon and Della Bitta (1988) suggested several dimensions in which consumer disposition can influence a company's marketing strategy. Firstly, marketers may have to become more involved in facilitating consumer's disposition process to encourage new product purchase. Secondly, forecasting sales of new products will have to take into account stocks of used goods which may also be in the market. Thirdly, understanding the reasons that consumers acquire new product even though their old ones are still performing satisfactorily could help marketers in developing more effective promotional strategy.

The Process of Generating Tourist Satisfaction

The process between initial expectation and satisfaction of a tourist is reflected in the model developed by Ryan (1991) (Figure 7.1). It does not only highlights the role of personality of the tourist but also the way he or she responds to the variables presented by the location. Generally, the behaviour is directed by a wish to achieve satisfaction. The ability to adapt to the difference that exist between the original perception and the actual experience is the determinant of actual satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

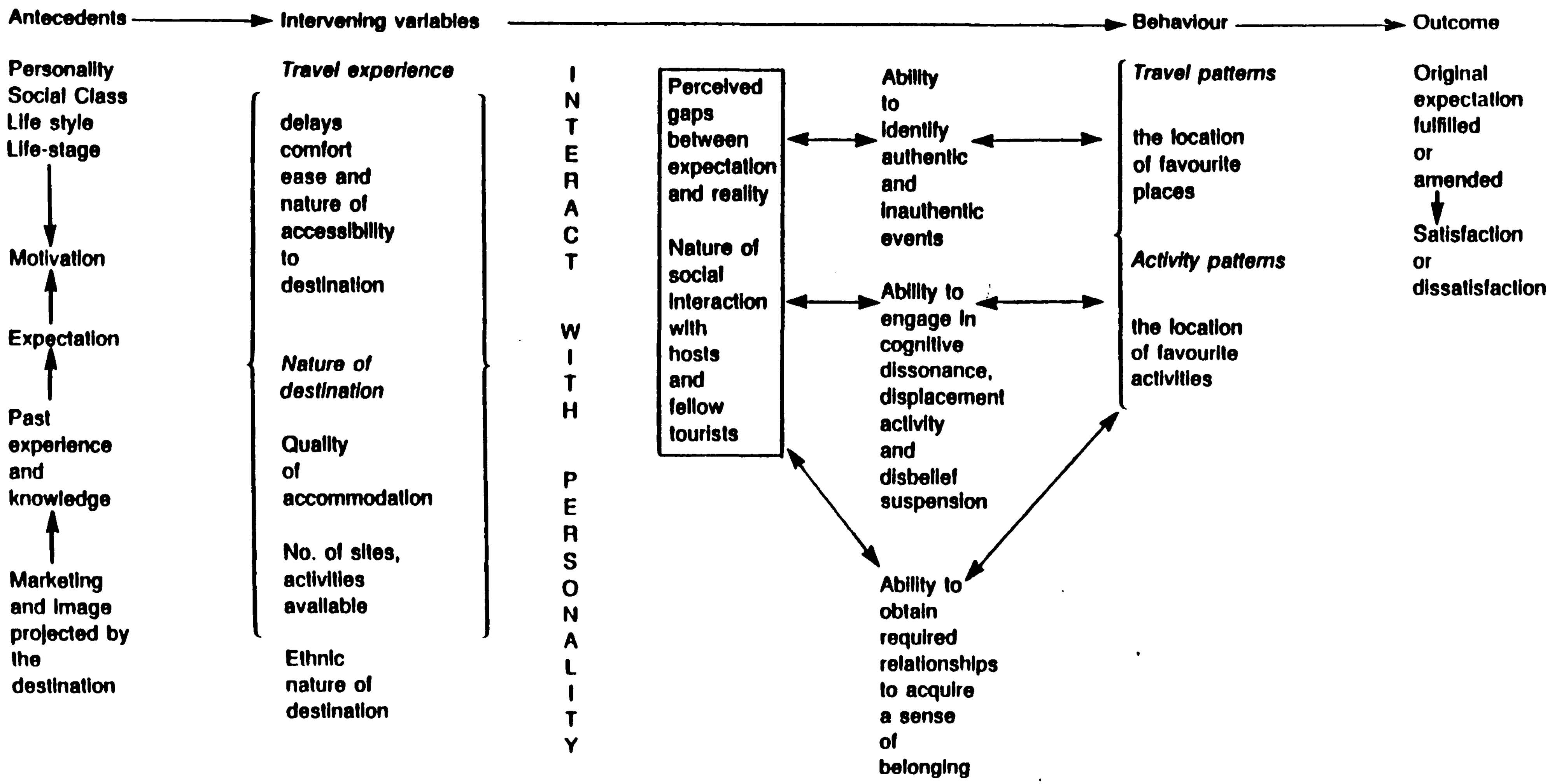

Figure 7.1

The Link between Expectation and Satisfaction

Source: Ryan C. (1991), Recreational Tourism - A Social Science Perspective, London: Routledge, 48.

The make-up of the holiday experience, may colour perception, at least in the initial stage of the holiday (while the tourist learns about the destination/resort and what it has to offer). The difference may then exist between expectation and reality. The perception of both the problem and the internal processes of adjustment depends upon the seriousness and the nature of the differences. Part of the adjustment process will also be depending on the social and adaptive skills. This will in turn results in a series of behaviours, the objective of which was the creation of a satisfactory feeling about the holiday. The satisfaction achieved then becomes feedback in the system in that it shapes knowledge for the next holiday.

Social and psychological skills also come into play in the sense of being able to perceive actuality, suspend disbelief when required, and conduct positive sets of relationship. These attributes aid shape travel and activities pattern which permit the fulfilment of the original or enhance expectation and hence, create satisfaction.

Tourist Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction

Pizam, Newman and Reichel (1978) viewed post-purchase satisfaction/dissatisfaction in travel and tourism as concerned with feelings of gratification or displeasure about a destination following interaction with that destination. Their study sought to identify the dimensions underlying tourist satisfaction with a tourism areas. Eight dimensions were obtained through factor analysis of 32 items representing the tourist satisfaction construct. They are: (1) beach opportunities; (2) cost; (3) hospitality; (4) eating and drinking; (5) accommodation facilities; (6) campground facilities; (7) environment; and (8) extent of commercialisation.

Francken and Raaij (1979b) reported that vacationers with lower levels of income and education and from higher age brackets tended to have lower expectations and aspirations, thus, reported higher levels of vacation satisfaction.

The level of vacation dissatisfaction may be related to the nature of attributions consumer make regarding inequality of purchase. Vacationers who attribute their dissatisfaction to external factors (travel agency, hotel or transportation company) are more likely to be more dissatisfied than vacationers who attribute their dissatisfaction to themselves (Francken and Van Raaij, 1981).

In terms of post-purchase action of dissatisfied vacationers, Van Raaij and Francken (1984) reported on the earlier work of Francken (1982) that about two-thirds of the complainers at the arbitration committee decided not to patronise the travel agency or tour operator concerned anymore. About 50 percent warned other people and tried to persuade them not to patronise the company. It was further reported that vacationers, with a rejected complaint more often decided never to take a package tour again.

This chapter concludes on the importance in the formation of attitudes of tourists satisfaction and dissatisfaction towards the holiday products. Such attitudes influence future behaviour much more in the context of word-of-mouth communication rather than its roles as an important determinant of the development of brand royalty. This is due to the importance of personal sources in the decision process of the tourists as discussed in chapter four.

The concept of brand loyalty in the travel and tourism tends to be of limited value as tourists seem to demonstrate a high propensity to visit new destinations on each holiday and even when a repeat visit is made to a particular country new resorts will be selected.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

HYPOTHESES AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the hypotheses and research methodology. In the first section, the objectives and their rationale are presented. The next section explains the research design which is divided into four sections:

1. Sample description
2. Questionnaire development
3. Data collection procedure
4. Data analysis techniques used in the study.

In general, this chapter is to provide a foundation for understanding the various data that were collected, how they were collected and the relevant analytical issues to be addressed.

HYPOTHESES

In this section, five major hypotheses are suggested and their rationale presented. The basis for developing a significant and effective marketing programme for the target market is to understand the buyer's behaviour at each stage of the decision process and what influences are operating (Kotler, 1991).

It is generally accepted that any studies need to be product specific to be of value to the planning and implementation of marketing and advertising strategies. Therefore, the fieldwork objective can now be summarised as follows:

i. To identify the internal and external circumstances (stimuli) that trigger the need; what brought them about; and how they are led to long-haul travel to Malaysia.

ii. To identify what are the major information sources that the tourist turned to and the relatives influence of each had on the subsequent purchase decision.

iii. To identify what are the buying criteria used as the tourist moved from the awareness set to the choice set.

iv. To identify the relative influence of family members on a various number of vacation sub-decisions in the decision process.

v. To identify tourist satisfaction levels with the various services encountered in Malaysia.

The value of understanding the determinants of problem recognition in the consumer's buying process lies in the effort to develop effective marketing for the target market. This is in view of the fact that funds are much too limited to be spent without strategic planning. Given the fact that people see and hear what they want to see and hear, marketing efforts are more effective after a problem is recognised and search began. This is because the targets are much more receptive and more open to new information.

Marketing efforts certainly contribute in triggering problem recognition either by highlighting the ideal state or by showing the inadequacies of the actual state. Researchers agreed that the best strategy is to find consumer segments that, for one reason or another, are dissatisfied with present solutions and are receptive to something different. Then, appropriate actions can be introduced in product, package, price, promotion as well as distribution to capitalise on a responsive segment of prospective customers (Block and Roering, 1979). It is expected that this approach would produce better result than those attempts to stimulate problem recognition to an indifferent world at large that is being inundated by all sort of other persuasion.

Much has been written about tourist motivation. From this literature, it is possible to gain a reasonable insight into what kind of needs or problems arose one is trying to satisfy when one is considering buying a holiday. However, in order to be of value as marketing guidelines those motives need to be product specific in its application to long-haul destination choice process. Identification of the circumstances (frequent stimuii) that give rise to interest for long-haul vacation can also be helpful for effective strategy.

The application of consumer mental-set concept to holiday destination choice process and the relative importance of the various tourist information sources have added another dimension towards better understanding of the neglected tourist buying behaviour research.

However, it could be much more of interest to the tourism marketer if the relative influence of the various information sources can be observed at each stage of the consumer mental-set during long-haul holiday destination choice process. Since the set of brands of interest to the consumer keeps changing as information comes in (Kotler, 1991), knowledge of the roles and influence of the various information sources at each stage of the consumer mental-set could be of considerable advantage. The practical implication of this is that the respective destination will be able to "strategise" their brands into the prospect's awareness set, evokes set and choice set more effectively.

At the same time, they will be able to identify the identity of their nearest competitors (those that remain in the consumer's choice sets) for appropriate strategy.

Market share can be increased by improving and promoting facilities that would give the destination an edge over competitors. Diagnosing its perceived strengths and weaknesses on relevent tourism attributes is a valuable foundation for this approach.

Family or joint buying behaviour approach to the study of many consumer decisions is said to more realistic than those analysis at the level of the individual. This is because it explicitly recognises the need to account for the interaction that occur among family or household members within the processes leading to the purchase of many type of products or services (Filiatrault and Ritchie, 1980).

The fact that many decisions within the family are joint choice processes has been recognised for sometime. Vacation travel decisions are of no exception. The question is whether this finding can be generalised to long-haul vacation choice. Will the same spousal influence level be maintained on various number of vacation sub-decisions?

The marketing concept as a philosophy of business holds that it is the function of business to produce goods and services that satisfy consumer wants and needs at a profit (Kotler, 1991). Hence marketers have traditionally been interested in identifying factors that contribute to satisfaction with the goods and services provided. Its application to specific tourist destination has been limited. This is surprising in view of the fact that satisfaction is the determinant factor for positive word-of-mouth communication which is so important in the destination choice process.

Based on the objectives and the rationale, the following hypotheses were formulated:

<ins>Hypothesis 1:</ins> The choice of Malaysia as a long-haul holiday destination is more as a part of a multi-destination purchase decision which is determined by multiplicity of internal and external circumstances.

<ins>Hypothesis 2:</ins> In the early stages of the decision process, the long-haul tourist receives the most information about the destination from marketer-dominated sources while in the latter stage personal sources are the most important.

<ins>Hypothesis 3:</ins> As the tourist moves from awareness set to consideration set different buying criteria are used to reduce the alternative destinations to a manageable number.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the belief of how much Malaysia offers and the importance of tourist-attracting attributes in selecting Malaysia as a destination between the independent tourists and those travelling with the package tour respectively.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in the proportion of husband and wife perception of their respective roles for selected sub-decisions related to the choice of long-haul holiday to Malaysia.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in satisfaction levels of holiday experience in Malaysia between independent and packaged tourists.

Hypothesis 7: The extent of tour operators' support for Malaysia as a destination will depend on its ability to stay competitive vis-a-vis other countries in the region.

SAMPLE DESCRIPTION

This study was geared toward the population of British tourists to Malaysia. This is in view of the importance of this market which leads non-Asian arrivals to the country but also in terms of historical and colonial heritage as a basis for future growth potentials. A probability-proportional-to-size-area sampling was drawn from those tourists in the following manner:

i. Six main tourist areas of Malaysia namely Kuala Lumpur, Penang, Kuala Terengganu, Johore Bahru, Kuching and Kota Kinabalu were selected.

ii. Each area was ranked for volume of tourists in accordance to the available related statistic collected by the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia. In this case, statistic on the average Percentage Distribution of Hotel Guests (Foreign Guest - excluding Singapore and Brunei) for 1988, 1989 and 1990 was used.

iii. A total of 1050 sample size was employed.

iv. The size for each area was determined in proportion to its relative percentage share of the total volume.

v. A total of twelve hotels was thought sufficient to represent the country for this study. Five in Kuala Lumpur; 3 in Penang; 1 in Kuala Terengganu, Johore Bahru, Kuching and Kota Kinabalu respectively.

vi. Choice of hotel(s) within each area, was based on those hotel(s) with highest number of British tourists.

vii. The number of questionnaire to be administered in each hotel was again determined by the percentage of British tourists in relation to the total number assigned to their respective areas.

QUESTIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT

Tourists' Survey

The design of the questionnaire evolved from both consumer and travel and tourism marketing literatures. It incorporated 6 sections. Section I of the questionnaire consists of general qualifying questions regarding the purpose of visit, how and when the booking arrangement were made. Questions 2, 6, 7 and 8 are required to test hypothesis 1.

To test hypothesis 2 and 3, the second section of the questionnaire solicits information on the activities and decisions undertaken by the respondents at the information search stage of the long-haul destination purchase process. Respondents were asked to list down the destination or countries that came to mind (awareness set) when they first decided to take long-haul holidays. How they first heard about those brands. Subjects were then asked to list how many destinations they actually considered. What are their initial buying criteria used to move the awareness set to the evoked (consideration) set.

It would seem that the phased decision strategies to be more applicable to destination choice process due to large number of alternatives available to the tourists. This assumption was made on the basis of the fact that phased decision strategies were employed to cope with a large number of choice alternatives (Lussier and Olshavsky, 1979), (Malhotra, 1982) and (Park and Lutz, 1982). In such a situation, a non-compensatory rule such as conjunctive or disjunctive tended to be used to reduce the alternatives to a manageable number, and then a compensatory strategy may be used to the remaining alternatives to make the final choice. Hence, the need to separate hypothesis 3 and 4.

The third section aims at testing hypothesis 4. Eleven tourist-attracting attributes were used for the evaluative criteria. The first ten attributes are those identified by Goodrich (1978), and later used by Witter (1985). The additional attribute, accessibility, is thought to be an important choice criteria for long-haul travel. The first question focuses on the importance of each attributes in a tourist's decision to visit Malaysia. The second seeks to measure the belief dimension that the destination offers a particular attribute. Response to each attribute of both dimensions of the attitude model were measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale of "very important"(1) to "very unimportant"(7) and "offers very much"(1) to "offer very little"(7) respectively.

The fourth section of the questionnaire is concerned with testing hypothesis 5. The set of questions was designed to measure how the nature of influence in the decision-making process differs across decision-making units of varying composition in a series of sub-decisions related to long-haul vacation. The decision-making units in question were husband, wife and children.

To measure the structure of influence of all family members involved in the long-haul holiday choice decision process, constant sum scale methodology was utilised. This technique requires the subject to divide a constant sum, in this case 100, among family members in proportion to their perceived influence or importance in the choice decision process. For example, if the husband (wife) was the only influential person in the decision, he or she would get all 100 points; if the children were, they would get the total 100 points, or if both husband and wife were equal, each would get 50 points.

In an attempt to test hypothesis 6, the fifth section of the questionnaire focus on measuring tourist's perceived satisfaction of their holiday in Malaysia. Using a modified five-point Likert-type Very Satisfied - Very Dissatisfied rating scale, subjects were asked to compare their experiences among the various destinations visited. To minimise the halo effect in measuring the evaluative criteria, all selected destinations (products) were rated within attributes rather than rating each destination separately on all attributes (Lehmann, 1985). However, to be of value to the destination, identification and measurement of tourist satisfaction were made more specific within each component of the holiday.

The final section of the questionnaire collects demographic data about the subjects. An open-ended question was included at the end of the questionnaire asking the subjects to give their views on Malaysia as a holiday destination.

Its final form reflected several iterations, including changes that were made after it was pilot tested. Both the questionnaire and procedures were pilot tested using 50 British tourists from a few hotels in Kuala Lumpur.

Tour Operators' Survey

To test hypothesis seven, a separate questionnaire for the tour operator was developed. The overall degree of competitiveness of the destination will be measured on three aspects, namely: profitability, attractiveness and the strength of relationship between the tour operators and the Malaysian tourism organisations.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Tourists' Survey

Due to the scope of the study, the most appropriate data collection technique was to administer the questionnaire through the hotels. The cooperation of Research and Training Department of the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia was instrumental in the success of the survey in the following manner:

i. In obtaining information regarding the percentage of British tourists from the various hotels in Malaysia.

ii. In obtaining support of the selected hotels to administer the questionnaire.

iii. In distribution and collection of the questionnaire.

The survey questionnaires were administered over a three-month time interval (1 May, 1991 - 31 July, 1991). The questionnaire was left in the room (on the bed) of the British guests the night before checking out. To ensure impartiality, in that, the method of selecting the subjects were valid, questionnaires were only administered on every other day during the survey period. Subjects were asked to leave the completed questionnaires in their respective rooms to be collected by the housekeeping staff. The cover letter for the questionnaire was on university letter-head, emphasising the independent and academic nature of the study. It was also hoped that this might increase response rate from the British subjects.

Tour Operators' Survey

A list of 47 United Kingdom tour operators with programme to Malaysia 1990/1991 was obtained from London's office of the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia. Before mailing the questionnaire, the tour operators were contacted by telephone to conform their addresses. Four of them were no longer selling Malaysia, whilst three were no longer in the business. The questionnaire were then sent to forty two tour operators during the second week of August 1991. Two follow-up telephone calls were made to improve the response rate. The first one was done after a two-week period, followed by the second call a week later. At the cut-off date on month after mailing the questionnaire, twenty-one response were returned, representing a response rate of 52.5%.

Ten tour operators indicated their willingness to discuss the project further by answering positively to the request made at the end of the questionnaire. Follow-up interviews were conducted during the first week of October 1991. The main purpose of the personal interviews was to get a better insight of the problems and potentials of

Malaysia as a long-haul destination which could not be obtained by the questionnaire.

DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES USED IN THE STUDY

Statistical Package for the social Sciences (SPSS) computer programmes, in particular, the SPSS/PC+ was used for data management and statistical analysis. One-way tabulations provided the basis for presenting the basic empirical distribution of the various variables. Mean and standard deviation will provide a summary picture of the distribution of the various variables.

Cross-tabulation analysis was used in order to show insight into the nature of the relationships between the various independent variables (independent holidaymakers and packaged holidaymakers) and dependent variables.

Various inferential statistics (t-test, Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance, and two sample proportion test) were used in the context of determining significant differences between the variables. Factor analysis were performed to ascertain key dimensions of tourist satisfaction.

In addition to the above, the analysis will be supported with the outcome of the general views of respondents on the potential of Malaysia as holiday destination.

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CHAPTER NINE

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS (TOURISTS' SURVEY)

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the statistical analysis used in hypothesis-testing of the tourists' survey.

The chapter begins with descriptive statistics on study respondents and the study itself. The rest of the chapter will explain the analysis and results under investigation.

The tourists' survey questionnaires were administered for a three months period of May, June and July 1991. A total of 322 questionnaires were returned representing a 30.7 percent response rate. After editing, 30 questionnaires were excluded because they were answered by those visiting Malaysia on business purposes. A total of 292 usable questionnaires were finally entered into the analysis, representing a response rate of 27.8 per cent.

Socio-demographic Profile

Socio-demographic characteristics of British tourists to Malaysia are summarised in Tables 9.1 through 9.5. The aim is to provide a basis for future marketing activities of the Malaysian tourism organisations targeted to reach the British market. In the next section, the findings related to the background of the travel destination choice, how the arrangements were made, motivational, determinants and influencing factors involved in long-haul vacation choice are presented.

Age Groups

Table 9.1 summarises the age of the respondents. It can be noticed that only 5.1 per cent of the sample was under 25 years, while those respondents who were over 65 years represent only 3.4 per cent of the sample. The majority of the respondents were in the 45-54 age group accounting to 43.8 per cent of the total.

Marital Status

Of the total number of respondents in the study, 191 (65.4%) were males and 101 (34.6%) were females. Marital status of the respondents are shown in Table 9.2. The majority (86.8%) of the sample of British tourists visiting Malaysia were married couples.

Table 9.1
Age Groups of the British Tourists Visiting Malaysia

Age Groups	n	%
Under 25 years	15	5.1
25 - 34 years	40	13.7
35 - 44 years	34	11.6
45 - 54 years	128	43.8
55 - 64 years	56	19.2
65 years and over	10	3.4
Total valid response	292	100.0

Table 9.2
Marital Status of the British Tourists Visiting Malaysia

Marital Status	n	%
Married	245	86.8
Single	10	3.5
Widowed	19	6.8
Divorced/Separated	6	2.1
Total valid response	280	100.0

Occupational Status

Table 9.3 presents the frequency distribution of occupational status. More than half (51.6%) of the respondents were professionals (e.g., lawyers, doctors and engineers), 31.7 per cent were in the management positions. The remaining 16.7 per cent were either supervisory, housewife, self-employed or retired. As can be seen from the table, majority of the respondents (72.6%) to Malaysia were dual earners.

Table 9.3
Classification of the British Tourists Visiting Malaysia by Profession

Profession	Respondents		Spouse	
	n	%	n	%
Professional	145	51.6	30	12.8
Management	89	31.7	104	44.3
Supervisory	8	2.8	41	17.4
Clerical	8	2.8	18	7.6
Manual	5	1.8	3	1.3
Housewife	3	1.1	29	12.3
Retired	5	1.8	2	0.9
Self-employed/Business owner	10	3.6	4	1.7
Other	8	2.8	4	1.7
Total valid response	281	100.0	235	100.0

Annual Family Income

Fourteen respondents (4.8%) failed to provide information concerning annual family income. As shown in Table 9.4, 20.5 per cent reported income of less than 30,000 Sterling Pounds, 29.9 per cent reported between 30,000 to 34,999 and 49.6 per cent wrote over 35,000 Sterling Pounds. This suggests that those with an above average income tend to have higher propensity to take long-haul vacation.

Table 9.4
Classification of the British Tourists Visiting Malaysia by Income

Annual Family Income (British Sterling Pound)	n	%
10,000 - 12,499	4	1.4
12,500 - 14,499	1	0.4
15,000 - 17,499	12	4.3
17,500 - 19,999	9	3.2
20,000 - 22,499	13	4.7
22,500 - 24,999	8	2.9
25,000 - 29,999	10	3.6
30,000 - 34,999	83	29.9
35,000 and above	138	49.6
Total valid response	278	100.0

Educational Levels

Education levels of the respondents are given in Table 9.5, Almost half (49.8%) of the respondents had university degrees, 29.8 per cent graduated from colleges and polytechnics. More than 76 per cent of the spouse had at least attended colleges or higher.

Table 9.5
Classification of the British Tourists Visiting Malaysia by Education

Type of Education	Respondents		Spouse	
	n	%	n	%
Secondary school	56	20.4	61	23.6
College	52	18.9	57	22.0
Polytechnic	30	10.9	52	20.1
University	137	49.8	89	34.3
Total valid response	275	100.0	259	100.0

Place of Residence

Information about the respondents' place of residence is found in Table 9.6. It shows that visitors to Malaysia tend to be geographically dispersed throughout the country, with heavy concentration in London and South East regions. Together, they contributed the highest percentage with 55.5 per cent.

Table 9.6
Distribution of Place of Residence

Region	n	%
London	83	30.5
South East	68	25.0
West Country	5	1.8
East Anglia	11	4.0
East Midland	14	5.1
Heart of England	24	8.8
NorthWest	8	2.9
Yorkshire	16	5.8
Cumbria	4	1.5
Northumbria	5	1.8
Thames and Chilterns	12	4.4
Wales	12	4.4
Scotland	11	4.0
Total valid response	273	100.0

Purpose of Visit to Malaysia

Due to the nature of sampling which excluded those on business, Table 9.7 below shows that 97.5 per cent of the sample ranked leisure as their number one purpose for visiting Malaysia. The remaining 2.5 per cent ranked it as their number two. Only 13 per cent of the tourists ranked visiting friends/relatives as number one while 87.0 percent regarded it as their number two. Visiting Malaysia for reason of transit was mentioned only by 47 respondents.

Table 9.7
Purpose of Visit to Malaysia by the British Tourists

Purpose	Rank				Total	
	1		2			
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Leisure	233	97.5	6	2.5	239	100.0
Transit	45	95.7	2	4.3	47	100.0
Education	-	-	1	100.0	1	100.0
Visiting Friends and Relatives	6	13.0	40	87.0	46	100.0
Other	1	20.0	4	80.0	5	100.0

Destination Choice

Almost a third (32.6%) of the respondents chose Malaysia as their only long-haul holiday destination. Another 51.5 per cent also visited other destinations within the area. Table 9.8 below shows that 25.9 per cent of the tourists visited Malaysia and Singapore; 19.9 per cent visited Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand; 5.7 per cent visited Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia and Hong Kong. This means that the choice of Malaysia is more as a part of a multi-destinations purchase decision. The remaining of the respondents were on transit in Malaysia on their way to/from Australia (12.4%) and New Zealand (3.5%).

Table 9.8
Choice of Other Destinations by the British Tourists to Malaysia

Destinations	n	%
Malaysia only	92	32.6
Malaysia and Singapore	73	25.9
Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand	56	19.9
Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia and Hongkong	16	5.7
Malaysia and Australia	35	12.4
Malaysia and New Zealand	10	3.5
Total valid response	282	100.0

Travel Arrangement

In terms of travel arrangement, Table 9.9 reveals that travel agents played a dominant role by handling 70.5 per cent of the total booking of the respondents. This is not difficult to understand in view of their personalised services which gave the consumer much more confidence in making the right choice of destination. The travel agents also can act as a trouble shooter should the holiday are not wholly successful and problems arise.

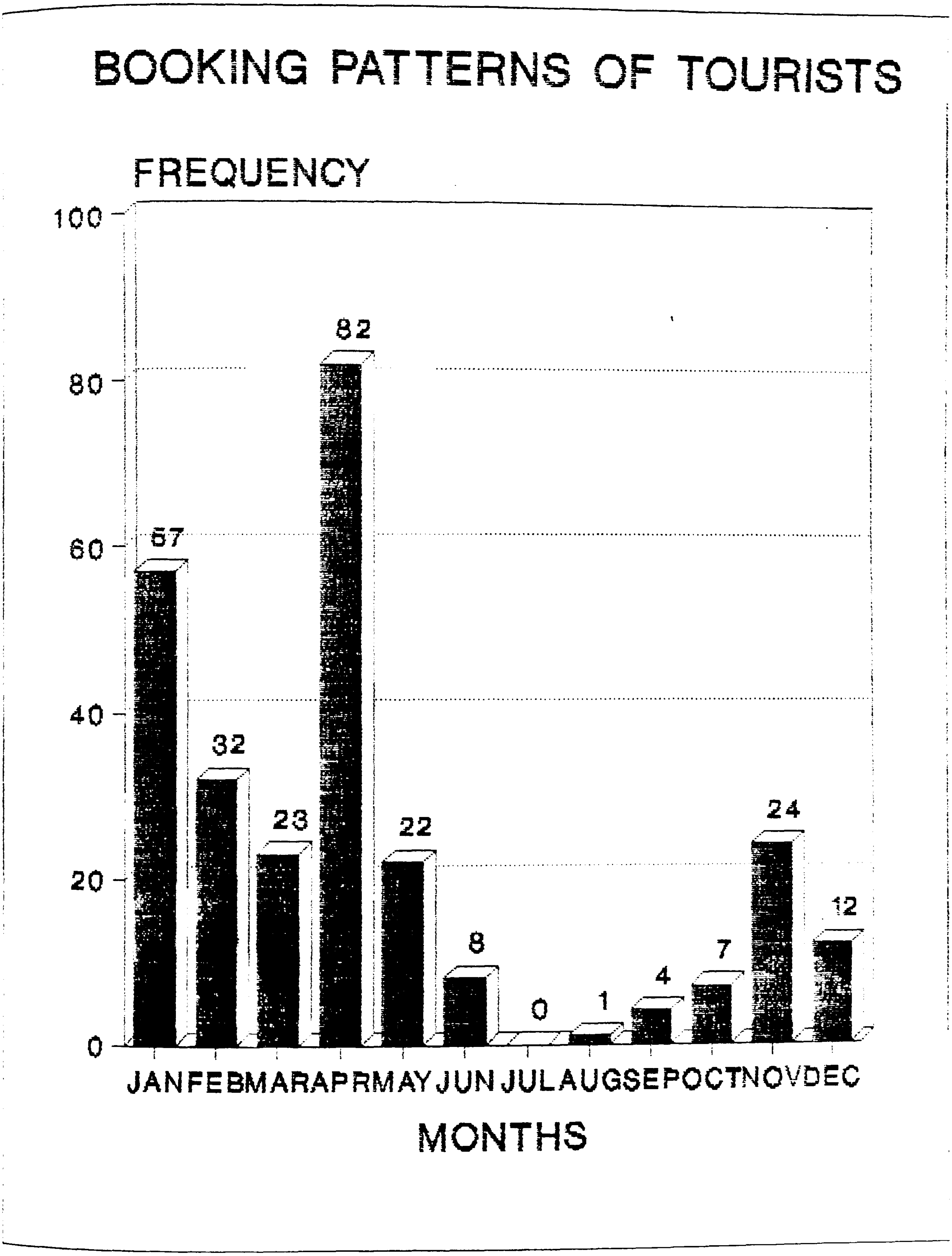
Direct booking with the tour operator only accounted 13.3 per cent of all the holiday to Malaysia. Similarly, package holiday sold by the airlines only attracted 4.7 per cent of the respondents. This finding points to the conclusions that the penetration of the long-haul market by the tour operators is still low, and much more need to be done to convince the potential tourists to book direct.

Table 9.9
Travel Arrangements of the British Tourists to Malaysia

Travel Arrangements	n	%
Package holiday booked through travel agent	129	46.4
Package holiday booked direct from tour operator	37	13.3
Package holiday booked direct from airline	13	4.7
Independent holiday booked through travel agent	67	24.1
Independent holiday booked from airline	32	11.5
Total valid response	278	100.0

The question asking the tourists to name the company from which they bought the holiday seemed to get the least response. This may suggest a low store loyalty. Further analysis of the data showed that female respondents contributed the most to this discrepancy. The reason for this may be due to the fact (as can be seen later) that the responsibility in making actual booking were in the hand of the husbands. Nevertheless, from the 30% response rate of this question, it was clear that companies which are part of the groups (Thomas Cook, Lunn Poly, A.T.May) were the favourites. Similarly, Thomas Cook, Thomson and Kuoni were frequently mentioned by those who booked direct with the tour operators.

Figure 9.1


BOOKING PATTERNS OF TOURISTS
FREQUENCY
100
80
60
40
20
0
57
32
23
82
22
8
0
1
4
7
24
12
JAN FEB MAR APR MAY JUN JUL AUG SEP OCT NOV DEC
MONTHS

Booking Patterns

Referring to Table 9.10 below, it is noted that over 71 per cent of the sample booked their holidays during the first four months of the year. April was the most popular month contributing 30.1 per cent of the total. January, with 21 per cent of the total bookings was second. Figure 9.1 presents the distribution of holiday booking patterns of the British tourists to Malaysia.

Relationship between the Type of Tourists and the Booking Patterns

To examine the relationship, if any, between the type of travellers and the booking pattern of the British tourists to Malaysia, a cross-tabulation analysis was performed. The statistical measure of goodness-of-fit test of significance (Chi-square) was used between them.

The procedure found that holiday booking patterns has significant relationships with the type of holiday makers to Malaysia. The relationship was significant at 95% level of confidence (Table 9.11).

Table 9.10
Booking Patterns of the British Tourists to Malaysia

Months	n	%
January	57	21.0
February	32	11.8
March	23	8.5
April	82	30.1
May	22	8.1
June	8	2.9
July	-	-
August	1	0.4
September	4	1.5
October	7	2.6
November	24	8.8
December	12	4.4
Total valid response	272	100.0

As can be seen from the Table 9.11, over 90 per cent of the bookings of the independent travellers were made between 6-12 months prior to their vacation. While group or packaged holidaymakers accounted 83.3 per cent of their booking during the same period. Looking at both 6-8 month and 9-12 month periods separately also revealed a similar pattern in that more independent tourists booked their holidays during that time than the packaged tourists.

Table 9.11
Booking Patterns and the Type of Tourists

Number of Months	Group		Independent		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
1 - 2	2	1.2	1	1.1	3	1.1
6 - 8	64	38.1	40	42.1	104	39.6
9 - 12	76	45.2	46	48.4	122	46.4
> 13	26	15.5	8	8.4	34	12.9
Total valid response	168	100.0	95	100.0	263	100.0

Chi-Square: 25.11. Significant at $p < .05$.

The table also displayed that almost 16 per cent of the group tourists booked their holidays at least 13 months ahead of departure time compared to only 8 per cent of that independent tourists. Booking period of 1-2 months for long-haul holidays were shown to be an exception rather than the norm. It can therefore be implied that long-haul tourists had much longer dream phases about the ideal holiday and destination which may generate much higher expectations.

Holiday Motivations

Although findings from recent studies in basic motivations for tourist travel broadly correspond with each other, Iso-Ahola (1982) suggested that various motivational factors may change during the course of a trip or from one trip to another. This explains the need to identify specific motives for long-haul travel to ASEAN region.

To this end, tourists were asked not only to identify the various motivational factors relevant for the trip but also to rank them in order of importance. The factors are ranked in order according to the mean value. The lower the mean, the more important the factor was considered by the respondents.

As can be seen from Table 9.12, the top three motivational factors considered by the respondents were "in search of new experience", "rest and relaxation", and "cultural attraction". They were ranked as No.1, 2 and 3 respectively in order of importance, indicating that a variety of factors motivate tourists to travel long-haul. At the other end of the table, "prestige/status" and "keeping up Joneses" were considered the least important.

The importance of `in search of new experience' as a motivational factors for long-haul travel provides strong support for a notion that repeat business may not be guaranteed for a destination, even where the place product fulfils all the tourist's expectations (Goodall, 1991).

Table 9.12
Motivation to take the holiday

Factors	Rank 1 n	%	2 n	%	3 n	%	≥ 4 n	%	Mean* Value
In search of new experience	99	56.9	30	17.2	17	9.8	27	16.1	2.328
Rest and relaxation	73	40.1	43	23.6	46	25.3	20	11.0	2.374
Cultural attraction	18	14.4	61	48.8	23	18.8	23	18.4	2.720
Visit family and friends	10	21.7	29	63.0	-	-	7	15.2	2.957
Change of environment	27	29.7	13	14.3	28	30.8	23	25.3	3.077
Sun, Sea and Sand	8	6.2	20	15.4	68	52.3	34	26.2	3.477
Adventure and excitement	18	29.0	6	9.7	12	19.4	26	41.9	3.613
Sense of history	-	-	38	61.3	1	1.6	23	37.1	4.016
See how others live	1	2.1	10	20.8	4	8.3	33	68.7	4.563
New/Variety of cuisine	1	2.9	4	11.8	4	11.8	25	73.5	5.794
Broaden education	3	8.8	4	11.8	2	5.9	25	73.5	5.971
Prestige and status	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	100.0	10.100
Keeping with the Joneses	1	12.5	-	-	-	-	7	87.5	11.125

* The lower the mean, the more important the factor was considered by the respondents.

Relationship between the Ranking of the Importance of Motivation with the Type of Tourists

In order to determine if there is any relationship between the ranking of the importance of motivation with the type of tourists, thirteen tests matching each motivational factor with the two groups (packages/group and the independent tourists) were undertaken. For this purpose, the statistical measure of goodness-of-fit test of significance (Chi-square) was used.

It was found that only "sun, sea and sand" factor was significant at 1% level. There was sufficient evidence at 1% level that a direct relationship existed between the ranking of the importance of "sun, sea and sand" as a motivational factor and the type of tourists. Table 9.13 shows the relationship between "sun, sea and sand" as an important motivational factor and the type of tourists to Malaysia.

Table 9.13
Type of Tourists and Motivational Factor
(Sun, Sea and Sand)

Type of Tourists	Rank								Mean* Value
	1		2		3		≥ 4		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Group (Packaged)	6	6.4	6	6.4	61	64.9	21	22.3	3.56
Independent	1	2.8	14	38.9	8	22.2	13	36.1	3.20

* The lower the mean, the more important the factor was considered by the respondents.
Chi-Square: 42.234. Significant at $p < .001$.

The table above shows that independent tourists recorded a lower mean ranking indicating that this group of travellers placed higher priority for "sun,sea and sand" as their motivation to visit Malaysia as a holiday destination.

Travel Determinants

After examining the various aspects of what motivate tourists to long-haul travel, the next stage is to determine the factors that influence their ability to travel. Respondents were then asked to specify the determinants that triggered their motivation for the vacation. Table 9.14 showed that "increase in disposable income" was mentioned by 40.9 per cent of the respondents. Next came "annual vacation is part of lifestyle" with 39.0 per cent followed by "attractive price" with 37.7 per cent.

Econometric forecasting model, TRAM: U.S. International Travel to 1990 According to Travel and Leisure found similar finding, "While the travel decisions in the 1960's and 1970's may have been influenced by a wide variety of non-economic factors including advertising and promotion, international travel in the 1980's and 1990's will be increasingly dominated by economic factors and economic decision making" (Benincasa, 1987). Pacific Asia Travel Association's (PATA) study of outbound travel from the U.S to Pacific area in 1987 reflected the same trends

(Chamberlain, 1987). Drawing upon this finding, it is imperative therefore for Malaysia to remain competitive in order to maintain its attractiveness to the potential tourists. Tourist destinations must take the external factors which condition the level of demand in tourist-generating countries for holidays abroad as given and beyond their control (Goodall,1991).

Table 9.14
Factors that Triggered Motivation for the Holiday

Factors	n	%
Increase in disposable income	115	40.9
Children left home	60	21.4
Annual vacation is part of lifestyle	110	39.0
Attractive price	106	37.7

Responses exceed 100% due to multiple response.

Factors that led Tourists to Long-haul Travel

Table 9.15 displays the factors that led tourists to be interested in long-haul vacation. Recommendations from friends and relatives received the highest response with 48.4 per cent. While curiosity/adventure reasons, in that the tourists have not taken long-haul vacation before came second with 30.7 per cent. This may suggest the importance of social interaction though prestige/status and keeping with the Joneses were not openly admitted. Travel articles featured in newspaper (23.8%) seemed to create better impact in stimulating the interest for long-haul travel than commercials appeared in television (19.1%), recreational magazines (11.2%) or newspaper (9.7%). Articles in the recreational magazine (18.4%) also fared better compared to the print media advertisements. The reason for this may be attributed to the question of credibility of the information contained in the marketing massages.

Table 9.15
Factors that led Tourists to be Interested in Long-haul Vacation

Factors	n	%
Recommendations from friends/relatives	134	48.4
Have not taken long-haul holiday before	85	30.7
Reading newspaper articles	66	23.8
Watching television commercials	53	19.1
Reading magazine articles - recreational	51	18.4
Watching television programmes - educational	33	11.9
Reading magazine commercials - recreational	31	11.2
Reading magazine articles - business	28	10.1
Reading newspaper commercials	27	9.7
Reading magazine commercials - business	23	8.3
Watching television programmes - current affairs	17	6.1

Responses exceed 100% due to multiple response.

The results indicated in Tables 9.8, 9.12, 9.14 and 9.15 support the first hypothesis (H1): The choice of Malaysia as a long-haul holiday destination is more as a part of a multi-destination purchase decision which is determined by multiplicity of internal and external circumstances.

<u>Relationship between Factors that led Tourists to be Interested in Long-haul Vacation and the Type of Tourists</u>

To examine further how the two group of tourists consider those factors in guiding them to be interested in long-haul vacations, the statistical measure of goodness-of-fit test of significance (Chi-square) was used between them. The procedure found five factors to have significant relationship in guiding the interest of the two type of tourists to long-haul vacation (Table 9.16). The relationships were significant at the 99% level of confidence.

In general, independent tourists found reading articles and advertisements in business magazines as well as newspaper advertisements to be more influential in leading them to long-haul vacation. On the other hand, reading newspaper articles and recommendations from friends and relatives were considered more important to the group (packaged) holidaymakers.

Table 9.16
The Importance of Influencing Factors By Type of Tourists

Factors Difference	% of YES Response			
	Independent		Packaged	
	n	%	n	%
Reading business magazine advertisements	14	14.4	9	5.2
Reading business magazine articles	16	16.5	11	6.4
Reading newspaper advertisements	15	15.5	11	6.4
Reading newspaper articles	14	14.4	52	30.1
Recommendations from friends and relatives	38	39.2	94	54.3

Significant at $p < .01$.

Specifically, as can be seen from Table 9.17, 16.5 per cent of the independent tourists reading business article compared to only 6.4 per cent of group tourists.

Table 9.17
The Influence of Business Magazine Articles and the Type of Tourists

Type of Tourists	Yes		No	
	n	%	n	%
Group (packaged)	11	6.4	162	93.6
Independent	16	16.5	81	83.5

Chi-Square: 7.10. Significant at $p < .01$.

Table 9.18 states that 14.4 per cent of the independent tourists considered reading business magazine advertisements compared to 5.2 per cent of the packaged group.

Table 9.18
The Influence of Business Magazine Advertisements and the Type of Tourists

Type of Tourists	Yes		No	
	n	%	n	%
Group (packaged)	9	5.2	164	94.8
Independent	14	14.4	83	85.6

Chi-Square: 7.10. Significant at $p < .01$.

Table 9.19
The Influence of Newspaper Advertisements and the Type of Tourists

Type of Tourists	Yes		No	
	n	%	n	%
Group (packaged)	11	6.4	162	93.6
Independent	15	15.5	82	84.5

Chi-Square: 5.92. Significant at $p < .01$.

As displayed in Table 9.19, independent tourists (15.5%) felt that newspaper advertisements were more influential to them than the group tourists (6.4%).

Table 9.20
The Influence of Newspaper Articles and the Type of Tourists

Type of Tourists	Yes		No	
	n	%	n	%
Group (packaged)	52	30.1	121	69.9
Independent	14	14.4	83	85.6

Chi-Square: 8.21. Significant at $p < .01$.

Reading newspaper articles were considered to be more important to the group tourists (30.1%) than to the independent tourists (14.4%) as an influencing factor which led them to be interested in long-haul vacation (see Table 9.20).

Table 9.21
The Influence of Friends/Relatives and the Type of Tourists

Type of Tourists	Yes		No	
	n	%	n	%
Group (packaged)	94	54.3	79	45.7
Independent	38	39.2	59	60.8

Chi-Square: 5.72. Significant at $p < .01$.

Recommendations from friends and relatives played a much bigger role in influencing both groups of tourists. However, it was more dominant with the group tourists (54.3%) compared to the independent tourist with 39.2 per cent (Table 9.21).

Other variables which were statistically independent are: watching television commercials; watching television programmes -current affairs; watching television programmes - educational; reading magazine advertisements - recreational; reading magazine articles - recreational and have not taken long-haul holiday before. There were no significant relationships between type of tourists and each of those factors in determining interest for long-haul vacation. However, they were all considered important by the respondents in leading them to be interested in long-haul vacation.

Choices of Destinations in the Awareness Set

In this section, the findings related to the nature of the information search engaged in by the British tourists to Malaysia will be presented in order to determine, firstly, what are the relevant criteria commonly used by the tourists to reduce the alternative destinations under consideration to a manageable number (H2). Secondly, to identify which type of information sources are used at the various stages of the decision process (H3).

Table 9.22 portrays the most frequently mentioned destinations in the awareness set of the British tourists to Malaysia. Other most popular destinations were Singapore, Thailand, China, Indonesia, Hong Kong, Australia and Japan.

Table 9.22
List of the Most Popular Destinations in the in the Awareness Set of the British Tourists to Malaysia

Destinations	n	Rank
Malaysia	243	1
Singapore	143	2
Thailand	122	3
China	109	4
Indonesia	99	5
HongKong	64	6
Australia	52	7
Japan	42	8

This finding questioned the belief held by most Asian national tourist offices (NTOs) that viewed the USA and the Caribbean regions as their main competitors for the European markets in general and that of the British in particular. Although the potential tourists may be vague about the destination for the coming year's vacation, the above listing in the awareness set seemed to suggest concentration of possible destinations within a particular region or direction of travel.

Information Sources that made the Tourists first Aware of the Destination

The tourists were then asked to rank the seventeen sources of information that made them first aware of the destinations in their awareness set. The various information sources listed were presented in Table 9.23 in order of importance according to the mean value. Only the top thirteen (those with more than 20 respondents) sources of information used by the samples were listed in the tabulation. The lower the mean, the more important the sources considered by the respondents. Business magazine advertisement topped the table with a mean value of 2.082. Travel agent's and friend's/ relatives recommendations were ranked second and third respectively.

<u>Relationship between the ranking of the importance of information sources with the type of tourists</u>

The findings on Table 9.24 through 9.25 show that a clear relationships at 1% and 5% levels exist between the importance ranking of two sources of information (newspaper advertisement, Visit Malaysia Year Promotion) respectively in contributing to destination awareness with the type of tourists. The other fifteen sources were statistically independent.

Group (Packaged) tourists considered newspaper advertisement much more important than independent tourists as a source of information in creating awareness of the long-haul holiday destinations (Table 9.24). In contrast, the independent tourists ranked Visit Malaysia Year promotion to be more effective than the group tourists in creating awareness (Table 9.25).

Table 9.23
Sources of Information that made the Tourists first Aware of the Destinations

Sources of Information	Rank 1 n	1 %	2 n	2 %	3 n	3 %	≥ 4 n	≥ 4 %	Mean* Value
Business Magazine Advertisement	24	49.0	19	38.8	3	6.1	3	4.1	2.082
Travel Agent's Recommendation	60	51.3	20	17.1	26	22.2	11	9.4	2.111
Friends/Relatives Recommendation	42	34.1	42	34.1	26	21.1	13	10.6	2.130
Newspaper Advertisement	23	47.9	6	12.5	15	31.3	4	8.3	2.167
Recreational Magazine Advertisement	23	59.0	6	15.4	3	7.7	7	17.9	2.385
TV programme - current affairs	4	17.4	11	47.8	4	17.4	4	17.4	2.609
Recreational Magazine article	5	20.8	7	29.2	9	37.5	3	12.5	2.500
Radio Programme	8	18.6	18	41.9	13	30.2	4	9.3	2.651
TV Advertisement	10	21.7	13	28.3	18	39.1	5	10.9	2.717
Visit Malaysia Year Promotion	11	22.4	13	26.5	15	30.6	10	20.5	2.959
Direct Mail	7	14.9	14	29.8	22	46.8	4	8.5	2.979
Radio Advertisement	6	20.0	16	53.3	4	13.3	4	13.3	3.033
Travel Exhibition	4	13.8	3	10.3	6	20.7	16	55.2	4.000

* The lower the mean, the more important the sources of information considered by the respondents.

Table 9.24
Type of Tourists and Ranking of Information Sources (Newspaper Advertisement) contributing to Awareness Set

Type of Tourists	Rank 1 n	Rank 1 %	Rank 2 n	Rank 2 %	Rank 3 n	Rank 3 %	Rank ≥ 4 n	Rank ≥ 4 %	Mean* Value
Group	23	54.8	4	9.5	13	31.0	2	4.8	1.86
Independent	-	-	2	33.3	2	33.3	2	33.4	4.33

* The lower the mean, the more important the factor was considered by the respondents.
Chi-Square: 13.87. Significant at $p < .01$.

Table 9.25
Type of Tourists and Ranking of Information Sources(Visit Malaysia Year Promotion) contributing to Awareness Set

Type of Tourists	Rank 1 n	Rank 1 %	Rank 2 n	Rank 2 %	Rank 3 n	Rank 3 %	Rank ≥ 4 n	Rank ≥ 4 %	Mean* Value
Group	3	10.3	11	37.9	7	24.1	8	27.5	3.27
Independent	7	38.9	1	5.6	8	44.4	2	11.2	2.61

* The lower the mean, the more important the factor was considered by the respondents.
Chi-Square: 18.44. Significant at $p < .05$.

Choices of Destinations in the Evoked Set

Table 9.26 lists down the most popular destinations which the respondents decided to investigate for further consideration (Evoked Set). In this Set, the number of destinations were reduced from the Awareness Set to a manageable number. Apart from Malaysia, the most frequently mentioned destinations were Singapore, Thailand, Hong Kong, and Indonesia.

Table 9.26
List of Destinations in the Evoked Set of the British Tourists in Malaysia

Destinations	n	Rank
Malaysia	210	1
Singapore	120	2
Thailand	97	3
Indonesia	63	4
HongKong	47	5
Australia	44	6

As can be seen from the above table, destinations in the evoked set began to show several combinations of possible choice within one travel direction/region.

Criteria used in Reducing the list in the Awareness Set

As the tourists moved from Awareness Set to Consideration Set, they were asked to specify what were the buying criteria used when reducing the list. As in Table 9.27, we can see that 51.7 per cent of the tourists stated that "cost" to be their important factor. Trailing by a wide margin, "Political stability" was ranked second by 21 per cent of the sample. Another sixteen per cent reported "curiosity - never been to Far East", while 11.6 per cent of the tourists stated "proximity to Singapore and Thailand".

Table 9.27
Criteria used in Reducing the List in the Awareness Set

Criteria	n	%
Cost	151	51.7
Political Stability	61	21.0
Exotic East/ Curiosity/ Never been to Far East	48	16.4
Proximity to Singapore and Thailand	34	11.6

Responses exceed 100% due to multiple response.

Information Sources that helped the Tourists Reduced the List in the Evoked Set

Thirteen top information sources consulted to help them arrived at the Consideration Set were presented in Table 9.28. Friends/relatives and travel agent's recommendations were the two most important sources reported by the respondents. Destination-specific literature - government travel brochure was third in importance. The popularity of this non-personal source could be attributed to its credibility in comparison with other paid media as confirmed by the World Tourism Organisation (1985) mentioning national tourist administrations as authoritative source of information. However, its importance at this stage of the decision process of the tourist could be assumed to perform an informing as well as

Table 9.28
Sources of Information that helped the Tourists Reduce the List in Evoked Set

Sources of Information	Rank 1 n	Rank 1 %	Rank 2 n	Rank 2 %	Rank 3 n	Rank 3 %	Rank ≥ 4 n	Rank ≥ 4 %	Mean* Value
Friend's/Relatives Recommendation	69	50.4	44	32.1	15	10.9	9	6.6	1.774
Travel Agent's Recommendation	58	49.2	34	28.8	23	19.5	3	2.5	1.856
Government Travel Brochure	33	63.5	7	13.5	6	11.5	6	11.5	2.000
Visit Malaysia Year Promotion	16	29.6	20	37.0	17	31.5	1	1.9	2.148
TV programme -current affairs	2	12.5	7	43.8	7	43.8	-	-	2.313
Direct Mail	5	11.1	21	46.7	17	37.8	2	4.4	2.489
TV Advertisement	14	31.8	11	25.0	16	36.4	3	6.9	2.545
Business magazine Advertisement	4	22.2	8	44.4	3	16.7	3	16.7	2.611
Travel Exhibition	6	24.0	6	24.0	7	28.0	6	24.0	2.720
Radio Programme	5	13.2	11	28.9	18	47.4	4	10.5	2.737
Recreational Magazine Advertisement	5	23.8	6	28.6	6	28.6	4	19.1	2.762
Newspaper Advertisement	5	19.2	9	34.6	8	30.8	4	15.3	2.769
Radio Advertisement	2	9.1	11	50.0	7	31.8	2	9.0	2.909

* The lower the mean, the more important the sources of information considered by the respondents.

an initial evaluating function in reducing the list of possible alternative destinations.

<u>Relationship between the Ranking of the Importance of Information Sources in Reducing the List in the Evoked Set with the Type of Tourists</u>

It was found that three sources of information - government travel brochure, Visit Malaysia Year Promotion and friends and relatives recommendation were significant at 5% level. There were sufficient evidence at 5% level that a direct relationship existed between the ranking of the importance of those three sources of information in reducing the list in the evoked set and the type of tourists. Tables 9.29 and 9.30 show that the group tourists considered both the government travel brochure and Visit Malaysia Year promotion to be more important than the independent tourists as a source of information in reducing the list in the awareness set. While Table 9.31 indicates that recommendation from friends and relatives was more important to the independent tourists than the group tourists.

Table 9.29
Type of Tourists and Ranking of Information Sources (Government Travel Brochure) in reducing the List in the Evoked Set

Type of Tourists	Rank								Mean* Value
	1		2		3		≥ 4		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Group Tourists	32	71.1	6	13.3	2	4.4	5	11.1	1.69
Independent	1	16.7	1	16.7	3	50.0	1	16.7	4.10

* The lower the mean, the more important the factor was considered by the respondents.
Chi-Square: 21.84. Significant at $p < .001$.

Table 9.30
Type of Tourists and Ranking of Information Sources(Visit Malaysia Year Promotion) in reducing the list in the Evoked Set

Type of Tourists	Rank								Mean* Value
	1		2		3		≥ 4		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Group Tourists	13	38.2	14	41.2	7	20.6	-	-	1.82
Independent	3	16.7	4	22.2	10	55.6	1	5.6	2.78

* The lower the mean, the more important the factor was considered by the respondents.
Chi-Square: 9.29. Significant at $p < .05$.

Table 9.31
Type of Tourists and Ranking of Information Sources (Friends/Relatives) in Reducing the List in the Evoked Set

Type of Tourists	Rank								Mean* Value
	1		2		3		≥ 4		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Group Tourists	25	35.2	31	43.7	10	14.1	5	7.0	1.94
Independent	41	66.1	13	21.0	4	6.5	4	6.4	1.60

* The lower the mean, the more important the factor was considered by the respondents.
Chi-Square: 15.44. Significant at $p < .01$.

As can be seen from the above table, over 66 per cent of the independent tourists ranked friends and relatives recommendations as their number one source of information in reducing the list in the evoked set. This is in contrast with the group tourists with only 35 per cent. Possible explanation for this could be that the independent tourists had a much wider circle of friends who had extensive travel experience.

Choices of Destinations in the Choice Set

From Table 9.32, shows the most popular destinations/ combination of destinations in the Choice Set of the tourists to Malaysia. It is possible that because of their proximity and common colonial heritage Malaysia and Singapore could be considered as complementing each other. As for Thailand and Australia, they could be considered more as direct competitors. However, Malaysia can still benefit from those potential tourists to Australia as a stop-over destination.

Table 9.32
List of destinations in the Choice Set of the British Tourists to Malaysia

Destinations	n	Rank
Malaysia	88	1
Singapore	87	2
Thailand	48	3
Australia	26	4

Information Sources that helped the Tourists Reduced the List in the Choice Set

Table 9.33 reveals the various sources of information used by the tourists to help them arrived at the final list before making the choice. Again, personal sources were ranked first and second respectively. Marketer-dominated sources - direct mail came third while "Visit Malaysia Year" promotion was fifth after the current affair programmes on television.

Table 9.33
Sources of Information that helped Tourists Reduce the List in the Choice Set

Sources of Information	Rank 1 n	Rank 1 %	Rank 2 n	Rank 2 %	Rank 3 n	Rank 3 %	Rank ≥ 4 n	Rank ≥ 4 %	Mean* Value
Friends and Relatives Recommendation	114	62.0	51	27.7	15	8.2	4	2.2	1.592
Travel Agent's Recommendation	83	49.4	70	41.7	11	6.5	4	2.4	1.762
Direct Mail	2	7.7	19	73.1	5	19.2	-	-	2.115
TV programme -current affairs	1	20.0	2	40.0	2	40.0	-	-	2.200
Visit Malaysia Year Promotion	10	20.4	21	42.9	19	34.7	1	2.0	2.286
Government Travel Brochure	7	43.8	4	25.0	3	18.8	2	12.6	2.625
Radio Advertisement	5	27.8	8	44.4	4	22.2	1	5.6	2.667
Travel Exhibition	4	21.1	3	15.8	10	52.6	2	10.6	2.737
Radio Programme	-	-	6	35.3	9	52.9	2	11.8	2.824
TV Advertisement	1	3.6	13	46.4	13	46.4	1	3.6	2.857

* The lower the mean, the more important the source of information considered by the respondents.

Relationship between the Ranking of the Importance of Information Sources in Reducing the List in the Choice Set with the Type of Tourists

Three sources of information: Visit Malaysia Year promotion, radio advertisement and travel exhibition were found to show significant relationships at 5% level between the ranking of the importance in reducing the list in the choice set and the type of tourists. As can be seen from Table 9.34, 9.35 and 9.36, packaged tourists ranked Visit Malaysia Year promotion, radio advertisement and travel exhibition higher than the independent tourists as sources of information in reducing the list in the choice set.

Table 9.34
Type of Tourists and Ranking of Information Sources(Visit Malaysia Year Promotion) in Reducing the List in the Choice Set

Type of Tourists	Rank								Mean* Value
	1		2		3		≥ 4		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Group Tourists	6	16.2	15	40.5	16	43.2	-	-	2.27
Independent	4	36.4	5	45.5	1	9.1	1	9.1	2.36

* The lower the mean, the more important the factor was considered by the respondents.
Chi-Square: 7.86. Significant at $p < .05$.

Table 9.35

Type of Tourists and Ranking of Information Sources(Radio Advertisement) in Reducing the List in the Choice Set

Type of Tourists	Rank 1 n	Rank 1 %	Rank 2 n	Rank 2 %	Rank 3 n	Rank 3 %	Rank ≥ 4 n	Rank ≥ 4 %	Mean* Value
Group Tourists	4	80.0	1	20.0	-	-	-	-	1.20
Independent	1	7.7	7	53.8	4	30.8	1	7.7	3.20

* The lower the mean, the more important the factor was considered by the respondents.
Chi-Square: 9.65. Significant at $p < .05$.

Table 9.36

Type of Tourists and Ranking of Information Sources(Travel Exhibition) in Reducing the List in the Choice Set

Type of Tourists	Rank 1 n	Rank 1 %	Rank 2 n	Rank 2 %	Rank 3 n	Rank 3 %	Rank ≥ 4 n	Rank ≥ 4 %	Mean* Value
Group Tourists	4	28.6	1	7.1	9	64.3	-	-	2.35
Independent	-	-	2	50.0	1	25.0	1	25.0	3.50

* The lower the mean, the more important the factor was considered by the respondents.
Chi-Square: 8.94. Significant at $p < .05$.

An interesting finding in terms of source of information is that the one-off promotion - "Visit Malaysia Year 1990" dedicated to boasting travel to Malaysia did make an impact in the decision process of the tourists. Its influence, however, varied with the stages of the decision process as well as with the type of tourists. Although its role in creating awareness was only ranked tenth (Table 9.24) in importance by the total samples, it was found to be more impacting on the independent tourists rather than the group tourists (Table 9.25). In reducing the list of destinations in the evoked set, its importance was ranked fourth (Table 9.28) but was more effective to the group tourists (Table 9.30). Ranked fifth (Table 9.33) as one of the sources of information used in helping them to arrive at the final list before making the choice, Visit Malaysia Year promotion tended to be more influential with the group tourists than the independents (Table 9.34).

The findings from Tables 9.22, 9.26 and 9.32 clearly identified the destinations which Malaysia needs to reckon with whether as direct competitors or complementary destinations to the region. Destinations such as Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand that are geographically close to each other seemed to be complementing each other; whereas the destinations that lie on different regions could be said to substitutes, thus, should be considered as competitors.

As can be seen from Table 9.27, a large number of multiple responses were given by the respondents, indicating that a variety of interrelated factors come into play. This fact, therefore, support the second hypothesis (H2): As the tourist moves from Awareness Set different buying criteria are used to reduce the alternative destinations to a manageable number.

The third hypothesis (H3), restated here for the benefit of the reader: Long-haul tourist receives most information about the destination from marketer-dominated sources during the early stages of the decision process, while in the latter stage, personal sources are the most important. Even though results from Table 9.23, revealed that business magazine advertisement to be the number one source of information that made the tourists aware of the destination, personal sources - recommendations from friends and relatives and travel agents were still highly ranked at number two and three. Subsequent stages of the process (at the evoke and choice sets), indicated that personal sources dominated the top two rankings as shown in Tables 9.28 and 9.33. The hypothesis is therefore not generally supported.

Evidence from this study seemed to extend the earlier findings of Gitelson and Crompton (1983), in that the role of advice or recommendations from friends/relatives and travel agents not only to assume an evaluating or legitimising function but also serving as an informing function. Its importance as the primary source of information for long-haul holiday decision process may be attributed to the need to feel reassured in view of the expenditure involved and the risks of a far away destinations.

Attitude about Malaysia as a Long-haul Destination

To test the validity of the next hypothesis (H4): There is no significant difference in the belief of how much Malaysia offers and the importance of tourist-attracting attributes in selecting Malaysia as a destination between the independent tourist and those travelling with the package tour respectively, an independent sample t-test was administered in two levels:

i. to compare independent with packaged (group) tourists' perception of importance each of the eleven attributes to them respectively (Table 9.37). Responses to the question, "How important do you think the following factors were in your decision to visit Malaysia?" produced some significant differences between the independent and packaged tourists.

The independent tourists considered six of the 10 attributes to be more important than to the group tourists. The six attributes were: availability of recreational facilities; shopping facilities;

accessibility; availability of suitable accommodations; cuisine and beach attraction.

ii. to compare independent with packaged (group) tourist beliefs of how much Malaysia offers of attributes (Table 9.38). It was found that the independent tourists evaluated Malaysia significantly more favourably for seven of the eleven attributes. The seven attributes were: cuisine; accessibility; availability of recreational facilities; shopping facilities; beach attraction; historical and cultural interest and suitable accommodation.

Since hypothesis (H4) is not supported by the data, therefore, it is rejected.

In terms of each attribute's relative importance in the respondent's choice of Malaysia as a holiday destination, Table 9.39 shows the average importance rating and the rankings of each attribute. As can be seen, pleasant attitudes of the people topped the table with mean value of 1.633. Opportunity for rest and relaxation and scenic beauty were ranked second and third respectively. While availability of recreational facilities, entertainment and shopping were considered least important by the respondents.

Table 9.37
Importance of Attributes in Selecting Malaysia as a Holiday Destination

Attributes	Group Tourists		Independent Tourists		t**
	n	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Availability of recreational facilities	173	2.47	97	1.62	5.47a
Beach attraction	174	2.09	97	1.70	2.58c
Historical and cultural interest	174	1.99	96	1.78	1.63
Scenic beauty	174	1.87	96	1.76	0.99
Pleasant attitudes of the people	172	1.67	97	1.54	1.15
Opportunity for rest and relaxation	176	1.73	97	1.63	0.83
Shopping facilities	173	2.58	97	1.81	5.02a
Entertainment	171	2.41	96	1.92	1.57
Availability of suitable accommodations	173	2.09	97	1.67	3.47b
Accessibility	172	2.31	97	1.71	4.74a
Cuisine	175	2.26	97	1.80	3.38b

* Lower mean scores indicate the destination offers more of the attribute.

** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.

a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.38
Beliefs of How Much Malaysia Offers of Attributes

Attributes	Group Tourists		Independent Tourists		t**
	n	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Availability of recreational facilities	172	2.30	97	1.97	2.47c
Beach attraction	171	2.14	97	1.85	2.34c
Historical and cultural interest	168	2.13	96	1.90	2.03c
Scenic beauty	169	1.94	96	1.76	1.75
Pleasant attitudes of the people	172	1.99	97	1.86	1.26
Opportunity for rest and relaxation	171	1.91	96	1.74	1.72
Shopping facilities	172	2.33	96	2.01	2.40c
Entertainment	171	2.28	97	1.97	1.57
Availability of suitable accommodations	172	2.09	97	1.86	2.29c
Accessibility	169	2.26	96	1.95	2.54c
Cuisine	172	2.17	96	1.88	2.59c

* Lower mean scores indicate the destination offers more of the attribute.

** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.

a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.39
Importance of Attributes in Selecting a Destination (Malaysia)

Attributes	Mean Value*	Importance Rank
Pleasant attitudes of the people	1.633	1
Opportunity for rest and relaxation	1.713	2
Scenic beauty	1.858	3
Historical and cultural interest	1.942	4
Availability of suitable accommodations	1.946	5
Beach attraction	1.978	6
Cuisine	2.101	7
Accessibility	2.113	8
Availability of recreational facilities	2.189	9
Entertainment	2.231	10
Shopping facilities	2.326	11

* Lower mean scores indicate the destination offers more of the attribute.

Next, respondents' ratings and rankings of each of the eleven attributes perceived to be possessed by Malaysia as a tourist destination are detailed in Table 9.40. The tourists evaluated Malaysia very favourably on opportunity for rest and relaxation, scenic beauty and pleasant attitudes of the people.

Table 9.40
Belief of How Much Malaysia Offers of Attributes

Attributes	Mean Value*	Rank
Opportunity for rest and relaxation	1.879	1
Scenic beauty	1.897	2
Pleasant attitudes of the people	1.978	3
Availability of suitable accommodation	2.018	4
Historical and cultural interest	2.059	5
Beach attraction	2.077	6
Cuisine	2.102	7
Accessibility	2.151	8
Entertainment	2.200	9
Availability of recreational facilities	2.215	10
Shopping facilities	2.234	11

* Lower mean scores indicate the destination offers more of the attribute.

However, comparing mean value of each of the eleven attributes of how the tourists evaluated Malaysia with each attribute's relative importance in their choice of the same destination on graph (Figure 9.2) revealed an "eye-opener" finding. As can be seen Malaysia needs to improve of its tourism products on mosts of the tourist-attracting attributes. Only entertainment and shopping facilities exceeded the tourist expectations. However, these two attributes were less important to them when they selected their holiday destination.

Figure 9.2

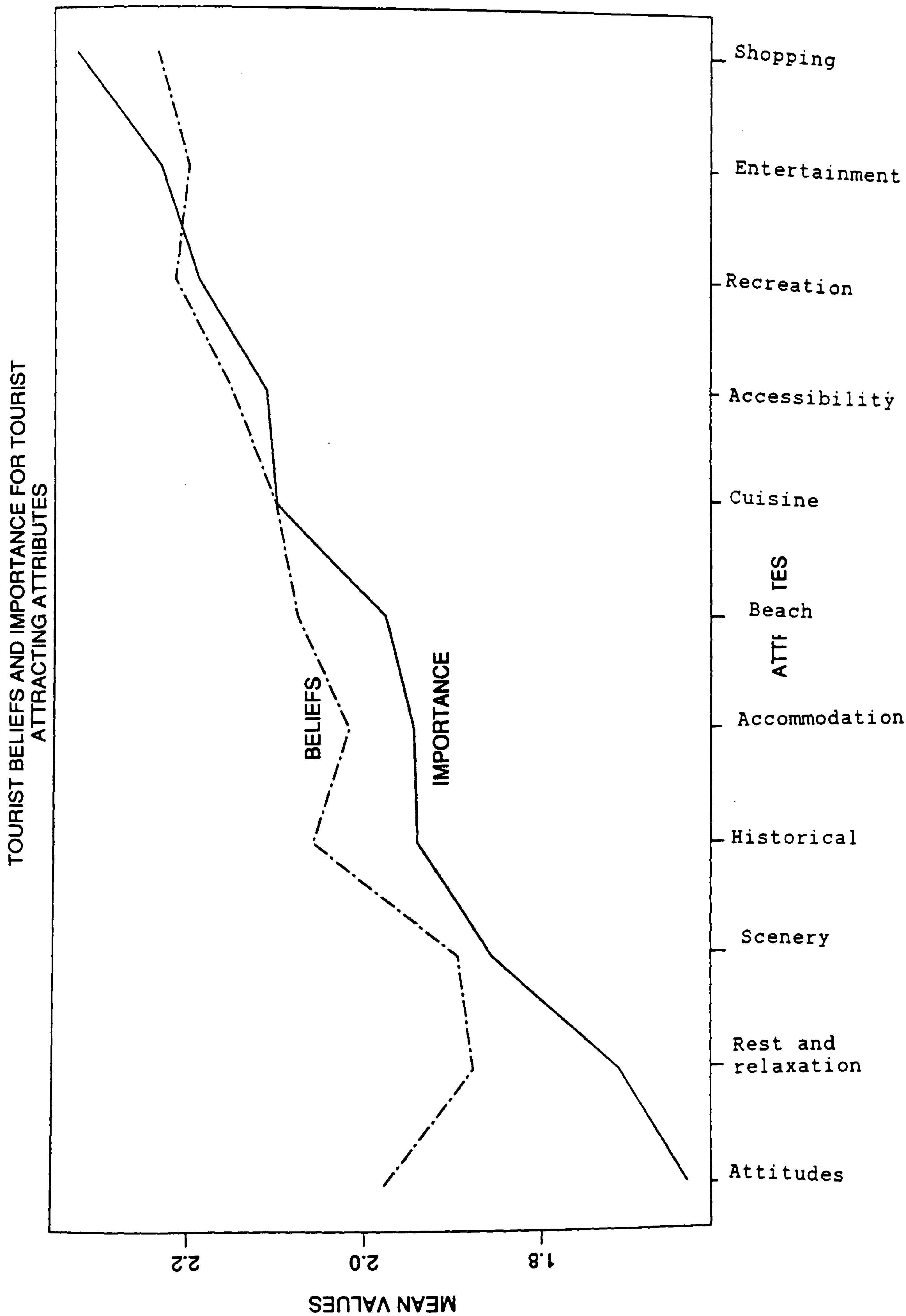

TOURIST BELIEFS AND IMPORTANCE FOR TOURIST
ATTRACTING ATTRIBUTES
BELIEFS
IMPORTANCE
Shopping
Entertainment
Recreation
Accessibility
Cuisine
Beach
Accommodation
Historical
Scenery
Rest and relaxation
Attitudes
ATTRIBUTES
2.2
2.0
1.8
MEAN VALUES

Figure 9.3

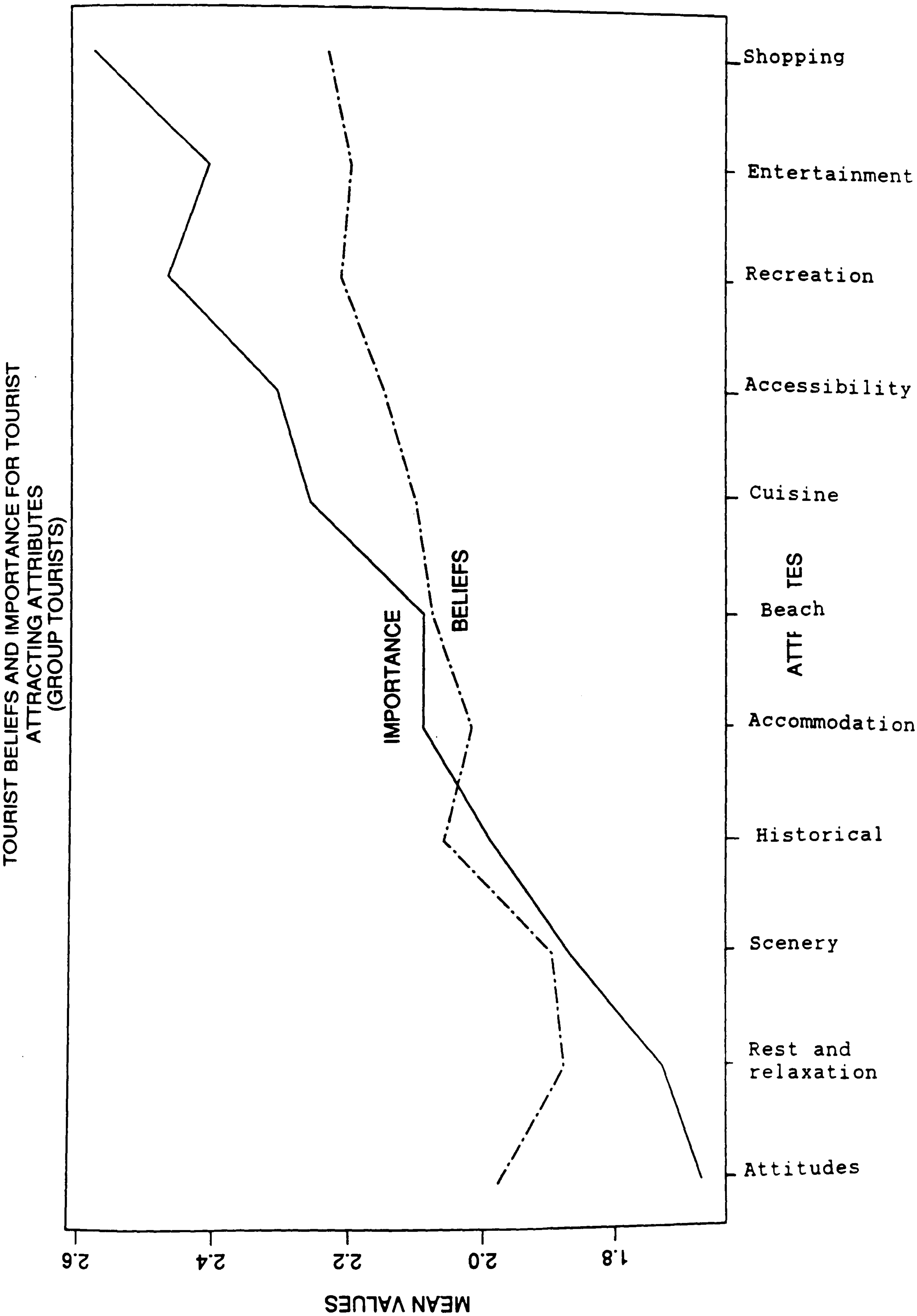
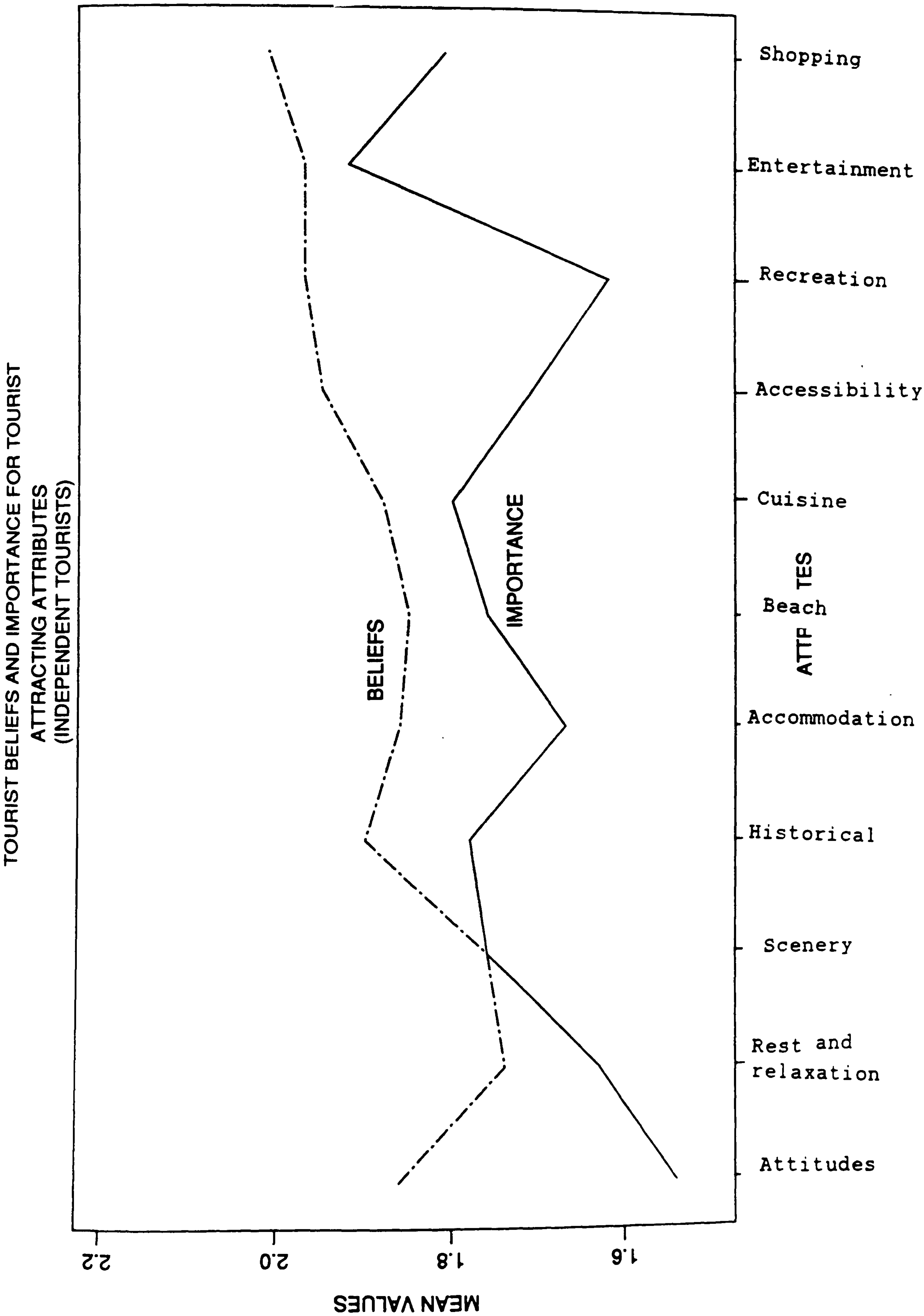

TOURIST BELIEFS AND IMPORTANCE FOR TOURIST
ATTRACTING ATTRIBUTES
(GROUP TOURISTS)
Shopping
Entertainment
Recreation
Accessibility
Cuisine
Beach
Accommodation
Historical
Scenery
Rest and relaxation
Attitudes
IMPORTANCE
BELIEFS
2.6
2.4
2.2
2.0
1.8
MEAN VALUES

Figure 9.4


TOURIST BELIEFS AND IMPORTANCE FOR TOURIST
ATTRACTING ATTRIBUTES
(INDEPENDENT TOURISTS)
BELIEFS
IMPORTANCE
Shopping
Entertainment
Recreation
Accessibility
Cuisine
Beach
Accommodation
Historical
Scenery
Rest and relaxation
Attitudes
2.2
2.0
1.8
1.6
MEAN VALUES

Packaged or group tourists, rated Malaysia favourably on the six attributes namely; availability of recreational facilities; shopping facilities; entertainment; availability of suitable accommodations; accessibility and cuisine (Figure 9.3, page 276)). The independent tourists, however, evaluated Malaysia favourably on scenic beauty which was ranked seventh in order of importance in their choice of holiday destination (Figure 9.4, page 277).

The importance of the attributes is a measure of how desirable a tourist-attracting attribute is when an individual selects a holiday destination (Witter,1985). Malaysia's strength on the least important attributes should give tourism planners specific direction as to which features offer the possibility for improvement to enhance its future attractiveness.

Husband-Wife Influence in Long-haul Vacation Decision Process

The next area of interest concerned the influence structure of all family members involved in the long-haul vacation decision process. Table 9.41 and 9.42 present data on the relative influence of husbands and wives, as perceived by each, on the selected eleven vacation sub-decisions.

Table 9.41 indicates the husband perceived that they have more influence than wife on decisions concerning information collection; the amount of money to spend; responsibility of making the actual booking and on travel arrangement (whether to go on individual or package travel). Both tables suggest that husband and wife seems to agree of their respective roles in taking the holiday; length of vacation; kind of activities and decision on final destination. However, some differences in perception exist between husbands and wives with the three vacation sub-decisions in deciding on period of vacation, whether to take the children and selection of lodging.

To examine the extent to which husbands and wives agree on the influence of each partner and to test the validity of hypothesis (H7), two-sample proportion test using SPLUS package were performed. Comparisons of relative spousal responses on three category scale: husband dominant, joint decision and wife dominant are presented in Table 9.43 through 9.45. Responses pertaining to a given sub-decisions were considered as congruent/non-congruent depending on whether or not a comparison of husbands' and wives' responses revealed statistically significant differences.

From the test statistic, there was no evidence at 5% level to indicate that there was a significant difference in the proportion of husband and wife perception of their respective roles for nine of eleven subdecisions. The two non-congruence sub-decisions were: whether to take the children and selection of lodging. The conflict in the former case was that the husband perceived the decision to be wife dominant while the wife considered it to be joint. In the latter case, 37.2 per cent of the husbands perceived the decision to be wife dominant while 45.8 per cent of the wife considered it to be husband dominant.

Table 9.41
Influence Structure in the Long-haul Holiday Purchase Decisions as Perceived by Husband
(all figures are percentages)

Sub-decisions	H > W	H = W	W > H
decide to take this holiday	21.6	39.4	39.0
decide on information collection	45.4	23.0	31.6
decide on length of vacation	28.7	36.9	34.4
decide on individual/ packaged holiday	38.3	33.7	28.0
decide on period of vacation	25.1	34.8	40.1
decide on amount of money to spend	38.4	32.4	29.2
decide on whether to take the children	16.1	36.7	47.2
decide on kind of activities	26.7	45.7	27.6
decide on selection of lodging	33.0	29.8	37.2
decide on final destination	30.1	43.3	26.6
responsible in making actual booking	51.1	18.8	30.1

Note: H > W : Husband has more influence than wife
H = W : Husband and wife have equal influence
W > H : Wife has more influence than husband

Table 9.42

Influence Structure in the Long-haul Holiday Purchase Decisions as Perceived by Wife

(all figures are percentages)

Sub-decisions	H > W	H = W	W > H
decide to take this holiday	29.4	40.6	30.0
decide on information collection	52.4	22.7	24.9
decide on length of vacation	37.1	37.4	25.5
decide on individual/ packaged holiday	47.2	32.9	19.9
decide on period of vacation	33.9	33.2	32.9
decide on amount of money to spend	46.7	31.6	21.7
decide on whether to take the children	35.6	37.0	27.4
decide on kind of activities	37.1	43.7	19.2
decide on selection of lodging	45.8	29.0	25.2
decide on final destination	38.1	42.3	19.6
responsible in making actual booking	57.7	18.5	23.8

Note: H > W : Husband has more influence than wife
H = W : Husband and wife have equal influence
W > H : Wife has more influence than husband

Table 9.43
Comparison of Relative Husband/Wife Influence
For Husband Dominant Decisions
(Aggregate level of Analysis)

Sub-decisions	Perceived Influence by H (%)	W (%)	Z	P
decide to take this holiday	21.6	29.4	-1.46	0.143
decide on information collection	45.4	52.4	-1.13	0.260
decide on length of vacation	28.7	37.1	-1.45	0.146
decide on individual/ packaged holiday	38.3	47.2	-1.45	0.147
decide on period of vacation	28.1	33.9	-1.58	0.115
decide on amount of money to spend	38.4	46.7	-1.35	0.176
decide on whether to take the children	16.1	35.6	-3.27	0.001*
decide on kind of activities	26.7	37.1	-1.81	0.069
decide on selection of lodging	33.0	45.8	-2.12	0.033*
decide on final destination	30.1	38.1	-1.37	0.172
responsible in making actual booking	51.1	57.7	-1.07	0.287

* Significant at p < .05

Table 9.44
Comparison of Relative Husband/Wife Influence
For Joint Decisions
(Aggregate level of Analysis)

Sub-decisions	Perceived Influence by H (%)	W (%)	Z	P
decide to take this holiday	39.4	40.6	-0.197	0.844
decide on information collection	23.0	22.7	0.059	0.953
decide on length of vacation	36.9	37.4	-0.086	0.932
decide on individual/ packaged holiday	33.7	32.9	0.139	0.889
decide on period of vacation	34.8	33.2	0.275	0.785
decide on amount of money to spend	32.4	31.6	0.139	0.890
decide on whether to take the children	36.7	37.0	-0.047	0.962
decide on kind of activities	45.7	43.7	0.321	0.749
decide on selection of lodging	29.8	29.0	0.138	0.890
decide on final destination	43.3	42.3	0.159	0.874
responsible in making actual booking	18.8	18.5	0.061	0.951

* Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.45
Comparison of Relative Husband/Wife Influence
For Wife Dominant Decisions
(Aggregate level of Analysis)

Sub-decisions	Perceived Influence by H (%)	W (%)	Z	P
decide to take this holiday	39.0	30.0	1.510	0.131
decide on information collection	31.6	24.9	1.180	0.237
decide on length of vacation	34.4	25.5	1.550	0.122
decide on individual/ packaged holiday	28.0	19.9	1.500	0.134
decide on period of vacation	40.1	32.9	1.200	0.231
decide on amount of money to spend	29.2	21.7	1.360	0.173
decide on whether to take the children	47.2	27.4	2.850	0.004*
decide on kind of activities	27.6	19.2	1.570	0.117
decide on selection of lodging	37.2	25.2	2.050	0.039*
decide on final destination	26.6	19.6	1.320	0.188
responsible in making actual booking	30.1	23.8	1.130	0.258

* Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.46
Patterns of Response Congruence for Perceived Influence in Long-haul Travel Decisions
(Aggregate level of Analysis)

Sub-decisions	Respondent Group		Congruence (C) or non -congruence (NC)
	H	W	
decide to take this holiday	JD	JD	C
decide on information collection	HD	HD	C
decide on length of vacation	JD	JD	C
decide on individual/ packaged holiday	HD	HD	C
decide on period of vacation	WD	WD	C
decide on amount of money to spend	HD	HD	C
decide on whether to take the children	WD	JD	NC
decide on kind of activities	JD	JD	C
decide on selection of lodging	WD	HD	NC
decide on final destination	JD	JD	C
responsible in making actual booking	HD	HD	C

Note: JD = Joint Decision; HD = Husband Dominated;
WD = Wife Dominated.

Table 9.46 summarises the overall pattern of response congruence for all sub-decisions at the aggregate level of analysis. As can seen, only decisions concerning whether to take the children and selection of lodging were found to be con-congruent for long-haul vacation.

Tourist's Satisfaction with Malaysia as a Holiday Destination

After experiencing and use of the product, the tourists tend to develop feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction toward it. To measure the degree of satisfaction/ dissatisfaction about their holidays in Malaysia, the tourists were asked to indicate their opinions on four major tourism components: Accommodation; Local services; Attractions and Price level. To be more meaningful, the components were further broken down into a series of forty-three items. A five-point-Likert type scale ranging from `very satisfied' ... to `very dissatisfied' was used. The responses were then ranked in order according to the mean value. The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.

Table 9.47 presents the main characteristics of tourist ratings of satisfaction with Malaysia. Four levels of rating have been defined for the mean of each item:

1. Very low - for means value between 1.00 to 1.99
2. Low - for means value between 2.00 to 2.99
3. High - for means value between 3.00 to 3.99
4. Very High - for means value of 4.00 and greater.

Over 58 per cent or twenty-five items were rated as very high satisfaction. While the other eighteen items were rated as high in satisfaction. No items were rated as low or very low in satisfaction.

Satisfaction of the tourists were highest with the accommodation aspects of their stay. They were particularly happy with modernity of rooms, toilet/shower facilities, quality of food/drinks, cleanliness, efficiency of services, friendliness of staff and overall value for money. In general, they were very satisfied with the price level and overall value for money. On overall satisfaction of their experience in Malaysia, it was rated very highly with a mean value of 4.319.

Table 9.47
Tourists's Satisfaction with Malaysia as a Destination

Variables	Mean Value*	Standard Deviation	N
Accommodation Based			
Modernity of rooms..............	4.406	0.597	281
Toilet/shower facilities........	4.282	0.674	280
Quality of food/drinks..........	4.282	0.647	280
Cleanliness.....................	4.267	0.729	281
Efficiency of service...........	4.369	0.607	282
Friendliness of staff...........	4.374	0.649	281
Overall value for money.........	4.253	0.618	281
Indoor recreational facilities..	3.837	0.653	264
Entertainment...................	3.964	0.702	276

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist. 1 indicates a very dissatisfied, 5 indicates a very satisfied.

Variables	Mean Value*	Standard Deviation	N
Local Services			
Airport services - Immigration.	3.939	0.725	279
Custom......	3.799	0.684	128
Outdoor recreational facilities.	3.915	0.571	259
Quality of food/drinks..........	4.163	0.671	276
Banking.........................	3.708	0.740	236
Shopping........................	3.950	0.733	279
Pleasant attitude of the people.	4.287	0.754	282
Attitude of taxi drivers........	4.018	0.823	277
Entertainment...................	3.959	0.689	274
Personal security...............	4.274	0.727	281
Hygiene and sanitation..........	3.893	0.933	280
Tourist information centre......	3.774	0.866	248
Local Attractions			
City tour......................	3.980	0.591	244
Plantation tour................	3.908	0.592	174
Cottage industry tour..........	3.683	0.744	186
Cultural show..................	4.005	0.665	216
Night life.....................	3.710	0.657	241
Architecture...................	3.905	0.594	211
Historical interest............	4.022	0.619	228
Beach resort...................	4.032	0.991	249
Water sport facilities.........	4.009	0.682	229
Other recreational facilities..	3.850	0.595	191
Hill resort....................	4.050	0.697	179

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist. 1 indicates a very dissatisfied, 5 indicates a very satisfied.

Variables	Mean Value*	Standard Deviation	N
Price level			
Flight to destinations..........	4.138	0.592	242
Flight within destinations......	4.111	0.608	208
Local transportation............	4.052	0.669	252
Accommodation...................	4.161	0.621	249
Excursion.......................	3.980	0.586	248
Food and drink..................	4.123	0.684	268
Package tour to destinations....	4.132	0.540	250
Shopping........................	4.022	0.638	271
Entertainment...................	3.946	0.631	260
Value for money..................	**4.253**	**0.541**	**273**
Overall satisfaction.............	4.319	0.519	276

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist. 1 indicates a very dissatisfied, 5 indicates a very satisfied.

Four separate factor analysis were performed to ascertain key dimensions of tourist satisfaction of the four aspects (Accommodation, Local services, Local attractions and Price level) of tourists' holiday experience in Malaysia. The factoring method used was principle factor with iteration. The criterion of eigen value greater or equal to 1.0 was used to determine the number of factors. This criterion ensured that only components accounting for at least the amount of the total variables with loadings (after rotation) greater or equal to 0.6 were included in a given factor. This was to increase the reliability of the findings as well as to decrease the probability of miscalculation. Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalisation was used to reach at the final factor solution.

Table 9.48 through 9.51 gave the output of the factor analysis in accordance with the four sections of holiday aspects used in the study. Under the accommodation aspects, two factors were extracted which explained 66.2 per cent of variance among the variables. The first factor, or principal component in the Table 9.48 can be identified/labelled as the tourists' satisfaction with respect to the "product and service superiority". The second factor shown can be identified as "recreation".

Table 9.48
The Factor Structure of Tourists' Satisfaction with Accommodation Aspects in Malaysia

Factor name (% variance explained)	Variables loading on factor	Variable loadings
1. Product and Service superiority (48.3%)	Efficiency of service	0.698
	Cleanliness	0.631
	Friendliness of staff	0.625
	Toilet/shower facilities	0.621
	Modernity of rooms	0.499
	Overall value for money	0.416
	Quality of food/drinks	0.356
2. Recreation (17.9%)	Entertainment	0.455
	Indoor recreational facilities	0.373

* 2 Factors Account for 66.2% of the variance in the correlation matrix.

In the case of tourists' satisfaction with aspects of local services, three factor patterns were identified and their loadings summarised in Table 9.49. Factor 1 was labelled "leisure," factor 2 was "health and safety" and factor 3 was "entry formalities."

Table 9.49
The Factor Structure of Tourists' Satisfaction with Local Services Aspects in Malaysia

Factor name (% variance explained	Variables loading on factor	Variable Loadings
1. Leisure (36.2%)	Shopping	0.550
	Entertainment	0.430
	Tourist information centre	0.294
2. Health/ safety (15.6%)	Pleasant attitude of the people	0.612
	Personal security	0.554
	Hygiene and sanitation	0.341
3. Entry Formalities (9.9)	Custom	0.657
	Immigration	0.612

* 3 factors Account for 61.7% of the variance in the correlation matrix.

Three factors were also identified with respect to tourists' satisfaction with local attractions in Malaysia. They were called "sightseeing," "sun,sea and sand," and "excitement" respectively (see Table 9.50). Heavy loading of hill resort element in the excitement factor could be attributed to the gambling/casino experience of the tourists at the resort.

Table 9.50
The Factor Structure of Tourists' Satisfaction with Local Attractions in Malaysia

Factor name (% variance explained)	Variables loading on factor	Variable Loadings
1. Sightseeing (36.6%)	Architecture	0.622
	Historical interest	0.584
	Plantation tour	0.435
	City tour	0.404
2. Sun, sea and sand (16.8)	Beach resort	0.652
	Water sport facilities	0.491
3. Excitement (10.2)	Night life	0.382
	Hill resort	0.358

* 3 factors Account for 63.7% of the variance in the correlation matrix.

Data with tourists' satisfaction with price level were reduced to two factors which explained 63.8 per cent of the variance among the related variables. As can be seen from Table 9.51 , they were labelled as "transportation and lodging cost" and "leisure cost."

Table 9.51
The Factor Structure of Tourists' Satisfaction with Price Level of Holiday in Malaysia

Factor name (% variance explained)	Variables loading on factor	Variable Loadings
1. Transportation and lodging cost (47.1%)	Package tour to destination	0.582
	Flight to destination	0.559
	Flight within destination	0.558
	Local transportation	0.494
	Accommodation	0.488
2. Leisure cost (16.7%)	Food and drinks	0.511
	Entertainment	0.444
	Shopping	0.414

* 2 factors Account for 63.8% of the variance in the correlation matrix.

Satisfaction Levels of Independent and Group Tourists in Malaysia

The next step in the analysis involved comparing holiday satisfaction levels between the two group of tourists in Malaysia. Specifically, the aim of this section is to test the validity of the hypothesis (H5) put forward in the previous chapter:

> No significant differences in the satisfaction levels of the holiday experience between the independent and packaged tourists to Malaysia.

Only those factors of satisfaction within each section of the holiday aspects identified from the factor analysis were used as the basis for comparison. Results of independent sample t-test performed were shown in Table 9.52 through 9.55.

As for the accommodation aspects, the analysis yielded some significance differences between the independent and the packaged tourist groups. Independent tourists were more satisfied with all the "product and service superiority" factors compared to the group tourists (Table 9.52). The explanation for this could be attributed to different treatments and service levels accorded to package tourists by the hoteliers.

With local services, independent tourists were significantly more satisfied than the group tourists with pleasant attitudes of the people and the personal security aspects of the "health and safety" factor (Table 9.53). As with the local attractions, only the "excitement" factor showed significant differences between the two groups. The packaged tourists group found night life in Malaysia to be more satisfying. This could be attributed to the fact that entertainment programmes were part of the package. On the other hand, the independent tourists recorded better satisfaction with the hill resorts (Table 9.54). This is understandable in view of their mobility as well as no other comparable hill resorts/casino excitement were available within the region.

No significant difference exists between the independent and group tourists in relation to their perceptions of the price levels of the holidays in Malaysia. However, with regards to overall value for money and overall satisfaction, the independent tourists were

Table 9.52
Comparison of Satisfaction Levels of Independent and Group Tourists in Malaysia
(Accommodation Aspects)

Elements	Independent		Group		t**
	n	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Efficiency of service	176	4.489	98	4.143	5.15a
Cleanliness	175	4.383	98	4.061	3.92a
Friendliness of staff	175	4.474	98	4.153	4.52a
Toilet/shower facilities	174	4.390	98	4.061	3.96a
Modernity of rooms	175	4.543	98	4.163	5.26a
Overall value for money	175	4.343	98	4.071	3.58a
Quality of food/drinks	174	4.420	98	4.010	5.29a
Entertainment	171	4.000	97	3.907	1.06
Indoor recreational facilities	162	3.803	94	3.915	-1.45

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at p < .001
b Significant at p < .01
c Significant at p < .05

Table 9.53
Comparison of Satisfaction Levels of Independent and Group Tourists in Malaysia
(Local Services Aspects)

Elements	Independent		Group		t**
	n	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Shopping	173	3.931	98	3.940	-0.10
Entertainment	172	3.948	95	3.990	-0.53
Tourist information centre	147	3.687	94	3.894	-0.95
Pleasant attitude of the people	176	4.392	98	4.082	3.57a
Personal security	176	4.370	97	4.083	3.51b
Hygiene and sanitation	174	3.914	98	3.929	-0.14
Custom	174	3.793	97	3.804	-0.12
Immigration	174	3.983	98	3.878	1.17

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.54
Comparison of Satisfaction Levels of Independent and Group Tourists in Malaysia
(Local Attractions Aspects)

Elements	Independent		Group		t**
	n	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Architecture	122	3.853	84	3.976	-1.68
Historical interest	135	4.052	87	3.977	1.01
Plantation tour	93	3.946	78	3.872	0.85
City tour	147	3.993	91	3.967	0.33
Beach resort	154	4.117	89	3.899	1.94
Water sport facilities	136	4.059	88	3.932	1.58
Night life	145	3.635	90	3.833	-2.42c
Hill resort	92	4.174	82	3.927	2.40c

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.55
Comparison of Satisfaction Levels of Independent and Group Tourists in Malaysia
(Price Levels and Overall Aspects)

Elements	Independent		Group		t**
	n	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Food and drinks	176	4.140	98	4.012	1.70
Entertainment	170	3.992	97	4.023	-0.42
Shopping	173	3.922	98	3.990	-0.70
Overall value for money	175	4.329	98	4.128	2.01c
Overall satisfaction	174	4.287	98	4.086	2.21c

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

significantly more satisfied than the group tourists (Table 9.55). The results in Tables 9.52 through 9.55 therefore, do not lend support to hypothesis (H6)

Satisfaction Levels Amongst Destinations Visited

Again, t-test was used to compare tourists' satisfaction levels among destinations visited within the region. Data from the respondents who have visited the countries concerned were separated and used as the basis for comparisons, the results of which were presented in Table 9.56 through Table 9.67.

Comparisons of tourists' satisfaction between Malaysia and Singapore across those variables identified under two dimensions of the accommodation aspects were displayed in Table 9.56. As can be seen, some significant differences exist between tourists' satisfaction in Malaysia and Singapore. Tourists considered friendliness of staff, overall value for money and quality of food/drinks were more satisfying with Malaysia than they were with Singapore.

For all but two dimensions of the local services aspect (Table 9.57), the between-countries differences were statistically significant. Tourist were more satisfied with shopping, entertainment, hygiene and sanitation and entry formalities with Singapore, while pleasant attitude of the people in Malaysia was rated higher.

Malaysia performed significantly better than Singapore in all but night life aspect of the local attractions (Table 9.58). Singapore, however, confirmed its superiority in shopping and entertainment not only in terms of its attractiveness in local services but also its price levels. Despite of these apparent shortcomings, overall value for money and overall satisfaction with Malaysia was significantly better than Singapore (Table 9.59).

In contrast, tourists' satisfaction with Thailand was statistically significant with almost all dimensions in the accommodation aspects (Table 9.60), leisure and entry formalities factors of local services aspects (Table 9.61), sightseeing and excitement factors of the local attraction aspects (Table 9.62) as well as the price aspect of their holidays (Table 9.63).

Tourists, however, were more satisfied with only three dimensions of their experience in Malaysia compared with that of Thailand: personal security, hygiene and sanitation and beach resort. Its only natural then, that tourists' satisfaction with overall value for money and overall satisfaction in Thailand was significantly better than Malaysia (Table 9.63).

Between Malaysia and Indonesia, no significant difference was observed in the satisfaction of tourists with regard to the accommodation aspects of their stay (Table 9.64). In terms of local services, Malaysia was

Table 9.56
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Singapore
(Accommodation Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia		Singapore	t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Efficiency of service	4.269	127	4.087	3.249b
Cleanliness	4.167	127	4.394	-1.361
Friendliness of staff	4.374	127	4.031	4.012a
Toilet/shower facilities	4.200	128	4.344	-0.714
Modernity of rooms	4.396	128	4.492	-1.112
Overall value for money	4.204	127	4.031	2.564c
Quality of food/drinks	4.280	127	4.276	0.072
Entertainment	3.864	126	4.127	1.695
Indoor recreational facilities	3.827	119	3.706	1.447

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at p < .001
b Significant at p < .01
c Significant at p < .05

Table 9.57
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Singapore
(Local Services Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia		Singapore	t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Shopping	3.850	128	4.445	-5.774a
Entertainment	3.865	126	4.286	-3.486a
Tourist information centre	3.700	107	3.692	0.647
Pleasant attitude of the people	4.207	130	3.962	3.633a
Personal security	4.24	129	4.202	0.745
Hygiene and sanitation	3.793	128	4.164	-2.310c
Immigration	3.839	128	4.148	-2.443c
Custom	3.699	128	4.063	-2.938b

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.58
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Singapore
(Local Attractions Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia		Singapore	t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
City tour	3.890	105	3.429	5.488a
Plantation tour	3.819	54	3.241	5.613a
Architecture	3.509	80	3.488	3.758a
Historical interest	3.969	93	3.462	5.331a
Beach resort	4.000	83	3.084	6.589a
Water sport facilities	3.982	78	3.244	6.540a
Night life	3.685	111	4.054	-3.986a
Hill resort	4.010	54	3.000	7.267a

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.59
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Singapore
(Price level and Overall Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia		Singapore	t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Flight to destination	4.011	97	4.124	0.140
Local transportation	3.926	104	3.904	0.002
Accommodation	4.010	102	3.951	2.225c
Package tour to destination	4.012	97	4.124	0.096
Food and drinks	4.111	115	3.974	1.530
Shopping	4.012	122	4.516	-5.893a
Entertainment	3.649	116	4.293	-3.861a
Overall Value for money	4.213	120	4.067	2.449c
Overall satisfaction	4.219	123	4.179	2.036c

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.60
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Thailand
(Accommodation Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia Mean*	n	Thailand Mean*	t**
Efficiency of service	4.168	75	4.387	-0.181
Cleanliness	4.127	75	4.067	1.553
Friendliness of staff	4.298	74	4.473	-0.901
Toilet/shower facilities	4.120	76	4.263	0.156
Modernity of rooms	4.336	76	4.553	-1.439
Overall value for money	4.319	75	4.480	-2.099c
Quality of food/drinks	4.216	75	4.333	-0.462
Entertainment	3.771	73	4.315	-2.824b
Indoor recreational facilities	3.784	69	3.768	0.576

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.61
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Thailand
(Local Services Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia		Thailand	t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Shopping	3.317	76	4.421	-4.166a
Entertainment	3.877	73	4.301	-2.840b
Tourist information centre	3.690	64	3.906	-0.835
Pleasant attitude of the people	4.194	77	4.182	0.809
Personal security	4.209	76	3.842	3.369a
Hygiene and sanitation	3.712	76	3.368	3.314b
Immigration	3.792	76	3.947	-0.067
Custom	3.647	77	3.883	-0.706

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.62
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Thailand
(Local Attractions Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia		Thailand	t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
City tour	3.817	64	4.453	-4.093a
Plantation tour	3.778	39	4.308	-2.656b
Architecture	3.456	52	4.192	-1.940
Historical interest	3.901	65	4.015	-0.050
Beach resort	4.000	57	3.614	2.404c
Water sport facilities	3.955	51	3.902	0.751
Night life	3.615	65	4.569	-7.568a
Hill resort	3.994	31	3.806	1.216

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.63
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Thailand
(Price level and Overall Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia Mean*	n	Thailand Mean*	t**
Flight to destination	4.001	49	4.143	-0.053
Flight within destination	4.107	48	4.104	0.051
Local transportation	4.055	57	4.135	-0.644
Accommodation	4.069	52	4.058	0.814
Package tour to destination	4.005	65	4.323	-1.927
Food and drinks	4.225	66	4.379	-2.326c
Shopping	4.157	71	4.563	-5.395a
Entertainment	3.626	69	4.623	-6.474a
Overall value for money	4.213	71	4.592	-3.539a
Overall satisfaction	4.217	73	4.603	-3.390a

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.64
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Indonesia
(Accommodation Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia		Indonesia	t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Efficiency of service	4.375	12	3.917	1.993
Cleanliness	4.253	13	3.923	1.130
Friendliness of staff	4.295	12	4.667	-1.582
Toilet/shower facilities	4.300	13	4.385	-0.279
Modernity of rooms	4.390	12	4.417	-0.119
Overall value for money	4.266	12	4.333	-0.294
Quality of food/drinks	4.250	13	3.923	1.448
Entertainment	4.021	12	4.417	-1.415
Indoor recreational facilities	3.867	11	3.455	1.635

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

rated significantly better in shopping, tourist information centre and personal security while Indonesia excelled in entertainment and custom services (Table 9.65). As with local attractions, tourists were more satisfied with city tour in Malaysia but considered night life in Indonesia to be more satisfying (Table 9.66).

No significant difference could be detected between the two countries in terms of value for money even though the tourists were more satisfied with the package tour and flight to destination price level with Malaysia than they were with Indonesia (Table 9.67). Indonesia, however, was rated very highly for its entertainment price level. Overall satisfaction of their stay in Malaysia was statistically significant at 0.05 per cent level.

Table 9.65
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Indonesia
(Local Services Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia		Indonesia	t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Shopping	3.928	13	3.308	2.130c
Entertainment	3.986	12	4.833	-3.708b
Tourist information centre	3.758	12	2.333	4.956a
Pleasant attitude of the people	4.311	13	4.769	-1.893
Personal security	4.259	13	3.538	2.910b
Hygiene and sanitation	3.877	13	3.462	1.310
Immigration	3.952	13	3.846	0.419
Custom	3.810	12	4.000	-0.762

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.66
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Indonesia
(Local Attractions Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia		Indonesia	t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
City tour	3.922	9	3.222	2.856c
Beach resort	4.010	9	4.000	0.027
Water sport facilities	4.105	7	3.714	1.234
Night life	3.725	9	4.778	-3.992b

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.

** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.

a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 9.67
Comparison of Tourists' Satisfaction between Malaysia and Indonesia
(Price level and Overall Aspects)

Criteria	Malaysia		Indonesia	t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Flight to destination	4.156	12	3.667	2.201c
Local transportation	4.066	11	3.636	1.701
Accommodation	4.181	12	3.917	1.134
Package tour to destination	4.128	12	3.583	2.530c
Food and drinks	4.159	12	3.167	3.840a
Shopping	4.053	12	3.500	1.875
Entertainment	3.969	12	4.917	-4.732a
Overall value for money	4.275	12	3.917	2.022
Overall satisfaction	4.337	12	4.000	2.249c

* The higher the value, the more satisfied the tourist.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two groups had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of sample variance was performed. The F was less than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at p < .001
b Significant at p < .01
c Significant at p < .05

Comments by the Tourists

An open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire invited tourists to express their views of Malaysia as a holiday destination. Superlatives such as "Excellent", "Perfect", "Great", "Wonderful", "Superb" and "First class" were frequently used by the respondents. Typical and familiar remarks related to their holiday experiences are reproduced here:

1. "Excellent. I have thoroughly enjoyed my stay in Malaysia."
2. "To spend more time here."
3. "Very excellent place for family holiday, we are already to come back again with the children. Children looked after very well by the staff and all."
4. "I would not normally choose Malaysia but the chance come to fly out and spend 2 weeks with my husband, I couldn't refuse and very glad I went. I will come again."
5. "Very glad I came and will come back."
6. "Superb. Under-recognised, under-valued and under-research. I never knew it was so beautiful."
7. "Well worth the effort of getting here."
8. "We would strongly recommend it to our friends."
9. "This is my first trip to Malaysia. I feel that it is a very wonderful place. I will definately return as soon as possible. A must for everybody who hasn't been."

10. "We would certainly like to come again. It was very interesting."

11. "Excellent - will return soon to see more flora and fauna."

Hospitality dimension of the country seemed to draw a lot of praise from the tourists:

1. "Wonderful hospitality - Hope it is not spoilt the more popular it becomes."
2. "Overall the country and the people are delightful and make everyone most welcome."
3. "The people were friendly and helpful throughout and we had a wonderful holiday."
4. "Outstanding - easy to travel around plus local very helpful in general."
5. "We have just had a wonderful time, the people really made so wonderful for us that we shall return very soon. Thank you all."
6. "The charms of the Malaysians single out the country from any other sun and sand destinations I have ever heard or experienced. Definitely the ASSET for Malaysia's tourist industry."
7. "The people are friendly and appear to be caring. We've loved the holiday but could not come back, because there's too much of the world to see."
8. "The country is beautiful and the people are so friendly."
9. "Local people are very generous and trustworthy."

Tourism attractions, facilities and amenities of the country seemed more than sufficient to accommodate tourists' needs and expectations as can be concluded from the following comments:

1. "Excellent holiday destination with plenty to do as and when wanted."
2. "Would recommend range of facilities and level of accommodation and hope to return."

Personal safety of tourists also earned good commendations from the respondents. Expressions like "I've never felt threatened on the streets or on public transport,", "We were never hassled by the street vendors," and "Nobody pestered us for tips." were common.

Penang received the most mention as the favourite holiday destination in Malaysia by the British tourists. Their typical remarks confirmed its reputation as "Pearl of the Orient":

1. "Penang is a superb place for holiday AWAY from Kuala Lumpur which is just a city."
2. "Excellent. I hope over development doesn't spoiled the beauty of Penang."
3. "We have enjoyed our holiday in Penang and would return again to the Far East."
4. "We found Penang a wonderful place to have a holiday.
5. "Beautiful island, friendly and lovely place for

holiday. Penang Mutiara better than Oriental Bangkok."

Though in general Malaysia were described as a "very good value for the price" and an "inexpensive" destination, there were, however, complaints about prices of drink especially wine which were said to be ridiculously high. One comment particularly captured this frustration, "Do not try to skin the Brits. After all they were the people that made this country what it is."

Another major disappointment was centred on the general cleanliness of the cities and resorts, in particular:

1. "The country is developing, but appear little, if any, money spent on sewerage system. Beaches appears clean but untreated sewerage flows into the seas and streets which was very disappointing as we wanted mainly a beach holiday."
2. "Public facilities at the beach and cities were inadequate, if any, it was atrocious."
3. "Standard of cleanliness in cities needs to be improved. Singapore is an excellent example of how standard can be improved."
4. "Must be careful as where to eat as food hygiene is not always very good."

The needs for more tourist information was also highlighted by the respondents. "Short staying guest need to be informed on local activities - what's on? And where and when? "More prominent road direction signs and better detailed tourist map would have improved the chances of visiting location of interest." Some respondents even suggested that attraction sites should charge admission to generate revenue to improve directional signs to their respective locations.

Some respondents also expressed concern about the possibility of over development, "Don't want to see a rash of ugly high rise hotels and condos and don't like western style music." and "Don't over-develop it." are not uncommon remarks. A number of responses mentioned earlier were hoping that over development would not spoilt the beauty of the country and hospitality of its people. Perhaps over development here did not meant to include the needs for "more bars and clubs."

Finally, a small number of respondents suggested that more should be done by those involved in marketing the country " to increase awareness in the United Kingdom." However, some questioned the credibility of travel brochures and felt that "it didn't described the country very well, not quite what we expected but not dissatisfied."

Summary of Findings

The choice of Malaysia as a long-haul holiday destination is seen more as a part of a multi-destination purchase decision which is determined by multiplicity of internal and external circumstances.

"In search of new experience", "rest and relaxation", and "cultural attraction" was ranked no.1, 2 and 3 respectively as the three most important motivational factors considered by the respondents to travel long-haul. "Annual vacation as part of lifestyle", "attractive price" and "increase in disposable income" were the determinants that triggered their motivation for the vacation.

Recommendations from friends and relatives and curiosity/ adventure reasons, in that the tourists have not taken long-haul vacation before were the two most important factors that led tourists to be interested in long-haul vacation. Travel articles featured in recreational magazines and newspapers seemed to create better impact in stimulating the interest of long-haul travellers than commercials appeared on television, or in recreational magazines or newspapers.

The study clearly identified the destinations which Malaysia needs to recognise either as direct competitors or complementary destinations in the region. Destinations that are in close proximity to each other such as Malaysia and Singapore seemed to be complementing one another. Thailand, however, with its superior product offerings could be considered more as a direct competitor. Though Australia might be considered as a competitor too, Malaysia could still attract some traffic bound for Australia as a stop-over destination.

As the tourists moved from Awareness Set to Consideration Set, different buying criteria were used to reduce the alternative destinations to a manageable number. The factors that were frequently mentioned by the sample include: cost, exotic East, curiosity - never been to Far East, visiting friends and relatives, proximity to Singapore and Thailand, second visit and political stability.

Hypothesis Three (H3) stated that: Long-haul tourists receive most information about the destination from marketer-dominated source during the early stages of the decision process, while in the latter stage, personal sources are the most important. Findings from Table 9.15, 9.18 and 9.20 could not support this hypothesis as personal source of information seemed to dominate in every stage of the decision process. As a primary source of information, advice or recommendation from friends and relatives may be attributed to the need to feel reassured in view of the expenditure involved and the risks of a far away destinations.

An interesting finding related to information source was that Visit Malaysia Year promotion dedicated to boosting travel to Malaysia did make an impact in the decision process of the tourist.

The findings from the t-test analysis of attitude of tourists to Malaysia provided some basis to reject the fourth hypothesis: There is no significant difference in the belief of how much Malaysia offers and the importance of tourist-attracting attributes in selecting Malaysia as a destination between the independent tourist and those travelling with the package tour respectively. Tourists evaluated Malaysia very favourably on "pleasant attitudes of the people," "opportunity for rest and relaxation" and "scenic beuaty". The same tourist- attracting attributes were considered important to them when selecting their holiday destinations.

The relative influence of husbands and wives across selected eleven long-haul vacation sub-decisions were explored. The husbands seemed to dominate decisions concerning: information collection; the amount of money to spend; decide on individual or packaged travel and responsibility of making the actual booking. The study indicated that joint decision making was more prevalent with regard to the decision to take the vacation, length of vacation, kind of activities and selection of final destination. Husbands and wives were found to be in agreement of their respective influence in nine of the eleven sub-decisions.

Generally, tourists expressed high degrees of satisfaction with their holidays experience in Malaysia. Nevertheless, some significant differences were found between independent and packaged tourists. Comparison between destinations within the region also revealed different satisfaction levels across various dimensions. For overall value for money and overall satisfaction, Malaysia was significantly better than Singapore. Tourists satisfaction with Thailand were statistically significant with almost all dimensions. The tour operators' survey uncover similar findings on the satisfaction levels when comparing Malaysia with Thailand.

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CHAPTER TEN

TOUR OPERATORS' SURVEY

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of the tour operators' survey in order to test the validity of the hypothesis (H7):

> The extent of tour operators' support for Malaysia as a destination will depend on its ability to stay competitive vis-a-vis other countries in the region.

Specifically, this section aims to examine the following three aspects:

> Firstly: profitability of Malaysia as a destination. This would include an investigation to the type and size, year of trading, and percentage sales turnover of the tour operator companies offering holiday packages to Malaysia.

Secondly: explore the attractiveness and diversity of Malaysia as a long-haul holiday destination. The focus will be on determining not only their familiarity with the various attractive destinations available within the country, but also on their satisfaction levels in comparison with other destinations.

Thirdly: the strength of relationship between tour operators and the Malaysian tourism organisations.

<u>Type of Tour Operating Companies Offering Malaysia as a Holiday Destination</u>

Tour operators were asked to specify the type of their companies. Details are given in Table 10.1 below. As can be seen, majority (57.1%) of the tour operators promoting

<u>Table 10.1</u>
<u>Type of Tour Operating Companies</u>

	Type of company	n	%
i.	Independent	9	42.9
ii.	Part of a group	12	57.1
	Total valid response	21	100.0

Malaysia as holiday destination are operating as either part of a group or as independent companies (42.9%).

Number of Years in Operation

In an effort to gauge the strength of the company in the volatile market, respondents were asked to indicate when their companies began trading. The assumption here is that those tour operators who manage to remain in business over time must have considerable resources. This is important in view of the fact that competition between tour operators is not only on the basis of what destination areas have to offer but also on other aspect of the their services including price. Table 10.2 shows that two-third of the company were in operation for more than 10 years and only one (4.8%) company with less than 6 years.

Table 10.2
Distribution of Trading Years of the Companies

Years of Operation	n	%
1 - 5 years	1	4.8
6 - 10 years	6	28.6
11 - 15 years	4	19.0
16 - 20 years	1	4.8
21 - 25 years	4	19.0
26 - 30 years	3	14.3
30 years and over	2	9.5
Total valid response	21	100.0

Sales Turnover in an Average Trading Year

Question 3 solicits information on the number of holidays sold by the companies. Three operators were not able to provide trading figures due to company's policy. Out of 18 respondents, 50 per cent sold between 1,000 - 5000 per year. All of them were independent operators. One-third of the companies recorded turnover of 10,000 - 40,000. While 16.7 per cent reported sales of over 60,000 in an average trading year (see Table 10.3).

Table 10.3
Distribution of Holidays Sold in an Average Trading Year

Turnover	n	%
1,000 - 5,000	9	50.0
10,000 - 20,000	2	11.1
30,000 - 40,000	4	22.2
60,000 - 70,000	2	11.1
Over 100,000	1	5.6
Total valid response	18	100.0

The above table indicates that the majority of the tour operators promoting Malaysia do not belong to the "top 30 operators" as classified by the Civil Aviation Authority (CAA). Despite the trend towards concentration of the industry structure, small to medium-sized operators specialising on long-haul or special interest seemed to be the important promoters of the destination. A similar conclusion could also be observed from the analysis on the breakdown of holiday sales discussed in the following section.

Breakdown of Holiday Sales

For one company Malaysia accounted for 60% of its total sales. This indicates that specialising in one particular holiday destination seemed to be an exception rather than the norm. As illustrated in Table 10.4 five companies (27.7%) tend to specialise their products offerings to the South East Asia with total sales ranging from 55 to 100 per cent. The same five companies were also the most important contributors to Malaysia in terms of percentage sales which ranged from 10 to 60 percent of their total sales.

The majority of the companies (66.7%) considered Malaysia as one of their many offerings to the market as it only contributed between 1 - 5% of the total sales. However, their roles and importance should not be under-estimated in view of their total turnover.

The same table also showed that 16.7 per cent of the respondents sold no more than 1 per cent of their total sales for holidays in Malaysia and between 2-10 per cent for holidays in the South East Asia region. Further analysis revealed that the same three companies had earlier reported an average annual turnover of over 60,000 holidays (see Table 10.3). It can, therefore be implied that the packaging of any particular destination by the big tour operators merely served their own competitive strategy in respect of the range of holiday destinations they each offer.

Table 10.4
Cross-Tabulation for Percentage of Sales between Malaysia and South East Asia

Malaysia / South East Asia	Percentage of Sales								Total
	1	2	3	5	10	15	20	60	
2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
10	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	2
15	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
20	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	2
30	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
35	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	2
40	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	2
55	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
90	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	2
100	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
Total	3	3	1	5	2	1	2	1	18

To be read: 2 companies sold 2 percent of tour to South East Asia and only 1 per cent of their total sales to Malaysia.

Length of Time Malaysia Featured in their Programmes

Table 10.5 provides some indications as to the length of time that Malaysia has been featured by the tour operators. Over 47.6 per cent of the companies included Malaysia in their programmes for the last ten years. This coincides with the overall growth in demand for long-haul holiday market in Britain. As the findings reveal, six companies have offered the country for a duration of 11-20 years, while almost 24 per cent were already selling Malaysia for over 20 years. The small numbers in the earlier years could also be contributed to a limited seat capacity to the country.

Table 10.5
Number of Years Malaysia has been Offered

Number of Years	n	%
1 - 5 years	3	14.3
6 - 10 years	7	33.3
11 - 15 years	4	19.0
16 - 20 years	2	9.5
21 - 25 years	4	19.0
26 - 30 years	1	4.8
Total valid response	21	100.0*

* subject to rounding errors

Since a tour operator's allegiance to any particular destination is tenuous - it holds only so long as it is sufficiently profitable (Ashworth and Goodall, 1988), thus from the above result, it could be concluded that the majority of the tour operators must have considered Malaysia as a worthy destination.

The next section will explore how Malaysia is packaged as a holiday destination by the tour operators, how their clients rated their experience in the country. The rationale here is to determine the familiarity of the tour operators not only with the various attractive destinations available within the country but also with feedbacks of their clients stays in Malaysia.

Packaging of Malaysia as a Destination

Majority of the tour operators in the survey offered a variety of choices to Malaysia to suite their clients' tastes and budgets. Almost 62 per cent (refer to Table 10.6) of the respondents offer the most choices: as a single destination, as part of regional itinerary or stop-over. This range of offerings to the same destination country highlighted another aspect of market penetration strategy to combat competition widely practised by the tour operators.

Another 33.3 per cent packaged the country both as a single destination and as part of regional itinerary. Only one company in the sample offers Malaysia as a stop-over destination.

Table 10.6
Packaging of Malaysia as a Destination

	Type of Package	n	%
i.	As a single destination, part of regional itinerary and stop-over.	13	61.9
ii.	As a single destination and part of regional itinerary.	7	33.3
iii.	Stop-over	1	4.8
	Total valid response	21	100.0

Most Frequently featured Destinations in Malaysia

Respondents were asked to rank in order of importance the destinations within Malaysia most frequently featured in their holiday arrangements. A mean rating score for each destination featured was calculated. The lower the mean, the more important the destination. Table 10.7 shows that Penang was the most popular resort with the British tour operators. Over sixty per cent of them ranked it as no.1, 28.6 per cent as no.2 and 9.5 per cent as no.3. Kuala Lumpur came second with a mean value of 2.200. Langkawi was the most popular among the island resorts being ranked as no.2 and no.3 respectively by two tour operators.

Table 10.7
Most Frequented Destinations in Malaysia

Destinations	Ranking 1		2		3		≥ 4		Mean* Value
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Kuala Lumpur	7	35.0	10	50.0	-	-	3	15.0	2.200
Penang	13	61.9	6	28.6	2	9.5	-	-	1.476
The East Coast of P. Malaysia	1	5.6	1	5.6	8	44.4	8	44.4	3.667
The Highland Resorts/Casino	-	-	2	11.8	5	29.4	10	58.8	3.824
Malacca	-	-	-	-	1	7.1	13	92.9	5.500
Johore	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	100.0	7.182
Sarawak	-	-	1	7.7	-	-	12	92.3	5.615
Sabah	-	-	-	-	1	7.7	12	92.3	5.923
Island Resorts	-	-	1	9.1	3	27.3	7	63.6	4.364

* The lower the mean, the more important the destination was considered by the respondents.

It can be assumed from the above findings that the tour operators were quite familiar with the various destinations within the country. It would appear that the popularity of one destination over the others could be attributed to the level of tourism development in the respective areas. Whilst, the attractions might have provided the "pull" factor to generate initial tourist flows to each destination, the absence of, or limited facilities and accessibility might well deter tour operators' selection.

Amongst the secondary destinations within the country, the east coast of Peninsular Malaysia seemed to have the best potential for future growth with the British market. Though only one company ranked it as number one destination, the area achieved the highest familiarity - being featured by 18 of the 21 respondents. The perceived standard or quality of the attractions and facilities of the area could be enhanced tremendously with improved accessibility.

<u>Clients' rating of their Holidays in Malaysia</u>

All tour operators surveyed reported 100 per cent clients' satisfaction with their holidays in Malaysia. As indicated in Table 10.8 below, 57 per cent of them mentioned that their clients' considered it as "very good value for money" while 43 per cent rated their holidays in Malaysia as "good value for money." This point was confirmed by the earlier tourist survey in which a very high mean score was recorded for overall tourists satisfaction level with their holiday in Malaysia.

Table 10.8
Clients' rating of their Holidays in Malaysia

Rating	n	%
Very good value for money	12	57.1
Good value for money	9	42.9
Poor value for money	-	-
Total valid response	21	100.0

On the other hand, no major disappointments were reported by their clients after returning from a holiday in Malaysia except one independent operator quoted during the interview of saying, "they were sorry to be back home." Possible explanation for this could be contributed to their professionalism as "the manufacturer of a true tourist products" in delivering their clients' expectations in travel arrangements, accommodations, food and beverage, excursions, participation in recreational activities, entertainment and so forth. Therefore, it could be concluded that the tour operators were in fact very happy with their packaging of the destination.

The following section will attempt to evaluate the relative effectiveness of the promotional activities as part of the facilitation processes used by the National

Tourist Organisation (NTO). The importance/relevancy of each tool has to be seen from the tour operators' perspective in market of origin in view of their support of the destination and its products. The level of relationships between the Malaysian tourism organisations and the tour operators in its tourist-generating market will also be explored.

<u>The Most Important Methods of Updating Operators' Knowledge of Malaysia</u>

Six methods were proposed to the respondents who were asked to rank them in order of importance in up-dating their knowledge of Malaysia. They were also requested to add any others which were not included. A five-point scale ranging from `Very Important' ... to `Not Important' was used to show the degree of importance. The answers were ranked according to the mean value and presented in Table 10.9. The lower the mean, the more important the method was considered by respondents.

Clearly, familiarisation tours to various destinations in Malaysia was considered as the most important method by the tour operators in up-dating their knowledge of the destination. Over 71 per cent of the tour operators ranked this method as their number one tool. Travel trade workshops participation with the mean value of 2.571 came second. Under this category, eleven companies considered it as their second most important tool. Four companies, however, ranked their own source of reference as number one method namely: travel trade editorial; local agents; journalist trip and internal research respectively. Direct mailings of tourist literature/newsletter was ranked fourth followed by calls by NTO's local representative.

Surprisingly, cultural nights/evenings with all the glamour and cost involved was considered the least important by the tour operators. Perhaps this promotional activity would be much more meaningful for the purpose of promoting sales to those potential tourists in the process of evaluating holiday destinations during the travel exhibitions or "road shows". This method could also be useful for educating the retail travel agents.

The chi-square tests performed could not detect any significant relationship between the type of tour operating companies (independent/ part of a group) and the importance ranking of the promotional tools. In other words, all the promotional tools were statistically independent. Every tour operator considered all tools to be important.

Table 10.9
The most important Methods of updating Operators' Knowledge of Malaysia

Methods	Ranking 1 n	1 %	2 n	2 %	3 n	3 %	≥ 4 n	≥ 4 %	Mean* Value
Familiarisation tours	15	71.4	2	9.5	4	19.1	-	-	1.476
Travel trade workshop	1	4.8	11	52.3	7	33.3	2	9.6	2.571
Calls by Lond on's office	-	-	1	7.7	1	7.7	9	84.6	4.231
Direct Mailing	1	5.3	3	15.8	4	21.1	13	57.8	3.579
Cultural Nights	-	-	2	13.3	-	-	13	86.7	5.333
Trade advertising	-	-	1	5.9	3	17.6	17	76.5	4.235
Others	4	40.0	1	10.0	2	20.0	3	30.0	3.000

* The lower the mean, the more important the method was considered by the respondents.

The Importance of Financial and Promotional Support Offered by Malaysian Tourism Organisations

The incentives offered by the Malaysian tourism organisations to tour operators to facilitate packaging of the destination was another area for investigation. Tour operators were asked to rank the various incentives in order of importance. The responses were then ranked according to the mean values and presented in Table 10.10. The lower the mean, the more important the method was considered by respondents.

In view of the facilitation role of the NTO's office in London, it was expected that the tour operators considered cooperative advertising and promotional aids as the only two incentives to be of any relevant to them with the former being ranked more important than the latter.

As with the Malaysia Airlines, the amount of discount was rated to be the single most important incentive. Guarantee against price fluctuation with the mean value of 1.89 came second. Credit was ranked third followed by cooperative advertising and promotional aids respectively. The importance of the first two incentives highlighted their commitment to keep the package price attractive as well for them to remain competitive.

Table 10.10
The Importance of Incentives Offered by Malaysian Tourism Organisations to Tour Operators

Tourist Organisations	TDCL		MAS		HOTELS		L/OPERATOR	
Incentives	Mean	n	Mean	n	Mean	n	Mean	n
Credit	-	-	2.07	15	1.84	19	2.11	18
Discount	-	-	1.50	20	1.35	20	1.39	18
Promotional Aids	1.85	13	2.71	14	2.71	15	2.92	13
Cooperative Advertising	1.47	15	2.17	18	2.11	18	2.27	15
Price Guarantee	-	-	1.89	18	1.94	16	2.00	15

The lower the mean, the more important the incentive was considered by respondents.

Discount offered by the hotel companies in Malaysia was also ranked by the tour operators to be the most important in comparison with other incentives. Credit, however, was ranked second followed by price guarantee. Promotional aids was considered to be the least important.

As for the local operators, the order of importance placed by the tour operators were similar with that of national airline in the order of discount, price guarantee, credit, cooperative advertising and promotional aids.

Again, chi-square tests could not detect any significant relationship between the type of tour operating companies (independent/ part of a group) and the importance ranking of the various incentives offered.

The Strength of Relationship with Malaysian Tourism Organisations

The degree of contribution of the Malaysian tourism organisations to the familiarity of the tour operators with its destination products was measured by the strength of relationship. The relationship between the Malaysian tourism organisations and the tour operating companies under investigation can be described as efficient if the respondents reported very strong, strong and developing relationship. If they indicated that it was weak or poor, then there was no relationship at all.

Table 10.11 reveals that their relationships with the private sectors to be more efficient compared to the government bodies. However, the fact that 15 per cent of the respondents indicated weak relationship with the Tourist Development Corporation's (TDC) office in London should be a cause for concern. This is important if its roles of maintaining vital travel trade contact, as a point of distribution for the destination's range of tourist products as well as a source of marketing intelligence for NTO's marketing planning process (Middleton, 1988) were to be effective.

Table 10.11
The Strength of Relationship with Malaysian Tourism Organisations

Tourism Organisations	Very Strong		Strong		Developing		Weak		Poor & None		Mean* Value
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
TDC of Malaysia	-	-	5	29.4	6	35.3	3	17.6	3	17.7	3.29
TDC office in London	-	-	10	50.0	7	35.0	3	15.0	-	-	2.65
Malaysia Airlines	5	23.8	7	33.3	6	28.6	3	14.3	-	-	2.33
Hotels	6	28.6	12	57.1	3	14.3	-	-	-	-	1.85
Local operators	6	30.0	9	45.0	5	25.0	-	-	-	-	1.95

* The lower the mean, the stronger the relationship with the tour operators.

Relationship with the hotels appeared to be strongest with the mean value of 1.85. The explanation for this could be that they were in a sellers' market which enabled them to dictate terms to the local hotels. Local operators and Malaysia Airlines with recorded mean values of 1.95 and 2.33 came in second and third respectively. The fact that the relationship with Malaysia Airlines was ranked third in importance, revealed some form of resentment to the pricing policy on the part of the national airline. This was apparent during the interview with the tour operators. The reason for this was purely economic. The Malaysia Airlines was enjoying relatively high load factor and tended to be more selective in their dealings with the tour operators.

From the chi-square analysis, it was found that at 5% level the relationship with Malaysia Airlines depend on the type of tour operating companies. As can be seen from Table 10.12, 33.3 per cent of the independent tour operators reported inefficient relations with Malaysia Airlines. This problem may be related to inability of the independent operators to secure satisfactory economies of scale in terms of transportation cost due to size and volume limitations. On the other hand, those companies that belong to part of a group enjoyed a much better relationship.

Coupled with personal interviews, those tour operators who reported weak or poor relationships, were invited to suggest ways to improve the situation. With regard to the private tourism enterprises, their suggestions centred on the need to realise the importance of long-term mutual benefits.

Table 10.12
Relationship between the Strength of Relationship of Malaysia Airlines with the Type of Tour Operating Companies

Type of Companies	Very Strong		Strong		Devel-oping		Weak	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Independent	3	33.3	3	33.3	-	-	3	33.3
Part of Group	2	16.7	4	33.3	6	50.0	-	-

Chi-square: 9.10. Significant at $p < .05$.

Although they admitted that favourable exchange rates (as a result of the strength of Sterling against the Dollar to which the Malaysian Ringgit is linked) contributed to the considerable growth of holiday traffic to the country, there was still a need for them (Malaysian private tourism enterprises) to be more responsive to the general market conditions of the generating countries and be more competitive in their pricing policies in relation to its neighbouring counterparts. This point was again highlighted by the respondents when comparing airfares to Malaysia with those of Singapore and Thailand. As revealed by Table 10.13 and Table 10.14, airfares to Singapore and Thailand were considered cheaper in which Thailand was evaluated significantly more favourably than to Malaysia.

Superior flight frequency and seat capacity to those respective countries might have contributed to this differences (see Table 10.15).

With regard to the Tourist Development Corporation's representatives in London, the respondents felt that their presence should be justified with much more authority in decisions involving funding of promotional aids "without having to refer to Kuala Lumpur on every occasion." Another suggestion that would increase their involvement with the tour operator was to be more knowledgeable about the needs, wants and expectations of the British market.

The next section will focus on the comparative analysis of the tour operators' views on specific touristic attributes of the country viz-a-viz other destination countries within the region. This should be seen as a preceding stage to promotion in marketing planning. Questions relating to their problems, future potentials of Malaysia and recommendations will also be incorporated.

Comparison of Malaysian Touristic Attributes with Other Regional Countries

Tour operators were asked to compare and ranked Malaysia and other regional countries - Singapore, Thailand, Indonesia and Philippines across eight attributes. They were also asked to rank the satisfaction rating of each country, using the scale of 1 (offers very much/very satisfied) and 5 (offers very little/very dissatisfied). Data from the tour operators who had packages to the respective destinations were separated and used as the basis for comparisons. Independent t-test was then computed (Tables 10.13, 10.14, 10.16 and 10.17).

Results of the comparison of tour operators' beliefs between Malaysia and Singapore across the eight variables are presented in Table 10.13. It was evident that significant differences emerged between the two countries. The tour operators evaluated Malaysia significantly more favourably for two of the nine variables under investigation. The two variables were: value for money and price at the destination. On the other hand, Singapore was significantly better than Malaysia in health and hygiene factors; entertainment and accessibility. Although satisfaction rating between the two countries was not statistically significant, the direction of the result was more favouring Malaysia.

Table 10.14 presents the comparison findings of Malaysia and Thailand. The tour operators evaluated Thailand very favourably ($p < .001$) for entertainment factor. The other three significant variables were: quality and range of tourist amenities; accessibility and airfares to destination. Although value for money; health and hygiene factors and prices at destination between the two countries were not statistically significant, the trend of the results were favouring Thailand. A similar trend was also detected for satisfaction rating.

The tour operators' perceptions of accessibility to Malaysia in comparison to Thailand and Singapore seemed to correspond with the actual flight frequency and seat capacity per week into the respective countries as shown in Table 10.15 below.

Table 10.13
Comparison of Touristics Attributes/Satisfaction between Malaysia and Singapore

Variables	MALAYSIA		SINGAPORE	t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Value for money destination	1.950	19	2.895	-2.683c
Quality and range of tourist amenities	2.300	19	2.579	-0.758
Personal safety of tourists	1.900	20	1.421	1.821
Health and Hygiene factors	2.530	18	1.222	4.103a
Entertainment	3.017	18	2.111	2.465c
Accessibility	2.474	19	1.474	3.298b
Airfares to destination	2.421	19	2.158	0.8712
Prices at the destination	2.158	19	3.053	-2.635c
Satisfaction rating	2.000	19	2.158	-0.4834

* The lower the mean, the better the ranking by the tour operators.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two group had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of the sample variance was performed. The F test was less was than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 10.14
Comparison of Touristics Attributes/Satisfaction between Malaysia and Thailand

Variables	MALAYSIA Mean*	n	THAILAND Mean*	t**
Value for money destination	1.950	20	1.750	0.6112
Quality and range of tourist amenities	2.300	20	1.650	2.547c
Personal safety of tourists	1.900	20	2.450	-1.636
Health and Hygiene factors	2.526	19	2.263	0.9466
Entertainment	3.000	19	1.263	6.227a
Accessibility	2.474	19	1.789	2.489c
Airfares to destination	2.421	19	1.368	3.386b
Prices at the destination	2.158	19	1.895	0.7476
Satisfaction rating	2.000	19	1.684	0.9229

* The lower the mean, the better the ranking by the tour operators.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two group had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of the sample variance was performed. The F test was less was than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at p < .001
b Significant at p < .01
c Significant at p < .05

Table 10.15

Summary of Flight Frequency/seat Capacity Per Week Into Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand

Year	Malaysia		Singapore		Thailand*	
	FF	SC	FF	SC	FF	SC
1988	380	75,306	711	184,126	556	72,913
1989	419	83,340	820	207,363	599	76,129
1990	507	105,553	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

Source: Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia.
Note: FF - Flight frequency per week
SC - Seat capacity per week
* - include only schedule flights at Bangkok Airport.

Comparing Malaysia and Indonesia, it was noted that Malaysia was rated significantly more favourably by the tour operators for the following attributes: value for money; personal safety of tourists and accessibility (Table 10.15). Malaysia was also considered better for attributes on quality and range of tourist amenities; health and hygiene factors; airfares to destination and prices at destination between the two countries, though they were not were not statistically significant. The same trend was observed in the satisfaction rating.

Table 10.16
Comparison of Touristics Attributes/Satisfaction between Malaysia and Indonesia

Variables	MALAYSIA	INDONESIA		t**
	Mean*	n	Mean*	
Value for money destination	1.962	16	2.938	-3.142b
Quality and range of tourist amenities	2.315	16	2.813	-1.728
Personal safety of tourists	1.906	16	3.250	-3.694a
Health and Hygiene factors	2.524	15	3.133	-1.710
Entertainment	3.005	15	2.933	0.166
Accessibility	2.469	15	3.200	-2.115c
Airfares to destination	2.412	15	2.867	-1.159
Prices at the destination	2.153	15	2.800	-1.376
Satisfaction rating	2.010	15	2.800	-1.921

* The lower the mean, the better the ranking by the tour operators.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two group had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of the sample variance was performed. The F test was less was than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 10.17
Comparison of Touristics Attributes/Satisfaction between Malaysia and Philippines

Variables	MALAYSIA Mean*	n	PHILIPPINES Mean*	t**
Value for money destination	1.965	12	2.917	-2.57c
Quality and range of tourist amenities	2.313	12	4.000	-4.983a
Personal safety of tourists	1.926	12	4.083	-4.364a
Health and Hygiene factors	2.516	11	4.091	-2.987b
Entertainment	2.989	11	3.273	-0.6469
Accessibility	2.447	12	3.167	-1.618
Airfares to destination	2.433	12	3.583	-2.365c
Prices at the destination	2.169	12	3.583	-3.356b
Satisfaction rating	2.060	12	3.750	-3.596b

* The lower the mean, the better the ranking by the tour operators.
** Because it cannot be assumed that the two group had the same variance, a Bartlett's (F) test of the sample variance was performed. The F test was less was than or equal to .05 so the degree of freedom were adjusted and t based on the separate variance was used.
a Significant at $p < .001$
b Significant at $p < .01$
c Significant at $p < .05$

Table 10.17 presents a comparison of tour operators evaluation of Malaysia and the Philippines. Of the eight variables tested, Malaysia was rated favourably on six variables, namely: value for money; quality and range of tourist amenities; personal safety of tourists; health and hygiene factors; airfares to destination and prices at destination. For the satisfaction rating, again, Malaysia was considered to be favourably more significant than the Philippines.

Airlines Most Frequently Used by Tour Operators to send Clients to Malaysia

Tour operators in the survey extensively used inclusive tour excursion fares which were made available to them by the scheduled airlines. This was in contrast to the short/medium-haul destinations in which the majority of air tour passengers were carried on charter flights. For long-haul destinations, the volume of passengers did not warrant the introduction of charters. The exception to this was the agreements between the national carrier with two British tour operators to operate 42 round trips into Penang for 1989/90 in conjunction with "Visit Malaysia Year 1990" promotion.

In spite of the Malaysian government liberal policy on air charter, all tour operators in the sample were using seats on scheduled flights. Amongst the most frequently used airlines were listed in the Table 10.18. The national carrier, Malaysia Airlines led the table with 85.7%. Next came Singapore Airlines with 76.2% followed by British Airways with 38.1%. The fourth airline frequented was Thai International (19%). Based on this finding, it can be inferred that insufficient seat capacity direct to the destination would provide much more scope for expansion in terms of capacity/frequency of flights between Malaysia and the United Kingdom in the future.

Table 10.18
Airlines Most Frequently Used by Tour Operators to send Clients to Malaysia

Airlines	n*	%
Malaysia Airlines	15	71.4
Singapore Airlines	11	52.4
British Airways	8	38.1
Thai International	1	4.8
Qantas	1	4.8

* Number of total valid response = 21 (100%)
Response exceeds 100 per cent due to multiple response

Airlines Choice Criteria

Respondents were then asked to rank in order of importance the criteria they used in choosing the airlines. The three criteria suggested were: levels of fares available, levels of service and reliability. As shown in Table 10.19, levels of fares available were ranked number one criteria with the mean value of 1.650. This was an obvious choice in view of the need to keep cost and revenue advantages. The next two criteria - levels of service and reliability were considered to be of less important. This could be due to the built-in reputation of the scheduled airlines on those criteria.

Table 10.19
Airlines Choice Criteria

Criteria	Ranking 1		Ranking 2		Ranking 3		Mean* Value
	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Levels of fares available	12	60.0	3	15.0	5	25.0	1.650
Levels of service	4	20.0	5	25.0	11	55.0	2.350
Reliability	4	20.0	12	60.0	4	20.0	2.000

* The lower the mean, the more important the criteria to the tour operators.

Major Problems in arranging Holidays to Malaysia

The purpose of this question was to explore the tour operators' views on the problems faced when making holiday arrangements to Malaysia. In response to an open-ended question and the ensuing personal interviews, the following are the problems discussed:

i. Difficulties in getting seats (flight) and hotel accommodations during peak season. This was due to the "late booking phenomenon" experienced as customers were hoping for late-season price reductions. However, earlier tourist survey reported only between 1-2 per cent of the tourists booked their holiday less than 2 months before departures. It could, therefore, be implied that the problem might be linked to securing better contractual rates with the respective Malaysian suppliers during the peak season.

ii. Prices of tourist services and facilities in Malaysia are high in comparison to other regional destinations. Similar comments were reported earlier by the consumers' survey. Despite of this comment, with the exception of Thailand, Malaysia was evaluated significantly better value for money as well as better prices at the destination than Singapore, Indonesia and the Philippines.

Short-Term Prospect of Malaysia as a Holiday Destination

The potential of Malaysia as a holiday destination in the next five years is considered by the tour operators to be good in view of the following factors:

i. Growth in the long-haul market will continue as disposable income are increasing despite persistently high level of unemployment. Furthermore, long-haul packages generally share the characteristic of being "up-market" in comparison with short-haul travel.

ii. The British population is demonstrating a more mobile and adventurous nature than ever before.

However, its share of the market will depend on the ability of the Malaysian tourism authorities to improve its attractions as a holiday destination. The following areas were highlighted:

Tourism Product

i. The need to develop its special interest component of the product further to include Taman Negara (National Park) adventure and scuba diving. They believed that it was the special interest component of the long-haul market which has shown remarkable growth rather than the long-haul travel for its own sake. "Activity" packages particularly those centred on sun/beach and golf presently on offer could be improved in terms of quality and varieties.

ii. Basic public amenities at the beaches, handicraft centres (especially in the East Coast), shopping centres and hawkers centres has to improved to the European standard. Again, Singapore was quoted as an excellent example of how standards can be improved.

iii. Product quality whether they are handicrafts or attractions needs to be of desirable standard. They reckoned that Malaysia has a wide range of similar tourism products with the neighbouring countries, thus they need to be at par if not better. Not to mention the need to be different for marketing advantages.

Accessibility

i. The need of much more cooperation among the regional airlines -(Malaysia Airlines, Thai International, Singapore Airlines and Garuda Indonesia Airways) in promoting multiple destinations packages. Perhaps, this would involve special arrangements linking the first destination with other regional countries. Transportation arrangements on the consecutive sector of the package should be able to utilise either the first carrier or the respective countries airlines concerned.

Although this idea might not be new, the commitment of those concerned must be supreme if the concept of complementarity of the various destinations within the region were to be realised and the spirit of

"Visit ASEAN year 1992" was to prevail long into the future.

Destination Marketing

i. The need to increase awareness of the destination, its tourist products in the British market at least at the level of "Visit Malaysia Year 1990" campaign expenditures. Most tour operators interviewed felt that the campaign was instrumental in increasing the popularity of Malaysian packages.

ii. The need for the national carrier to project the destination more in its advertising campaign. Present campaign concentrating on its cabin services and connection networks to other regional destinations were considered to contribute little to the awareness of the country as a tourist destination.

While the results of the interviews as well as the findings of the tour operators' survey did reveal some constraints, it can be concluded that Malaysia is well positioned to remain competitive with other neighbouring countries. Therefore the hypothesis (H7) is generally supported.

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CHAPTER ELEVEN

CONTRIBUTION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

In Chapter 1, a general objective was presented which has been used to guide the direction of this study. The answers to and the findings associated with this objective have been presented in Chapters 9 and 10. This chapter will then discuss the contributions and implications to practitioners and researchers. A second purpose of this chapter is to note some of the study's limitations and a suggestion for future research.

The general objective of this study is to extend the existing body of literature regarding the buyer's decision process by investigating its application to the purchase of long-haul holiday to Malaysia. Buying a long-haul holiday is a complex decision with high involvement and deliberation as well as being an expensive and infrequently purchased. In this situation, the buyer goes through a five-stage decision process - 1) Problem Recognition, 2) Information Search, 3) Evaluation of Alternatives, 4) Purchase Decision and 5) Post-purchase Behaviour.

Contributions and Implications of the Study

In general, the study provides an understanding of the application of tourist's buying behaviour for long-haul vacation travel. It has several contributions and implications.

This study constitute a substantial contribution to destination image research. Destination image is a crucial component of a destination's tourism product. Malaysia has to strive to build its image around unique attributes which give her a competitive advantage and which can be marketed successfully. As such, the following suggestions were highlighted:

i. The tourists evaluated Malaysia very favourably on opportunity for rest and relaxation; scenic beauty and pleasant attitude of the people. They also indicated that these attributes are important to them. For tourism marketers, market positioning efforts should emphasise Malaysia's strength in these tourist-attracting features. However, it is important that the promotional materials not to build up unrealistic expectations which may be self defeating in view of the importance of personal sources of information in the decision process of the tourists.

ii. It provides useful empirical support for the tourism planners to identify specific areas for possible improvement in order to maintain and/or increase tourists satisfaction. Although most of the tourist-attracting attributes were rated favourably, however, there is still a need to further enhance its appeal and attractiveness.

iii. Comparative analysis involving neighbouring destinations provides a direction for policy makers and tourism marketers. In the context of multi-destination packaging to the region, the relative strength of each tourism product could be combined to form a more complete package.

iv. Both the Malaysian tourism organisations and British tour operators can gain a better insight of the tourists visit to Malaysia, their motivations, determinants and their experiences. An increased understanding of multiple needs of the tourists coupled with the views and suggestions of the tour operators as well as the tourists should provide sufficient information to help to the marketers effectively package and market the destination. However, the study also revealed the need for tourist practitioners to control their costs in order for Malaysia to remain competitive as well as to maintain its attractiveness to the potential tourists.

v. For the policy makers, there is a need for much more regional (ASEAN) co-operation among the airlines in the implementation of the complementarity concept of multiple destination packages to the region. This would involve special arrangement linking a first destination with other regional countries. Transportation arrangements on the consecutive sector of the package should be able to utilise the first carrier or the respective airlines concerned.

vi. Marketers can prepare effective communications targeting specific messages to specific targets through specific media. Communication messages targeted at the independent tourists, should also focus on the appeal of "sun, sea and sand" beside the top three motivational factors of "in search of new experience," "rest and relaxation" and "cultural attraction." As for the media, business magazine articles and advertisements as well as newspaper advertisements should be considered.

For the researchers, this study provides better ways of conceptualising and operationalising long-haul vacation decision process, an area which for so long have received no attention except from travel writers and travel consultants.

Limitations of the Study

Methodologically, the study has been limited in several ways. First, data for the study were collected by means of a questionnaire administered only to one of the family members. Although some researchers (Davis,1971) (Pough,1986) have argued that the questioning of one spouse should be sufficient if one's purpose is to describe behaviour on an aggregated basis, the questionnaire should be simultaneously administered to all family members to add more validity to the findings. However, a two-sample proportion test comparing the husband and wife perception of their respective roles in eleven sub-decisions were conducted.

Secondly, the data were collected after the tourist sample had already experienced their holidays and who were thus able to evaluate the destinations more realistically. The results, however, cannot be generalised to the targeted potential tourists because of the self-selection factor of the sample. Furthermore, sweeping generalisations about other generating tourists' markets buying behaviour for long-haul vacation travel cannot be assumed to be the same as the British. Differences may exist due to varied cultural and historical backgrounds, geographic origin, income level, to name a few.

Thirdly, as a result of the lengthy questionnaire, a possible effect of sample fatigue in the survey may have impacted on the accuracy of the data.

Suggestion for Future Research

Periodic replication of this study with larger sample sizes and different sample frames with a longer time span is needed. The diagnostic and timely information about the travel market can be crucial to the tourism success of the destinations.

Additionally, the study should be replicated by the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia. The validity can be increased by using enroute methodology. Although this method is widely used by the airlines to evaluate in-flight services and profile their passenger markets, it is relatively untouched by the National Tourism Organisations. Besides being uniquely free from "not at home" and "recall factors" enroute surveys are also effective in locating specific markets. Response rates of over 90% can be achieved if the travellers are asked at a propitious points in his/her trips and collecting the information in situ (Hurst,1987).

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Appendix A

Tourist Survey Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY · OF STRATHCLYDE

Head of Department: Professor Carson L Jenkins, BSc (Econ) PhD

Visiting Professors: The Hon Rocco Forte, MA FCA
Leonard Lickorish, CBE BA

The Scottish Hotel School

Curran Building
94 Cathedral Street
Glasgow G4 OLG

Tel: 041-552 4400
Telex: 77472 (UNSLIB G)
Fax: 041-552 2870

TOURIST SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Guest

You are one of a small group of tourists specifically selected to participate in this survey. Since relatively few people are being sampled, your response is very important to me.

The purpose of this survey is to analyse tourist buying behaviour of long-haul holiday destinations. The findings not only contribute to the understanding of the tourist decision process but would also help policy makers in the planning and development of tourism products.

Your time in answering this questionnaire would be very much appreciated. Kindly leave the completed questionnaire in the room to be collected by the housekeeping staff.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely

Muhamad Muda
Scottish Hotel School

SCOTTISH HOTEL SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF STRATHCLYDE
CURRAN BUILDING
94 CATHEDRAL STREET
GLASGOW G4 OLG
Tel: 041-552 4400

SECTION I

1. What is the purpose of your visit to Malaysia? If more than one, please rank them in order of importance.

   - [ ] Leisure
   - [ ] Business
   - [ ] Transit
   - [ ] Education
   - [ ] Visiting Friends/Relatives
   - [ ] Other (Please specify)

   ____

2. Is Malaysia your only destination for this vacation?

   - [ ] Yes
   - [ ] No

   If no, please specify other destinations

   ____
   ____
   ____
   ____
   ____

3. How did you make your travel arrangement?

   - [ ] Package holiday booked through travel agent
   - [ ] Package holiday booked direct from tour operator
   - [ ] Package holiday booked direct from airline
   - [ ] Independent holiday booked through travel agent
   - [ ] Independent holiday booked from airline

4. Please name the company from which you bought this holiday.

   ____

5. When did you make the booking for this holiday?

   Please indicate the date______________________

6. What motivated you to take this holiday? Please rank the following reasons in order of importance.

- [ ] Change of environment
- [ ] Cultural attraction
- [ ] In search of new experience
- [ ] See how others live
- [ ] Visit family and friends
- [ ] Adventure and excitement
- [ ] Sense of history
- [ ] Sun, Sea and sand
- [ ] New/Variety of cuisine
- [ ] Broaden education
- [ ] Rest and relaxation
- [ ] Prestige and status
- [ ] Keeping with the Joneses
- [ ] Other (Please specify)

____

7. **What triggered your motivation for this holiday? Please tick (/) the appropriate answer(s).**

- [ ] Increase in disposable income
- [ ] Children left home
- [ ] Annual vacation is part of lifestyle
- [ ] Attractive price
- [ ] Other (Please specify)

____

8. **What led you to be interested in long-haul vacation? Please tick (/) the appropriate answer(s).**

- [ ] Watching television commercials
- [ ] Watching television Programme - current affairs
- [ ] Watching television Programme - educational
- [ ] Reading magazine commercials - recreational
- [ ] Reading magazine commercials - business
- [ ] Reading magazine articles - recreational
- [ ] Reading magazine articles - business
- [ ] Reading newspaper commercials
- [ ] Reading newspaper articles
- [ ] Have not taken long-haul holiday before
- [ ] Recommendations from friends/relatives

SECTION II

1. Please list the destinations/countries or combination of destination/countries that came to mind when you first considered to take this long-haul holiday.

1. ______________________
2. ______________________
3. ______________________
4. ______________________
5. ______________________
6. ______________________
7. ______________________

2. How did you first become aware of these destinations/countries? Please rank the following sources in order of importance.

1. ☐ Recreational Magazine Advertisement
2. ☐ Business Magazine Advertisement
3. ☐ Newspaper Advertisement
4. ☐ Recreational Magazine article
5. ☐ Business Magazine article
6. ☐ TV Programme - current affairs
7. ☐ TV Programme - educational
8. ☐ Government Travel Brochure
9. ☐ Visit Malaysia Year Promotion
10. ☐ Radio Advertisement
11. ☐ Travel Agent's Recommendation
12. ☐ Radio Programme
13. ☐ Through Direct Mail
14. ☐ Friend s/Relatives Recommendation
15. ☐ TV Advertisement
16. ☐ Poster/Display
17. ☐ Travel Exhibition

3. Please list the destinations/countries that you had short-listed for further consideration.

1. ______________________
2. ______________________
3. ______________________
4. ______________________
5. ______________________

4. What were the factors or criteria that you used when reducing your original list (from Q1 to Q3)?

1. ______________________
2. ______________________
3. ______________________

5. What type of information source did you consult to help you reduced the list in Q3? Kindly rank them in order of importance.

1. ☐	Recreational Magazine Advertisement	9. ☐	Visit Malaysia Year Promotion
		10. ☐	Radio Advertisement
2. ☐	Business Magazine Advertisement	11. ☐	Travel Agent's Recommendation
3. ☐	Newspaper Advertisement	12. ☐	Radio Programme
4. ☐	Recreational Magazine article	13. ☐	Through Direct Mail
5. ☐	Business Magazine article	14. ☐	Friend's/Relatives Recommendation
6. ☐	TV Programme - current affairs	15. ☐	TV Advertisement
7. ☐	TV Programme - educational	16. ☐	Poster/Display
8. ☐	Government Travel Brochure	17. ☐	Travel Exhibition

6. Please list the destination/country or combination of destinations/countries that made up your final choice.

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________

7. What type of information source did you consult to help you reduced the list in Q6? Kindly rank them in order of importance.

1. ☐	Recreational Magazine Advertisement	9. ☐	Visit Malaysia Year Promotion
		10. ☐	Radio Advertisement
2. ☐	Business Magazine Advertisement	11. ☐	Travel Agent's Recommendation
3. ☐	Newspaper Advertisement	12. ☐	Radio Programme
4. ☐	Recreational Magazine article	13. ☐	Through Direct Mail
5. ☐	Business Magazine article	14. ☐	Friend's/Relatives Recommendation
6. ☐	TV Programme - current affairs	15. ☐	TV Advertisement
7. ☐	TV Programme - educational	16. ☐	Poster/Display
8. ☐	Government Travel Brochure	17. ☐	Travel Exhibition

SECTION III

1. How important do you think the following factors were in your decision to visit Malaysia. (Please circle the appropriate number)

	Very Important						Very Unimportant
Availability of recreational facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beach attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Historical and cultural interests	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Scenic beauty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pleasant attitudes of the people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Opportunity for rest and relaxation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Shopping facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entertainment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Availability of suitable accommodations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Accessibility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. In your judgement how much does Malaysia offer of the following?
(Please circle the appropriate number)

	Offer Very Much						Offer Very Little
Availability of recreational facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beach attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Historical and cultural interests	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Scenic beauty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pleasant attitudes of the people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Opportunity for rest and relaxation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Shopping facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entertainment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Availability of suitable accommodations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Accessibility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION IV

Please indicate the relative influence of each of the members of your household in making various decisions.

For example, if your husband (wife) was the only influencial person in the decision, (s)he would get all 100 points; if the children were, they would get the tot- 100 points, or if both you and your spouse were equal, each would get 50 points.

	H'band	+	Wife	+	C'dren	=	Total	No.of C'dren
1. decide to take this vacation	______	+	______	+	______	=	100	______
2. decide on information collection	______	+	______	+	______	=	100	______
3. decide on length of vacation	______	+	______	+	______	=	100	______
4. decide on individual or packaged travel	______	+	______	+	______	=	100	______
5. decide on period of vacation	______	+	______	+	______	=	100	______
6. decide on amount of money to spend	______	+	______	+	______	=	100	______
7. decide on whether to take the children	______	+	______	+	______	=	100	______
8. decide on kind of activities	______	+	______	+	______	=	100	______
9. decide on selection of lodging	______	+	______	+	______	=	100	______
10. decide on selection of final destination	______	+	______	+	______	=	100	______
11. responsible in making actual booking	______	+	______	+	______	=	100	______

SECTION V

1. Please indicate how satisfied were you with the following aspects of your holiday in each of the destinations/countries visited. Please write the number which represents your answer on the lines provided.

1	2	3	4	5
very dissatisfied	moderately dissatisfied	neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	moderately satisfied	very satisfied

	MALAYSIA	SINGAPORE	THAILAND	INDONESIA	PHILIPPINES
A. Your Accommodation					
Modernity of rooms	______	______	______	______	______
Toilet/shower facilities	______	______	______	______	______
Quality of food/drinks	______	______	______	______	______
Cleanliness	______	______	______	______	______
Efficiency of service	______	______	______	______	______
Friendliness of staff	______	______	______	______	______
Overall value for money	______	______	______	______	______
Indoor recreational facilities	______	______	______	______	______
Entertainment	______	______	______	______	______
B. Local Services					
Airport services - Immigration	______	______	______	______	______
- Custom	______	______	______	______	______
Outdoor recreational facilities	______	______	______	______	______
Quality of food/drinks	______	______	______	______	______
Banking	______	______	______	______	______
Shopping	______	______	______	______	______
Pleasant attitude of the people	______	______	______	______	______
Attitude of taxi drivers	______	______	______	______	______
Entertainment	______	______	______	______	______
Personal security	______	______	______	______	______
Hygiene and sanitation	______	______	______	______	______
Tourist information centre	______	______	______	______	______

C. Attractions

	MALAYSIA	SINGAPORE	THAILAND	INDONESIA	PHILIPPINES
City tour					
Plantation tour					
Cottage industry tour					
Cultural show					
Night life					
Architecture					
Historical interest					
Beach resort					
Water sport facilities					
Other recreational facilities					
Hill resort					

D. Price Level

	MALAYSIA	SINGAPORE	THAILAND	INDONESIA	PHILIPPINES
Flight to destinations					
Flight within destinations					
Local transportation					
Accommodation					
Excursion					
Food and drinks					
Package tour to destinations					
Shopping					
Entertainment					
E. Value for money					
F. Overall satisfaction					

SECTION VI

1. Which of the following categories includes your age?

- ☐ Under 25 years
- ☐ 25 - 34 years
- ☐ 35 - 44 years
- ☐ 45 - 54 year
- ☐ 55 - 64 years
- ☐ Over 65

2. Are you male or female?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

3. Marital Status:

- [ ] Married
- [ ] Widowed
- [ ] Single
- [ ] Divorced/Separate

4. Occupation

	You	Spouse
Professional	☐	☐
Management	☐	☐
Supervisory	☐	☐
Clerical	☐	☐
Manual	☐	☐
Housewife	☐	☐
Student	☐	☐
Retired	☐	☐
Self - employed/business owner	☐	☐
Other (Please specify)	☐	☐

____

5. Which group best describes your annual family income? (British Sterling Pound)

- [ ] £10,000 - 12,499
- [ ] £12,500 - 14,499
- [ ] £15,000 - 17,499
- [ ] £17,500 - 19,999
- [ ] £20,000 - 22,499
- [ ] £22,500 - 24,499
- [ ] £25,000 - 29,999
- [ ] £30,000 - 34,999
- [ ] £35,000 & above

6. What is your education level?

	You	Spouse
Secondary school	☐	☐
College	☐	☐
Polytechnic	☐	☐
University	☐	☐

7. Place of residence

______________	______________	______________
City/Town	County	Country

8. Do you have comment to add on your view of Malaysia as a holiday destination?

____

____

____

____

Appendix B

Letter requesting participation from
Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia

TOURIST DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION OF MALAYSIA
(MINISTRY OF CULTURE & TOURISM)
24-27 Floor, Menara Dato' Onn, Putra World Trade Centre,
45, Jalan Tun Ismail, 50480 Kuala Lumpur.
P.O. Box 10328, 50710 Kuala Lumpur.

Our ref : TDC/5041 Klt. 11
Date : 13 April 1991.

Dear

Re: SURVEY ON TOURIST BUYING BEHAVIOUR OF LONG-HAUL HOLIDAY DESTINATION TO MALAYSIA

We write to inform you that TDC will be co-operating with the University of Strathclyde, United Kingdom in undertaking a survey to analyse tourist buying behaviour of long-haul holiday destination. In particular, the study will focus on decision process of the British tourists to Malaysia.

Though this study is to be undertaken by the University of Strathclyde, United Kingdom, the result would certainly contribute to our understanding of this important market with obvious implications for future planning and marketing of our tourism products.

Due to the scope of the study, the most appropriate data collection technique is to administer the questionnaire through the hotels. Your hotel has been identified as one of twelve in the country with heavy concentration of British tourists and as such has been included in the sample selection for this survey.

The questionnaire is to be administered in the following manner:-

1. To leave the questionnaire in the room (preferably on the bed) of the British guests the night before checking out.

2. The questionnaire is only to be administered once a week. For those leaving on Monday in week one, on Tuesday in week two, on Wednesday in week three and so on until the end of three months period.

Immediately after the Hari Raya holidays, Cik Kalsom Kayat from TDC and Encik Muhamed from the University of Strathclyde will start on the implementation of the survey. In this regard, we would appreciate if you could let us have the name of the hotel's contact person for purposes of better co-ordination.

We look forward to your utmost support and participation. Thanking you in anticipation of your kind co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

(FARIDAH BT HUSSAIN)
Director of Research
for Director General
Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia.

c.c

Cik Kalsom Kayat,
Assistant Director,
Research Division.

Encik Mohamed Muda,
University of Stratchclyde,
United Kingdom.

Encik Mohd Rais Md Saman,
TDC - Penang,
10, Jln. Tun Syed Sheh Barakhbah,
10200 Pulai Pinang.

Cik Sharifah Loon Syed Danial,
TDC - Southern Region,
No. 1, 4th Floor,
Kompleks Tun Abdul Razak,
Jalan Wong Ah Fook,
80000 Johor Bahru.

Cik Zaini Sulaiman,
TDC - Terengganu,
2243, Ground Floor, Wisma MCIS,
Jalan Sultan Zainal Abidin,
20000 Kuala Terengganu.

Encik Abdul Halim Annuar,
TDC - Sarawak,
2nd Floor, AIA Building,
Bukit Mata Kuching,
Jalan Song Thian Cheok,
93100 Kuching.

Encik Mokhtar Mokyat,
TDC - Sabah,
Ground Floor, Wisma Wing Onn Life,
No. 1, Jalan Sagunting,
88000 Kota Kinabalu.

MM/FH/pd.

Appendix C

Tour Operators' Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY • OF STRATHCLYDE

Head of Department: Professor Carson L Jenkins, BSc(Econ) PhD

Visiting Professors: The Hon Rocco Forte, MA FCA
Leonard Lickorish, CBE BA

The Scottish Hotel School

Curran Building
94 Cathedral Street
Glasgow G4 0LG

Tel: 041-552 4400
Telex: 77472 (UNSLIB G)
Fax: 041-552 2870

5 August 1991

Mr. Bill Archer
AIRWAVES
2A Deodar Road
Putney
London SW15 2NN

Dear Mr. Archer,

Re: Tour Operators' Questionnaire on Malaysian Tourism

I am a Malaysian postgraduate student at the University of Strathclyde preparing a research study on the potential of Malaysia as long-haul holiday destination for British market. I have recently undertaken field-work in Malaysia, and now would be very interested to have your company's opinion on Malaysia's potential as a tourism destination. The enclosed questionnaire I hope will be interesting rather than onerous reading. I would appreciate you completing it and returning it to me in the stamped self-addressed envelope provided.

If you agree, I would in a later stage of my study like to have an opportunity to discuss my project with you. Please be assured that this enquiry is not commercially sponsored; it is an integral part of my doctoral programme and all information and comments received will be regarded as confidential.

I would welcome your co-operation with this enquiry.

Yours sincerely

Muhamad Muda
Scottish Hotel School

1. How would you describe your company?

   (   ) Independent

   (   ) Part of a group

2. When did your company begin trading?

   Please indicate the date __________

3. In an average trading year, how many holidays are sold by your company?

   ____

4. What percentage of the sales are for holidays in:

   (   ) South East Asia

   (   ) Malaysia

5. When did you start selling Malaysia as a holiday destination?

   Please indicate the date ____________

6. Do you currently (1991) sell Malaysia as:

   (   ) A single destination

   (   ) Part of regional itinerary

   (   ) Stop-over

7. In order of importance (1,2,3,etc.) which of the following destinations most frequently feature in your holiday arrangements?

   (   ) Kuala Lumpur

   (   ) Penang

   (   ) The East Coast of Peninsular Malaysia

   (   ) The Highland Resorts/Casino

   (   ) Malacca

   (   ) Johore
   (   ) Sarawak

   (   ) Sabah

   (   ) Other Resorts (Please specify)

   ____

8. How do your clients rate holidays in Malaysia?

( ) Very good value for money
( ) Good value for money
( ) Poor value for money

9. What are the main disappointments reported by your clients after returning from a holiday in Malaysia?

____

____

____

10. In up-dating your knowledge of Malaysia, which of the following methods are most important to you? Please rank them in order of importance.

( ) Familiarisation tours to various destinations in Malaysia

( ) Travel trade workshops participation

( ) Calls on your office by TDC's London officials

( ) Direct mailings of tourist literature/newsletter

( ) Cultural Nights/Evenings

( ) Trade advertising

( ) Others (Please specify)
____

11. Which of the following incentives offered by Malaysian tourism organisations are most important to you? Please rank them in order of importance by the scale of 1 - 5; 1 = Very Important and 5 = Not Important

	TDC	Malaysia Airline	Hotels	Local Operators
Credit	____	____	____	____
Discount	____	____	____	____
Promotional Aids	____	____	____	____
Cooperative Advertising	____	____	____	____
Guarantee against price fluctuations ...	____	____	____	____

12. How would you describe the strength of your relationship with the various Malaysian tourism organisations? Please circle the appropriate number that applies.

	Very Strong	Strong	Devel-oping	Weak	Poor	None
TDC of Malaysia	1	2	3	4	5	6
TDC office in London	1	2	3	4	5	6
Malaysia Airline	1	2	3	4	5	6
Hotels	1	2	3	4	5	6
Local operators	1	2	3	4	5	6

(b) If any was weak or poor, kindly suggest ways to improve the situations.

TDC of Malaysia: ____

____

____

TDC office in London: ____

____

____

Malaysia Airline: ____

____

____

Hotels: ____

____

____

Local operators: ____

____

____

13. In comparison with other regional countries, that is, Singapore, Thailand, Indonesia and the Philippines, how would you rank Malaysia within the following categories:

Please rank them on the scale of 1 - 5;

1 = Offer Very Much/ Very Satisfied and 5 = Offer Very Little/ Very Dissatisfied

	M'SIA	S'PORE	THAI	INDO	PHI
Value for money destination ..	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Quality and range of tourist amenities	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Personal safety of tourists ..	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Health and hygiene factors ...	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Entertainment	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Accessibility	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Airfares to destination	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Prices at the destination.....	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Satisfaction rating	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

14. Which airlines do you use most frequently in sending your clients to Malaysia?

1. ______________________________

2. ______________________________

3. ______________________________

15. Do you choose airlines on the basis of the following criteria. Please rank them in order of importance.

( ) levels of fares available

( ) levels of service

( ) reliability

16. What are the most difficult problems in arranging holidays to Malaysia?

____

____

____

17. How do you regard the potential of Malaysia as a holiday destination in the next five years?

____

____

____

18. What should the tourism authorities in Malaysia do now to improve its attractions as a holiday destination?

____

____

____

Would you be agreable to have further discussion on this project?

____Yes, please call for appointment   ____No