DELEGATION IN TOURISM DECISION MAKING:

TOWARD AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE ROLE OF SOCIAL SURROGATE

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

Tourism is often a group-based activity, but tourism decision-making research has primarily focused on individual decision making and who makes decisions in families. However, there are numerous situations in which individuals do not make decisions for themselves, effectively delegating decisions such as where to visit, stay, or eat to others in their travel party, called "social surrogates." Unlike traditional surrogates described by prior researchers, social surrogates are not part of a formal business relationship and often participate in consumption. The purpose of this study was to investigate delegation of decisions to social surrogates and to determine which attributes lead to delegation.

A nationwide web-based survey (n=404) found that decision delegation to social surrogates frequently occurred in travel environments. The study also revealed that there are two separate factors comprising decision delegation: the desire to defer a decision and the desire to make a choice ("choose").

Two structural equation models were tested. The first model found that decision-making style affected decision delegation. Additionally, results provided evidence that desire to defer decisions and desire to make a choice are not clear opposites, but are separate components of decision delegation. A second model revealed that high purchase involvement, desire to control others, relinquishing control, and propensity to make risky decisions led to the desire to choose. A desire to relinquish control led to deferring decisions, as did low purchase involvement. Decision delegation also was

found to be more likely in situations in which the decision-maker felt that others had more relative experience and expertise.

Decision delegation to social surrogates was found to be common in tourism. Results suggest it would be incorrect to assume that individuals make all of their decisions, so all customers may not be of equal importance to tourism marketers. Some individuals may have little to no role in choice (as they defer decisions), while others (social surrogates) may hold great influence over others (by making decisions). Results suggest that individuals may defer about half of restaurant and activity decisions in tourism. Thus, identifying who actually made the decision may be an important prerequisite to understanding tourism consumer behavior.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is at its core a social activity, and tourism activities are usually group-based (Decrop, 2005; Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Smallman & Moore, 2010). Parents take their children on vacations together to strengthen family bonds. Newlyweds begin their married life together with a honeymoon, and many couples vacation together before wedlock to cement their bonds (or even to test their compatibility). Social groups, like the Red Hat Ladies, take cruises together for recreation. Even solo travel is not asocial. Individuals often travel to visit friends and relatives (called VFR travel). For example, over half of Americans (56%) traveling internationally listed VFR as a purpose of their travel (OTTI, 2012). Even those traveling alone on leisure vacations are often seeking companionship, whether encountering fellow travelers in a hostel to share adventures with, locals in coffee shops to chat with, or even romantic liaisons, as evidenced by the best-selling book *Eat, Pray, Love*.

Research is rich in tourism consumer behavior as researchers have explored how tourists make decisions, and many models have been developed to explain tourist decision-making behavior (see Decrop, 2006; Jeng & Fesenmaier, 2002; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Smallman & Moore, 2010 for summaries). These models of tourist decision making have traditionally been derived from those in the consumer behavior field. For example, Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard's (1990) model of decision making

describes a five step consumer decision-making process: 1) problem recognition; 2) information search; 3) evaluation 4) purchase; and 5) post-purchase processes. They proposed that first, a consumer is perceived to have a need or motivation to be met. Then they use information they already have (sometimes from their own memories) in addition to external sources of information prior to evaluating and comparing choice options and then purchasing an item. After purchase, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are considered to be part of the post-purchase processes. Models similar to this one have been used by tourism scholars (e.g. van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Moutinho, 1987) in order to describe tourist decision making as a consecutive process. These models have been described by Decrop (2006) as "process models."

Decrop (2006) also reviewed "structural models," problem-solving models based on funneling. Within these models, choice of a vacation destination is said to be a result of choice sets. Consumers begin with an "awareness set" and this set is whittled down (or funneled) into subsequent sets, resulting in an eventual destination choice. Um and Crompton (1990, 1992) and Woodside and Lysonski (1989) have detailed these models of destination choice. While they may show that purchase options are narrowed down before making a final purchase, these models typically concern only destination choice and consider only a limited number of influential variables on a single vacation decision (destination choice).

While both process and structural models may be intuitive, there are many ways in which tourist decision-making behavior is different from the goods-focused decisions typically explored in consumer behavior research. Unlike most purchases of consumer

goods, in which the outcome is defined at the beginning of a search process, in tourism settings the outcomes that a tourist seeks may be unclear or evolve throughout tourism experiences. Tourist decision making is complex, reaching beyond the initial destination decision to individual aspects (or sub-decisions) of the vacation. A traveler may start on a road trip with a final destination, but the choices made along the way may evolve with the journey. It has been argued that tourist decision making consists of major decisions (the decision to take a vacation and the primary destination) followed by many minor decisions (such as where to stay, what to do, and where to eat), many of which may be made onsite or even without previous planning. Thus, travel behavior can be described as a continuous process (Smallman & Moore, 2010).

Based on a review of previous research in tourist decision making, Jeng and Fesenmaier (2002) concluded that travel planning is multi-dimensional (many decisions) and sequential. They determined that information search is followed by information processing and a decision process. Tourism decision making was said to be not just sequential, but also contingent, in that each decision limited the options for subsequent decisions.

At the core of tourism decision making models are several assumptions. First, as with many models from consumer behavior, they assume rationality of the decision maker. Second, tourism decisions are thought to have high risk and high uncertainty, with high involvement in the choice (Bargeman & van der Poel, 2006). Also, although researchers (e.g. Moutinho, 1987; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989) have admitted that others play a role in the decision process (primarily during the information search

phase), most models have focused on an individual decision, instead of exploring how others impact travel decisions.

Smallman and Moore (2010) also criticized decision-making research in tourism as being too closely derived from general consumer behavior research, without taking the unique aspects of tourism into account. While step-by-step models may be intuitive, they have been argued to lack explanatory power because tourists (and their decision processes) are often not homogeneous (Decrop, 2006; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). While much tourist consumer behavior research assumes that travel decisions are thoroughly planned, Smallman and Moore (2010) noted that emergent research has started to challenge this belief. In one example, Bargeman and van der Poel (2006) found that for many individuals, much of travel decision making is routinized, so rational choice models may not be appropriate.

Alain Decrop has challenged traditional models of individual travel decision making through several articles (Decrop & Snelders, 2004, 2005; Decrop, 2005, 2010) and a book (Decrop, 2006) outlining exceptions to these assumed models and detailing ways in which others impact travel decisions. By interviewing travelers longitudinally, Decrop (2006) found that the generic decision of whether to take a vacation was not necessarily the first decision (hypothesized by Crompton, 1977). Vacation planning was often adapatable, with decisions evolving over time, and often impacted by others. Thus, Decrop (2006) concluded that decision making should not be considered to be sequential, but conceptual. Additionally, accompaniment, accommodation, transportation and budget were major criteria for vacation decision-making, rather than

simply destination. The current study is based on the premise that others may play major roles in travel and that decision-making heuristics may not be consistent across decision environments.

Because most travel includes group contexts (Smallman & Moore, 2010), studying individual decisions may lead to inaccurate conclusions. Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) stated that most models consider individual decision makers "as if they were in a vacuum" (p. 829) and ignore outside influences. Additionally, researchers have often interviewed only one of the individuals in a choice process (Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995). Traditional individual decision-making models have typically used the individual as the unit of analysis and discounted the group and social aspects of travel, even though others frequently influence trip activities.

Decades ago, Mayo and Jarvis (1981) proposed that "a study of the psychology of travel would be incomplete if we did not examine how individual travel behavior is influenced by other people" (p. 227). Many trips would not be taken if there were no social influences. For example, without having someone to travel with, many individuals may prefer to stay at home rather than to travel alone. The destination selected may also be dependent on one's travel companions. Additionally, a destination may be selected to visit friends and family, who then influence (or even select) touristic experiences at the destination on behalf of the traveler. There are even situations in which a person plans an entire trip, then invites others to join. These are only a few examples where individual decision making models would most likely not be predictive or even appropriate.

Thus, while tourist decision-making research has traditionally investigated individual decisions, vacation decisions are usually made jointly or syncretically (Decrop, 2005). Acknowledging that individuals do not act alone in decision making, researchers have expanded on individual decision making into decisions made by heterosexual couples and families in travel and tourism. Researchers (e.g. Jenkins, 1978; Litvin , Xu, & Kang, 2004; Wang, Chen, & Chou, 2007) have investigated the role of the husband and wife in travel decision making, studying who makes which decisions (husband-dominant, wife-dominant, or syncretic), including vacation sub-decisions. In a review, Decrop (2005) found that men dominated final decisions (such as to go or not), while women often proposed vacationing, as well as destinations. Women were often found to take the lead on the practical details, including information search, booking, and preparing. Gender roles were occasionally divided based on spousal roles (e.g. men handled cash and currency needs, while women assisted children with preparation). Beyond couples, researchers (e.g. Filiatrault & Ritchie, 1980; Wang et al, 2007) have considered family travel, including the role of children in influencing vacation travel and travel decision making. Thus, there are certainly more aspects to tourist decision-making than would be predicted by a singular individual's choice or preference.

Aside from travel in family situations, people also travel with groups of other friends and family members. For example, a group of college friends may take a spring break trip together, British groomsmen may take a "stag" trip to the Czech Republic, or multiple retired couples may travel together on a cruise. Gitelson and Kerstetter (1995) found that not only did 75 percent of all travel groups in a visitor study include friends

and relatives, but that all travel decisions were influenced by friends and/or relatives. Furthermore, it is not safe to assume a singular travel party for all vacations. For example, a couple may not always travel as a couple. Decrop (2005) iterated that individuals may be a part of several tourist decision-making units (DMUs) simultaneously, including being part of a couple, a family, and/or friends for different trip occasions. Different decision-making processes may be used for different DMUs.

Decrop (2005) also warned against predicting choice in groups based on individual preferences when dealing with groups of friends because variables such as goals, desires, and expectations are likely to differ among group members. Travel parties of friends are likely distinct from families and couples, as distribution of decision roles is different and understanding aspects like group cohesiveness, interaction, and power relationships in tourist decisions is important (Decrop, 2005). Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) suggested that some people may not even care where they travel, as long as they are with friends, which was supported by Decrop (2005), in that group participation often took precedence over individual opinions.

Overall, Decrop's (2005, 2006) research has shown that group processes in vacation decision making are different than individual and family decisions, and models used to describe individual decision making may not be appropriate in a group setting. For example, linear decision-making models (need identification, followed by information search, etc.) would not describe an individual who was invited by a friend to join on a cruise. Vacationers are often flexible or adaptable, and may take advantage of vacation opportunities as they arise, based on "availability, opportunities, or passing

moods."(Decrop, 2006, p. 67). Thus, a traditional view of choice funneling may not apply to a great number of vacationers.

Despite the findings of Gitelson and Kerstetter (1995) and Decrop (2005), research is still severely lacking in the tourist decision making of groups. Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) agreed that "the role of the travel party has been marginalized in most tourism models" (p. 829), as joint decisions by groups of friends have been ignored (Decrop, 2005). For decades, researchers have also called on more investigation into joint and group travel decision making (Cohen, Prayag, & Moital, 2013; Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Without an understanding of the roles that others play in decision making, it is likely that decisions will not be fully understood, and practical implications based on decision making research will not be as accurate as potentially possible. This paper will thus further explore tourist decision making in groups.

Most of this research has derived from a role-taxonomical perspective (Decrop, 2005). In other words, of primary concern is who makes the decision and the role different family members had in the decision-making process. Overall, these researchers have revealed that travel decisions are not made without the influence of others, in particular the travel companions. Thus, addressing travel and touristic activities without considering social role and interactions would likely provide an incomplete picture of a complex phenomenon.

In their focus on role taxonomy, researchers have identified who typically makes travel decisions in couples and families. Figuring out which individual dominates

decision making seems to be logical from a marketing perspective in order to target a message to the appropriate decision maker. Yet, even when a party "dominates" a decision, researchers have shown that he/she does not have sole influence (e.g. Jenkins, 1978; Litvin et al, 2004), as other travel companions still play a role in decision-making processes. To unilaterally dominate a decision would make little or no sense in a joint consumption experience, like travel (e.g., "You will go with me to Montana whether you like it or not!"). While it may be theoretically interesting to determine who dominates decision making in order to determine who to market to (as suggested by Jenkins, 1978 and Wang et al, 2004), practical uses are limited, especially now that the research points to a majority of decisions being made jointly.

Additionally, investigating who makes a decision is only a piece of the decision-making puzzle, as the inverse poses many areas in which to expand on this research: who is *not making* the travel decisions. In other words, it is important not only to understand which individual is making a decision but also how and why travelers would allow another to make a decision on their behalf.

Decrop (2005) acknowledged this decision delegation in tourism environments, particularly considering groups of friends. When friends traveled together, often decisions were not individual (taken by and on behalf of the individual) or group (based on group discussion). Instead, decision delegation often occurred, in which a leader usually emerged who made decisions on behalf of the group. The results of this decision were usually not met with frustration because it was argued that friends were willing to sacrifice their personal desires in order for someone to organize things. Although

individual desires were suppressed, it was not felt to lower satisfaction, because group participation was believed to be more important than selection of an alternative. Individuals essentially suspended their desires due to commitment to the group. Thus, Decrop (2005) concluded that agreement and consensus were more important than the actual decision which was made. Yet, Decrop's qualitative research included only a handful of individuals, and these ideas have not been explored in depth by other tourism researchers.

There are many situations in which someone is enlisted to make a decision on behalf of another. Consumers who lack the ability or motivation to "negotiate the marketplace" may find a surrogate to help them simplify the purchase process (Solomon 1986). Solomon (1986) proposed that a surrogate may be used throughout a consumer decision-making process for information search, determining a choice set, evaluation of alternatives, and/or to make a purchase. Thus, their role varies from informational (providing options) to completing the entire purchase process on behalf of an individual.

Within a tourism environment, a traveler may consult a travel agent to provide them with information or to book a trip. Or, in hospitality, a diner may rely on a wine steward to select a wine on their behalf. This "surrogate" has been defined as "an agent retained by a consumer to guide, direct, and/or transact marketplace activities." (Solomon, 1986, p. 208). Essentially, the consumer may delegate a decision (or a portion of the traditional decision-making process) to someone else. For example, the surrogate may assist in information search or establishing a choice set (e.g. a travel agent), evaluating alternatives (e.g. a wine steward), and even making the purchase for

the traveler. Despite the prevalence of decision delegation and surrogate usage, it has been argued that consumer behavior researchers have neglected this area of study (Aggarwal & Mazumdar, 2008; Solomon, 1986), as have tourism researchers. What is clear from the definition of the surrogate is there are many situations in which individuals do not wish to navigate a decision process on their own.

Aside from a formal surrogate situation, in which an individual formally hires or procures a surrogate (such as a travel agent) to negotiate the marketplace, *informal* decision delegation also seems to be prevalent in groups of travelers. For example, one traveler may plan a trip on behalf of a group of friends, taking on all aspects of planning. Or, while on vacation, one person may select the restaurant where an entire group will eat dinner, controlling all aspects of the decision. During a trip, different aspects may be delegated, with one individual taking care of transportation and hotel arrangements, while others do relatively no planning. There are also situations in which a person may select a vacation destination individually, then invite others along. Decrop (2006) found evidence that individuals may agree to join on the vacation, even if it is a place they had never thought about visiting. In a more limited example, a potential traveler may ask friends or family for ideas on what to do or visit at a destination, essentially delegating a portion of the information search process (Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995).

Despite the prevalence of instances in which travelers rely on others to make decisions for them, none of these travel situations would clearly fit within previous individual decision making models. Nor do they meet the definition of a surrogate as

defined in the consumer behavior literature. This research will thus focus on decision delegation in groups of individuals traveling together.

Need for Study

Understanding how individuals make choices is important to providers of goods and services. Tourism researchers have adapted models from the field of consumer behavior, often modifying them to account for some of tourism's unique attributes. These include sequential choice processes, usually beginning with problem identification, choice sets, and rational choice behavior models (e.g. Moutinho, 1987; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Um & Crompton, 1990). However, there is considerable evidence that travelers do not make decisions alone or within a vacuum (Decrop, 2006; Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995). Thus, it is very possible that in tourism choice settings, consumers may make choices differently than in product choice environments.

Within tourism, researchers have focused on aspects such as information search and narrowing of alternatives (e.g. Crompton, 1992). While this research has covered a broad range of situations, certain individuals may approach the choice process differently. The assumption that every traveler, purchaser, or consumer is an active participant in the purchase process may be incorrect. Indeed, a traveler may actually make a single decision about a trip: whether or not to go. Thus, they may leave the planning, including destination, hotel, and dining choices, to someone else. Some may simply acquiesce with travel choices made by others, while many may simply enjoy the experience or the company of others, regardless of the destination or activity decision. If

marketing efforts may be considered most effective if they are directed at the key decision-makers, identification of alternate types of decision-making is likely important from both managerial and theoretical perspectives.

This research benefits travel providers by helping them to better understand the ways in which travelers make decisions. Attracting tourists is a core prerequisite to destinations and attractions benefitting from tourism. It is equally important for other service providers, such as restaurants and hotels. Businesses within these fields often use market research to better understand their clientele. Tourism bureaus survey departing passengers, and hotels email guests surveys after departure. However, these surveys are focused on the individual and make the assumption that each person surveyed was the one most responsible for the experience. There is an unstated assumption that individuals care about where they visit and what they do on vacation. However, there may be a portion of people to whom the destination, restaurant, or activity is irrelevant. They may have a larger zone of tolerance for activities, as long as they are with certain people. Or they may have personality or preference traits that lead them to follow others, defer choices to others, or delegate others to make decisions on their behalf.

Researchers have begun to acknowledge that not all travel decisions are made individually (Decrop, 2006; Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995). In fact, many travel decisions may have been made by others. Thus, to determine why individuals visited a destination or a restaurant may have little to do with their own travel or dining preferences respectively. It may have more to do with what type of individual the traveler is. If

there are differences between individuals based upon how they make decisions (for example, those who rely on others to make choices and those who make choices for others), it may be stated that each type of traveler is not equal from a marketing perspective. In this simple binary example, the individual who influences others and who makes choices on behalf of others may be the individual more worthy of marketing attention than the one who follows the lead of a friend or travel companion.

This research may provide further evidence that every customer (despite their spending patterns) is not created equally. Delineating consumers on factors like motivation, demographics, and spending patterns, likely ignores the influential role of others, in particular social surrogates, in decision making. Just as hotels seek to reach meeting planners who bring in a large number of guests, many individuals may have an outsized influence on where others go, stay, and/or do.

Marketers have begun to take steps to reach online influencers, such as those who are major participants in online review sites and who write blogs (Moses, 2013). Yet, influence is not limited to those with online followers. Within individual social networks there may be influencers. Understanding what attributes are unique to these individuals (e.g. involvement, decision-making style), may help marketers to understand how to reach these individuals, who cannot be easily identified by their public online activity.

In a similar manner, marketers may benefit by knowing the types of individuals who do not wish to make decisions, or are content with letting others make decisions for them. Perhaps designing a travel experience for these individuals would come with as

little personalization as possible—allowing them to maximize their encounters with others instead of giving them choices about what to do, eat, or enjoy.

Understanding a personality type may not immediately lead to marketing actions. For example, all decision making types may not ingest the same media. However, better understanding of customers based on the ways they make decisions and the way they influence others is likely a stepping stone to marketing to this important customer.

From a theoretical perspective, this research expands the knowledge of decision making. First, in regard to the composition of the travel party, it concerns a wider range of travel environments than simply an individual or traditional nuclear family. Many trips are taken outside of these limited contexts, and different choice or behavior patterns may emerge. By separating traditional family (e.g. mother, father, and child) dynamics from choice scenarios, it is possible that different choice processes would emerge. Second, this research considers not only individual preferences in decisions, but how decisions are actually made. While others have been said to be influential in choice (through information search and destination selection, for example) this research expands this line of research from influence on choice to actual choice.

The current study also hopes to theoretically expand current decision choice models. Often it appears that individuals do not enter traditional choice models. Some may make routinized purchases. Others may elect to have another enter the decision process on their behalf, or they may simply follow the decision made by another, essentially reducing their choice to a binary decision: to go with someone (to a restaurant, on a vacation, to an activity) or not. At other times, they may help narrow the

choice set but have no input in the final purchase decisions. Formal surrogates, in which an individual hires or appoints a professional such as a travel agent or interior decorator, to assist in choice processes, has been addressed but not fully explored. This research acknowledges that others in a social or family group consuming the same experience also may take on the role of a surrogate—in this case a social surrogate.

Thus, this research should serve two major purposes. From a marketing perspective, it may shed light on another way to delineate customers: by the way in which the decisions were made. There is evidence that while a customer may have a similar spending profile as another, without the social influence of a fellow traveler or diner, he may not have purchased the product or service that he consumed. Thus, this research begins to provide ways to identify and differentiate individuals based on the ways in which they influence others, or allow others to make decisions for them.

From a theoretical perspective, this research intends to investigate the observed phenomenon of individuals making decisions on behalf of others, as well as individuals permitting (either explicitly or implicitly) others to make travel and vacation decisions on their behalf. First, this research will identify and describe the social surrogate. Further, it will identify what types of personality traits and decision traits may lead to the usage of a social surrogate. This is an extension of previous research, focusing on the individuals' roles (or collection of individuals, as in the case of family travel) in decision making. Understanding the traits and characteristics of these individuals is a primary step in delineating and explaining the phenomenon of social surrogates—the individuals appointed (or allowed) to make decisions for others accompanying them.

Conceptual Overview

What makes this area of interest unique from other decision-making studies? First, decision delegation does not fit within most previous individual or group decision making frameworks. It is not an individual decision made on behalf of one individual. Neither is it a true group decision, because the decision is not actually made by the group. Instead, the individual (or a group) allows another, or others, to make decisions on their behalf. Thus, it does not fit within traditional group decision-making models which typically include aspects like active discussion, voting, and consensus. By neglecting the study of decision delegation, both researchers and marketers are being given an incomplete picture of how decision making occurs in touristic environments. Simply looking at the opinions or actions of a single traveler may result in missing the true reason and methods through which decisions are being made.

Additionally, while research exists into family decision making, it is likely that groups behave differently than families when making decisions. First, there is likely no formal power structure (e.g. parent-child, husband-wife) governing the choice scenarios. Second, groups of travelers are often informal, with different goals and less formal relationships than families. For example, Decrop (2006) found that groups were often more interested in being together than the actual decisions made, which would likely lead to decision delegation. If this is actually true, than marketers (and researchers) would benefit by understanding who ends up making these decisions and how decisions are made in groups, in order to better meet their needs.

Additionally, this research differs from the research into formal decision delegation and surrogates. First, a surrogate is formally hired or procured in order to undertake a marketplace activity. For example, a travel agent may be retained to book a trip on behalf of a client, or a wine steward may be formally asked to select a vintage on behalf of a diner. However there are travel situations in which a decision maker may be formally appointed, informally appointed, or even inferred. Second, the model of a surrogate is based on the assumption of an individual purchaser, and researchers have investigated situations in which an individual (not a group) hires a surrogate to operate on one person's behalf. The travel scenario to be investigated here is travel outside of simply the immediate family.

Third, and possibly most importantly, a surrogate does not participate in the consumption or benefit of the decision. The wine steward does not drink the wine, and the travel agent does not participate in the travel. On the other hand, in many travel decisions, the decision-maker is both a decision-maker and a participant. An individual may select an excursion in which an entire group participates (including the decision maker). In this situation, others benefit from the decision as well. Thus, decision delegation in tourism appears to be unique from individual, group, and surrogate decision-making models.

While previous decision-making models have provided a way of simplifying certain types of decision making (such as destination choice), it has been shown that there are many exceptions. Marketers making decisions based on the naïve assumptions of earlier models may be failing to truly understand their customers (especially travelers

in groups), reach their customers, and meet their needs. Thus, this research is expected to offer the theoretical contribution of better explaining tourism decision making, while also providing ways in which to improve the function of tourism and destination marketing.

In summary, the research into individual tourist decision-making is rich, but there are many gaps. First, decision-making has focused on the individual unit of analysis, ignoring the fact that a majority of travel occurs within social situations. Second, decision-making models have been derived from consumer behavior without considering aspects unique to tourism. Additionally, the decision-making models assume a linear decision process in which decisions are made in an orderly, often funnel-like process, in which one choice precedes another. However, there may be situations in which steps within these models (or even the entire choice process) are not made by the traveler. Instead, others may be making these decisions.

This research seeks to build a better understanding of groups of individuals traveling together. In particular, it will investigate how decision delegation operates in a travel environment. Among the questions it seeks to answer are:

1) Under what circumstances does decision delegation occur in tourism?
2) What role do social surrogates have in tourism decisions?
3) What role does decision-making style play in decision delegation in tourism?
4) What attributes and traits lead individuals to delegate decisions?

Answering these questions will likely enrich the research in tourist decision making, which is of great concern to both researchers and tourism-centered businesses. By understanding how groups of individuals make decisions, tourism providers should be better be able to understand, communicate with, and attract consumers. Second, this research will hopefully expand models of decision-making which have been accepted for years into models that may more accurately describe travel experiences in which multiple individuals travel together.

While travel is at its core a social activity, many social aspects have been ignored while investigating tourist decision making. Most extant research into multi-person tourist decision making has centered on family or couple decision making. While this is a welcome extension of the traditional decision-making models, many group travel situations operate outside of the individual and family travel environments. Following the suggestions of Decrop (2006) and Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995), this research will investigate social and group tourist decision making in order to fill this knowledge gap.

Finally, this research has applications beyond the tourism field into consumer behavior. By identifying and exploring purchase situations (in this case travel) in which informal decision delegation is found to occur, it will likely open up a line of inquiry into this phenomena which can be applied to other fields.

Overview of Paper

This paper will be presented as follows. In the next chapter, tourist decision-making research, including individual, family, and group decision making studies, will

be summarized, along with a brief look at its antecedents in consumer behavior. The role of decision delegation and the surrogate in individual decision making will follow. Chapter III outlines the conceptual framework and models for understanding decision delegation in travel groups. These models are built on assumptions that have been stated by tourism researchers as well as models of surrogate usage from consumer behavior. Chapter IV describes the methods for the current study. The results are presented in Chapter V, while the hypotheses tests are presented and discussed in Chapter VI. The concluding chapter, Chapter VII, summarizes the results and discusses implementations of the research.

This study proposes that without addressing social impact of tourism, individual tourist decision making research likely does not fully address potential decision making behavior.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The introduction previewed the current research on decision making and decision delegation in tourism and introduced the need for the current study. In order to set the stage, this review of literature will address two related but separate topics in consumer behavior. The first general category is decision making, in particular tourism decision making. Assumptions and propositions about decision making will be presented before looking at individual studies. Consumer behavior models which have been adapted to tourism settings will first be presented. Then, prominent studies of individual, couple, and family decision making in tourism will be reviewed. This will be followed by an introduction to interpretive frameworks which have been used to describe complex tourism behaviors, including group decision making.

The second major topic is decision delegation. Although numerous researchers have shown the prevalence of decision delegation in consumer behavior contexts, including tourism, the literature is not well developed. This literature review will synthesize previous research in decision delegation, and discuss the research of several tourism researchers who have identified (either explicitly or implicitly) occurrences of decision delegation in tourism environments. Following this chapter, conceptual models will synthesize these two topics into a model for decision delegation in travel environments.

Decision Making in Consumer Behavior

Decision-making models in tourism have evolved from decision-making models in consumer behavior. Engel (1968) identified four major steps in decision making: problem recognition, external search for alternatives, evaluation of alternatives, and the purchase process. This logical and linear progression describes the process an individual goes through while selecting a consumer product, and was proposed to also apply to family decision making (Engel, 1968). Over time, this model has been adapted to acknowledge that search for information may be internal (e.g. memory) or external (e.g. seeking or receiving information from others). Although this problem solving model is quite intuitive and logical, Engel (1968) recognized that it would not be appropriate for all decision-making scenarios because "there simply are not enough hours in the day" (p. 16) to use a complex process for simple purchases. Thus, Engel (1968) originally provided a clear caveat that this is not a universal process.

Since this original model, the hypothetical decision-making process has been extended to include post-purchase outcomes. Engel et al's (1990) model, derived from Engel (1968), included these steps: 1) motivation and need recognition, 2) search for information, 3) alternative evaluation, 4) purchase, and 5) outcomes. They argued that, even once an item is purchased, outcomes like satisfaction and repurchase intention could affect future decision making. Thus, they were included in their decision making model. However, exploring the effects of decision delegation on satisfaction and repurchase intention is outside the scope of this study.

Engel et al (1990) also explained exceptions to their process, such as situations in which an individual may skip problem solving steps. Each decision scenario faced by a consumer could be considered on a scale from extended problem solving (most complex and requiring an extensive decision making process) to impulse buying (least complex and often requiring only an abbreviated process). For example, some purchases could be considered "limited problem solving" (the example given by the authors was purchase of toilet paper) in which these steps would be abbreviated. They also delineated "habitual decision making," in which a consumer may skip the external information search and alternative evaluation stages entirely in repurchasing an item that is frequently purchased. It is important to note that Engel et al (1990) realized that their decision making model was not universal, but could be used as a guide to decision-making behavior. Additionally, their model was used primarily to explain purchases of consumer goods, not services.

Another key ancestor of the research into tourism decision making is Howard and Sheth's (1969) theory of buyer behavior, which developed in the general consumer behavior literature before being adapted into tourism. In particular, Howard and Sheth focused on *brand* choice behavior, considering motives, alternative courses of action, and decision mediators. They proposed that a buyer simplifies "the total sequence of behavior necessary to make a purchase…by reducing the number of steps and ordering them in a definitive sequence" (p. 476).

Howard and Sheth (1969) proposed that the consumer develops an evoked set, a small number of alternatives. Then decision mediators (sets of rules to match motivation

with satisfaction) are used to narrow and make a choice from this evoked set. Like Engel et al (1990), Howard and Sheth (1969) felt that it would be useful to incorporate consumption in the purchase process. Even after purchase, learning may occur as an unsatisfactory purchase might be removed from the evoked set for future purchases. Likewise, a satisfactory purchase could increase the probability of a repeat purchase. Howard and Sheth (1969) also acknowledged that not every decision process is alike as there may be extensive problem solving, limited problem solving, and routine response behavior.

While considering individual choice models, Howard and Sheth (1969) stated that there are social influences on decisions. They proposed that information comes from two primary environments: 1) the commercial environment (e.g. advertisements, marketing), and 2) the social environment (e.g. family friends, reference groups, and social class). They further hypothesized that, in situations in which buyers lacks experience, the social environment may affect the evoked set. This indicates that decision making does not necessarily occur in a vacuum or as a solely internal process, but that others may impact decisions.

Perspectives on Tourism Decision Making

Despite limitations of applying goods-based decision principles to purchase of experiences like leisure trips, tourism researchers have borrowed from consumer behavior models to integrate the aforementioned concepts into tourism decision-making models. Researchers have considered the "choice" to be selection of a vacation

destination (e.g. Um & Crompton, 1990, 1992), although many researchers have extended this to "sub-decisions," which may include where to stay, how much to spend, and what activities to participate in while on a vacation (e.g. Jenkins, 1978; Litvin et al, 2004).

Researchers have also identified several ways to classify decision making research in tourism. Bronner and de Hoog (2008) divided previous research into three perspectives: individual choice, information search, and collective decision-making in families. Thus they felt that previous research could be delineated based on the unit of analysis (individual or multi-person) and the information used by the decision-making unit.

Decrop (2006) split tourism decision making into three general categories: microeconomic models, cognitive models (including structural and process models) and interpretive frameworks. He described microeconomic models to be those based on mathematical models of utility maximization, while structural models include choice sets, and focus on traveler variables and outputs (preferences, intentions and choices). Process models, as categorized by Decrop (2006), are concerned more with how the decision is made than the decision itself. Finally, he used the term "interpretive frameworks" as a general category of decision making research. These frameworks, sometimes evolved from grounded theory, acknowledge that tourism is more complex and ongoing than described in previous models.

Smallman and Moore (2010) presented a more complex typology of four approaches to tourist decision making based on the epistemology (method for studying

decision-making) and ontology of the tourist. They proposed that variance studies (causal analysis and modelling of processes) yield weak theories about tourist choice, and they recommended "process studies narrating emergent actions and activities."

In order to set the stage for the current research, this literature review will use a combination of these perspectives. First, individual choice (including structural and process models) will be addressed, followed by collective decision-making in couples and families. Then, interpretive frameworks (including emerging viewpoints) will be reviewed. While study of non-familial groups is rare, these studies will be included in the discussion of interpretive frameworks. Throughout this review, there will be a focus on the role of others in decision making processes. Additionally, a few articles on information search will be reviewed which relate directly to influence of others on decisions. After discussing tourist decision making, consumer behavior research on surrogates and decision delegation will provide a framework through which to investigate decision delegation in tourism.

Assumptions in Tourist Decision Making

Before exploring tourism decision making in more detail, several assumptions common to much of the tourist decision-making research should be mentioned. The first common assumption is that individuals use bounded rational decision-making models (derived from March & Simon, 1958) in which the decision maker is assumed to maximize utility from their choices (Moutinho, 1987; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Um & Crompton, 1990). Thus, travelers are perceived to make logical decisions.

There is also the premise that travel decisions are extremely important to the consumer and require a long, detailed search process before settling on a vacation destination. When compared to consumer goods purchases, vacations are considered to be emotionally significant decisions (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). Because of the cost of vacationing, in both time and money, as well as potential stress, trip decisions are also assumed to be high risk (Gitelson & Crompton, 1983; Mansfeld, 1992; Um & Crompton, 1992). Moutinho (1987) further stated that tourism offers no tangible rate of return. Following this, destination decisions have been said to be "high-involvement" purchases, in which the traveler undergoes extensive information search as they weigh potential travel options (Bronner & de Hoog, 2008; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005, Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007; Um & Crompton, 1992). This extensive information gathering has been said to be a risk-reduction strategy (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005) allowing tourists to make "better" decisions by collecting information about options prior to purchase.

Further, it has been proposed that destination decisions are made over a long period of time (Moutinho, 1987; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007), beginning with the "generic" decision to take a vacation (Crompton, 1977). Following this generic decision, many models assume a sequential decision-making process, in which choices are narrowed, a destination is then selected, which is followed by sub-decisions (where to stay, how much to spend, etc.) (Bronner & de Hoog, 2008; Um & Crompton, 1992).

Overall, Sirakaya and Woodside's (2005) review of the decision-making research in tourism concluded that consumers are believed to follow a funnel-like process.

Destination choice decisions are assumed to be sequential in nature (van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Woodside & King, 2005) and many researchers have argued these decisions are comprised of sets (Decrop, 2010; Um & Crompton, 1990; Um & Crompton, 1992; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Within choice set models, the traveler divides potential destinations into choice sets (consisting of lists of potential destinations) before settling on a destination. The average size of each of these choice sets is typically small (Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Woodside & Ronkainen, 1980), meaning that individuals select from only a small amount of potential destinations.

In a review of the literature on travel decision-making, Jeng and Fesenmaier (2002) delineated three propositions, similar to other researchers. First, travel decision making is multidimensional, meaning that it is complex with many decisions. Second, it is a sequential information search, processing, and decision process. Third, travel decision making is contingent, meaning that each decision made is dependent on a previous one.

This "funneling" process limits future decisions based upon earlier ones. For example, once a destination is selected, a person begins seeking lodging at that destination. They also argued that not all decisions are made before departure. Some decisions are made early in planning, and others are determined en route. Jeng and Fesenmaier's (2002) statement that "travel decisions are often not static but a process of resolution" (p. 27) seems to indicate that simple models of tourist decision making may not incorporate all aspects of a tourist's decision.

These assumptions are best mentioned before reviewing the research in tourism decision-making because they form the basis for much of the research in tourism decision making. As with many assumptions in consumer behavior, it should not be taken for granted that all of these presumptions have been shown to be true, and later research has shown exceptions. Thus, after a discussion of tourism decision making models, several criticisms will be presented.

Individual Decision Making in Tourism

Following consumer behavior research, tourism researchers have primarily considered individual decision making. Likewise, many models proposed by tourism researchers were derived from general decision-making models. Van Raaij and Francken (1984) followed Engel and Blackwell (1982) in designing their five-step vacation sequence: 1) generic decision, 2) information acquisition, 3) joint decision making, 4) vacation activities, and 5) satisfaction/complaints. Key points of their model include that a generic decision (whether to travel) occurs first, and that the vacation experience itself should be considered in understanding vacation behavior. They proposed that individual influences (e.g. attitudes, expectatiions, aspirations, values, needs, and experience) as well as household influences (e.g. life-style, time orientation, decision-making style) would be useful in understanding the tourist.

Moutinho (1987) created a conceptual "vacation tourist behaviour model" which was argued by Decrop (2006, p. 35) to be "the most encompassing process model so far" and most of the more recent models could be considered less comprehensive.

Moutinho's (1987) model includes dozens of variables to describe information acquisition and use of this information to make a decision. Overall, this model divides behavior into three parts: 1) pre-decision and decision processes, 2) post-purchase evaluation, and 3) future decision-making. Of the greatest relevance for this study is the first part of the model: the decision process. Moutinho (1987) hypothesized numerous influences (e.g. environmental influences, personality, lifestyle, motives) on the pre-search process, in addition to the characteristics of the search process itself (including preferences, intention, travel stimuli, search, evoked sets, and choice criteria). While numerous variables are usually considered in a tourist's decisions, they have typically been vaguely defined and not operationalized clearly**.**

A strength of Moutinho's (1987) model is that it considers the role of others in the vacation decision. Although focused on individual choice, it acknowledges that travel decisions are "very much affected by forces outside the individual" (p. 5). He grouped social influences into four categories: role and family influences, reference groups and individuals, social classes, and culture and subculture impact. These encompass both broad (e.g. social class) and narrow (e.g. family) categories of social influence. Moutinho (1987) proposed that, even when a decision is taken without much communication with others, that information search often includes group members as sources of information.

While Moutinho's (1987) model is very thorough, there are several criticisms. It is extraordinarily complex. As opposed to researchers like Engel (1968) who readily admitted that the search process may be abbreviated, Moutinho mentioned that the

consumer considers "all relevant attributes" of each destination alternative, which sounds impossible. Additionally, Moutinho's complex model focuses only on destination choice. While sub-decisions (e.g. when to go, where to stay) are mentioned by Moutinho (1987), they are not considered in the model. If such a complex model is required simply to decide whether and where to go on vacation, then it could be questioned how many individuals would undergo such a complex cognitive decision simply for leisure. Further, the cognitive processing required for each sub-decision may likewise be burdensome beyond practicality.

The social role of others (including family members) is considered, but the model still refers to an individual decision. For example, the role of the travel party is considered only as a reference group, not as a co-decision maker. No empirical study has been conducted to support the model, and it also assumed utility maximization, which has been challenged by other researchers (Bronner & de Hoog, 2008; Decrop, 2006).

Um and Crompton (1990) used choice set modelling to describe tourist destination choice for pleasure travel. Their model of choice behavior has been a staple in describing destination choice. They built a two stage approach to selecting a destination. In the first stage, they argued that an evoked set evolved from an awareness set. This evoked set was purported to include all destinations considered to be reasonable alternatives for the traveler to visit. After an evoked set has been established, the destination could be selected from this choice set. They further proposed that a decision of whether or not to take a trip would occur simultaneously or before an evoked

set emerged. They tested this model using 100 individuals in a longitudinal study, which measured individuals' narrowing of a choice from an awareness set to an evoked set to a destination choice.

While a majority of the respondents processed their destination choice options in this manner, there was a major exception. Twenty-four of the individuals proceeded directly from an awareness set to destination selection without identifying an evoked set. While these respondents reported that no alternative destinations were considered before making a selection, Um and Crompton (1990) "interpreted that this did not mean they had no evoked sets, but rather that the awareness sets which were identified in the first survey might be their evoked sets" (p. 443). Therefore, Um and Crompton (1990) reconceptualized some respondents' awareness sets to be evoked sets, concluding that an individual could not skip from awareness to selection without an evoked set. This will be revisited in the discussion of emerging frameworks.

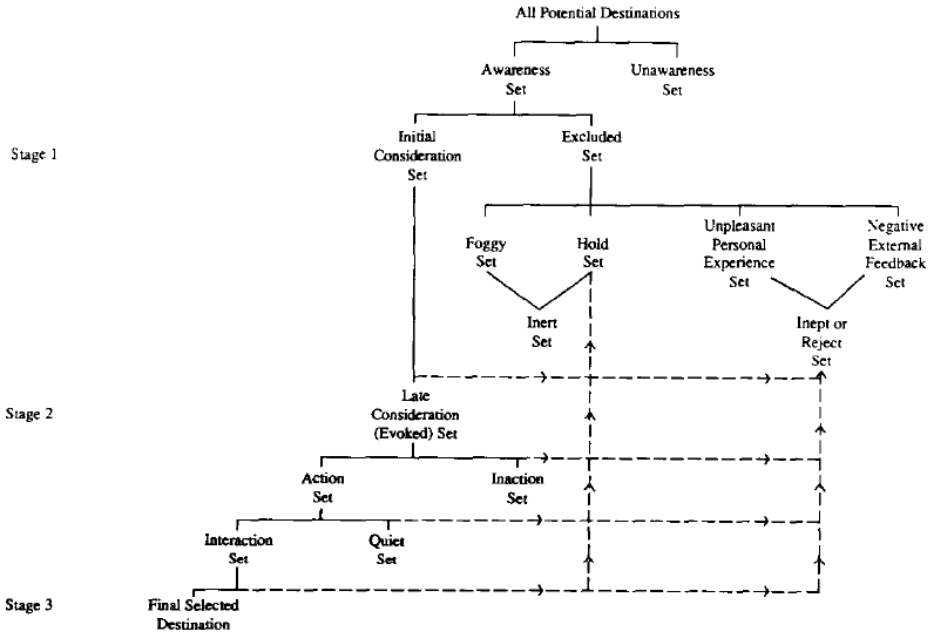
Um and Crompton (1992) extended this research by introducing constraints to the choice set models. They concluded that in the early stages of destination choice that perceived facilitators (such as destination image) are more important, but, by the time the choice sets are whittled down, perceived inhibitors, or constraints, reflect more on destination selection. Um and Crompton (1992) concluded that people tended to be risk-reducers in decision making, as they strongly consider constraints when making decisions.

In their contribution to the understanding of choice sets, Woodside and Lysonski (1989) created a general model of traveler destination choice. Based on previous

literature (including Narayana & Markin, 1975), they expounded on four choice sets in their model: consideration set; inert set (consumer has rejected); unavailable and aware set; and inert set (consumer has neither a positive nor negative evaluation). In a sample of 92 students who had traveled, they found that consumers can put destinations into one of the four categories of destination awareness. Woodside and Lysonski (1989) concluded that their model of traveler destination choice was a "simple and useful description of traveler awareness, preference, and choice of competing destinations" (p. 14). While this research helped to describe the choice sets of destinations considered (or not considered) by potential travelers, it did not address decisions which were actually made.

Crompton (1992) provided a more comprehensive model than Um and Crompton (1990, 1992) (See Figure 2.1). Along with evoked sets and awareness sets, three full stages of choice set funneling, with additional sets, such as excluded sets (comprised of inert and inept sets), action and inaction sets, and interaction and quiet sets were proposed. A model, called structure of destination choice sets, was provided and explained, but not empirically tested. Crompton (1992) acknowledged that choice set models were assumed to be useful only for non-routinized decisions.

Figure 2.1: Tourism Choice Set Model (Crompton, 1992)



Petrick, Li, and Park (2007) investigated decision making to test Crompton's (1992) choice set model among cruise passengers (n=72), finding mixed results. One category of passenger emerged that could be described as rational decision makers who underwent a funneling, or choice set, process in selecting a particular cruise. However, a majority (n=56) knew they were taking a cruise as soon as they decided to take a vacation, so they did not use a choice set model. Nearly all of this group (n=53) were repeat cruisers, so brand loyal tourists' decision-making behavior appears to be an exception to the choice set models. Overall, choice set models, which have been proposed to be used by consumers to funnel choices, seem to be logical. Yet, they cannot be considered to be universal across all tourism decision scenarios.

Couple Decision Making in Tourism

Research in decision making began with a focus on individual decision-making, including individual decision-making and choice models (e.g. Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lyonski, 1989). However, based on the premise that travel is at its core a social activity (Decrop, 2005; Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995; Smallman & Moore, 2010) often undertaken in pairs or groups of travelers, some researchers have argued that study of multi-person decision making units is important (Filiatrault & Ritchie, 1980; Jenkins, 1978; Litvin et al, 2004; Wang et al, 2004; Wang et al, 2007). Research expanded into decision making of heterosexual couples ("marital dyads") and "traditional" nuclear families (mother, father, and children), each of which will be discussed here. Typically, this research has focused on which individual(s) in the decision-making unit had which portion of influence on a decision.

The examination of couples' decision making in tourism was the first major extension of tourism decision making outside of an individual context. Jenkins (1978) followed the lead of Davis (1970, 1976) who had researched couples decision making in the field of consumer behavior. Jenkins (1978) surveyed 105 married couples in Columbus, Ohio, about the vacation decision making in ten decision areas: the total vacation decision, collection of information, whether to take children, how long to stay, date/time of year; transportation; amount of money to spend; kind of activities; what lodging; destination point(s). He sought to understand who had primary influence on the decisions. Within the survey, each respondent allocated 100 points among the husband and wife regarding who had influence on the decision. In other words, if a husband felt

he had 60 percent of the influence over a decision, he would attribute 60 "points" to himself and 40 to his wife.

Based on the results, decisions were divided into three categories: husband-dominant, wife-dominant, and joint (both husband and wife have exactly the same influence). Overall, two decisions were stated by both husbands and wives to be husband dominant (how long to stay and the date of the vacation), and two decisions (whether to take the children and transportation mode) were said to be joint (each party having the same influence) by both parties. The remainder of the decisions were split among who was perceived to have the most influence.

Jenkins (1978) also considered relative influence of husband, wife, and children in vacation decision making as perceived by the husband and wife separately. He identified what percentage of the influence was due to each of the three parties. Overall, the adults had the most influence, but children were an influence on many factors including where to stay, date of vacation, kinds of activities, and destination. In fact, children dominated some decision areas, like types of activities (with more influence than husband or wife separately).

Jenkins' (1978) research had many limitations. First, whether a decision was stated to be 99-1 or 51-49, it was considered to be dominated by one party. Second, only descriptive statistics were presented, so statistical significance of the different influences were not reported. For example, there may not be a statistical difference between a 51-49 husband dominant decision and a 49-51 wife-dominated decision. Additionally, gender roles have changed in the decades since the survey, and husband-dominant decisions

may be less common (Litvin et al, 2004). To underscore how dated Jenkins' (1978) research is, 79 percent of the respondents paid less than $30 a night for lodging. Despite these weaknesses, the results showed that joint decision-making is very important in many different vacation decisions and sub-decisions, suggesting that studying only individual decision making is not appropriate for travel in groups such as families. Within a group, each individual traveling likely has some influence on many different vacation decisions.

Litvin et al (2004) revisited Jenkins' study across cultures, using very similar methods with two samples: 215 Singaporean couples (430 individuals) and 297 travelers in Kansas regarding eight vacation decisions. Most of the 16 decision pairs (8 decisions; 2 samples) were joint. However, the researchers did not present an important point. No more than 62% of the sample for any decision said that a decision was joint. In other words, for every decision, at least 38% of the sample felt it was dominated by one or the other person. The total vacation decision differed greatly from Jenkins (1978). In Jenkins' study, the "overall vacation decision" was considered to be husband-dominant in 39% and a joint decision by 30%. Litvin et al (2004) found that 57% in Kansas and 60% in Singapore labeled the overall vacation decision as a joint decision. This indicated that spousal roles have likely undergone an equalization process in the intervening decades.

When comparing husband and wife perceptions, one noticeable difference appeared in two categories in the Kansas sample. Women felt they dominated the decision for information collection (58% felt the decision was wife-dominant) and

lodging (43%). However, men also felt they had the most influence over each of these decisions, as 59% felt that information collection was husband-dominant and 41% felt that lodging decisions were husband-dominant. Litvin et al (2004) concluded that subdecisions are not made in a uniform manner and perceptions of decision influence among a travel party are not necessarily shared.

Filiatrault and Ritchie (1980) surveyed 177 couples with children (354 individuals), and 153 couples without children (306 individuals) about relative influence of husband and wife. Each person was asked to rank relative influence of the husband and wife (and children if applicable) on seventeen vacation decisions using a continuum totaling 100 points of influence. Overall, the husband was shown to have significantly greater influence than the wife on nine of seventeen decisions, especially budget, length and timing of the vacation. However, even for items such as budget, which was found to be husband dominant (husband held 65% of influence), the wife still had a meaningful level of influence (35%). In families with children, children had a low level of influence, ranging from 2% (vacation budget) to 20% (whether to take a vacation this year). However, Filiatrault & Ritchie (1980) did not dismiss the influence of children because, although not high in percentage, children had a "real impact" on decisions. Their conclusion makes logical sense, for if children actually had no influence on vacations, then children's museums, children's zoos, playgrounds at fast food restaurants, and character breakfasts at Disneyland (perhaps even Disneyland itself) might cease to exist.

Nichols and Snepenger's (1988) study of 1,753 families traveling in Alaska, reiterated previous research, finding that 66 percent of couples used joint decision making overall. Wife-dominant (13%) and husband-dominant (21%) decision-making were found in a minority of respondents. There were few demographic differences between the decision-making styles, but it was found that parties utilizing joint decisions planned earlier and were more likely to use friends and family as information sources.

Mottiar and Quinn (2004) also studied vacation decision making using a snowball sample of 67 people (31 couples plus five individuals). Overall, they concluded that the female member of a couple dominated the early stages of decision making (who initiated the discussion, and who collected information), but all other aspects studied were undertaken jointly (except for "who booked the holiday" which was female-dominated). Another finding is that, in agreement with Litvin et al (2004), often individual members in a couple responded differently to a question, indicating the importance of surveying couples as individuals instead of as one unit. However, the small sample size and sampling method may mean the results are not generalizable.

In an extension of couples' decision-making research to seniors, Wang et al (2007) surveyed 293 senior Taiwanese tourists. Given a list of vacation decisions and sub-decisions, each was asked to what degree the husband, wife, and "others" had influence over each decision. Influence was listed on a six-point scale from "all of the influence" to "no influence at all" (resembling a similar study by Belch, Belch, and Ceresino, 1985). Most of the decisions were considered to be joint, although husbands dominated how much time to spend and how much money to spend. "Others" were

shown to have some influence on decisions (including travel agency and tour leader), but overall they had less influence than the couple. This is not surprising, as it would be logical to hypothesize that the travelers had more influence over their travel than others not traveling. This research assumed a travel party of a couple, and it did not consider other group contexts (such as groups of friends). However, it should be noted that only one member of each couple completed a questionnaire and that the sample was 55% male.

Van Raaij and Francken (1984) suggested that in joint decision making, many processes (including negotiation, bargaining, persuasion, coalition formation, and discussion) may play a role in how decisions are made. Thus, while understanding which party made the final decision is important, it is not the only variable to consider. For joint decisions, the decision-making process itself is also important.

Bronner and de Hoog (2008) expanded the previous research beyond simply who influences decisions by studying how decisions were made. They studied 137 couples (274 individuals) in the Netherlands using a longitudinal study to investigate how decisions were made within couples and what negotiation tactics were used to find an acceptable decision. Using a 100 point scale of influence (husband, wife, children) similar to Jenkins (1978), the study revealed all of the decisions considered were determined to be joint decisions by both members of the couple. They determined that vacation decisions within families included discussion, information search, and disagreement resolution strategies. Of particular interest was the disagreement-resolution strategy used in joint decision making. The most dominant strategy was found to be the

golden mean (give-and-take to result in a compromise). Secondary was persuasion, with delegation occurring in a small percentage of disagreements. They also investigated if there was a correlation between satisfaction with the choice process and overall vacation satisfaction, finding there was significant correlation between the two. Thus, they concluded that choice processes may impact satisfaction with a vacation.

Jang et al (2007) expanded choice set theory to couples by interviewing 100 couples in Korea about their honeymoon destination choice. They found that individuals had their own choice sets, but that each member of a couple added some of the others' alternatives into their choice set in order to build a final choice set. Thus, they concluded that the aspects of individual choice sets could be extended to couples' decision-making. However, there were situations in which a destination was selected that was in neither party's original choice set, indicating that choice set models for couples are not always true funnels. Following Um and Crompton (1992), Jang et al (2007) also found that constraints played a major role in choice.

The research into heterosexual couple decision-making indicates that each member of a travel party may have a different opinion of who has the most influence. However, most decisions are felt to be undertaken jointly. While the definition of "joint" decision may differ among couples and across studies, this suggests that using the individual as the sole unit of analysis for multi-party travel situations may be unwise.

Family Decision Making in Tourism

Children's influence on decision making was a natural extension of couples' decision making and has often been examined in the same study. Jenkins (1978) and Filiatrault and Ritchie (1980) initially addressed children's influence, and found that children had a small influence on many decisions (such as how much to spend) but had a larger influence on other aspects, such as whether to take a vacation (Filiatrault & Ritchie, 1980) and activities undertaken on a vacation (Jenkins, 1978).

Wang et al (2004) studied family roles in the decision-making process for group package tours. Respondents were 240 Taiwanese individuals (172 mothers, 68 fathers, and 35 children over age twelve). They had each participant list the perceived influence (1=no influence to 6=all the influence) of each party on decisions. These consisted of three generic decisions: problem recognition (i.e. proposing the vacation), information search, and final decision; and thirteen sub-decisions (e.g. accommodation, airline, shopping). Influence of the children was significantly less for all decisions and sub-decisions. However, children had a large influence (>4) on departure day (likely due to school schedules), restaurants, and kinds of activities.

In this study, statistical differences were used to gauge relative levels of influence. Overall, all decisions were joint (husband-wife), except information collection, shopping, accommodation, and travel agency. However, as discovered by Litvin et al (2004), each individual felt he/she had a larger influence on information collection. Because a significantly larger number of women than men completed Wang et al's (2004) survey, the results showing wife-dominant decisions is in need of more

research. Another interesting result is that for every sub-decision, both husbands and wives identified that they had an influence of 4 or greater on a 6-point scale. Logically, this indicates that individuals felt that influence was shared across every decision.

A few general conclusions can be made about spousal and family decision making. Each member of the travel party (including children) has the ability to influence decisions, even if they are not the final decision maker. Children's influence is limited both in impact and to particular aspects (e.g. activities). This is logical because a family vacation will need to accommodate children, but they likely do not control the purse strings. Early papers showed more of a dominant role of the husband in many decisions. While not all studies agree on relative influence, many researchers have indicated husbands and wives share decision making for vacations (e.g. Litvin et al, 2004; Nichols & Snepenger, 1988; Wang et al, 2007) . Researchers have considered married heterosexual couples and nuclear families, but research into other travel groups is lacking. Study of single parent families (recommended for study by Decrop, 2008; Wang et al, 2004) unmarried couples, recomposed families, and same-sex households (recommended by Decrop, 2008) have been proposed to expand the understanding of familial travel decision making.

Group Decision Making in Tourism

As has been noted, individuals, married couples, and two-parent families have been addressed in tourism decision-making, but they are certainly not the only units which travel. Five hospitality and tourism decision-making units were identified by

Decrop (2008): singles; couples (married or not); families (two parents or single parent); groups of friends; and associative groups (e.g. sororities, school groups, associations, sport clubs). Decrop (2008) stated that groups of friends, for example, are an increasingly important hospitality/tourism decision making unit (DMU), but few studies have focused on this DMU.

Smallman and Moore (2010) iterated many reasons for study of the group in travel decisions. They stated that, although much of the research has utilized the individual as the level of analysis, tourism is often a group activity. Following this, they suggested that much of the decision-making in tourism involves processes of conflict and synthesis between individuals in a group, and Decrop (2005) agreed that cohesiveness, interaction, conflicts, and power relationships have been neglected in the research.

Because tourism is a highly social event, Gitelson and Kerstetter (1995) stated that, in order to understand decision making, the role of others in a travel party must be considered. Studying spouses and traditional families was not enough, they argued, as there is a need to include other family members, friends, and relatives. Friends and relatives have been shown to be an information source and reference group (Bieger & Laesser, 2004; Fodness & Murray, 1997) in decision making. Gitelson and Kerstetter (1995) acknowledged that reference groups (including friends and relatives) are not only important factors in decision-making, but also that friends and relatives are often part of the decision making group itself.

Gitelson and Kerstetter (1995) concluded that "at least some" decision making is deferred to individuals knowledgeable about the destination. They investigated how friends or relatives influenced the decision making process, beyond simply providing information. In their study of individuals visiting travel sites in Pennsylvania, they stated that not only did 75 percent of travel groups include friends and relatives, but "all of the travel decisions" were influenced by friends and/or relatives. Only about a quarter of the decisions had a sole decision maker. Additionally, visitors often deferred major decisions to individuals more familiar with the area or with the decision. For example, visitors to the area often referred decisions to friends and relatives who lived there. This uncovered a major gap in previous research, as decision-making research has typically assumed that the traveler (or traveling party, in the case of couples and families) makes decisions for themselves. Instead, Gitelson and Kerstetter (1995) showed that others often make decisions for the traveler.

Although social aspects of decision making were not the focus of their research, Um and Crompton (1990) considered family and friends in their study of decision making. They created a facilitator-inhibitor instrument to measure a combination of maximum utility and constraints in selecting a destination. Social agreement, one of the dimensions on this instrument, consisted of several items, including: others have recommended that I select ___ as a place to go; I will travel to ___ because a friend or family member wants to go there; others in the group with whom I usually travel agree with my selection of ___ as a destination; and a trip to ___ is likely to improve togetherness with my family and friends. The first of these questions considers the role

of information search and reference group influences. However, by including the other questions, Um and Crompton (1990) seemed to acknowledge that friends and family have a larger role than just reference group influence or assistance with information search.

In a chapter on group influences on travel behavior, Mayo and Jarvis (1981) focused on topics other than the role of the group in actual decision making. In particular, they mentioned the role of group conformity (including role playing and leisure travel roles), social class, family life cycle, and culture on group decisions. They considered how group membership influenced travel decisions, but did not investigate how decisions were actually made.

Decrop (2005) directly compared decision making in different social environments. He completed a longitudinal study of nineteen travel parties, each consisting of multiple individuals: eleven traditional families, five couples, and three groups of friends. When compared to couples and families, groups traveling together had many different characteristics affecting decision-making. He suggested that decision making was not as clear as it is in couples because the motive of group travel may be about sharing experiences and interests more than choosing a destination. Decrop (2005) also found that each group of friends may have a different dynamic, and distribution of roles was often unclear. Additionally, because groups had less communication than families, it often took a lot of time to make decisions.

There may also be different ways of dealing with conflict among a group traveling together than there would be in a family, including consensus (altruism),

negotiation (give and take), dictatorship, and delegation (Decrop, 2005). Absent a formal power relationship as a family may have, sometimes a leader emerged who helped to trigger major decisions on behalf of the group. Decrop (2005) explicitly stated the existence of decision delegation in multi-individual travel situations, in which a person either formally or informally made decisions for the group as a whole. Further, he explained that this decision delegation did not typically result in angry moods as it may in families because individuals were willing to sacrifice control of the situation in order to reach consensus. This led him to conclude that members were more concerned with agreement and consensus than the decision itself. This followed Mayo and Jarvis (1981) who argued that the leisure activity is often secondary to the social interaction taking place within a group and that a variety of many settings and activities may be able to accomplish the group's primary goal of spending time together.

As a result of his study, Decrop (2005) suggested that most group decision making literature, in which a group makes a joint decision (similar to juries) would likely not be applicable to group tourism decision making. Additionally, because the group decision making process differs based on the decision making unit, couples and family research is not directly applicable to groups of friends (Decrop, 2005). Thus, he concluded that individual decision-making models and family influence studies in tourism are incomplete depictions of tourist decision making and only illuminate a portion of actual behaviors.

Critiques of Research on Tourist Decision Making

Many other researchers have stated that there are flaws in taking buyer behavior theories from consumer behavior and adapting them to a tourism environment (e.g. Cohen et al, 2013; Decrop, 2005, 2006; Smallman & Moore, 2010). Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) noted that consumer behavior models were developed for manufactured products, instead of services, and thus do not take the unique attributes of services into account. They have presented many challenges to the approaches and models proposed by earlier tourism researchers.

For example, problem recognition, which may be easy for a consumer goods purchase (e.g. running out of toilet paper) is not as simple in a tourism context. As Smallman and Moore (2010) critiqued, "Conventional models fail to acknowledge that tourists' decision-making is often focused on poorly defined 'problems' in which there is considerable emotional capital" (p. 415). Beyond problem recognition, what tourists seek is often vague. While selection of a product (e.g. a purchase of paper towels) has a clear goal, a vacation decision would presumably be less clear. The goal of a trip to the grocery store may be to buy a roll of paper towels. The goal of a vacation is not simply to choose a destination, but also to experience a destination. Additionally, each traveler may have different goals for a vacation, and even a single traveler may have different goals for different vacations. There are likely different goals (e.g. cultural enrichment, relaxation, fitness, spending time together) for different experiences (e.g. visiting a museum, sunbathing, hiking, or dining) on the same vacation.

A vacation decision is not as simple as choice in consumer goods. The tourist destination choice, while used as the dependent variable by several researchers, is only one step in a tourist purchase and consumption process. Cohen et al (2013) mentioned that travel behavior is a continuous process. Thus, simply determining which destination choice was made is only the tip of the iceberg. Despite Mayo and Jarvis' (1981) mention that it is important to consider the information search that occurs after the initial destination decision, some models have focused on the choice of a destination decision (e.g. Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), rather than the more complex vacation in its entirety.

While models of brand choice within a product class (e.g. Howard & Sheth, 1969), may apply to destination choice, they may not be generalizable to "tourism decision making" which is much more complex than selecting simply a destination. Smallman and Moore (2010) reviewed studies of tourist decision making and criticized much of the decision making research as spending too much time studying the final decision made instead of the decision-making process. In search of simplicity, they argued that there has been a limited explanation of the "why" and "how" of tourist behavior. They further stated that decisions evolve during travel and are often spontaneous or impulsive. Similarly, Woodside and King (2005) found that a number of travel decisions, including purchase of gifts, dining out purchase, and modes of transport at the destination were not decided until travelers were actually on vacation.

Researchers have used rational decision making as a key assumption when devising models, but tourism is a complex phenomenon (Cohen et al, 2013) more apt to

be hedonic (Decrop, 2006), and often takes place in dyadic or group situations (Cohen et al, 2013). Social interaction is not just common in travel, but it may also be a major motive for traveling (Decrop, 2005). Currie, Wesley, and Sutherland (2008) noted this lack of focus, arguing that "few studies examine the impact of peer influence on tourist motivations for choosing certain destinations while dismissing others" (p. 13).

Previous decision-making models have often been hypothetical and difficult to verify (or have never been attempted to be verified) empirically. Models such as Moutinho's (1987) are conceptual, based on little or no empirical research and assume a rational decision maker. Swarbrooke and Horner (2007) provided additional critiques: many models are dated, assume the decision is constant regardless of the nature of the vacation, and are limited by imperfect information. Tourists have typically been viewed as a homogeneous group, when they likely differ based on factors like travel experience and group composition. Additionally, tourism decision making is often a joint decision, so the applicability of individual decision making models can be questioned (Decrop, 2005). Also, the individual process of a purchase decision may be dependent on factors such as whether the person is traveling alone or as a member of the group (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007).

It has been stated that tourism is a high risk activity (Gitelson & Crompton, 1983; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Um & Crompton, 1992). However, some evidence indicates otherwise. Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) studied risk perceptions present in tourism, dividing them into vacation-related and destination-related risk. Respondents rated the risk of each variable (financial, psychological, physical, satisfaction, time,

social, and equipment risk) on a scale of 1 to 10, with 10 representing a 100% chance of occurrence. Only two of the twelve items had a mean above 3: "possibility the vacation will not provide value for the money spent" (μ=3.13) and "possibility of mechanical, equipment or organizational problems while on vacation" (μ=3.21). All other items ranged from 1.11 to 2.94, providing some evidence that vacationers *do not* perceive either vacations or destinations to be risky overall.

Traditionally, tourism purchase models include orderly steps, based on assumptions such as high uncertainty and high consumer involvement in the purchase. Bargeman and van der Poel (2006) noted that this would not explain routine vacation behavior or repeat visitation to a destination, in which information search would be limited or even unnecessary. Petrick et al (2007) also revealed that for brand-loyal customers, the search process is abbreviated, and the generic decision to vacation may be simultaneous with destination (in their case, cruise) selection. The increase in last-minute bookings and vacation planning also run counter to previous assumptions of lengthy problem identification, information search, and alternative evaluation. In fact for many trips, there may not be an alternative. An individual may be presented with a vacation opportunity by a friend or family member. Petrick, Li, and Park (2007) found that this was the case with a minority of cruise passengers, who chose their vacation based on social reasons.

Role of Information Search in Tourist Decision Making

The role of information search is tangential to the particular topic of concern (decision delegation in tourism), but a brief mention is warranted for two reasons. First, Bronner and de Hoog (2008) listed it as one of three major themes in decision making. Second, for the sake of this study, it is important to consider the role that others (in particular friends and relatives) may have in trip decisions.

Research on groups in tourism decision making has considered the role of others, including media, social groups, friends, and family, in providing information to travelers, usually as a part of the pre-purchase information search process. Gitelson and Crompton (1983), in a survey of 716 people at highway visitor centers, found that 71% of respondents used friends and relatives as information sources. Information search behavior was investigated in greater detail by Fodness and Murray (1999), who found that 48.1 percent of respondents used friends and relatives as an information source. This was the largest information source in the study, and 25.8 percent used only friends and relatives for information.

Bieger and Laesser (2004) also studied the source of information travelers use during the choice process. They noticed that information sources often start with friends and relatives, especially after a trip decision has been made. They noted that travelers use more informal sources after a definite trip decision. This shows that studies should not stop with destination choice, as information seeking continues after the initial trip choice is made. Rompf, DiPietro, and Ricci (2005) agreed with Bieger and Laesser (2004) in their research on locals' impact on tourism decisions while at a destination.

They interviewed 137 people in Gainesville, Florida (82 of whom worked in the lodging industry) and found that 96 percent received referral requests for dining and entertainment. This showed that travelers strongly relied on others during a vacation (not just in the destination search phase) and that locals had a strong role in information search. They argued that more information is needed to explain at-destination venue decisions.

Beyond simply explaining information search, Rompf et al (2005) followed Solomon (1986) by stating that "consumers often relinquish the control of making travel decisions… to someone else they perceive to have more knowledge or expertise in the travel process or location" (p. 14). Key reasons they hypothesized for this delegation were: time constraints, limited expertise, a high perceived risk, and lack of interest in making a decision.

As this paper is more concerned with a specific type of decision making behavior, rather than where tourists sought and received travel information, a complete discussion of tourism information search is outside of the realm of this paper. However, a key point is that friends and family often provide information to travelers. Interestingly, in the study of information search, it has not yet been made clear which of the friends and family members influencing decisions may actually be part of the traveling party.

Interpretive Frameworks of Tourist Decision Making

It has been argued that individual choice models in tourism are intuitive, and these models are still prevalent in teaching tourism consumer behavior. The focus on decision making research has often been on the outcome instead of the decision making process (Bronner & de Hoog, 2008) or on the taxonomic roles of individuals in their choice. Due in part to the drawbacks inherent in, and criticisms of, traditional tourism decision making models (e.g. Moutinho, 1987; Um & Crompton, 1990), some researchers have sought alternatives to traditional choice models, which have been based on utility maximization, rational choice, and orderly problem solving processes.

Recently, many exceptions to these rational choice models have been demonstrated, calling into question their effectiveness in predicting or explaining tourist behavior. Smallman and Moore (2010) proclaimed that touristic decision making does not "easily lend itself to the conventional derivation of grand theories" (p. 416), so new approaches are needed. Decrop and Snelders (2004) stated that a major flaw in tourism decision making research is that it has borrowed too heavily from consumer goods without identifying that purchase of a vacation may be hedonic and experiential in nature. Following Decrop (2006) addressed "interpretive frameworks," "based on the premise that decision making is much more than a formalized multistage process" (p. 39).

Decrop and Snelders (2004) studied 25 Belgian households who were planning vacations. Using grounded theory principles, they determined that vacation planning is not as linear or organized as previously hypothesized. First, the generic decision,

proposed by Crompton (1977) to initiate a vacation decision, often occurred late in the planning process, not at the beginning. In only seven of the 25 decision making units (DMUs) was the generic decision found to occur first. However, for seven other units, the vacation was routine, with no generic decision made.

Another assumption not supported by Decrop and Snelders (2004) is that travel decision making incorporates a high level of information search. While ten of the 25 DMUs underwent intensive preparation and information search, fifteen of the 25 DMUs were characterized by low information search. With these groups, most information search was incidental until just before departure. Unlike research which has proposed that information search precedes a vacation decision, they found the search process to be ongoing. Some individuals may be in a constant search for information before a vacation decision is made, and information search may continue once a destination choice is made. They further found that search was the most extensive during travel itself (Decrop & Snelders, 2004).

Departing from models that portray a decision maker as bounded and rational, much of the travel decision making in Decrop and Snelders' (2004) study evolved from situational and social variables, demonstrating that adaptability and opportunism were often influential on vacations. Some respondents used no strategy in decisions, simply taking advantage of opportunities like special offers or propositions by friends to take a holiday. In these situations, no alternatives were compared, as suggested by previous models. Decrop and Snelders (2004) demonstrated that decision-making steps like need

recognition, information collection, and evaluation of alternatives may vary in their order.

Howard and Sheth (1969) and Moutinho (1987) delineated three types of problem solving behaviors: extended problem solving, limited problem solving, and routine problem solving, depending on the decision. Mayo and Jarvis (1981) also considered decision making to be on a continuum from extended (longer search period with more information search and evaluation) to routine (short time needed to reach a decision, high perceived knowledge about alternatives, and low perceived need for information). Their belief that most tourist decision making occurs somewhere between these poles, suggests that rational decision making models are often not appropriate to describe actual behavior.

Bargemen and van der Poel (2006) also found exceptions to the complicated, rational choice models of previous researchers. In a qualitative study of 32 Dutch households, they found that vacation decision processes are "much less extensive and far more routinized than described in the rational choice models" (p. 707). They found that households did not pass through the decision making process in the same way. Eleven households utilized extended problem solving behaviors, thirteen used limited problem solving, and eight used routine problem solving behaviors.

Extended problem solvers fit a more traditional, rational choice with a long decision process and a lot of external information search. However, routine problem solvers never actually "started" to think about a destination and did not use any external information sources to choose a destination. The moment of booking was the same time

as the vacation decision. Even among extended problem solvers, almost half of households did not consider another destination. Additionally, information search, an important component in many decision making models, may be virtually non-existent with routine problem solvers and often occurred while at the destination, long after destination choice. There was also no clear correlation between individual and trip characteristics with how the vacation decision-making process operated.

These results provide evidence that a traditional decision-making model is likely not appropriate to all situations. Decrop and Snelders (2005) considered that a typology of vacation decision making should consider socio-psychological processes and decision styles together. They noticed that "interpersonal influences in group decision making and the cultural environment are not taken into account when looking at tourist behavior" (p. 123). Among the environmental factors they argued to be important to decision making were interpersonal factors, group adhesion, level of communication, distribution of roles, and congruence (conflict-consensus).

Concluding that there is no singular way in which individuals plan vacations, Decrop and Snelders (2005) proposed a typology of six types of vacation decision making: habitual decision making, bounded (rational), hedonic, opportunistic, constrained, and adaptable. They suggested these different decision-making styles differ based on many variables, including their level of risk aversion, planning, information search, adaptability, and predictability. Further, the typologies were not believed to be mutually exclusive. An individual may use different processes for different travel opportunities or with different travel parties. Several of these typologies were supported

by Petrick et al (2007), who found evidence of routinized, rational, and opportunistic travel decision-making in a study of cruise passengers.

Decrop (2010) used information from his qualitative research in decision making to reinvestigate choice sets. His data revealed that formation of choice sets is not always sequential, as had been previously proposed. Some travelers in his study proceeded directly from an awareness set to a final choice without an evoked set. While this finding disagreed with previous choice set models, such as that by Um and Crompton (1990), there is a very important similarity. Um and Crompton (1990) found that some individuals (24% of their sample) proceeded directly from an awareness set to a final choice, but the authors rejected this finding by hypothesizing that the participants' awareness set was really an evoked set. Thus, the findings of Decrop (2010) actually parallel Um and Crompton's (1990) data, but not their conclusions.

Similar to Crompton (1992), Decrop (2010) also added constraints to the evoked set, stating that the evoked set could include a dream set, an unavailable set, and an available set, only the last of which could be in the final choice. Overall, Decrop (2010) concluded that evaluation of alternatives is not always necessary for choice in tourism, as decisions can be made prior to or without extended information search and evaluation. Similarly, Woodside and King (2005) found that a majority (60%) of travelers to Hawaii's Big Island who were surveyed did not consider and reject alternatives when deciding on travel to the Big Island. This follows research (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Bargeman & van der Poel, 2006) which provided evidence of routine, limited, and extended problem solving in decisions.

While Decrop and Snelders (2004, 2005) indicated that different decision making units make decisions differently, their studies have a few notable limitations. First, they studied only a few Belgian travelers. Thus, the results may not be applicable outside of this context. Additionally, because the sample size was small, the authors made no assumption of generalizability. However, these studies are essential in providing evidence that decision making in tourism is neither simple nor constant across different decision-making units. If key differences were found in a sample of twenty-five decision units, then that would indicate that it is doubtful that a larger population would have fewer differences.

These emerging frameworks indicate that choice in tourism is not always logical. It can often be a "constraint and opportunity-driven process" (Decrop, 2010, p. 110). Destination choice is ongoing, as people think about, talk about, dream about, and learn about destinations. There may not be a universal tourism decision choice process, as many steps in previous models may be skipped entirely in a decision process. Additionally, the choices may not even be made by a traveler, as they may be made by others in the travel party by means of delegation. Thus, the stage is set for an investigation of decision delegation in tourism, but first it is necessary to explore decision delegation from a general consumer behavior perspective.

Decision Delegation

Consumer behavior researchers have primarily focused on individual decision making and individual consumption; however, there are many situations in which

decision makers enlist the help of others to make a decision for them. Within many different purchase environments, consumers may elect to give control over a decision to someone else. A stock broker or interior decorator may be hired to negotiate a complex decision-making environment. Within hospitality and tourism, the expertise of wine stewards may be utilized to select the proper vintage, and a travel agent may be called upon to plan an important trip. Decades ago, Hollander (1971) predicted that as time becomes more valuable, people would welcome ways to save on shopping time.

Solomon (1986) formally defined a surrogate consumer as "an agent retained by a consumer to guide, direct, and/or transact marketplace activities" (p. 208) on behalf of another. Hollander and Rassuli (1999) suggested the term should be "surrogate shopper" because the surrogate never actually consumes the product. They defined surrogate shopper as "a commercial enterprise, consciously engaged and paid by the consumer or other interested party on the behalf of the consumer to make or facilitate selection decisions of behalf of that consumer" (Hollander & Rassuli, 1999, p. 102). For simplicity, the word surrogate will be used. While a surrogate may seem to have a role similar to an opinion leader or influencer, surrogates are formally retained to assist with the decision process (Aggarwal & Cha, 1997).

Jaakkola (2007) determined that professional consumer services (e.g. hiring of a surrogate) is unique from both consumer and organizational purchasing and should thus be considered separately by researchers. Gabel (2005) expanded the definition of the surrogate to include those, including friends, family, and even employees of state-run institutions, who make decisions for the ill, infirm, and others with limited choice. This

suggested that there may be other types of surrogate relationships in which the end users do not formally delegate decisions but still allow others to choose for them.

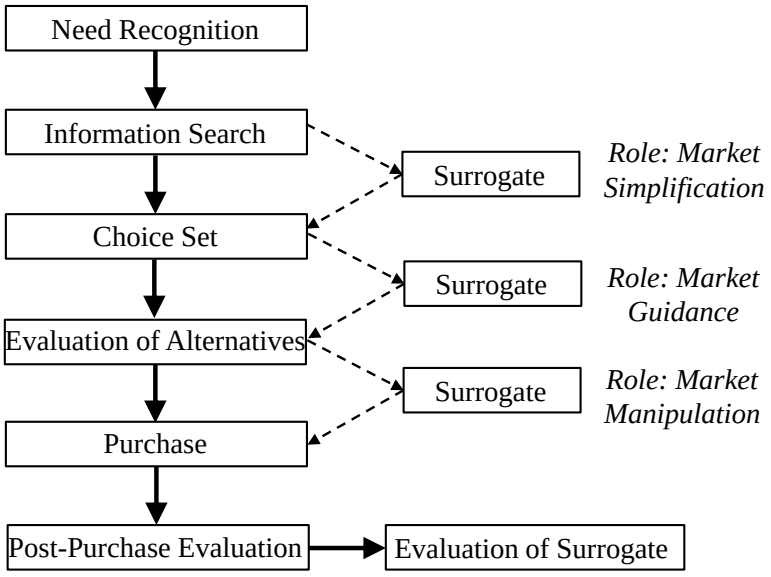
Hollander (1971) stated that surrogates are often used when they have resources or privileges to which consumers do not have direct access, and there seem to be many in tourism. Hollander and Rassuli (1999) provided several examples of surrogate shoppers from tourism and hospitality, including: caterers and party planners, independent bridal consultants and wedding planners, airline reservation systems, restaurant critics, and travel agents. Despite the prevalence of surrogates as diverse as travel agents, stock brokers, and interior decorators in real-life situations, it has been argued by many that surrogate decision making is under-researched (Aggarwal & Mazumdar, 2008; Hollander & Rassuli, 1999; Solomon, 1986). Additionally, research into surrogates has typically focused on selections of material goods. While there has been research on travel agents in the tourism field (e.g. Coulter, 2002; Dolnicar & Laesser, 2007), researchers have not explored decision delegation in detail.

There are many key points to the definition of a surrogate. It is said to be a professional activity (Solomon, 1986), in which the surrogate is formally retained by a client, although the surrogate may be paid directly by the client (as with an interior decorator), the supplier (as with a travel agent's booking commission) or a combination. As a professional, the surrogate usually expects to get repeat or more business. Of special importance is that the surrogate gives advice or makes decision on behalf of the consumer (Hollander & Rassuli, 1999). However, Hollander and Rassuli (1999) noted that surrogate shoppers who furnish advice to customers should not be considered to be

agents because, within agency theory, the goal is to get the best outcome for the principal, not the best joint utility.

The surrogate may take on one or many different roles in the evaluation, decision, and purchase processes. Hollander (1974) stated that the surrogate may be a diagnostician, locator, appraiser, recommender, buyer, package supplier, and/or deliverer (in Hollander & Rassuli, 1999). Solomon (1986) provided a diagram (See Figure 2.2 for a simplified version) to describe the interface between the market and the consumer, showing that a surrogate may assist with information search, determination of a choice set, evaluation of alternatives, and purchase on behalf of the end user.

Figure 2.2 Simplified Model of Surrogate Usage in the Decision-Making Process (Based on Solomon, 1986)



Hollander and Rassuli (1999) provided a similar, but more expansive list of potential surrogate roles: diagnose needs, search, narrow set of consideration, evaluate alternatives, narrow choice set, make choices, negotiate prices, purchase, and/or deliver the product. Similarly, Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008) proposed that consumers may delegate a number of roles in the decision, including attribute set delegation, choice set delegation, and final choice delegation.

There appear to be a number of reasons that an individual would choose to utilize a surrogate, although there has been little empirical investigation to determine the accuracy of these assumptions. Hollander (1971) stated that, to use a surrogate, two criteria must be met. An individual must face an important problem and have an available surrogate (worth the time, money and effort). Solomon (1986) suggested that customers who lack the ability or motivation to "negotiate the marketplace" may seek surrogates. In particular, objective factors like time, inclination, and complexity of purchase and subjective factors, like apprehension and high involvement may affect the decision to use a surrogate.

Similarly, Hollander and Rassuli (1999) suggested several reasons that an individual may utilize a surrogate. These included lack of awareness sets for products; complex processing ("overwhelming" choices), lack of information, complexity, lack of competent, unbiased advice, and lack of technical knowledge. They also postulated that "surrogates are likely to become important in the sale and delivery of services, particularly when decisions rest on complex knowledge bases" (p. 115) and "especially

for one-time or seldom-repeated purchases in which a large amount of resources is involved" (p. 115), such as weddings.

Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008) answered the call for more research on surrogates by completing a study to identify conditions in which decision delegation occurred or may occur. They surveyed 347 university employees about computer purchases and their usage of university computer experts as surrogates in the purchase process. Results showed that several factors were identified to encourage decision delegation, including perceived expertise difference (between the individual and the surrogate); willingness to customize (i.e., surrogate will know more than consumer reports); accountability (needs a recourse for nonperformance); and trustworthiness (will seek surrogates who are considered trustworthy). Perceived loss of control and the opportunity to learn from experience were found to inhibit delegation. While they did not identify choice overload as a factor encouraging delegation, Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008) suggested this may be important because "as people get overwhelmed with abundantly available product information, delegation of purchase decision to a surrogate can help" (p. 89) the customer to navigate an information-intensive consumer environment.

Aggarwal and Mazumdar's (2008) research was one of the few to actually empirically evaluate decision delegation, but it considered computer consultants employed by an organization as surrogates, instead of individuals entering into a surrogate relationship individually. Additionally, some of the computer purchases were made for work purposes instead of personal purchases. A further limitation in

application to tourism environments is that a computer is a physical good and thus different from an experiential purchase like a vacation experience.

Informal Decision Delegation

Decision delegation has also been referred to as "subcontracting" of a decision (Rosen & Olshavsky, 1987) in which, for some reason, an individual allows another to make a decision on their behalf. For example, an individual may formally subcontract decorating of a room to an interior designer. Rosen and Olshavsky (1987) described informal situations, in which a man may ask his spouse to select a shirt and tie for him, a situation that could also be considered decision delegation.

Rosen and Olshavsky (1987) also iterated informal situations in which only a portion of the decision process may be delegated. Further, they also described a "hybrid" situation in which the information search would be subcontracted, but the final decision would be made by the individual. Rosen and Olshavsky (1987) hypothesized that two independent variables (perceived risk of purchase and level of surrogate experience) would affect decision delegation. In an experiment, 62 students were introduced to two purchase decisions with one considered to be high-risk (stereo receivers) and the other low-risk (frozen pizza). The frequency of reliance on recommendations increased with higher time costs for the higher risk product. Subjects often utilized a hybrid strategy with conditions of high perceived risk and time cost. Although a significant main effect was not found due to perceived risk, Rosen and Olshavsky (1987) hypothesized that this may have been due to the choice of products. It

must be noted that, in these experiments, only the information search process (not the purchase itself) was assumed to be delegated. Thus, this experiment could be portrayed as a test of informal decision delegation. Additionally, these considered only hypothetical purchases.

Within Solomon's (1986) proposed model of a consumer-surrogate relationship, all or part of the decision process can be delegated to the surrogate. However, it appears that decisions are often delegated to individuals who do not meet the definition of "surrogate," in that they are not formally paid or retained by a consumer (Bieger & Laesser, 2004; Gitelson & Crompton,1983; Rosen & Olshavsky, 1987). While this "surrogate" may be considered to be knowledgeable, they are not in a formal agency relationship. For this study, each of these individuals will be considered to be a "social surrogate, or an individual who is entrusted or delegated to make or facilitate decisions or purchases on behalf of another, without a formal or business-type agreement or arrangement. These social surrogates are proposed to be part of an informal relationship (e.g. friends, family, social groups) rather than a formally engaged (paid or unpaid) business relationship, and the social surrogate often takes part in the consumption of the good or the service for which the decision was delegated. For example, an individual may go on vacation with a friend and allow the friend to choose the hotel.

In addition to a formal relationship, as described by Solomon (1986), in which a consumer actively procures the services of a surrogate, many other decisions are delegated in a multi-individual travel process by less formal means. The next section

briefly covers environments in travel and tourism in which decision delegation has been found to occur.

Decision Delegation in Tourism

Studies on decision delegation and surrogates are rare in consumer behavior, but even more rare in tourism. Callan (1990) suggested that a travel industry journalist may be a surrogate consumer in the title of an article, but the word surrogate is only used once, as reference to a previous study of his which "employed travel industry journalists as knowledgeable and experiences surrogate consumers to represent opinion about existing award schemes as a measurement of service quality." (Callan, 1990, p. 45). Callan did not define surrogate or explain why this situation would be a surrogate relationship.

Travel agents meet Solomon's (1986) definition of a surrogate, and many studies of travel agents and the relationship between travel agents and their customers have occurred in tourism research. Topics explored include selection criteria of agents (Meidan, 1979), the role of trust in business-to-business travel agent relationships (Coulter, 2002), international travel agents as market intermediaries (Michie & Sullivan, 1990), characteristics of people who purchase from travel agents (Dolnicar & Laesser, 2007), travel agents' destination recommendations (Klenosky & Gitelson, 1998), and the influence of travel agents on client expenditures (Chen & Chang, 2012). While these articles have investigated the relationship between a customer (the traveler) and a

surrogate (the travel agent), they have not led to a better understanding of decision delegation in social situations.

Decision delegation in tourism has only been considered by a few researchers despite the significant amount of research into the effect of friends, relatives, and others on travel choices. A handful of authors have provided evidence that travel parties delegate decisions among themselves, even if it was not the focus of their study. Gitelson and Kerstetter (1995) stated that it "would seem logical that we might defer at least some of the decision-making to individuals who are more knowledgeable about the destination area" (p. 60). In their study, all of the travel decisions were influenced by friends and/or relatives. Only about a quarter of the decisions had a sole decision maker. Thus, individuals were willing to defer decisions to those more familiar. Rompf et al (2005) also referenced the surrogacy literature (Rosen & Olshavsky, 1987) to explain a reliance on other people (in their case, locals) to recommend local activities. They suggested that asking locals for referrals is a process of decision delegation and proposed several reasons for delegation: time constraints, limited expertise, a perceived high risk, and lack of interest in making a decision.

Within a conflict or disagreement situation in multi-party decision making, decision delegation may be one way to reach a decision. When Bronner and de Hoog (2008) sought to understand how conflicts were resolved in family decision making, they wrote that decision delegation occurred as a means to settle conflicting ideas, but that it was infrequent. Within groups of friends traveling together, delegation of decisions was found to be a common occurrence by Decrop (2005). He found that friends were willing

to sacrifice their own wishes to let someone else organize travel activities. However, this was based on only a few observations.

It could also be said that sometimes decisions may be delegated informally in vacation situations. In other words, one traveler may allow another to make a decision on their behalf. Decrop and Snelders (2004) mentioned that some individuals often did not make their destination choice alone. Instead of selecting a destination, many individuals simply took advantage when opportunities to vacation arose, such as when being invited by others. Thus, in these situations, it could be stated that travelers allowed other individuals to choose on their behalf.

A full understanding of non-search behavior by tourists may also require an understanding of decision delegation. Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) noted that some first-time tourists did not engage in search behavior. This non-search behavior (making a decision without much information seeking) in first-time tourists was recommended for additional study by Sirakaya and Woodside (2005). It is one possibility that first-time visitors may not undergo a substantial information search process because they rely on others to make a decision (or recommendation) on their behalf.

Additionally, much of the spousal travel research (e.g. Filiatrault & Ritchie, 1980; Jenkins, 1978; and Litvin et al, 2004) found that there are many situations in which one individual dominated a decision, or actually made a decision on behalf of the whole family. Although not stated as such, this could be considered decision delegation, in which one person allows (either formally or informally) another to make a decision.

The relevance of decision delegation can be explained by re-investigating the findings of Litvin et al (2004). In his study, selecting a vacation destination was determined to be a "joint" couple decision. A majority (55%) of men and half (50%) of women in his Kansas sample stated that this was a joint decision, while 62% of men and 58% of women in a Singapore sample stated likewise. Most researchers (including Filiatrault & Ritchie, 1980; Jenkins, 1978; and Litvin et al, 2004) have been concerned only with who is the dominant decision maker. However, in this example, there is a residual of between 38 and 50 percent of all respondents who stated that the decision was dominated by one spouse. When looking at the prevalence of family vacations, this leaves a substantial amount of individuals who dominate decision-making or actually make the decision on behalf of the couple/family. When these findings are looked at from another lens, another key conclusion can be made: many people do not make their own travel decisions when traveling with others.

These researchers have primarily used gender/spousal role (husband/wife) as the independent variable. Aside from gender and power roles (suggested by Litvin et al, 2004, to explain some of the results in Jenkins, 1978), the role of other characteristics to explain decision delegation are less clear. There could be certain attributes of the decision or decision-maker that could lead to delegating a decision (either formally appointing the spouse to make the decision or informally allowing the spouse to make a decision). Decision delegation requires a delegator (who delegates or acquiesces with the decision) as well as a social surrogate (who makes the decision). Additionally, lack

of understanding is further hindered by Decrop's (2006) acknowledgement that groups of friends have a different dynamic than couples in decision making.

Decision delegation among a travel party (referred to here as a "social surrogate") is related to the surrogacy literature, but there are key differences. As opposed to traditional surrogate situations, in which a surrogate is hired to make a decision, there appears to be informal decision delegation, through use of a "social surrogate." A surrogate (defined by Solomon, 1986) is formally hired or procured in order to undertake a marketplace activity. For example, a travel agent may be retained to book a trip on behalf of a client, or a wine steward may be formally asked to select a vintage on behalf of a diner. However a social surrogate may be formally appointed, informally appointed, or even inferred. Second, the model of a surrogate is based on the assumption of an individual purchaser. While a group may hire a surrogate (like a wine steward or travel agent), it is assumed to be an individual decision. However, a social surrogate often acts on behalf of a group. Third, and most importantly, the formal surrogate does not participate in the consumption or benefit of the decision. A stock broker does not own the stock that they purchase for somebody else. The wine steward does not drink the wine, and the travel agent does not participate in the travel. On the other hand a social surrogate is often part of the experience, as well as being the decision maker. Thus, while understanding motives of hiring a surrogate may be related to informal decision delegation, they are distinct roles.

There may also be a social surrogate who is not a part of a travel party. For example, taking a friend's recommendations, or asking friends for hotel

recommendations, could be considered to be a delegation of the information search phase of the decision process. Thus, it does not appear to even be a requirement that a social surrogate is a member of the traveling party. However, this research will investigate only decision delegation within a traveling party.

Conclusion

Researchers (e.g. Decrop, 2006; Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995) have found that many travelers do not make decisions for themselves. Thus, the question arises: why did individuals delegate a decision? Many attributes of the decision maker as well as the decision situation have been suggested to lead to decision delegation, but only a few studies have empirically investigated these relationships (Aggarwal & Mazumdar, 2008; Rosen & Olshavsky, 1987). The next chapter will explore variables from the decision-making and surrogacy research which may apply to decision delegation in travel and present a model to better understand delegation of trip decisions to a social surrogate. Within this study, these variables will be explored and tested, which will hopefully lead to further understanding of decision delegation in a tourism context.

CHAPTER III

CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

The previous chapters summarized the evolution of decision making research in travel and tourism and explored the research into use of surrogates in decision making. These surrogates (which will also be referred to here as "formal surrogates") are individuals retained by an individual to assist in decision-making. It has been proposed these individuals are "surrogate shoppers" in that they only assist with the decision and purchase process, but they never actually consume the product (Hollander & Rassuli, 1999). Within travel and hospitality environments, these formal surrogates may include wedding planners, travel agents, and wine stewards.

However, decision delegation is not limited to utilization of a formal surrogate shopper. When individuals travel together, all decisions may not be made as a group. One individual may choose the hotel where the group will stay, while another may propose a restaurant for dinner. In these situations, individual decision-making models would likely not be appropriate. Additionally, traditional models of group decision-making, with active discussion and a thorough weighing of options may also not fit, as detailed group discussion and choice evaluation for every sub-decision on a trip would likely be burdensome.

A few researchers have revealed this decision delegation phenomenon in tourism, but empirical research is limited. Rompf et al (2007) suggested that asking locals for

advice on where to eat is a form of decision delegation, while Gitelson and Kerstetter (1995) found that individuals traveling to visit friends and family relied on those individuals to make decisions on their behalf. Research into spousal and nuclear family decision making has demonstrated that there are many times in which one individual may permit another to make or dominate any number of decisions in a travel environment, from the dates of the vacation to the amount of money spent (Filiatrault & Ritchie, 1980; Mottiar and Quinn, 2004; Wang et al, 2007).

There may also be situations in which a traveler makes plans (such as a vacation to a certain place or dinner at a certain restaurant) and then invites another along, even though the plans have already been made. In this situation, the second individual has allowed the first person to make the decision on his/her behalf, essentially delegating the decision to a "social" surrogate. In their typology of tourist decision making, Decrop and Snelders (2005) described a category of "opportunistic" vacationers who may not make a destination choice for themselves. Instead they rely on opportunity, such as being invited by another person to go on vacation, in order to make a vacation choice. While this is one situation, it is possible that dependent upon the situation, individuals may behave differently, choosing whether or not to delegate a decision based on many variables.

For this research, the term "social surrogate" will be used. This term is defined as: an individual who is entrusted or delegated to make or facilitate decisions or purchases on behalf of another, without a formal or business-type agreement or arrangement. A key attribute of the social surrogate is that they may not only participate

in decision making, but they may often participate in consumption of the experience or product. For example, a group of four people is planning to go to dinner, but one individual selects the restaurant. That individual would be the social surrogate, and the other individuals have effectively delegated the selection of the restaurant to her.

There are several differences between a "formal" surrogate and a "social" surrogate. A formal surrogate is an outsider retained to assist, while a social surrogate is part of the group or a social acquaintance. A formal surrogate does not participate in consumption (e.g. a wine steward will not drink the wine with you), but a social surrogate often participates in the activity (e.g. a group of friends at dinner allowed one person from the group to select the wine for the table). Additionally, as there is no formalization of the role of social surrogate, an individual may take on the role of delegator or social surrogate, all within the same travel period or within the same group. A surrogate, such as a travel agent, remains a surrogate. However, during a vacation, an individual may choose to make some decisions as well as allowing others to make decisions for them. Thus, who takes on the role of social surrogate may vary across decisions. Finally, decisions may be "informally" delegated to a social surrogate. In these situations, a consumer allows another to make a decision for him without formally delegating it. For example, in the above example, in which an individual planned a vacation and invited a friend along, the friend "informally" delegated the decision of destination choice. This is an important consideration because much of the tourism decision planning research has assumed that individuals make decisions for themselves.

Because there are formalized relationships and power structures in families, and because Decrop (2006) stated that in many ways decision making in groups of tourists is unique, this research will focus on decision delegation in groups that are not couples or nuclear families. This research seeks a greater understanding of decision delegation in tourism environments, seeking to explain:

1) Under what circumstances does decision delegation occur in tourism?
2) What role do social surrogates have in tourism decisions?
3) What role does decision-making style play in decision delegation in tourism?
4) What attributes and traits lead individuals to delegate decisions?

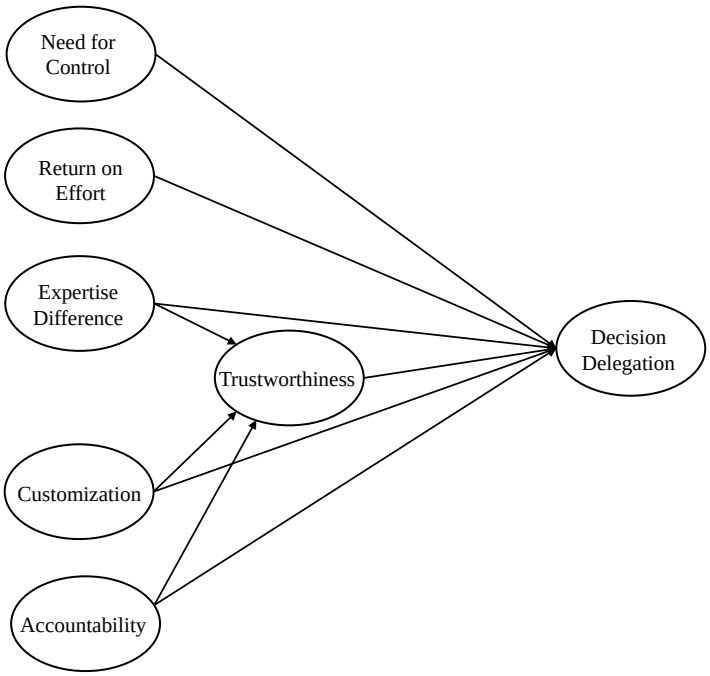
The decision to delegate a choice may be due to attributes of the individual (delegator), the decision to be made, the environment, or the attributes of the surrogate. As many variables within these general categories have been suggested to affect decision delegation within the general consumer behavior or tourism consumer behavior research, these variables will be addressed individually, along with hypotheses which will be explored in the current study. Finally, models will be proposed to help explain decision delegation in tourism.

Aggarwal and Mazumdar's (2008) Model of Decision Delegation

Before beginning to address variables individually, a previous model of decision delegation will be presented. Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008) tested a structural model

of decision delegation (Figure 3.1). They sought to determine whether university employees purchasing computers relied on the computing staff of the university for advice in the purchase process.

Figure 3.1 Aggarwal and Mazumdar's (2008) Model of Decision Delegation



They considered three indicators of decision delegation (their dependent variables): attribute set delegation, choice set delegation, and final choice delegation. Attribute set delegation referred to the role of the surrogate in identifying important choice characteristics. Choice set delegation referred to the role of the surrogate in narrowing the choice set, and final choice delegation referred to allowing a surrogate to make a final decision.

The independent variables investigated were a mixture of individual characteristics (need for control), decision characteristics (return on effort), and surrogate characteristics (trustworthiness, accountability, customization, and expertise difference). They found significant relationships between need for control, expertise difference, customization, trustworthiness, and accountability on decision delegation. Trustworthiness also mediated three other variables: expertise difference, surrogate accountability, and customization.

While Aggarwal and Mazumdar's (2008) model advises the current study, there are many differences. First, their study took place in an organizational environment, and there was a formal relationship between the surrogate (a university employee) and the delegate (also a university employee). However, the surrogate was formally retained by the university (as an employee), not retained by the decision maker as a surrogate as described by Solomon (1986). Second, their research involved purchase of goods (a computer) and not a service or experience (as would be found in a tourism environment). Additionally, the surrogate was a third party, not a social surrogate. As such, the surrogate may have participated in the decision, but not in consumption. Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008) considered attributes of the individual (e.g. need for control) and the surrogate (e.g. trustworthiness); however, aspects of the decision itself, such as decision risk were not measured. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, only one type of decision was explored, and to generalize surrogate usage in a formal organizational environment to other scenarios may be ill-advised. Thus, their model has limited applications to other decisions.

This study focuses on why an individual, traveling or participating in touristic or social activities with a group of known individuals, would allow another in the party to make a decision on his behalf. This could include both formal delegation of a decision ("please pick a place to stay") and informal delegation, in which the individual allows another to make a decision on his behalf without explicitly asking the individual to make the decision. Numerous variables have been proposed or suggested as relevant in this thread of research in both tourism research, as well as surrogacy/decision delegation research. These variables will be discussed and integrated into a model of decision delegation to social surrogates, and relationships between these variables will be tested. As consumer behavior focuses on why an individual would act in a certain manner, it is argued that the individual decision maker's (or delegator's) attributes would be most important in decision delegation. First to be addressed will be the characteristics of an individual which may lead to decision delegation. Additionally, attributes of the decision and the surrogate will be considered.

Individual Attributes

It could be expected that the traits of an individual may affect whether he or she would elect to delegate a decision to another person. Numerous factors have been suggested which would lead to delegation of a decision, especially in a formal surrogate relationship in which an individual formally cedes elements of the decision-making process to a professional. Many of these individual traits may also lead to delegation of a decision to a social surrogate. An individual may have a particular decision-making

style, which may vary based on the situation. These will be explored first. Consumer involvement may also relate closely to decision delegation. The next section will explore proposed variables, including purchase involvement, importance, and risk, that fall under the umbrella of involvement. Finally, other variables, like desire for control, need for surprise, expertise, and experience will be addressed.

Decision Making Style

By definition, the way in which people make decisions, or their decision-making styles, should affect their overall decision-making. Thus, it may also affect how they rely on others, including surrogates or social surrogates, to assist in decision making. Decrop and Snelders (2005) identified several typologies of tourist decision making, based on a qualitative study of twenty-five Belgian households with a variety of tourist decision making units. He proposed that it was possible to classify tourist decision making units based on styles of decision making, and that decisions may depend on the type of decision maker. For example, they concluded that habitual decision makers were risk averse and often returned to the same destination. Bounded (rational) decision makers used careful planning, coupled with a purposeful information search, to make decisions. Hedonic decision makers often recommended destinations and encouraged others to travel with them. Opportunistic decision makers were passive decision makers, willing to wait until the opportunity presented itself, often from social prompting or financial reasons. They decided to travel as opportunities arose. Constrained decision makers were often limited by financial resources and other contextual factors, while

adaptable decision makers were unpredictable in their choices, willing to adapt and revise them based on the situation. While some of the decision-making styles would seem to lead to predictable behavior, decision-making behavior of the final two styles (constrained and adaptable) would seem to be difficult to predict because they are extremely dependent on the travel situation.

Decrop and Snelders (2005) did not attempt to operationalize these decision-making styles, and they were proposed using grounded theory from a small sample. Additionally, they used these decision-making styles to define the "typology" of vacationer instead of "decision-making style" of vacationer. Swarbrooke and Horner (2007) noted that individuals may move between typologies based on different variables, like family and work commitments and leisure time. They also pointed out that typologies often do not recognize that others have an impact on holiday decisions. Thus, there is a limitation to using Decrop and Snelders' (2005) typologies. While decision-making style appears to be an important variable, a more precise measure of decision-making style is required for this study.

In an environment outside the tourism field, Scott and Bruce (1995) identified five decision making styles (rational, intuitive, dependent, avoidant, and spontaneous). They are similar (but certainly not identical to) Decrop and Snelders' (2005) typologies of vacationers. A rational decision-maker utilized a thorough search and evaluation of alternatives, similar to the bounded (rational) vacationer. An intuitive decision maker decided based on feelings, in a way analagous (but not identical to) the hedonic vacationer. Dependent decision makers relied on others, using a passive decision

making style like opportunistic vacationers. Avoidant decision makers overall avoided making decisions, and did not directly fit into Decrop and Snelders' (1995) typologies.

Scott and Bruce's (1995) final decision making style, spontaneity, might fit many different types of vacationers. While not precisely identified by Decrop and Snelders (2005) as a typology, a spontaneous decision maker exists in tourism. Many aspects of a vacation, such as restaurant choices, touristic activities to participate in, and even where to stop on a road trip, may be spontaneous. Swarbrooke and Horner (2007) also noted that rational tourism decision-making models have failed to explain last-minute bookings, which would suggest evidence of a spontaneous decision-maker.

Because Scott and Bruce (1995) clearly operationalized their decision making styles and because they can be easily applied to tourism decision making, they will be used in the current study in order to understand how decision-making styles may relate to decision delegation. Predictions about decision delegation follow for a few of the decision making styles. Scott and Bruce (1995) found that dependent decision makers were likely to avoid decisions, which seems to correlate with deferring decisions. Additionally, because avoidant decision makers avoid making decisions, it could be anticipated these individuals would be likely to delegate decisions to others in social situations.

H1: Individuals high in dependent decision-making style are more likely to delegate decisions than those who are less dependent decision-makers.

H2: Individuals high in avoidant decision-making style are more likely to delegate decisions than those who are less avoidant decision-makers.

Rational decision makers are based on a substantial search for information and a detailed evaluation process. Thus, it would seem that these individuals would be more likely to make decisions for themselves, as others may make a decision that would be counter to their thorough evaluation.

H3: Individuals high in avoidant decision-making style are less likely to delegate decisions than those who are less rational decision-makers.

Spontaneous decision makers seem to be more difficult to predict (although that seems obvious given the nature of spontaneity). Spontaneous individuals may be more likely to make decisions for themselves because they would not take time to delegate a decision, instead acting on impulse. However, spontaneous decision-makers may be more willing to follow others' suggestions. For example, they may be more willing to take a spur-of-the-moment trip or go with another on a spontaneous invitation without worrying about making decisions. Thus, a clear relationship cannot be predicted:

H4: Individuals high in spontaneous decision-making style are neither more nor less likely to delegate decisions than those who are less spontaneous decision-makers.

Intuitive decision makers would also be difficult to predict, because they follow an intuition or feelings. In some instances, it could be predicted that they would be inclined to trust others to make decisions. In other instances, their "gut" feelings may advise them to make their own decisions, rather than rely on others. Thus, it would appear that this type of decision maker would alter their likelihood of decision delegation based on the decision more than their own individual traits. Thus, no prediction can be made.

H5: Individuals high in intuitive decision-making style are neither more nor less likely to delegate decisions than those who are less intuitive decision-makers.

Measurement: Decision-Making Style

Decision-making style in the current study will be measured with Scott and Bruce's (1995) instrument. Based on previous research, they identified four decision styles: rational (thorough search and evaluation of alternatives); intuitive (based on feelings); dependent (reliance on others); and avoidant. Thirty-seven items were tested using a sample of 1,441 male military officers, and a fifth decision-making style (spontaneity) was identified. Six items were added on this measure before testing on three student samples at different universities. After testing, a 25-item scale resulted with 5 factors: rational, intuitive, dependent, spontaneous, and avoidant decision-making styles. Internal consistency and factor stability were sufficient across situations

and samples. The three strongest-loading items from each decision-making style were included in this study.

Consumer Involvement

As decision-making style may affect decision delegation, so may other attributes which differ based on the individual. Decision risk, purchase-decision involvement, and product importance are three of these factors, which can be collectively categorized under the umbrella of consumer "involvement." The justification for including these factors will be addressed, followed by a discussion (and measures) of consumer involvement.

Perceived product importance and perceived decision risk have been proposed as attributes that may affect decision delegation, and they are both factors of consumer involvement. Thus, it may be that understanding involvement is important to the understanding of decision delegation. Consumer involvement is a broad category that has taken on many different meanings, or a "rich potpourri of ideas" (Mittal and Lee, 1989, p. 364). Mittal (1989) stated that involvement concerns the level of attention by a person in an interest or activity. Involvement can be considered to be either enduring or situational (Houston & Rothschild, 1977). Within leisure studies, much of the research has concerned enduring involvement and more generally a person's devotion to an activity or a product. Kyle and Chick (1992) and Mittal and Lee (1989) concluded that most studies of involvement they reviewed conceptualized involvement with regard to "personal relevance." In a related manner, activity involvement has also been considered

to be similar to motivation. Havitz and Dimanche (1999) defined involvement as "an unobservable state of motivation, arousal, and interest toward a recreational activity or associated product" (p. 123), and they also used the term "leisure activity involvement" in their paper.

Two major research studies (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985 and Zaichowsky, 1985) have provided a basis for measuring involvement. Zaichowsky (1985) also developed a scale of involvement, in particular a personal involvement with a product class. She defined involvement as "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests" (p. 342). Her instrument used a semantic differential scale to measure individuals' level of involvement with products, such as instant coffee and laundry detergent. Her measure was shown to be valid and reliable, but the construct validity was only supported for products.

Laurent and Kapferer (1985) divided involvement into several dimensions: perceived importance of a product; perceived risk associated with the purchase; the symbolic or sign value attributed by the consumer to the product, its purchase or its consumption; and the hedonic value of the product. Thus, their definition of involvement included concepts like risk and decision importance, which are proposed to affect decision delegation. It should be noted that their research concerned involvement with products and not experiences, services, or decisions.

Laurent and Kapferer (1985) developed a scale to measure the dimensions of involvement; however, Mittal and Lee (1989) had several criticisms of this scale. According to Mittal and Lee (1989), importance may not be a measure of involvement,

giving the example of a refrigerator purchase, which may be an important product but may not evoke much interest or involvement. Additionally, they criticized Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) research for not distinguishing between product class and brand choice in studying involvement. For example, a product itself (a "car" for example) may not provide the same sign value (e.g. helping an individual to express herself) to an individual as would the particular brand decision (e.g. choosing a Mercedes). Mittal (1989) also described the opposite, in which a product class (salt or bread) is important but the consumer may be indifferent in regard to brand choice.

Utilizing some previously-published items from Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) proprietary scale, as well as new items, Mittal and Lee (1989) determined a scale for measuring purchase involvement, also known as brand-decision or purchase-decision involvement. In particular, three items were used to measure each of four factors: brand decision involvement, brand sign-value, brand hedonic value, and brand risk. The factors brand sign value, brand hedonic value and brand risk were found to lead to brand-decision involvement. Separate factors were found to measure product involvement (a different construct than purchase/brand-decision involvement).

Further, Mittal (1989) iterated the difference between product involvement and purchase-decision involvement. He argued that previous measures generally concerned product involvement, but marketers should be more concerned with purchase involvement. While involvement with a product (or activity) may be theorized to affect a decision, there is a clear delineation between attitudes toward a product (or activity) and attitude toward a purchase of that item or experience. Product involvement concerns

interest a consumer has in a product class and purchase (or brand-decision) involvement concerns the actual decision. The current research is not concerned with product involvement (which would be involvement in "taking a vacation" or "dining out" as analogous to a product class). Instead, of importance is the involvement with a brand decision (in this case, decisions such as which destination or restaurant is selected).

Thus, for this study, Mittal and Lee's (1989) measures were used for purchase (brand-decision) involvement. Their definition of brand-decision involvement (also called purchase or purchase-decision involvement) is considered: "the interest taken in making the brand selection" (Mittal & Lee, 1989, p. 365). When considering destination choice in tourism, the brand may be a destination. "Brand" would also apply to various sub-decisions, such as hotel and restaurant choice.

Other factors have been considered to be part of involvement but will be described and measured separately: decision importance and risk. Importance and risk are additional attributes in Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) definition of involvement.

Measurement: Purchase (Brand-decision) Involvement

Mittal (1989) and Mittal and Lee (1989) demonstrated a difference between product involvement and brand-decision involvement. As this study considers the purchase of a particular "brand" (destination, lodging, or restaurant), "brand-decision" involvement is appropriate. Also called purchase involvement, this concept refers to the involvement an individual has with a particular purchase (e.g. destination, hotel, or

restaurant selection), not with a product class (e.g. travel) as a whole. The terms "brand-decision involvement" and "purchase involvement" will be used interchangeably.

For analysis of the current study, purchase (brand-decision) involvement will be used as a measure, as it has been tested empirically by Mittal and Lee (1989). Three items from Mittal and Lee (1989) comprise brand-decision involvement, and these questions will be asked to respondents, after being slightly altered from a product purchase to a destination/restaurant purchase scenario. It is hypothesized that an individual who has high involvement will be more likely to make an individual decision because that purchase is felt to be personally important. Thus:

> H6: Individuals with high purchase (brand-decision) involvement are less likely to delegate decisions than those with low purchase (brand-decision) involvement.

Importance

Importance was considered a component of involvement by Laurent and Kapferer (1985). However, the measure of brand-decision involvement used in this paper does not include a measure of importance. Within a tourism decision-making scenario, going on a trip or going out to eat at a restaurant may be considered product decisions, while determining where to go or where to eat would be a brand decision. Thus, in addition to determining how involved a consumer is in where to eat, it is likely beneficial to determine the importance of the overall product. Although a dining

experience or trip decision could be argued not to be a "product," the logic of measuring importance is the same. Many tourism researchers have stated that tourism is a high-involvement activity with high importance to the participant, so it is proposed that the importance of the decision is relevant to the reason someone would delegate a decision in a touristic environment.

An assumption in decision making is that trip decisions are felt to be high-involvement, yet Decrop and Snelders (2005) discovered that this was not always true. They found that in group travel situations, the destination and activities were not as important as the opportunity to spend time together. Thus, the product (here, a vacation), may have been of secondary consideration. In Um and Crompton's (1990) scale, an item included "I want to travel to ___ because a friend or family member wants to go there). Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) similarly stated that "an individual may not care where they travel as long as they are with friends" (p. 829). Unlike traditional models of decision making where an individual makes a decision to maximize utility, the actual travel decisions made may be of little importance. One hypothesized reason is that people may travel sometimes for simply social reasons.

Despite the proposition that travel decisions are considered to be of high emotional significance (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007), there may be instances in which a person does not place high importance on a decision or the outcome of a decision. Rompf et al (2005) suggested that "disinclined" decision makers are more likely to use a surrogate, and Solomon (1986) proposed that those with a low shopping motivation would also use a surrogate. Lack of interest would be another reason to rely on a

"trusted local expert" (Rosen & Olshavsky, 1987). In many of these situations, it was unclear if the product or the brand decision was important or not.

In situations such as these, in which case the decision was not important to an individual (due to lack of caring about a decision chosen, disinclined decision making, or low shopping motivation), it could be predicted that an individual would be more willing to rely on another to make a decision. When multiple individuals travel together, many decisions may likely not be perceived to be of the same level of importance to every participant. Thus,

> H7: Individuals who rate the (tourism) product as high importance are less likely to delegate decisions than those who rate the product as low importance.

Measurement: Importance

Within a traveling party, each individual may place a different level of importance on different aspects of a vacation. Thus, the idea that a travel decision or sub-decision is of high importance may not apply to all travelers. One individual may care greatly where the group eats, while another may care greatly only about which hotel or destination is selected. Thus, a measurement is required that is unique to each individual and each product. Mittal (1989) differentiated between purchase-decision involvement and product importance, finding that questions regarding each of these items loaded on different factors. In his study, three items measured product

importance: the product is important to me, the product does not matter to me, and the product is an important part of life. However, the final question, which has been used for product types, may not be appropriate for tourism or experiential scenarios, as travel may not be an important part of everyday life. For this study, these questions were slightly altered to measure product importance for an experiential product. This resulted in three questions were from Mittal's (1989) measures of product importance and a fourth question "I consider ____ to be an important decision" which was added as a global measure of decision importance.

Perceived Decision Risk

As previously described, risk is a key proposition in tourist decision making. While attitude toward risk is an attribute of an individual decision maker, risk may also be a component of the decision itself. In addition to the research previously presented about risk, perception of high risk has been found to lead to delegation of some decisions by Rosen and Olshavsky (1987). Higher decision risk has also been attached to use of a surrogate, such as hiring of a wedding planner. Formal surrogates can be a way to mitigate risk. Therefore, it could be predicted that a high-risk decision may be more likely to be delegated.

However, there is also the possibility that individuals would like to make high-risk decisions on their own. In the surrogacy research, there has been a focus on a professional surrogate (e.g. Solomon, 1986; Aggarwal & Mazumdar, 2008). In these scenarios, it is likely that the decision maker would find someone with more expertise

and knowledge (e.g. a wine steward or travel agent) in order to reduce the uncertainty or risk in making a decision. However, while traveling with a group of friends, especially to an unfamiliar destination, there may be no expert to seek information from. As a result, delegating a risky decision to others without specialized expertise may actually increase the risk, in that control over a situation is out of one's hands. Thus, the opposite may be proposed. Therefore, it is unclear if high risk decisions are likely to be delegated or controlled by the decision maker.

Attitude Toward Decision Risk

Perceived risk is an element in Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) definition of involvement. Additionally, brand risk was found to be an antecedent of brand decision involvement in Mittal and Lee's (1989) research. Of particular interest in this study is an individual's attitude toward risk in making touristic decisions.

Risk can take on many definitions. Mäser and Weiermair (1998) characterized perceived risk in tourism as "a function of uncertainty and its consequences with some consequences being more desirable to the tourist" (p. 109). There are several scales which have addressed risk or attitudes toward risk. Many of these have focused on propensity to take risks or participate in risk-taking behaviors. For example, Weber, Blais, and Betz's (2002) risk perception scale includes items about risky behaviors like unprotected sex, binge drinking, going down a closed ski run, cheating, and never wearing a seat belt.

Within tourism, researchers such as Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2011) have looked at how different types of risk, from terrorism to mad cow disease, have affected tourism behaviors. Pizam et al (2004) used Jenkins' risk behavior scale to measure propensity to take risks to link risk taking with travel behaviors. For the current study, risk-taking behaviors (such as participating in rock climbing) or travel risks (such as terrorism) are likely not important. Instead, the focus is on propensity to delegate a decision to others. Thus, it is believed to be more important to consider decision risk, instead of risk inherent in an activity.

A decision involves risk when "the consequences associated with the decision are uncertain and some outcomes are more desirable than others" (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992, p. 17). Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) explored risk perceptions in pleasure travel decision-making, borrowing concepts from Cheron and Ritchie (1982) who applied principles of risk from choice scenarios into a tourism environment. Far from just a measure of danger, perceived risk was stated to be a "multidimensional psychological phenomenon which influences individual perceptions and decision processes" (Cheron & Ritchie, 1982, p. 140).

It has also been proposed that level of risk is one reason that a person would use a surrogate in decision-making (Rosen & Olshavsky, 1987; Solomon, 1986). If a decision is perceived to be high risk, then use of a surrogate would reduce the risk on the decision maker. Here the surrogate may take on one of many roles, from determining a choice set to making an actual decision. Rosen and Olshavsky (1987) found that perceived high risk may lead to turning over decisions to a local expert, while Rompf et

al (2007) suggested that risk averse decision makers may also use an expert or travel service provider.

A common assumption is that tourism decisions are high in risk (Gitelson & Crompton, 1983; Mansfeld, 1992; Um & Crompton, 1992), primarily because they require an investment in terms of time and money with no option to "try out" an experience prior to purchase. Tourism decisions have also been proposed to be emotionally significant (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007), which would seem to raise the risk of making a poor decision. Gitelson and Crompton (1983) stated that the greater the risk, the greater the "propensity to search" for information, and Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) acknowledged that extensive information gathering by tourism decision makers has been said to be a risk-reduction strategy.

Moutinho (1987) addressed risk in his decision-making research, suggesting that tourists can be risk-neutral, risk-avoiders, or risk-takers, and that this may affect decision making. In their typology of tourist decision makers, Decrop and Snelders (2005) identified "habitual" vacationers. A primary characteristic of this individual was aversion to risk, which would explain why they revisit a destination rather than "risk" a less satisfying experience at another destination.

Although Roehl and Fesenmaier (2002) indicated that individuals may not actually perceive of a vacation decision as high risk, research suggests that perceived tolerance of risk is an integral component of tourist decision making. Following Rompf et al (2007), a risk-averse decision maker may be likely to pass along the decision to someone else, perhaps an expert, who may be able to make a "less risky" decision.

However, the opposite could also be true. An individual who is risk-averse may want to control all aspects of a decision. By retaining control, there may be less risk that a delegate would choose an activity that the delegator did not enjoy. Therefore the following hypothesis emerges:

> H8: Individuals who are more risk averse in decision-making are neither more nor less likely to delegate decisions than those who are less risk averse.

Measurement: Attitude toward Decision Risk

There are multiple existing measures of risk-taking behavior, although many seem to have little relevance to the risk inherent in making a consumer purchase decision. For example, Weber et al (2002) measured attitude toward risk with a 50-point scale, by asking individuals' likelihood of engaging in risky activities in several domains (ethical, financial, health/safety, recreational, and social). Items such as "buying an illegal drug for your own use" has little relation to the riskiness involved in delegating a tourism decision. Even the items in the "recreational" domain, including chasing a tornado by car to take photos that you can sell to the press and going down a ski run that is too hard or closed, seem to measure "propensity to engage in risky activities" rather than making a high-risk decision. In a review of measures of risk propensity, Harrison et al (2005) found eight instruments measuring risk propensity and six measuring traits of risk propensity. Again, aspects of risk like danger seeking, risk behaviors, thrill seeking,

and self-control were prominent in the measures. None seemed to be a clear measure to understand likelihood of making a risky decision, as opposed to engaging in risky behavior.

Thus, risk will be measured using four items, constructed to measure global attitudes toward decision risk. A final item was used to measure risk aversion in travel planning. Five items resulted.

Desirability of Control

Another independent variable which may affect delegation of a decision to a social surrogate is the desire for control, or how much control an individual would like to have over decisions. Decrop (2005) wrote that often the traveler does not control all vacation activities, and Rompf et al (2005) stated that consumers often relinquish the control of making travel decisions to someone else. Although not measured quantitatively, Decrop and Snelders' (2005) typology of travel decision making stated that opportunistic decision makers will take vacation opportunities as they arise, which indicates that for certain types of travelers, control may not be important.

The idea of relinquishing control is a potential key to understanding decision delegation, as it could be predicted that individuals who desire control are less likely to delegate decisions to others. Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008) described this factor as "need for control," finding, quite logically, that individuals with a high need for control would be less likely to delegate decisions to others. This would seem to be the case with social surrogates as well as formal surrogates. Hence, individuals with a high desire for

control would seem to be less likely to delegate decisions in tourism than those with a high desire for control.

Burger and Cooper (1979) developed a desirability of control scale to measure individuals' desire to control their environment. Individuals low in desire for control have been suggested to be generally nonassertive, passive, and indecisive. Thus, they would be unlikely to attempt to influence others and may prefer to have decisions made by others (Burger & Cooper, 1979). For these reasons it could be hypothesized they would be more likely to delegate decisions. Burger and Cooper's (1979) initial 53-item instrument was reduced to twenty items for maximum internal consistency, and the final 20-item measure was found to have acceptable levels of reliability and validity. These items formed five factors: general desire for control ("enjoy having control"); decisiveness ("may prefer one choice over making a decision"); preparation-prevention control ("like to get a good idea of what a job is all about before I begin"); avoidance of dependence ("avoiding situations where others are in control"); and leadership ("I would rather have someone else be a leader/others know what is best for me") factors (Burger & Cooper, 1979). It is important to note that, in the two samples, items did not always load clearly on the same factors. Thus, the underlying factors describing desire for control were not clear.

Gebhardt and Brosschot (2002) reinvestigated Burger and Cooper's (1979) scale. A Dutch version of the original scale was tested in three samples, and exploratory factor analysis revealed three components of desirability of control in each of the samples. The three factors were defined as control others (7 items strongly loading on this factor),

relinquish control (4 items), and control self (8 items). Control others, or desire to influence the life of others, measured tendencies like the desire to be a leader and to make decisions for others. Relinquish control concerned the desire to leave decisions to others. Both of these are relevant to the current research. The final factor (control self) included some items which would seem to be relevant to tourism decision making (e.g. "I enjoy making my own decisions"); however, others were tangential (e.g. "When driving, I try to avoid putting myself in a situation where I could be hurt by someone else's mistake."). This factor also suffered from a weakness evident in Burger and Cooper's (1979) initial study: across the three samples, these items did not consistently load strongly on this factor.

For this study, two factors relating to control (derived from Gebhardt & Brosschot, 2002) will be considered: control others and relinquish control. When considering control as a variable, there appear to be individuals who prefer to control their own environment, including controlling others. This is one distinct aspect of desirability of control. Because would be more apt to desire control in situations, these individuals would seem to be less likely to delegate decisions to others, resulting in the following hypothesis:

> H9: Individuals with a high desirability to control others are less likely to delegate decisions than those who have less desire to control others.

A second factor in desire for control, relinquish control, seems to directly relate to decision delegation in tourism, as individuals with this trait desire to pass decisions on to others. Therefore, individuals high in "relinquish control" would seem to be more apt to "give away" decisions to others, just as they prefer to relinquish control. Thus,

H10: Individuals high in the desire to relinquish control are more likely to delegate decisions than those who have a low desire to relinquish control.

Measurement: Desirability of Control

As desirability of control consists of multiple related factors, it will be operationalized as two different measures. Items from Burger and Cooper's (1979) desirability of control scale, later refined by Gebhardt and Brosschot (2002), will be included in this study. These items comprise two factors relating to control: control others and relinquish control. A shortened list of questions was used for this study. First, only items loading on the same factor in all three of Gebhardt and Brosschot's (2002) sample were included. Additionally, negatively-worded items were removed. This resulted in four items loading on control others and three loading on relinquish control.

Desire for Surprise

Delegating a decision to another person is a way of turning over control of the decision. Rompf et al (2007) suggested that novelty seeking travelers would be more

likely to rely on locals for advice, delegating decisions to them, in order to have a greater likelihood for "adventure." One element of novelty in tourism is the desire for surprise, identified by Lee and Crompton (1992) as one of four factors in their novelty seeking in tourism scale. Other elements of novelty (thrill, change from routine, and boredom alleviation) seem to relate to decision making and travel experiences, but not necessarily delegation. Thus, to suggest that novelty as a whole, based on Lee and Crompton's (1992) definition, leads to decision delegation may be misguided.

Decrop and Snelders' (2005) typologies of traveler decision making also relate to surprise. They identified decision makers who were unpredictable, willing to adapt and modify their vacation style, as well as those who were careful planners and likely averse to surprise. Regarding decision delegation, Hyde (2008) used the desire for surprise factor from Lee and Crompton (1992) and found that those with a higher desire for surprise were less likely to consult travel agents (a formal surrogate) and less likely to undergo intensive vacation planning. This suggests that an individual's desire for surprise, one element of novelty, may be linked to deferring decision attributes to others. Hyde's (2008) writings suggested that those who desire surprise would not want to use a surrogate because they would want to have more serendipitous and unplanned experiences. However, based on Rompf et al (2007), delegation of a decision to another individual in the travel party could actually increase surprise because the delegator (in this case a person with high desire for surprise) would not know exactly what to expect from a decision. The opposite could also be true, so the direction of this relationship is unclear. Thus:

H11: Individuals with a high desire for surprise are neither more nor less likely to delegate decisions than those with a low desire for surprise.

Measurement: Desire for Surprise

Novelty was suggested by Rompf et al (2007) as a factor related to relying on locals for travel advice and to delegate decisions to them. Lee and Crompton (1992) built upon the concept of novelty as measured by others, including Pearson's (1970) desire for novelty scale, in order to create an instrument to measure novelty in tourism settings. They tested a 21-item scale on three student samples and one non-student sample, finding this scale to be high in both reliability and validity. The four dimensions of novelty which were discovered include: thrill (measured by 7 items), change from routine (8 items), boredom alleviation (3 items) and surprise (3 items).

Lee and Crompton (1992) stated that surprise is "a feeling caused by unexpected features resulting from a discrepancy between what an individual believes and the reality of environmental stimuli" (p. 739). The three items comprising the "surprise" factor on Crompton's scale had a Cronbach's Alpha of between .68 and .76 in the four samples. There is inadequate theoretical basis or justification in previous research to link other novelty factors (i.e. boredom alleviation, change from routine, or thrill) to delegation of a decision. Thus the three items comprising "need for surprise" in Lee and Crompton's (1992) novelty seeking in tourism scale will be used in this research.

Expertise

In tourism environments, individuals may use a travel agent (a "formal" surrogate) to help with a choice as travel agents are often used if an individual lacks expertise on a destination (Hyde, 2008; Snepenger et al, 1990). Informal decision delegation can follow the same logic. Rompf et al (2005) stated that consumers may relinquish the control of making decisions to another individual with more knowledge or expertise in the travel process or location. The results of a survey by Gitelson and Kerstetter (1995) found that travelers delegated decisions to friends and family who were more familiar or knowledgeable about the decision area. Rosen and Olshavsky (1987) found that limited expertise may lead to relinquishing a decision. Similarly, Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008) found that a larger expertise difference (the perceived difference in knowledge between the decision maker and the surrogate) led to decision delegation.

Similarly, Moutinho (1987) proposed that a traveler assesses the benefits of each alternative when making a destination choice. Routine decision making can occur when knowledge about the available alternatives is high, meaning that more knowledge about the alternatives leads to easier decision making. On the contrary, low knowledge about alternatives would make decision making more difficult and involved. As decision delegation can be considered a shortcut to decision making, it could be suggested there is a negative correlation between level of knowledge and decision delegation (i.e. less knowledge would lead to more decision delegation). Corresponding to this suggestion is

Solomon's (1986) statement that low product knowledge and low discriminatory ability would make one more likely to use a surrogate.

Gursoy and McCleary (2004), in a proposed model of information search behavior in tourism, suggested that familiarity and expertise mediate the relationships between many variables and search behavior. In a similar way, familiarity and expertise should likely affect decisions and decision delegation. Expertise in travel decision making may refer to one of many situations: knowledge of travel planning; expertise/knowledge of travel, or expertise/knowledge of a particular destination or decision (such as a "foodie" who may be an expert on dining decisions). An individual may not have taken a role in planning travel (perhaps having previously delegated this function to a surrogate, such as a travel agent). An individual may also have little expertise in travel decision making because they have not travelled much, thus having little expertise in travel decisions.

Finally, an individual may have expertise in a decision, having been there before or faced a similar decision-making situation. Individuals who had traveled to Paris previously may be less likely to delegate hotel or restaurant decisions because of their expertise or knowledge about the city. It is possible that an individual may have (or lack) expertise in one, two, or all three of these areas. Thus there appears to be a correlation between knowledge/expertise and decision delegation. Measurements of expertise will be discussed later in relation to a potential social surrogate's expertise. First, a brief overview of experience is presented.

Experience

Experience is likely correlated with expertise, in that those with more experience in travel would have more expertise. However, one can gain expertise without experience. For example, a person who had read guidebooks or watched travel programs about a destination may have expertise without experience. Yet, expertise is not a substitute for experience. A person could have experience at a destination, but little expertise. For example, if an individual visited a city on a guided tour, they may have experience, but little knowledge about some travel decisions, like restaurants or how to use a subway. Or, they may have visited on a business trip and know little about touristic activities for a leisure trip.

Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) proposed that prior experience reduces the extensity and intensity of the information search phase, while Rompf et al (2005) suggested that limited expertise may be a moderating factor affecting decision strategies for at-destination activities. Also, when studying how households passed through the decision making process, the most important personal factor has been suggested to be level of experience (Bargeman & van der Poel, 2006).

While expertise and experience of the decision maker are likely important, an important variable in decision delegation is the surrogate. It is not just important to consider whether or not a decision maker has expertise, but whether or not a social surrogate may have expertise or experience (which may encourage decision delegation) or a lack of expertise or experience (which may discourage decision delegation). Thus, an individual's expertise and experience must be considered in the whole decision-

making environment, which includes the surrogate. The final measurements in this study address the attributes of the surrogate. Of particular importance in social surrogate situations are the relative difference between the surrogate's expertise and experience, compared to the decision-maker's expertise and experience.

Surrogate Attributes

The above measures are either unique to an individual (e.g. desirability for control and desire for surprise) or to a specific decision (e.g. purchase (brand-decision) involvement, product importance). All of these factors may be in place whether it is a decision made alone (as in solo travel) or with others while traveling with a group. Because this study relates to decision delegation, the presences of a suitable surrogate (in this case a social surrogate) is a necessary component in decision delegation.

There are many characteristics of a surrogate which may affect decision delegation, although many factors proposed by researchers, such as Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008), may apply only to a formal surrogate and not to a social surrogate, such as another member of the traveling party. The current study differs from research into surrogates. It could be assumed that someone could find an appropriate surrogate, such as an interior decorator, stock broker, or wedding planner, with a bit of research. However, just because an individual is part of a travel party does not mean this individual would be an appropriate social surrogate.

For social surrogate situations, expertise and experience of the surrogate would seem to be an important variable in decision delegation. Using Solomon's (1986)

examples of formal surrogates, different examples can be provided. A person who knows little about wine would be more likely to use a wine steward as a surrogate. However, the same person may have expertise on the stock market, and may choose not to use a stock broker to manage his stock portfolio. Similarly, an individual may have a high level of expertise on making travel decisions regarding domestic travel by car, but may have little or no expertise on foreign air travel decisions. Thus, expertise is not only unique to each individual, but may also be unique for each particular decision. This is similar to the expertise difference found to be important in Aggarwal and Mazumdar's (2008) formal surrogate situation. However, many of the variables found in that study would not be relevant to social surrogates, so reasons will be given for excluding many factors (such as accountability and trustworthiness) that would likely be appropriate only for formal surrogates.

Expertise of Surrogate

Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008) found that the surrogate's expertise affected delegation, measured as the perceived expertise difference between the delegator and the surrogate. In their study, on selection of computer technology, it would be logical that there would be a perceivable difference in the knowledge of a computer expert and a purchaser. In other words, if an individual felt the potential surrogate had much greater knowledge, there would then be more likelihood to use the surrogate.

For the same reason that a lack of expertise on the part of a traveler would lead to decision delegation, the level of expertise of the social surrogate would also likely affect

decision-making. The perceived difference in expertise would likely affect likelihood of delegation. A difference in which the surrogate has more expertise than the delegator would seem to predict a greater likelihood of decision delegation.

> H12: Individuals who perceive themselves to have more relative expertise than the potential social surrogates are less likely to delegate decisions than those who perceive themselves to have less relative expertise.

Measurement: Relative Expertise

In the traditional definition of a surrogate, expertise has been shown to be an important factor. A surrogate, by definition, has expertise in a certain area (e.g. home decoration, wedding planning). As opposed to travel experience, which can be subjectively or objectively measured, expertise in social surrogate situations would likely need to be a subjective measure. For most decisions in a travel situation, there is likely no "test" or certification (as with a travel agent or sommelier, for example) that would determine which member of a travel party has the most expertise. Perceived expertise can thus be operationalized as a subjective measure of how much travel expertise that individuals perceive themselves to have. Travel expertise can be considered as expertise in travel planning, expertise in traveling, expertise in traveling to a particular destination, and expertise in making a certain type of decision. An advantage of utilizing perceived expertise is that if an individual perceives himself as

well-traveled, he may be less willing to choose to delegate trip decisions, regardless of whether or not he is objectively well-traveled.

However, decision delegation does not seem to be dependent solely on the decision maker's expertise. The amount of expertise of others in the travel party, all potentially social surrogates, would likely affect decision delegation. Therefore, it is important to compare an individual's perceived level of travel expertise with a potential surrogate's travel expertise. As an individual would likely not have detailed knowledge about another's detailed travel expertise, it would be dependent upon the individual to compare their *own perceived* level of travel expertise with the *perceived* level of travel expertise *of the surrogate*.

The difference between perceived level of an individual's travel expertise, and the perceived travel expertise of the surrogate is called relative expertise in the current study. This measure is analgous to Aggarwal and Mazumdar's (2008) expertise difference concerning a (formal) surrogate. Expertise difference was measured using questions to include global and specific expertise. It is important to mention that relative expertise is unique to the travel environment, the particular decision, and the social surrogates who are available. Thus, this cannot be measured globally, as it depends on each travel decision environment.

Experience of Surrogate

It has also been proposed that prior experience by a traveler would lead to less extensive information search (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), and that level of experience

affects tourism decision-making (Bargeman & van der Poel, 2006). Those who are more experienced would likely make more decisions for themselves. Additionally, it could be predicted that the level of experience of the surrogate would affect surrogate usage. Solomon's (1986) definition of surrogate implies that the surrogate is a professional, and thus likely has experience. This would not necessarily be the case in a decision-making situation. For example, a group of friends may be travelling to Chicago. An individual may have been there once, but another member of the party may have been there multiple times. Thus, it is likely that, although the first individual has experience, he may delegate to a social surrogate because of the more extensive experience of the other person. Following the logic of the hypothesis on expertise difference, this hypothesis emerges connecting experience with decision delegation:

> H13: Individuals who perceive themselves to have more relative experience than the potential social surrogates are less likely to delegate decisions than those who perceive themselves to have less relative experience.

Measurement: Relative Experience

For this study, it is believed to be important to consider experience with a decision and the decision environment. This can be measured subjectively or objectively. An objective measure could be based on the number of times this decision has been made or the number of times a person has visited a destination. In this study,

travel experience was objectively measured with questions regarding number of trips taken. An advantage of this is that individuals can be directly compared, allowing for inferences to be made between quantity of travel experiences and decision delegation. However, this likely provides an incomplete picture of delegation. First, it does not consider the surrogate because this measure does not allow a comparison of the individual's experience to a surrogate. Also, an objective measure of surrogate experience was not possible in this study, so a direct comparison could not be made. Thus, a different measure would seem to be superior.

Perceived experience can also be a subjective measure of how much experience that individuals perceive themselves to have in making a particular type of decision or in a certain decision-making environment. The most direct way to measure this is by asking someone their own perceptions of their experience. Within tourism, travel experience could be considered as experience in travel planning, experience in traveling, experience in traveling to a particular destination, and experience in making a certain type of decision. Individuals may also have different levels of experience in sub-decisions, such as selection of restaurants or activities. An advantage of utilizing perceived experience (as with perceived expertise) is that if an individual perceives himself as well-traveled, he may be less willing to choose to delegate trip decisions, regardless of whether or not he is objectively well-traveled. Additionally, it would be difficult to define "well-traveled," as quantity of trips is only one variable that may affect how well-traveled an individual is. Other factors like immersiveness of travel and length of travel may also be important.

Perceived experience (instead of actual experience) is also useful in order to compare an individual's travel experience with a potential surrogate's travel experience. As an individual would likely not have detailed knowledge about another's detailed travel experiences, it would be dependent upon the individual to compare their *own perceived* level of travel experience with the *perceived* level of travel experience *of the surrogate*. In real-life situations, the decision to delegate a decision to a social surrogate must be made using how much experience the delegator perceives the potential surrogate to have. The perceived experience of the surrogate will be measured in the same manner as the perceived expertise of the surrogate, based on the opinion of the individual who may or may not delegate a decision. Thus, the questions follow the same format as perceived expertise and relate to particular decisions during travel.

Other Attributes of the Surrogate

Additional attributes of a surrogate have been found to be important to decision delegation by Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008). However, because they considered decision delegation to a formal surrogate in an organization, many of their propositions would likely not apply to the informal use of a surrogate in a social situation. Because they have been suggested to be important, reasons for their exclusion from this study will be explained.

Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008) found that the trustworthiness of the surrogate had a direct positive impact on delegation, but also mediated three other variables: expertise difference, surrogate accountability, and customization. The accountability of

the surrogate showed the largest coefficient in their study. Here it is important to consider the differences between a hired surrogate (as defined by Solomon, 1986) and a social surrogate. It would be expected that a social surrogate would need to be held accountable for a decision, but this would likely take a different meaning in social situations than formal decision delegation (e.g. a wedding planner). Aggarwal and Mazumdar (2008) stated that accountability would be a recourse for non-performance. In a situation where the decision maker and the delegator are both participating in a tourism activity, this variable would likely have less relevance. If a social surrogate is participating in the same activity as the delegator, then she must be accountable to herself, not just others. Thus, accountability will not be considered.

Willingness to customize is another variable believed to be relevant by Solomon (1986). However, customization would likely be applicable in a formal situation in which an expert (wedding planner, stock broker) would make a decision on behalf of another. In a travel situation, every experience would likely be customized to the travel party. There would be no reason to plan an experience of no relevance to the group traveling. Thus, this variable will not be considered.

Measurement: Decision Delegation

Decision delegation was measured in several ways. First, a way to measure delegation is to consider past decisions. For these environments, questions asked about the percentage of a decision which an individual felt they made (when compared to others in a travel party), as well as the percentage of decisions (e.g. total dining decisions

on a trip) that they made when compared to the percentage that others made. Questions about these questions were asked about two environments: the most recent leisure trip taken others (not just immediate family) in the last two years, and overall across all leisure trips taken in the last two years.

After review of the pilot study, it was determined that the amount of decision delegation on a single trip may not be an adequate overall measure of decision delegation, as each trip may have different attributes, travel companions, and circumstances that may influence delegation. Thus, an additional measure of overall tendency or preference to delegate decisions would be required. Nine questions were designed to measure individuals' preferences for decision delegation throughout the travel process, to include decisions and sub-decisions. Two tourism researchers reviewed and refined these items, which were included on the final survey as a measure of decision delegation.

Models of Decision Delegation

Following the hypotheses above, two models are proposed to test decision delegation to social surrogates in tourism environments. The first model (Figure 3.2) considers decision-making style and was used to test hypotheses H1 to H5. Throughout this study, the decision-making styles will be presented in the order in which they were studied by Scott and Bruce (1995) instead of the order in which the hypotheses were presented in this paper. The second model to be tested (Figure 3.3) contains the additional variables and was used to test hypotheses H6 to H13.

The final independent variables, relative expertise and relative experience, can only be considered in relation to a particular trip, as they require clear identification of potential surrogates. Thus, they were tested using multiple regression. The independent variables were relative expertise and relative experience, comparing the perceived expertise and experience of the respondent to the rest of the travel party, while the dependent variables were the percentage of decisions delegated or the percentage influence over a decision regarding trips actually taken.

Figure 3.2 Proposed Structural Equation Model 1

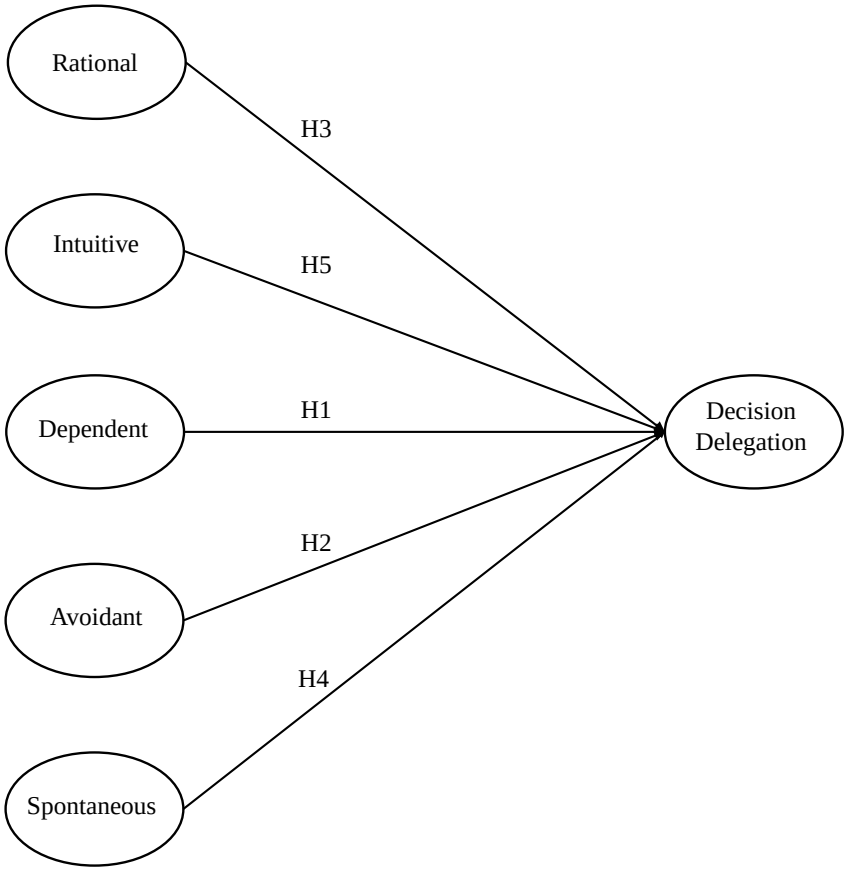
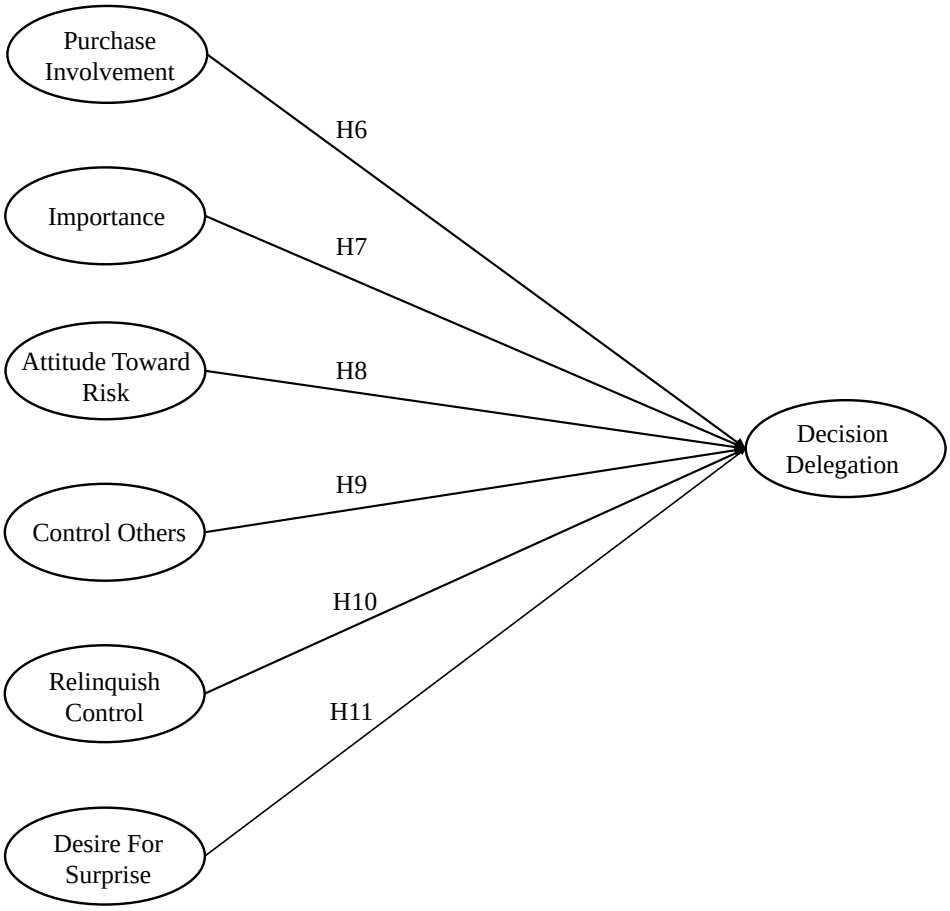


Figure 3.3 Proposed Structural Equation Model 2



CHAPTER IV

METHODS

Introduction

This chapter details the methods used in this study. Included is an overview of the research process, which includes: study design, survey design, pre-testing, survey administration, and data analysis techniques for the results. To summarize, data was collected from an online self-administered survey, hosted by a professional panel company. Prior to this survey being administered, it was designed utilizing scales and items developed from prior research and additional items based on suggestions from previous printed research and consultation with current tourism researchers. Details of the scales used in the research, as well as the justification for using these items were presented in the previous chapter. The survey was first given to graduate student researchers who have expertise in tourism. Following changes suggested by the researchers, it was pilot tested in an undergraduate tourism class. Minor adjustments were made before the survey was released to the panelists. The responses were then analyzed using statistical methods in order to test the proposed relationships and make conclusions. This chapter details the methods used in development and administration of the survey, in addition to the data analysis procedures.

Research Design

This study used a quantitative methodology, following the positivist/scientific realism paradigm, utilizing a survey which was designed and administered to individuals who self-reported responses. Bernard (2013) indicated that self-administered questionnaires are best for answering batteries of questions, such as those in the current study. Self-administered surveys also have a lower level of intrusiveness and a comparatively lower cost than face-to-face surveying, as well as ensuring that each respondent gets the same question.

The responses to the questionnaire were provided by individuals through an online panel survey, also referred to as a "web survey." There are many benefits to web surveys, such as quick response, lower cost per response, and higher response rates (Greenlaw & Brown-Welty, 2009). Additionally, web surveys lack interviewer bias, can be collected quickly, and offer the benefits of direct data entry. Online panel surveys have become popular for hospitality and tourism data collection (e.g. Corsi, Mueller, & Lockshin, 2012; Hung & Petrick, 2011).

Despite the advantages of web surveys, they have been criticized by some researchers. Tuten (2010) noted the potential for coverage error (coverage bias), a potential that some members (e.g. those without internet) of the target population have no potential of being included in a web survey. Hwang and Fesenmaier (2004) expressed that certain populations (e.g. young, educated) would be represented more than others (e.g. retired), thus it may difficult to generalize beyond the specific sample or beyond a "population" of web users.

However, this concern may be dated, as the population of web users in the country has grown to encompass a large majority of people. The International Telecommunication Union (part of the United Nations) stated that the percentage of individuals using the internet in the United States was 81% in 2012 (up from 61.7% in 2003) (ITU, 2013). According to the United States. Census (2012), just over half (54.7%) of individuals had internet at home in 2003, and this had risen to 74.8% by 2012. There was a particularly large penetration in age groups under 65: ages 25-34 (88.1% have internet at home); ages 35-44 (86.2%), and ages 45-64 (78.4%). Overall, 12.2% of the population does not want internet at home, and 7.3% feel it is too expensive. Because this study considers decisions relating to spend of discretionary income (as travel experiences are considered to be discretionary), those who could not afford internet would likely not be the targets of the research.

Tourism researchers comparing web and mail surveys have indicated that answers provided in web surveys should not be considered to be inferior (Dolnicar, Laesser, & Matus, 2009; Cole, 2005). Both Cole (2005) and Dolnicar et al (2009) found differences among samples who had returned mail surveys and who had filled out a survey online. However, both studies concluded that neither method could be deemed superior. In Dolnicar et al's (2009) results, online respondents had taken a significantly higher number of trips and spent more nights away from home. Thus, it is argued that web surveys are more appropriate for tourism researchers, as respondents are more likely to be travelers.

Web surveys are often felt to be more anonymous, which may increase the reliability of the responses. Web surveys also often result in higher quality responses to both closed- and open-ended questions (Shin, Johnson, & Rao, 2012). The time of each response in the current study was recorded and reviewed to identify impossibly quick responses for exclusion from the results. The advantages in reaching a broad sample in a short period of time at a reasonable cost were the primary determinants for utilizing a web-based survey. While no instrument is perfect, this was determined to be an appropriate method for data collection for the current study.

Questionnaire Design and Content

A self-administered online survey was utilized to collect the data. The survey utilized an existing template from a leading web survey company. The contents incorporated suggestions for good web survey design from Tuten (2010) and Reips (2010), including: checking that skip patterns work correctly; providing progress indicators; using multiple screens to minimize scrolling; and allowing users to provide a "not applicable" or "skip" selection for questions that were not relevant.

Questions on the survey fit into two different categories: Likert-type scales and open-ended questions. Likert-type scales have become a common form of scaling, and are often used to measure internal states of people, like attitudes and orientations (Bernard, 2013). Statements are provided, and respondents are asked to respond on a five-to-seven point scale, anchored by opposite points. Points on a five-point Likert-type scale may include: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree.

The responses were scored on a one-to-five, or one-to-seven, point scale, and responses were treated as continuous variables. While the responses may be considered to be ordinal variables and there has been debate about how to quantify responses on Likert-type items (e.g. Clason & Dormody, 1994), it has become accepted to measure them as continuous variables.

Many of the variables (e.g. desirability for control, need for surprise) measured in this study are considered to be latent variables, meaning that they cannot be measured directly but require multiple indicators to define and measure them, thus assessing many aspects of the variable (Hair et al When possible, existing scales were used in the survey. These scales have been previously tested for reliability and validity, thus they are considered to be good measures of the variables concerned. Previous scales were measured using the original number of points on the scale (e.g. five- or seven-point scales), and new questions utilized seven-point Likert-type scales. The previous chapter detailed the origins of these scales, and the next section iterates how these scales were utilized.

Pilot Test

After the initial questionnaire was developed, it was reviewed by five graduate researchers in tourism studies. Feedback on the survey was used to make changes, although none were major. Clarity was ensured on the definition of leisure trip and immediate family. It was recommended to remove a section of the survey concerning

involvement in lodging decisions in order to shorten the survey. Additionally, a few semantic changes were made.

Once recommended changes were made to the survey, a similar version of the study was pilot tested among undergraduate students (n=44). Because it could not be expected that students had taken a trip outside of a family unit, students were allowed to answer questions about any recent trip take with others. Additionally, questions about dining were removed from a tourism context. However, the response choices remained the same for all pertinent items on the survey.

This pre-test was used to ensure clarity in the questions, which should reduce measurement error, in which "participants' answers do not represent their true values" (Tuten, 2010, p. 183). The primary concern of students was the perception of repetition of questions, as well as the confusing nature of certain questions. However, the concerns related to questions that had been previously tested, so they were left in the study. Several students mentioned that negatively-worded questions were confusing. Unclear items that were not part of existing studies were revised or removed, and some scales were shortened. Cronbach alpha scores were calculated for all scales used in the instrument to verify reliability. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) suggested an acceptable alpha score of .7 or higher, while Bland and Altman (1997) stated that values of .7 to .8 are acceptable for comparing groups. All items retained in scales had values of .7 or above.

A final concern after reviewing responses was that the dependent variables regarding how much of a decision was delegated on a recent trip may not be indicative

of how much a person would typically delegate. While it would provide evidence of decision delegation, just because a person delegated decisions on one trip with others does not mean they have an overall tendency or inclination to delegate decisions. Thus, in conjunction with tourism researchers, additional questions were developed and added to the survey for more global measures of decision delegation, such as "When traveling with others, I like to make a majority of the decisions" and "I prefer that others in my travel party choose where I go on vacation."

Questionnaire Content

Items on the questionnaire fit into five general categories: general questions about a recent vacation with others; questions about a dining decisions on this vacation with others; individual attributes (e.g. attitudes, decision-making style); general questions regarding decision delegation among all vacations taken in the last two years; and demographic information.

Following an introduction statement about the purpose of the research, a qualifier question was asked at the beginning of the survey to determine if the individual had taken a trip in the past two years with someone other than (or in addition to) their spouse/partner. The rationale for this qualifying question is that previous research (e.g. Jenkins, 1978; Wang et al, 2004) has established many unique factors about family travel, in particular that a majority of decisions are felt to be joint decisions. As this study sought to identify and isolate decision delegation and usage of a social surrogate, studying travel outside of the family unit would help to avoid predetermined decision-

making heuristics that may be unique to couples and families. Individuals who had taken a vacation with others outside the family unit in the past two years continued with the survey.

The first section of the survey considered aspects of the vacation in question (i.e. a particular vacation taken with others). The first questions asked who the individual traveled with and where they traveled to, in addition to what percentage of the decision in several categories (e.g. what attractions to visit, where to eat, and daily activities) were personally selected. For example, they were asked what percentage of that vacation's dining decisions were made by themselves (as opposed to others). The next questions considered the decision-making process, in particular who made the initial suggestion to take the vacation and to visit the particular destination. Then questions were asked about how the decision process worked for the destination selection, including the role of the individual and others in the decision and relative expertise and experience levels when compared with others in the travel party. Additionally, questions considered how the individual felt about the decision made.

The next section considered how a particular dining decision was made while on the selected vacation. A restaurant decision was chosen because individuals dine multiple times while on vacation, and dining occurs on nearly every vacation. Individuals were asked if there was a time in which another individual made a dining decision on behalf of the group, and questions about the decision making were included. These included involvement, importance, experience, and expertise, the same categories included in the destination decision. While some general questions about restaurant

choice were included in the survey, detailed analysis of product importance and purchase involvement for restaurants were out of the scope of this study.

The third, and largest, section of the survey sought to determine more about the individual's attributes, utilizing scales from previous research. Need for surprise was measured using a three-item scale from Lee and Crompton's (1992) novelty in tourism scale. Decision-making style was measured using Scott and Bruce's (1995) 25-item scale on decision-making style. Desirability for control was measured using items from Burger and Cooper's (1979) desirability for control scale. These scales, and justification for their selection, were discussed in more detail in the chapter on conceptual development. Questions about satisfaction and personality were asked as part of broader research on decision making and were not considered in the outcome of this study.

Next, individuals were briefly asked about their travel experiences in the past two years. This included the number of leisure trips, composition of the travel party, and the percentage of decisions delegated across all trips in several categories (e.g. destination selection, restaurant selection, and choice of touristic activities).

A final section of the survey was comprised of demographic information of the respondents. Demographic variables included gender, age, race/ethnicity, relationship status, and household income. Respondents were asked to indicate which gender they identify as (either male or female), age, and ZIP code. Household income was operationalized using ten categories, from "0-$14,999" to "$200,000 and up" although only individuals with incomes of at least $25,000 were intended to be included.

There has been much debate about race and ethnicity. For U.S. Census purposes, Hispanic and Latino are not considered to be a race. Thus, on Federal surveys, two questions are asked about race and ethnicity. The first pertains to Hispanic/Latino identity, and the second to race, which is divided into 15 categories (including "other race"). The National Center for Education Statistics also uses a two question format. The first considers Hispanic/Latino identity, and the second addresses race, with a selection from 5 categories (NCES, 2012). Utilizing these categories, NCES recommended classifying individuals in research output as one of the following seven categories: Hispanic or Latino, of any race; American Indian or Alaska Native, not Hispanic or Latino; Asian, not Hispanic or Latino; Black, not Hispanic or Latino; Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, not Hispanic or Latino; White, not Hispanic or Latino; Two or more races, not Hispanic or Latino.

For this survey, a simplified categorization was used, based on the categories recommended by NCES to report data: white (not Hispanic or Latino), Hispanic or Latino (of any race); Black/African American (not Hispanic or Latino); Asian; American Indian or Alaska Native; Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander; and Other (please identify). In order to avoid minimize any debate on race and ethnicity, the question was worded as "What is your race/ethnicity?"

Instead of marital status, a broader definition of relationship status was measured, as recent data suggests that a large number of individuals are in committed and/or cohabitating relationships without the formal institution of marriage. In the U.S. Census' American Community Survey (ACS), a relationship category for unmarried partner has

been used since 2005, and the 2012 ACS showed that there were over 15.6 million cohabitating opposite-sex couples and 1.2 million cohabitating same-sex couples in the United States (Vespa, Lewis, & Kreider, 2013). Thus, these populations are deemed to be large enough to be measured separately. Additionally, it is argued that categories such as widowed and divorced classify individuals based on past categorizations (once married) instead of current status. Further, the legalization of same sex marriage adds another variable not encompassed by the simple word "marriage." Thus, in order to operationalize household status, the following classifications were used: single; married opposite sex couple; unmarried opposite sex couple; married same sex couple; unmarried same sex couple. A follow-up question asked if there were children under 18 living in the household.

Selection of Subjects and Data Collection

Before beginning data collection, it was necessary to select a sample. The sampling frame was determined to be American adults who have taken a vacation in the last two years with a travel party other than simply their immediate family (although immediate family members may have been a part of the travel party). The sample was limited to internet users, but based on widespread internet use in the United States, as well as Dolnicar et al's (2009) research showing that the internet is a viable way to reach travelers, the sampling frame should not be considered to be limited to "internet users." Individuals age 25 or older were used, as they would likely have more travel experiences

away from parents and their immediate family. As well, they would likely have a greater number and variety of travel experiences which to reflect upon.

Numerous individuals have suggested guidelines for determining the ideal sample size, which should be large enough to be generalized to a population. As there are not clear guidelines for appropriate sample sizes for structural equation modeling, several different approaches are presented here. For structural equation modeling, Kline (2005) recommended the ratio of cases to the number of free parameters to be 20:1, although 10:1 was more realistic. A minimum 5:1 ratio would be required. A "large" sample size would have more than 200 variables. Bowen and Guo (2011) also recommended following Kline's (2005) rules of thumb. Bentler and Chou (1987) stated that a 5:1 ratio may be acceptable when there are many indicators of latent variables and large factor loadings. To further complicate selection of an appropriately-sized sample, Brown (2006) stated that sample size guidelines such as these have poor generalizability to any research data set, so it is not recommended to utilize these guidelines. Instead, he recommended using power analysis, which is described in detail by Cohen (1988).

The sample of this study is intended to be generalized to a larger population, and, as the population in question gets larger, there are diminishing returns on sample size. In order to generalize findings from a sample to a population of over 1 million (with a confidence level of .05), a sample of 384 is required (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). Thus, to maximize the return on sample size, while attempting to conform to all the above recommendations, a sample of at least 400 cases was requested for the current study.

This study used criterion sampling, meaning that respondents needed to meet a certain criteria for inclusion in this study. As this study was investigating behavior of travelers, it was important that travelers were selected for inclusion. For this study, the minimum requirement was that an individual was at least 25 years old and had taken a trip with individuals other than immediate family in the past two years. A balance of males to females was also requested for the study.

Data collection was held in April 2014. Survey Monkey was chosen as the company through which to host the survey. It recruits from over 30 million users, who fill out a profile about themselves. Thus, the company can provide questionnaires to a sample which is representative of the U.S. population (Survey Monkey, 2014). Individuals were given an incentive to participate, including a donation by the company to a charity and sweepstakes entries.

In a review of research in incentivizing survey respondents, Singer and Ye (2013) concluded that incentives increase response rates. An argument against the use of cash incentives is that they may attract professional respondents, seeking to earn money and "whose qualifications and responses are suspect." (Rogers & Richarme, 2009, p. 3). However, Rogers and Richarme (2009) noted that a way to avoid this pitfall is by ensuring that individuals are limited in the number of surveys they can take in a certain time.

Survey Monkey utilized several criteria to ensure accurate responses, including limiting the number of surveys individuals are allowed to take each week, using non-cash rewards, and benchmarking surveys for representativeness (Survey Monkey, 2014).

Each survey took approximately twenty minutes to complete, and all responses were anonymous. A complete response was required for submission. Completed responses were reviewed for completion time to determine if any responses were completed in an unreasonably quick amount of time.

Data Analysis Procedures

The primary forms of data analysis were structural equation modeling (SEM), multiple regression, and correlation. This section details the analysis procedures for the responses. Two statistical programs were utilized in the interpretation and analysis of the data: IBM SPSS Statistics Version 22 and IBM SPSS Amos (Analysis of MOment Structures) (Version 22).

Preliminary Data Analysis

First, descriptive statistics were analyzed. Demographic variables of the respondents were compared to existing profiles of the American traveling public (using United States Travel Association data) and the U.S. population as a whole (U.S. Census data). This was intended to compare the sample's characteristics to the larger populations of interest. Several attributes of the data will be investigated before beginning structural equation modeling. Missing data, outliers, and distribution for variables were considered. Because a requirement of SEM is that the data is normally distributed, this was also assessed.

Model and Hypothesis Testing

The primary focus of this study was to test hypotheses, and structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test many of these hypotheses. Structural equation modeling is a multivariate technique used to model complex relationships between one or more independent and one or more dependent variables. It can be considered a "hybrid" of multiple regression and factor analysis (Hair et al, 1992). What makes SEM unique is its ability to use latent variables (representing latent constructs) in the model. A latent variable represents a construct that cannot be measured directly, but requires multiple indicators to define it. Indicator variables (also called manifest variables) can be directly observed or measured (such as ratings or survey items). A model was designed based on prior research, and this model was presented in the previous chapter. This model was required because SEM is a confirmatory technique, unlike other statistical techniques. The statistical analysis of SEM is used to test how well the data fit the proposed model.

A structural equation model consists of two parts, and it is recommended to use a two-step approach in modeling data. First is the measurement model. The measurement model delineates the indicators that form each construct and shows a hypothesized relationship between indicators and the latent variables they were designed to measure (Hoyle & Smith, 1994). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is the name given to test (or confirm) the relationships in the model.

SEM is used to assess the reliability of these measures by determining how well the indicators "load" onto each (latent) factor. The second part of the structural equation

model is the structural model. This shows dependence relationships among the variables, iterating which are independent and dependent variables. SEM tests the relationships between these variables.

Within this study, the first step was to test the measurement models using CFA. After confirming fit of the data (and making any necessary and justifiable alterations), a structural model (SEM) was used to assess the conceptual model and the hypotheses presented previously. In examining a structural equation model, goodness of fit indices are required to determine the overall "fit" of the data to the model. Model fit (for both the CFA and SEM) was assessed using measures: the absolute fit index of chi square (χ^2), goodness of fit statistic (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were utilized.

Analysis of model fit followed previously recommended guidelines. Chi-square is a common measure, but it is very sensitive to sample size. If a sample size is large (as with the current study), the chi square will likely be significant, suggesting that a model should be rejected (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Thus, chi square will be reported, but other guidelines will also be used to measure model fit. For GFI (goodness of fit statistic), a minimum value of 0.90 has been recommended, especially for large samples (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). However, some researchers have recommended that this index should no longer be used (Sharma et al, 2005); thus it will be used in conjunction with other measures, but will not be used to make final decisions about the model. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is based on the Normed Fit Index (NFI) but takes into account sample size (Hooper et al, 2008). A value of CFI $\geq$ 0.95 is recommended (Hu

and Bentler, 1999), though CFI $\geq$ 0.90 has been suggested to be acceptable (Hooper et al, 2008). RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) is useful because it favors a model with a fewer number of parameters. Hooper et al (2008) recommend a maximum threshold of less than .08, with a smaller value being better.

For testing of H12 and H13, analyzing relationships between multiple continuous independent variables and one dependent variable, multiple regression was deemed to be appropriate. Several different multiple regression models were planned to be tested, using four dependent variables. First, data was checked for outliers, using Mahalanobis distance. Individual responses with a Mahalanobis distance above a critical value were removed from the analysis (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Multicollinearily was checked using tolerance as a measure, as well as looking at the actual collinearity between the independent variables. Even if tolerance was acceptable (.10 or above) (Pallant, 2010), a high collinearity of .9 or above may still be present. If there was too much multicollinearity between the independent variables (above 0.9), it could be argued that multicollinearity existed at too high of a level. In this instance, correlation analysis was utilized to determine correlations between a single independent variable and dependent variable.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses H1 to H5 were tested using structural equation modelling. Model 1 (Figure 3.2) details the proposed relationship between decision-making style and decision delegation. Individual scores on the various decision-making styles were used

to predict decision delegation in tourism scenarios. First, CFA was used to assess the overall fit before SEM was performed. Within CFA, modification indices were used to determine if any items should be removed or factors modified. However, any changes made required justification before changes were made. Following a good-fitting measurement model, SEM was completed and the results were interpreted.

Hypotheses H6 to H11 were tested using a different structural equation model, called Model 2 (Figure 3.3). As a whole, this model was tested to see how different variables are related to decision delegation. The same procedure was utilized as for Hypotheses H1 to H5. In particular, CFA was followed by justifiable modifications to result in a good-fitting measurement model. Then, SEM was performed and results were analyzed.

Hypotheses H12 and H13 concerned the experience and expertise of the individual in comparison with the surrogate. These two hypotheses do not just refer to a decision, but they are unique to the available surrogates. Thus, responses in regard to an actual trip would be necessary. Individuals were asked questions about their perceived comparative expertise and experience with others in their travel party (potential surrogates) on a recent trip with others. The dependent variables (See Table 4.1) all considered the percentage of decisions that were (or were not) delegated or the percentage of influence individual decision makers felt they had over the final decision. This could be written as:

Percentage of the Decision Made by the Individual = *f* (Relative Experience, Relative Expertise); and

Percentage of Decisions Delegated = *f* (Relative Experience, Relative Expertise)

Table 4.1 Dependent Variables for Testing Hypotheses H12 and H13

Measure of Percentage of the Decision Made by the Individual:
What percentage of the decision about where to go on this trip was made by you?
Measures of Percentage of the Decisions Delegated:
What percentage of the time did you choose where your group would stay?
What percentage of the time did you choose what attractions your group visited?
What percentage of the time did you set the agenda for daily activities?

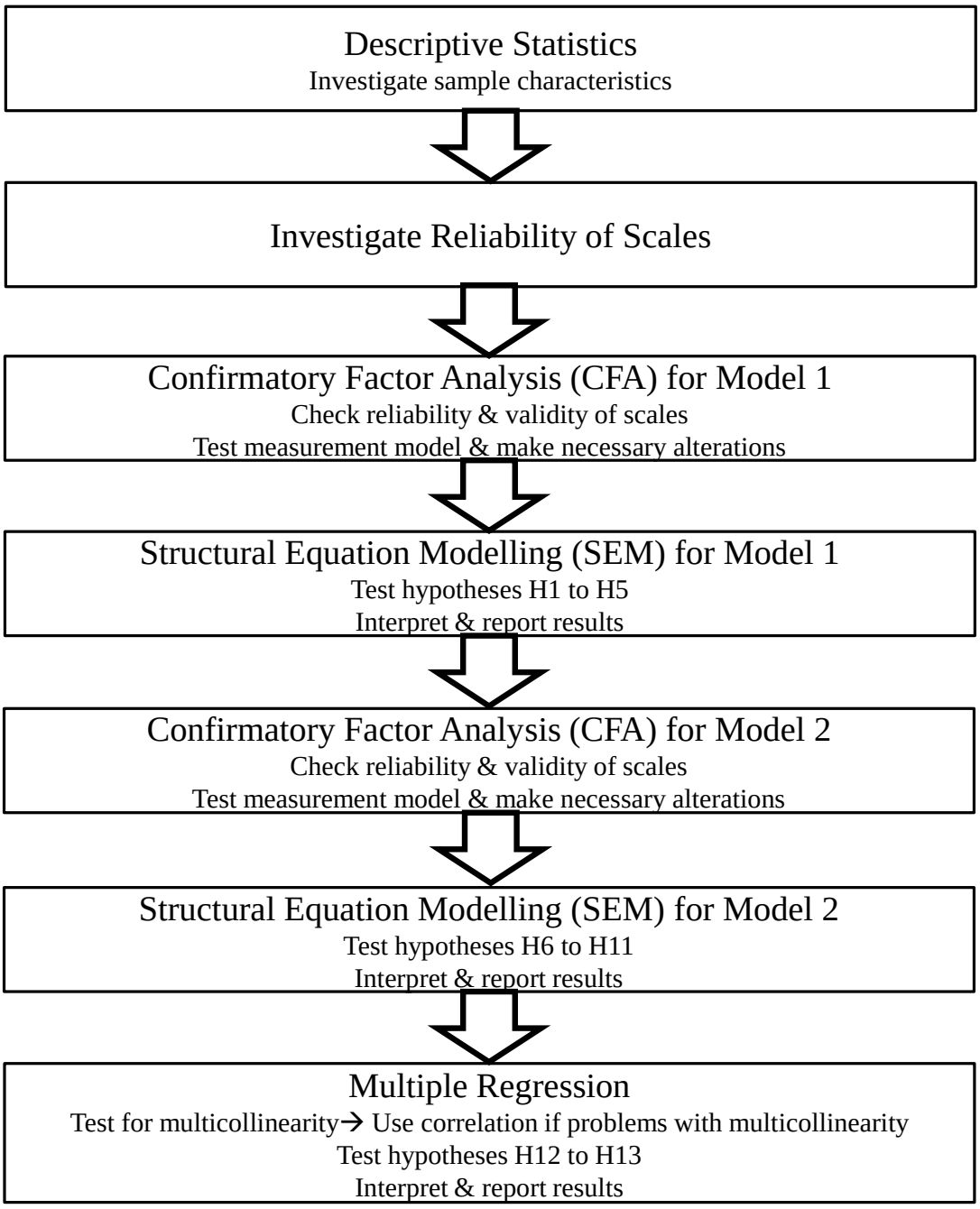
To summarize the analysis, two structural equation models, along with multiple regression were used to test hypotheses. The first structural equation model tested the relationship of each of Scott and Bruce's (1995) decision-making styles on the dependent variable of decision delegation (H1 to H5). Hypothesis H6 was tested by checking the effect of purchase (brand-decision) involvement (Mittal and Lee, 1989) on decision delegation. Mittal's (1989) measures of product importance were used as the independent variable for H7. The effect of attitude toward decision risk on decision delegation, tested H8. The effect of desire for control on decision delegation was measured with two factors: control others (H9) and relinquish control (H10). These factors were identified and named by Gebhardt and Brosschot (2002), using items from Burger and Cooper's (1979) desirability for control scale. The effect of desire for

surprise, from Lee and Crompton's (1992) novelty seeking in tourism scale, on decision delegation tested H11.

Decision delegation may also be measured in relation to the perceived difference between the decision maker's expertise and experience and the perceived expertise and experience of the potential social surrogates in the travel party. Relative expertise (testing H12) and relative experience (H13) were measured using a series of items combined into a single measure for relative expertise and relative experience.

The major steps in data analysis are summarized in Figure 4.1. The analysis and interpretation of the results appears in following chapters.

Figure 4.1 Major Steps in Data Analysis



CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Profile of Respondents

This study used an online web-based panel study to collect the necessary data. The full sampling and data collection procedure was detailed in Chapter IV. Seven-hundred eighty-seven (787) respondents opened the survey. Because the sampling period was brief (four days), there was no attempt to contact non-respondents to increase the response rate. Of the 787 individuals who opened the survey, 423 completed the survey, for a completion rate (not the response rate) of 53.7%. Of the original 787 who attempted the survey, twenty-six chose not to participate in the survey after reading the general description. Although these individuals were part of the survey panel and opened the first page of the survey, they voluntarily declined to take the survey. Among the remaining individuals who accepted the request for the survey, 309 had not taken a trip with individuals outside of their immediate family in the past two years. Because these individuals did not meet the survey eligibility, the complete survey was not made available to them. An additional twenty-nine individuals who started the survey did not finish voluntarily, so a total of 423 completed responses were recorded.

Upon analysis of the data, several completed responses were removed from the study. During the survey, respondents were asked questions about a past trip taken with others. Two respondents indicated that the trip they were referring to was actually taken alone. Thus, these two responses were removed. A different respondent simply

recorded the same numeric answer for a majority of the questions, regardless of the topic, and was thus deleted. Finally, although only individuals 25 years old and up with household incomes of $25,000 or greater were requested to be sampled for the study, some respondents did not meet these parameters. Four individuals under age 25 and twelve individuals with incomes lower than the requested minimum completed the survey. These sixteen responses were removed, so a total of 404 valid responses were used in this study.

Description of the Sample

Profile of Respondents: Demographics

The demographic characteristics of the sample are detailed in Table 5.1. The respondents were primarily female (63.9%), and the average age of respondents was 49.4 (sd=15.0), with respondents ranging in age from 25 (the stated minimum for this study) to 83. The largest percentage of respondents were white (84.4%). Respondents also represented other ethnic/racial groups, including: Asian (6.2%); Hispanic/Latino (5.2%); Black/African-American (3.0%). A few respondents (1.0%) classified themselves as other or did not disclose their ethnic/racial identity.

Table 5.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	258	63.9%
	Male	146	36.1%
Household Status	Married Opposite-Sex Couple	365	90.3%
	Unmarried Opposite-Sex Couple	23	5.7%
	Married Same-Sex Couple	5	1.2%
	Unmarried Same-Sex Couple	4	1.0%
	Single	7	1.7%
Do You Have Children Under 18 Living With You	Yes	136	33.7%
	No	265	65.6%
	Prefer Not to Answer	3	0.7%
Race/Ethnicity	White	341	84.4%
	Asian	25	6.2%
	Hispanic/Latino (of any race)	21	5.2%
	Black/African-American	12	3.0%
	Other	4	1.0%
	Prefer Not to Answer	1	0.2%
Household Income	$25,000-$49,999	75	18.6%
	$50,000-$74,999	122	30.2%
	$75,000-$99,999	91	22.5%
	$100,000-$124,999	46	11.4%
	$125,000-$149,999	27	6.7%
	$150,000-$174,999	15	3.7%
	$175,000-$199,999	7	1.7%
	$200,000 and up	14	3.5%
	Prefer Not to Answer	7	1.7%
Age	25-34	100	24.8%
	35-44	62	15.3%
	45-54	64	15.8%
	55-64	95	23.5%
	65 and up	83	20.5%
	Mean = 49.4 (sd=15.0)		
	Median = 51		

For household status, a majority of the respondents were part of a married, opposite-sex couple (90.3%). A small percentage were part of an unmarried, opposite-sex couple (5.7%) or same-sex couple (married or unmarried)(2.2%), while 1.7% were single. Among all respondents, about one-third (33.7%) stated that they had children under age 18 living with them. Among male respondents, 37.6% reported having

children living at home, while only 31.4% of women reported this. Only individuals who had traveled with someone other than immediate family were eligible for this survey. As a large number of families may travel exclusively as a family unit, it might be expected that they did not take this survey.

Household income asked using ranges of income. The median income range was between $50,000 and $74,999. A large majority (71.3%) reported household income under $100,000. In particular, the ranges of $25,000-49,999 (18.6%), $50,000-$74,999 (30.2%), and $75,000-$99,999 (22.5%) were most common.

Characteristics of Recent Trip with Others

Part of the survey concerned the most recent leisure trip (taken in the last two years) with someone other than just an immediate family. Several attributes were revealed about this trip. Table 5.2 details the responses about the most recent trip taken with individuals outside the immediate family. This trip was used in determining how individuals delegated decisions in a past travel experience. The average group size was 4.9 individuals (sd=4.2), with a median of four. The mean was slightly skewed as some individuals traveled with large groups. The composition of the travel party could contain immediate family members, but it should always contain individuals outside this family unit. On this particular trip, about two-thirds (65.3%) of the travel parties included a spouse or partner, and just less than half (44.6%) included a friend or friends. Under one-third (30.9%) included the respondent's children. A smaller percentage of travel parties included parents (13.9%); in-laws (12.9%); others' children (9.2%);

coworkers (4.7%); or other individuals, such as relatives (12.6%). These numbers total greater than one hundred percent because there were often multiple individuals on trips.

Table 5.2 Profile of the Most Recent Trip Taken with Others

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Who Made the Initial Suggestion to Take a Vacation	Me	223	55.2%
	Someone else	157	38.9%
	Unsure	24	5.9%
Who Made the Initial Suggestion to Visit This Destination	Me	219	54.2%
	Someone else	171	42.3%
	Unsure	14	3.5%
Who Decided Where to Go on This Trip	I made the choice	108	26.7%
	I suggested options, and I made the final choice	75	18.6%
	I suggested options, and those traveling with me made the final choice	82	20.3%
	Those I was traveling with suggested options, and I made the final choice	47	11.6%
	Those I was traveling with suggested options, and they made the final destination choice	57	14.1%
	Those I was traveling with made the choice without my input	24	5.9%
	Someone not traveling with us made the choice	11	2.7%
How Many Were in Your Travel Party	1-3 people	158	39.1%
	4-6 people	168	41.6%
	7-9 people	39	9.7%
	10 or more people	39	9.7%
	Mean = 4.94 (sd=4.2)		
	Median = 4		
Who Traveled With You On This Trip *(More than one may apply)*	Spouse / partner / boyfriend / girlfriend	264	65.3%
	Friend(s)	180	44.6%
	Respondent's children	125	30.9%
	Parents	56	13.9%
	In-laws	52	12.9%
	Others' children	37	9.2%
	Coworkers	19	4.7%
	Others (including other relatives)	51	12.6%
Percentage of the Decision to Visit This Destination Made by Respondent	0%	39	9.7%
	1-24%	29	7.2%
	25-49%	42	10.4%
	50-74%	132	32.7%
	75-99%	85	21.0%
	100%	74	18.3%
	Did not disclose	3	0.7%
	Median = 50% of the decision		

The initial suggestion to take a vacation was proposed by the respondent for over half of the trips (55.2%); however, someone else often made the initial suggestion to take a vacation 38.9 percent of the time. A small percentage (5.9%) of respondents was unsure whose idea the trip was. Responses were similar concerning who first made the suggestion to visit the particular destination. The respondent first suggested the destination 54.2 percent of the time, and someone else made the suggestion 42.3 percent of the time, with the remainder (3.5%) unsure.

The survey also asked how the decision was made. The respondent made the final destination choice in over half (56.9%) of the trips; however, the influence of others varied. In the remainder of the trips (43.1%), others made the final trip decision, with varying levels of input from the respondent. Individuals were also asked what percentage of the decision about where to go on a trip was made by them. The responses ranged from zero percent of the decision (stated by 9.7% of the respondents) to 100 percent of the decision (stated by 18.3%) of the respondents. The median percentage of the decision was stated to be fifty percent. In other words, about fifty percent of the decisions about where to go on the trip were made by the individual responding to the survey. A total of about 72 percent of individuals surveyed indicated that they felt like they had at least fifty percent of the choice in making the decision to visit a certain destination. This is logical because, even if a destination is chosen by others, a person would usually have influence about whether or not to complete the trip. In some instances (9.7%), the individuals stated they had zero influence over the destination

decision. This also is logical, in that some travel, such as to weddings or family events, may be obligatory.

Decision Delegation over the Past Two Years

While one trip may provide a snapshot of decision delegation in tourism, measuring decision delegation across multiple trips may provide a more complete picture of the phenomenon. Individuals were asked to consider all trips they had taken in the past two years and answer questions about decision making. The results are shown in Table 5.3.

Decision delegation was very prominent in sub-decisions, such as meals and activities. Respondents allowed others to choose where to eat a median of fifty percent of the time and allowed others to choose activities a median of fifty percent of the time. Over sixty percent of individuals (66.3%) allowed others to pick meals at least half the time, while a similar number (55.4%) allowed others to pick activities at least half the time. As a generalization, this indicates that travelers delegated restaurant and activity choices at least as often as they chose for themselves.

Individuals even permitted others to choose the destination of a trip (although this was less frequent). Over one-third of respondents (34.7%) let someone else choose the destination at least fifty percent of the time, while over half (51.5%) allowed another to choose the destination on at least one of every four trips. Only 18.6% stated they had not allowed another to choose the destination of a trip within the last two years.

Table 5.3 Profile of Decision Delegation in All Leisure Trips in Past Two Years

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
What % of the Time Did You Let Someone Else Choose the Destination	0%	75	18.6%
	1-24%	121	30.0%
	25-49%	68	16.8%
	50-74%	107	26.5%
	75-99%	22	5.4%
	100%	11	2.7%
	Median = 25%		
Who Have You Let Choose a Destination For You *(More than one may apply)*	Spouse / partner / boyfriend / girlfriend	271	67.1%
	Friend(s)	118	29.2%
	Other family members	99	24.5%
	Respondent's children	68	16.8%
	A travel agent, professional travel planner, tour company	8	2.0%
	Nobody has chosen a trip for me	51	12.6%
What % of the Meals On Trips Did You Let Someone Else Choose	0%	14	3.5%
	1-24%	47	11.6%
	25-49%	75	18.6%
	50-74%	222	55.0%
	75-99%	41	10.1%
	100%	5	1.2%
	Median = 50%		
What % of the Activities You Participated in Were Chosen By Others	0%	22	5.4%
	1-24%	62	15.3%
	25-49%	96	23.8%
	50-74%	189	46.8%
	75-99%	28	6.9%
	100%	7	1.7%
	Median = 50%		
Who Have You Let Choose Activities For You *(More than one may apply)*	Spouse / partner / boyfriend / girlfriend	316	78.2%
	Friend(s)	158	39.1%
	Respondent's children	148	36.6%
	Other family members	139	34.4%
	A travel agent, professional travel planner, tour company, concierge	13	3.2%
	Nobody has chosen activities for me	18	4.5%
	Median = 50% of the decision		

Overall, these responses indicate that decision delegation is not a rarity. It is frequently used to select a destination and it is common in about half of meal and activity decisions while on a trip. Regarding on-trip activities, over three-fourths

(78.2%) had allowed a partner/spouse choose what to do, while friends (39.1%), children (36.6%), and other family members (34.4%) also made choices.

Children frequently chose where to go on vacation. Among respondents with children under 18, over one-quarter (26.5%) had allowed their children to choose a destination in the past two years. This is a different way of looking at the relative influence of children on vacation decisions, and it indicates that individuals often use their children (in addition to partners/spouses, friends, and other family members) as social surrogates.

Sampling Bias Check

An online panel survey was utilized in order to get a diverse sample that might not be possible with a single-site survey. In order to test the representativeness of the sample to the U.S. population, Chi-square tests were utilized in four categories: gender, age, and household income. For each variable, an expected percentage was determined from United States Census or other comparable data. This expected percentage for each group (e.g. male and female for gender) was multiplied by the number of individuals responding to that question in the current survey to calculate an expected value. This expected value was compared to the observed value using a Chi-square test. These results are presented below. Additionally, race/ethnicity will be addressed, although not statistically compared.

The gender of the sample was nearly two-thirds female (63.9%), compared to just over half (50.8%) of the United States population. Thus, females appeared to be

overrepresented in the sample. A Chi-square test indicated that this was the case, as the sample was not homogeneous with the United States population (Chi-square=25.7, df=1, p<.001). This is shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Demographic Comparison: Gender

Gender	Observed Value	Observed %	Expected %[a]	Expected Value[b]
Female	258	63.9%	50.8%	205
Male	146	36.1%	49.2%	199

Chi-square (1, n=404) = 25.7, p<.001
[a]Expected percentages from 2013 U.S. Census data (http://quickfacts.census.gov/qfd/states/00000/html)
[b]Expected values calculated by taking respondents (404) multiplied by expected %

The age of the respondents was also compared to the United States population using data from the 2010 United States Census (see Table 5.5). It should be noted that the census data included a category of individuals from 20-29 years old, although the current study excluded individuals under age 25. Thus, is difficult to make a direct comparison. Following this, the expected value (n=76) of individuals under 29 was much higher than the observed number in this group from the actual sample (n=45). Additionally, the expected values indicate that individuals from 50-59 and 60-69 years of age appear to be overrepresented in the sample (n=87; n=104), compared to expected values (n=75; n=52). The Chi-square test showed that the age groups of the sample were not homogeneous with age groups in the U.S. population (Chi-square=89.8; df=5; p<.001).

Table 5.5 Demographic Comparison: Age (Population)

Age Range	Observed Value	Observed %	Expected %[a]	Expected Value[b]
20-29 years	45[c]	11.1% [c]	18.9%	76
30-39 years	87	21.5%	17.8%	72
40-49 years	59	14.6%	19.3%	78
50-59 years	87	21.5%	18.6%	75
60-69 years	104	25.7%	13.0%	52
70 years and up	22	5.4%	12.3%	50

Chi-square (5, n=404) = 89.8, p<.001
[a]Expected percentages from 2010 U.S. Census data (http://2010.census.gov/2010census/data)
[b]Expected values calculated by taking respondents (404) multiplied by expected %
[c] Individuals under 25 were excluded from the current survey

However, the age breakdown in the United States population is not identical to the age breakdown of the leisure travelers in the United States. The United States Travel Association (USTA) (2012) conducted research to determine the age profile of leisure travelers in America, and this data is compared to the current sample in Table 5.6. The USTA (2012) data included a category of traveler between 18 and 24 years old (representing 8% of leisure travelers). Because the current study considered only individuals over age 25, the under 25 category was removed from the USTA data, and new expected values were calculated and are shown in Table 5.7.

Analysis of the revised leisure traveler age group data using a Chi-square test showed that the sample also cannot be considered homogeneous to the ages of the American leisure traveler (Chi-square=10.05; df=4; p=.04). However, the average age of the American leisure traveler (47.5 years old according to USTA) fits within the median age range (45-54) of the current sample. Additionally, the mean leisure traveler age of 47.5 is close to the current study's age mean of 49.4.

Table 5.6 Demographic Comparison: Age (Leisure Traveler)

Age Range	Observed Value	Observed %	Expected %[a]	Expected Value[b]
18-24 years	[c]	[c]	8%	32
25-34 years	100	24.8%	20%	81
35-44 years	62	15.3%	17%	69
45-54 years	64	15.8%	19%	77
55-64 years	95	23.5%	18%	73
65 years and up	83	20.5%	18%	73

[a]Expected percentages from 2012 U.S. Travel Association Facts & Statistics (http://www.ustravel.org/news/press-kit/travel-facts-and-statistics)
[b]Expected values calculated by taking respondents (404) multiplied by expected %
[c] Individuals under 25 were excluded from the current survey

Table 5.7 Demographic Comparison: Age (Leisure Traveler) – Adjusted

Age Range	Observed Value	Observed %	Expected %[a]	Expected Value[b]
18-24 years	[c]	[c]	[d]	[d]
25-34 years	100	24.8%	21.7%	88
35-44 years	62	15.3%	18.4%	74
45-54 years	64	15.8%	20.7%	84
55-64 years	95	23.5%	20.7%	84
65 years and up	83	20.5%	19.6%	79

Chi-square (5, n=404) = 10.05, p=.04
[a]Expected percentages from 2012 U.S. Travel Association Facts & Statistics (http://www.ustravel.org/news/press-kit/travel-facts-and-statistics)
[b]Expected values calculated by taking respondents (416\\04) multiplied by expected %
[c] Individuals under 25 were excluded from the current survey
[d]Because the current sample excluded individuals under 25, the expected % is estimated from U.S. Travel Association data, with individuals under 25 years old removed from estimates of the traveler population

Another way to compare the demographics of the sample to the United States population is to consider household income. Table 5.8 shows observed and expected values comparing United States Census data to the current study. However, in order to compare the current study with census data, household incomes of under $25,000 must be removed from the census data. An adjusted table, showing only household incomes

of $25,000 and higher is shown in Table 5.9, and this data is used to compare the sample to the U.S. population.

Table 5.8 Demographic Comparison: Household Income

Household Income	Observed Value	Observed %	Expected %[a]	Expected Value[b]
Less than $25,000	[c]	[c]	24.7%	98
$25,000-$49,999	75	18.6%	24.3%	96
$50,000-$74,999	122	30.2%	17.5%	69
$75,000-$99,999	91	22.5%	11.7%	46
$100,000-$124,999	46	11.4%	7.7%	31
$125,000-$149,999	27	6.7%	4.7%	19
$150,000-$174,999	15	3.7%	3.2%	13
$175,000-$199,999	7	1.7%	1.8%	7
$200,000 and up	14	3.5%	4.5%	18

[a] Expected percentages from 2013 U.S. Census data (http://census.gov/hhes/www/cpstables/032013/hhinc/hinc02_000.htm)
[b]Expected values calculated by taking respondents to this question (397) multiplied by expected %

Table 5.9 Demographic Comparison: Household Income – Adjusted

Household Income	Observed Value	Observed %	Expected %[a]	Expected Value[b]
Less than $25,000	[c]	[c]	[d]	[d]
$25,000-$49,999	75	18.6%	32.3%	128
$50,000-$74,999	122	30.2%	23.2%	92
$75,000-$99,999	91	22.5%	15.5%	62
$100,000-$124,999	46	11.4%	10.2%	40
$125,000-$149,999	27	6.7%	6.2%	25
$150,000-$174,999	15	3.7%	4.2%	17
$175,000-$199,999	7	1.7%	2.4%	9
$200,000 and up	14	3.5%	6.0%	24

Chi-square (7, n=397) = 51.2, p<.001
[a] Expected percentages from 2013 U.S. Census data (http://census.gov/hhes/www/cpstables/032013/hhinc/hinc02_000.htm)
[b]Expected values calculated by taking respondents to this question (397) multiplied by expected %
[c] Individuals with household income under $25,000 were excluded from the current survey
[d]Because the current sample excluded individuals under 25, the expected % is estimated from U.S. Cencus data, excluding individuals reporting household income under $25,000

Using a Chi-square test to compare observed and expected values, the sample and the population are statistically different in terms of household income groups (Chi-square=51.2; df=7; p<.001). The expected value for the lowest income range ($25,000-$49,999) was much higher (n=128) than the observed values (n=75). This means that the lowest income levels appear to be underrepresented in the sample. However, this differential may be partially explained by the sample's exclusion of individuals under age 25 (who likely have lower incomes) from the study. However, when totaling household income levels under $100,000, the percentage of the sample (71.3%) is very similar to the United States population as a whole (71%).

The differences in household income may be also partially explained by the sampling procedure. Only individuals who had taken an overnight leisure trip with individuals outside their immediate family were surveyed. It is therefore likely that individuals who travel would have a higher level of income than the typical American and would fall in higher income brackets. This is supported by the United States Travel Association's (2012) data stating that the median household income of a leisure traveler in 2012 was $87,500. The median income bracket in the current study was $50,000-$74,999, which indicates that respondents' incomes may be less than that of the median American leisure traveler.

Another demographic variable that can be considered is race/ethnicity. This study used a combination of race and ethnicity, as defined in Chapter IV. However, the United States Census separates race and ethnicity. Thus, it is not possible to make a direct statistical comparison between the sample and the United States population.

However, it appears the sample is more homogeneous and contains less minority individuals than the population as a whole. White individuals accounted for 84.4% of the study respondents, while the United States population is 77.9% white (U.S. Census, 2013). However, Latino individuals can be of any race, and census data reported that only 63.0% of the population is non-Latino and white. Additionally, Black/African American individuals comprise 13.1% of the U.S. population, but only 3.0% of the current sample. However, the percentage of Asian respondents (6.2%) appears similar to the percentage of Asians in the U.S. population (5.1%). Overall, the sample does not seem to directly reflect the U.S. population; however, race and ethnicity were not the focus of this study.

To summarize, the sample comprised more females and more non-Latino white individuals than would be expected in the general population. Additionally, the sample primarily included individuals who are part of a married opposite-sex couple (90.3%). Although the data may not have been statistically representative of the United States population, this may not have affected the results of the study. First, there may be differences demographically between the United States population and the population of travelers in America. Second, this study only considered travel outside of the immediate family. There may be differences in this population from the population of both American leisure travelers and the American population. However, this study reached a variety of individual travelers, and it is believed that the results may shed light on a phenomenon in travel, although certain demographic characteristics may not statistically reflect the population as a whole.

Descriptive Statistics

In this section, descriptive statistics for variables in the study are revealed. Response items for each measure are grouped together, along with mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis values in several tables in this sectiion. Each of these variables was measured using 5-point or 7-point Likert type scales and was treated as a continuous variable.

Descriptive Statistics: Decision-Making Style

Decision-making styles were determined by asking individuals a series of fifteen items (See Table 5.10) which were expected to be related to five different decision-making styles. Three items for each of five decision-making styles were measured. Using an average of the three items for each decision-making style, general conclusions about the sample can be stated. However, it would be inaccurate to characterize a person as having one decision-making style. The styles are not assumed to be mutually exclusive, meaning that a person may be high (or low) in multiple decision-making styles (Scott & Bruce, 1995).

Table 5.10 Descriptive Statistics: Decision-Making Style

Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Decision-Making Style [a]				
Rational				
I make decisions in a logical and systematic way	3.87	.73	-.802	1.823
My decision making requires careful thought	3.87	.71	-.712	1.178
When making a decision, I consider various options in terms of a specific goal	4.06	.61	-.704	2.717
Intuitive				
When making decisions, I rely upon my instincts	3.67	.74	-.400	.183
When I make decisions, I tend to rely on my intuition	3.61	.75	-.332	-.153
When I make a decision, I trust my inner feelings and reactions	3.76	.74	-.600	.544
Dependent				
I often need the assistance of other people when making important decisions	3.07	1.10	.003	-.949
I rarely make important decisions without consulting other people	3.25	1.07	-.238	-.771
I use the advice of other people in making my important decisions	3.58	.83	-.626	.284
Avoidant				
I avoid making important decisions until the pressure is on	2.43	1.07	.774	-.057
I postpone decision making whenever possible	2.34	1.05	.714	-.067
I often procrastinate when it comes to making important decisions	2.44	1.12	.522	-.589
Spontaneous				
I generally make snap decisions	2.51	.98	.519	-.297
I often make decisions on the spur of the moment	2.69	1.02	.352	-.557
I make quick decisions	2.87	.96	.155	-.465

[a]*Measured with 5-point Likert-type scale*

Respondents rated highest on the rational (m=3.93 on a 5-point scale) decision-making style, with high kurtosis values (1.82, 1.18, and 2.72) for each of the three questions, demonstrating that the responses were clustered toward the high end of the scale. Following rational decision-making styles were intuitive (m=3.68) and dependent (m=3.30). Spontaneous (m=2.78) and avoidant (m=2.40) were the lowest-ranked decision-making styles using these measures, indicating that the individuals in the current sample were less inclined to use spontaneous or avoidant decision making.

Descriptive Statistics: Purchase (Brand-Decision) Involvement

Purchase (brand-decision) involvement was measured using three items, and overall individuals had a high level of purchase (brand-decision) involvement. The results, shown in Table 5.11, indicated that selection of a particular destination (or restaurant while on a trip) was important to them. Although questions about restaurant decisions while on a trip will not be analyzed in this study, the results to these questions are included to provide a more complete picture of the travel experience. The three items for destination purchase involvement were higher (means between 4.04 and 4.09 on a five-point scale) than for restaurant purchase involvement (means between 3.54 and 3.57). The respondents seemed to be highly involved in the selection of a particular destination, as well as for a particular restaurant while on a trip.

Table 5.11: Descriptive Statistics: Purchase (Brand-Decision) Involvement

Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Purchase Involvement: Destination [a]				
I would choose the destination of a trip very carefully	4.04	.71	-.398	.027
Deciding which destination to visit would be an important decision for me	4.09	.70	-.565	.519
Which destination I visit matters to me a lot	4.08	.73	-.509	.095
Purchase Involvement: Dining [a]				
I would choose where to eat on a trip very carefully	3.55	.84	-.283	-.272
Deciding where to eat on a trip would be an important decision for me	3.57	.93	-.486	-.211
On a trip, where I eat matters to me a lot	3.54	.97	-.417	-.289

[a]*Measured with 5-point Likert-type scale*

Descriptive Statistics: Product Importance

Product importance was measured as a global measure, not in regards to a particular trip. Concerning importance, respondents considered both destination choice and restaurant choice while on a vacation to be very important (Table 5.12). The mean for destination importance was very high (5.82 to 6.21 for the three positively-coded items), while the mean for restaurant importance was also high (4.63 to 5.22 for the three positively-coded items). Following this pattern, the destination importance items were skewed to the right with three items having the highest skewness of all measured variables (values $\leq$-1). There was also a high kurtosis value (4.71) for the question "where to go on a trip is important to me." For this question, nearly all (95.6%) of

respondents indicated some level of agreement with this question, resulting in a highly peaked distribution. As this was a large sample (greater than two hundred cases), a high kurtosis value was not anticipated to affect analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For "where to eat on a trip is important to me," three-quarters (75.0%) agreed with that statement. Overall, destination and restaurant decisions on trips were considered to be very important.

Table 5.12 Descriptive Statistics: Product Importance

Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Product Importance: Destination [a]				
Where to go on a trip is important to me	6.21	.90	-1.550	4.710
The destination of a trip is an important part of my life	5.82	1.13	-1.034	1.099
I consider where to go on a trip to be an important decision	6.11	.94	-1.037	.962
Where to go on a trip does not matter to me [rev]	2.81	1.84	.886	-.350
Product Importance: Dining on a Trip [a]				
Where to eat on a trip is important to me	5.22	1.29	-.595	.070
The place I eat on a trip is an important part of my life	4.63	1.46	-.287	-.464
I consider where to eat on a trip to be an important decision	4.90	1.44	-.429	-.464
Where to eat on a trip does not matter to me [rev]	3.52	1.71	.238	-.951

[a] *Measured with 7-point Likert-type scale*
[rev] *Reverse-coded prior to analysis*

Descriptive Statistics: Desirability of Control

Survey takers also indicated a general desire for control, indicated by their responses to items from an existing measure of desirability of control (See Table 5.13). All items measuring desire for control ranked above the midpoint (m=4.72 to 5.50 on a seven-point scale), while three of four items measuring a desire to relinquish control ranked below the midpoint (m=3.28 to 3.89). The item closest to the midpoint ("There are many situations in which I would prefer only one choice rather than having to make a decision", mean=3.89) could be interpreted a measure of choice overload instead of desire for control. One item ("When I see a problem, I prefer to do something about it rather than sit by and let it continue") seemed to be problematic, with the direction of the responses the opposite of what Gebhardt and Brosschot's (2002) factors would anticipate. Scores on this item were in the opposite direction as would have been expected. This will be explored further later in this chapter.

Table 5.13 Descriptive Statistics: Desirability of Control

Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Factor 1: Control Others [a]				
I would prefer to be a leader than a follower	4.76	1.39	-.370	-.230
I enjoy being able to influence the actions of others	4.72	1.36	-.473	.034
When it comes to orders, I would rather give them than receive them	4.86	1.32	-.288	-.190

Table 5.13 (Continued)

Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Factor 2: Relinquish Control [a]				
When I see a problem, I prefer to do something about it rather than sit by and let it continue [rev]	5.50	1.04	-.547	.503
I wish I could push many of life's daily decisions off on someone else	3.28	1.51	.410	-.414
There are many situations in which I would prefer only one choice rather than having to make a decision	3.89	1.41	.098	-.214
I like to wait and see if someone else is going to solve a problem so that I don't have to be bothered with it	3.31	1.52	.418	-.437

[a] *Measured with 7-point Likert-type scale*
[rev] *Reverse-coded prior to analysis*

Descriptive Statistics: Desire for Surprise

Desire for surprise measures are shown in Table 5.14 and had a distinct pattern. While the mean for each of three items was near the midpoint of the five-point scale, a higher percentage of individuals agreed or disagreed with the questions, instead of the distribution curve peaking at the mid-point. This resulted in negative kurtosis values for each of the items (-1.09, -.69, and -.99). For example, on the item "I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes in mind," 40.3% indicated some level of disagreement, while 36.9% indicated some level of agreement. Only 22.8% were neutral. The kurtosis value was -.99 for this item, statistically representing this distribution. Thus, while mean values were clustered around the midpoint, the respondents seemed to be split on their desire for surprise.

Table 5.14 Descriptive Statistics: Desire for Surprise

Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Desire for Surprise [a]				
I don't like to plan a vacation trip in detail because it takes away some of the unexpectedness	2.82	1.12	.018	-1.091
I like vacations that are unpredictable	2.98	1.05	.153	-.693
I would like to take off on a trip with no preplanned routes in my mind	2.95	1.17	.045	-.991

[a]*Measured with 5-point Likert-type scale*

Descriptive Statistics: Attitude toward Decision Risk

As a whole, respondents were risk-averse in making decisions, as shown in Table 5.15. The two risk-averse items measured had means above the mid-point (5.14 and 5.35 on a 7-point scale), while all risk-taking items were below the mid-point (2.89 to 3.75). However, a high standard deviation for some of the items indicates that there are a variety of risk-taking tendencies. For "likelihood of making risky decisions," over one-quarter (27.7%) were at least somewhat likely to make risky decisions, while 51.7 percent were at least somewhat unlikely to make risky decisions. The balance stated they were neither likely nor unlikely.

Table 5.15 Descriptive Statistics: Attitude Toward Decision Risk

Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Attitude Toward Decision Risk [a]				
What is the probability of you making a risky decision?	3.75	1.42	.144	-.538
What is the likelihood of you making a risky decision?	3.55	1.45	.215	-.590
When making everyday decisions, I try to avoid risk [rev]	5.14	1.12	-.681	1.016
I try to avoid risks when making decisions in planning trips [rev]	5.35	1.12	-.987	1.925
I frequently make risky decisions	2.89	1.42	.792	.307

[a] *Measured with 7-point Likert-type scale*
[rev] *Reverse-coded prior to analysis*

Descriptive Statistics: Relative Expertise & Relative Experience

The expertise and experience measures concerned a single trip with others (which was profiled earlier). As depicted in Table 5.16, for all items measuring expertise and experience in both of the scenarios, the mean was greater than the midpoint. This indicates that overall, respondents perceived they had a higher level of expertise and experience than the others they were traveling with. However, when investigating the individual responses, the mode for all twelve expertise and experience questions was four on a seven-point scale. Thus, a plurality of respondents traveled with individuals that they perceived to have equivalent expertise and experience.

Table 5.16 Descriptive Statistics: Relative Expertise and Relative Experience

Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Expertise: Destination [a]				
I know more about travel than those who traveled with me	4.60	1.63	-.225	-.730
I knew more about this destination than those who traveled with me	4.50	1.79	-.329	-.815
I have more expertise about places to visit than those who traveled with me	4.52	1.61	-.146	-.672
Experience: Destination[a]				
I have more experience traveling to this destination than those traveling with me	4.74	1.57	-.279	-.618
I have more experience traveling to this destination than those who traveled with me	4.35	1.80	-.199	-.958
I have more experience at making travel decisions about where to travel than those who traveled with me	4.58	1.53	-.300	-.517

[a]*Measured with 7-point Likert-type scale*

Descriptive Statistics: Decision Delegation

Nine items were included to measure preference for decision delegation. Overall, individuals preferred to control decisions about destination selection, restaurant choice, and activities, rather than to defer them (See Table 5.17). While nearly three-quarters (71.2%) indicated they like to have control over where they go on vacation with others (at least somewhat agree), only 45.3% agreed (at least somewhat) with the statement that "it is important that I personally choose the destination of my trips taken with others." This hints that whether or not to delegate a decision may be

flexible. Control over a vacation may not be equated with making all decisions or the final decision. There seemed to be a slight aversion to delegating decisions, with all questions directly addressing deferral of a decision having means between "somewhat disagree" and "neither agree nor disagree."

Table 5.17 Descriptive Statistics: Preference for Decision Delegation

Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Preference for Decision Delegation in Tourism[a]				
I like to have control over where I go on vacation with others	5.05	1.21	-.594	.625
I prefer that others in my travel party choose where I go on vacation [rev]	3.46	1.50	.494	-.148
It is important that I personally choose the destination of my trips taken with others	4.38	1.43	-.169	-.317
I prefer that others choose the destination of trips that I take with them [rev]	3.47	1.44	.353	-.051
When traveling with others, I like to make a majority of the dining decisions	4.17	1.38	-.034	-.331
When traveling with others, I don't really have a preference of the destination we visit [rev]	3.41	1.47	.389	-.296
I like to defer decisions about where to eat to others in the group [rev]	3.83	1.36	.096	-.345
When on vacation with others, I like to defer decisions about what to do to other people [rev]	3.67	1.33	.346	.040
I prefer that others in the group determine which activities we participate in [rev]	3.60	1.37	.366	-.038

[a] *Measured with 7-point Likert-type scale*
[rev] *Reverse-coded prior to analysis*

Three additional questions addressed previous theories in tourism decision-making and are categorized as social attitudes toward tourism decision delegation (See Table 5.18). In particular, Decrop and Snelders (2005) found that many decision-makers may be opportunistic in waiting for a vacation opportunity to present itself. Others traveled for social reasons, as the destination would sometimes take a back seat to the travel experience. These questions directly addressed these proposals. While these questions are not considered in the statistical analysis, they are believed to help illuminate travelers' attitudes toward decision delegation.

Individuals felt that "who I travel with is more important than the destination itself" (m=5.22 on a seven-point scale), as 77 percent agreed at least somewhat with this statement. Likewise, it could be said that many individuals in this sample may be considered opportunistic, as 61 percent at least somewhat agreed with the statement "If a friend or family member (outside my immediate family) suggests I go on vacation with them, I am likely to join" (m=4.86). A question concerning if the individual picks a trip's destination before considering the travel companions was more distributed, with a kurtosis of -.809. A nearly even number expressed some level of disagreement with this statement (37.1%) as expressed some level of agreement (38.1%). The remainder neither agreed nor disagreed. Overall, these questions indicate that many people can be considered opportunistic in taking vacations. Additionally, when traveling with others, the destination of the trip may frequently be secondary to the social aspects of the vacation experience. This suggested that decision delegation in tourism is a possibility for many potential travelers.

Table 5.18 Descriptive Statistics: Attitudes Toward Decision Delegation

Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Social Attitudes Toward Tourism Decision Delegation[a]				
Who I travel with is more important than the destination itself	5.22	1.29	-.837	1.014
I pick the destination of a trip before I consider who I will be going with	3.99	1.64	-.061	-.841
If a friend or family member (outside of my immediate family) suggests I go on vacation with them, I am likely to join	4.85	1.22	-.384	.314

[a]*Measured with 7-point Likert-type scale*

The next sections of the paper will explore relationships between the variables. First, measurement properties of the scales, including scale reliability will be addressed. Then, factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis, and other statistical measures, will be used to explore relationships among the variables and testing of the hypotheses.

Reliability of Scales

Many previously-tested scales were used within this study, as well as items that had not been previously tested together. In order to initially test the reliability of the scales, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was examined for all of the scales. It has been recommended by Bland and Altman (1997) that a coefficient of .70 or higher is acceptable. Several scales were derived from prior research, although the number of items measured in many were condensed from prior research before being included in

the current study. Items with the highest loadings were retained for all scales. The alpha coefficients for scales which had been previously tested are listed in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19 Scale Reliability Measures Using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α)

Scales	Initial Study	Current Study
Decision-Making Styles (Scott & Bruce, 1995)		
Rational		
4 items	α=.77 to .85	
3 items		α=.79
Intuitive		
5 items	.78 to .84	
3 items		.83
Dependent		
5 items	.68 to .86	
3 items		.78
Avoidant		
5 items	.93 to .94	
3 items		.91
Spontaneous		
5 items	.87	
3 items		.88
Purchase (brand-decision) involvement (Mittal & Lee, 1989)	.77 to .79	
Purchase (brand-decision) involvement (Destination)		.85
Purchase (brand-decision) involvement (Dining)		.90
Product Importance (Mittal, 1989)	n/a	
Importance (Destination)		.79
Importance (Dining)		.88

Table 5.19 (Continued)

Scales	Initial Study	Current Study
Desirability of Control (Gebhardt & Brosschot, 2002)		
Factor 1: Control others		
4 items	.75	
3 items		.87
Factor 2: Relinquish control		
6 items	.63	
4 items		.68
3 items (without item: "When I see a problem, I prefer to do something about it rather than sit by and let it continue."		.77
	.68 to .76	.76
Desire for Surprise (Lee & Crompton, 1992)		

These measurement scales were compared to initial reliability findings from the original authors. Five decision-making styles were determined by Scott and Bruce (1995). They used four items to measure rational decision making, and five items to measure each of the other decision-making styles. For this study, three items were used to measure each of the styles. The reliability coefficients for the shortened scales were acceptable and very close to the reliability coefficients found in the original study: rational (α=.77 to .85 in the original study; α=.79 in the current study); intuitive (α=.78 to .84 original; α=.83 current); dependent (.68 to .86 original; α=.78 current); avoidant (α=.93 to .94 original; α=.91 current); spontaneous (α=.87 original; α=.88 current).

Mittal and Lee (1989) developed a scale for purchase (brand-decision) involvement. The reliability coefficient of the three measured items in their study was α=.77 to .79. This compares to coefficients of α=.85 for destination brand-decision

involvement and α=.90 for dining brand-decision involvement. Mittal (1989) determined that purchase involvement and product importance were different and his items measuring product importance were utilized in the current study. Mittal reported that coefficient alphas were "good," but he did not report numeric values. For the current study, reliability of this measure was good for both destination importance (α=.79) and dining importance (α=.88).

Desirability of control and desire for surprise were also compared to previous studies. Lee and Crompton (1992) measured desire for surprise in their novelty-seeking scale. In their original study, reliability was found to be between α=.68 and α=.76. In the current study, reliability was in line with the initial measurement (α=.76).

Desirability of control was measured using items altered from Burger and Cooper's (1979) desirability of control scale by Gebhardt and Brosschot (2002). The current study reduced the number of items measured by Gebhardt and Brosschot (2002). The factor "control others" was reduced from four measurement items to three, and items measuring "relinquish control" were reduced from six to four. Reliability coefficients were higher in the current study than the initial study. The reliability of the original four-item measure of "control others" was α=.75, which compares to α=.87 for the three-item measure in the current study. Both of these measures were deemed to be "acceptable."

For the second factor ("relinquish control"), the reliability coefficient was not as strong. In both the original six-item scale (α=.63) and the current four-item scale (α=.68). These measures would not be considered to be acceptable by Bland and Altman

(1997), so further investigation was undertaken to consider this factor. Many items in Burger and Cooper's (1979) original desirability of control scale did not clearly load on single factors for different different samples, providing evidence that the scale may need refinement for the current study.

Because desirability of control was expected to be a multi-dimensional construct without clear agreement on the factor structure, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to determine if the seven-items measured in the current study could be considered to be two distinct factors as proposed by Gebhardt and Brosschot (2002). Principal components analysis with Varimax rotation was employed. The Kaiser-Gutmann rule recommends keeping factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 (Brown, 2006), and this rule of thumb was utilized.

In order to determine if factor analysis is appropriate, Pallant (2010) recommended a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value higher than .6 and that Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant ($p<.05$). Both of these criteria were met (KMO=.772; Bartlett's, $p<.001$). A two-factor solution resulted from the EFA, with the first factor explaining 41.6% of the variance and the second factor 29.0% of the variance. Items loading less than .3 on a factor were ignored (See Table 5.20). The resulting factors were analogous to Gebhardt and Brosschot's (2002) factors except for one item. The item "When I see a problem, I prefer to do something about it rather than sit by and let it continue" loaded strongly on "control others" in the current study (factor loading=.751), while it loaded on "relinquish control" in the previous study (factor loading between .51 to .61). In the descriptive statistics, it was also noted that this item had a mean above the

mid-point (5.50 out of 7), while the other three items loading on this factor had mean values much lower (3.28 to 3.89), providing evidence that this question was an outlier .

Table 5.20 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Desirability of Control

Items	Factor Loadings	
	Factor 1	Factor 2
I would prefer to be a leader than a follower	.878	
I enjoy being able to influence the actions of others	.867	
When it comes to orders, I would rather give them than receive them	.865	
When I see a problem, I prefer to do something about it rather than sit by and let it continue	.751	
I wish I could push many of life's daily decisions off on someone else [rev]		.857
There are many situations in which I would prefer only one choice rather than having to make a decision [rev]		.816
I like to wait and see if someone else is going to solve a problem so that I don't have to be bothered with it [re]		.807
Cronbach's α	.86	.77

[rev] reverse-coded item
% Variance Explained: 70.51%
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling (KMO) = .772
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 1134.026
Significance <.001

When interpreting the meaning of this item, it seems that it might not measure relinquishing control to others. Instead it appears to directly address taking action or not taking action. Thus, it appears to be a poor measure of relinquishing control. Additionally, this item had the lowest factor loading on "relinquish control" of the four items in Gebhardt and Brosschot's (2002) research. Even though this item was found to

strongly load on the factor of "control others" in the current study, this item was be deleted from the measure of desirability of control before conducting further statistical analysis.

Several factors in the current study were not measured using previous scales. An appropriate measure of attitude toward decision risk, or tendency to make risky decisions was not found. Additionally, relative expertise and experience items were measured in this study. These expertise and experience measures would be unique to each decision delegation environment, depending on the individuals present, and thus were created for the purposes of the current study.

In order to determine an individual's attitude toward decision risk, it was anticipated that the likelihood to make a risky decision and the probability of making a risky decision would be two accurate measures of propensity to make risky decisions. Five items were developed as detailed in Chapter III. Together, the five items had a Cronbach's alpha of .73. However, the reliability analysis also suggested that alpha would be improved by removing some items. As risk may be a multi-dimensional construct and these five measures had not been previously considered together, exploratory factor analysis was used to determine if these items measured the same dimension of risk. A principal components analysis with Varimax rotation was used to determine the underlying factor structure of these five items.

For this analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was higher than .6 (KMO=.667), and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p<.001$). A two-factor solution resulted from the EFA, with the first factor explaining 49.2% of the variance

and the second explained 29.4%, for a total of 78.6% of variance explained (See Table 5.21). The likelihood and probability items were determined a priori to be the best measures of propensity toward making a risk decision, and both items loaded on the same factor, along with a third item which was a behavioral measure of making risky decisions. Thus, these three items were retained for the measure of "attitude toward decision risk" for both the measurement and structural models.

Table 5.21 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Decision Risk

Items	Factor Loadings	
	Factor 1	Factor 2
What is the likelihood of you making a risky decision?	.936	
What is the probability of you making a risky decision?	.883	
I frequently make risky decisions	.875	
I try to avoid risks when making decisions in planning trips ^{rev}		.869
When making everyday decisions, I try to avoid risk ^{rev}		.858
Cronbach's α	.88	.66

% Variance Explained: 78.6%
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling (KMO) = .667
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 809.31
Significance <.001

Relative expertise and relative experience (both as compared with others in the travel party) were each measured with three items. These items were asked in relation to two scenarios from a recent trip: destination and dining. Each of these measures showed high reliability coefficients. For relative destination expertise, reliability was

α=.86, and relative travel experience was α=.86. When considering dining on a current trip, alpha coefficients were also high. For relative dining expertise, reliability was α=.91, and relative dining experience was α=.86.

A final set of variables measured preference for decision delegation. Decision delegation was measured for certain past scenarios by asking what percentage of decisions were delegated; however, this would result in trip-specific, not global, measures. Nine items were generated for a global preference for decision delegation. As it could be anticipated that there is more than one underlying dimension of decision delegation, exploratory factor analysis (utilizing principal components analysis with Varimax rotation) was conducted. As with previous EFA in this study, factors with Eigenvalues of 1.0 or higher were retained. For this analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was higher than .6 (Kaiser, 1970) (KMO=.809), and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p<.001$). Results are shown in Table 5.22.

The two factors resulting from the EFA together explained 65.8% of the variance (42.1% and 23.7%), and each item loaded on a single factor, when ignoring loadings below .3. The first factor related to deferring decisions or having no preference about which decision is made. This factor was labelled as "defer decision." The second factor related to having a preference or controlling a decision. This factor was labelled "choose" or "make choice." Both factors showed high levels of reliability. "Defer decision" had a Cronbach's alpha of α=.87, while "make choice" had a value of α=.81. These two factors will be explored as dependent variables in the structural equation model.

Table 5.22 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Preference for Decision Delegation

Items	Factor Loadings	
	Factor 1	Factor 2
When on vacation with others, I like to defer decisions about what to do to other people [rev]	.844	
I prefer that others in the group determine which activities we participate in [rev]	.815	
I prefer that others choose the destination of trips that I take with them [rev]	.798	
I prefer that others in my travel party choose where I go on vacation [rev]	.756	
I like to defer decisions about where to eat to others in the group [rev]	.754	
When traveling with others, I don't really have a preference of the destination we visit [rev]	.714	
It is important that I personally choose the destination of my trips taken with others		.874
When traveling with others, I like to make a majority of the dining decisions		.863
I like to have control over where I go on vacation with others		.797
Cronbach's α	.87	.81

[rev] reverse-coded item
% Variance Explained: 65.8%
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling (KMO) = .809
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 1668.1
Significance <.001

Post hoc Hypotheses

The initial hypotheses considered whether or not an individual would delegate a decision. However, factor analysis on decision delegation identified two related, but distinct, constructs. It may initially appear as if delegating decisions and making a choice would be at opposite ends of a continuum. However, this would be the case only for individual decisions. Considering all decisions, it would not necessarily be true that

a person would always behave in a single manner. Just as Swarbrooke and Horner (2007) stated that individuals may use more than one decision-making style, so may people use decision delegation differently at different times.

While the previous hypotheses focused on likelihood to delegate a decision, the second factor ("make choice") is also of interest in this research. However, as the likelihood to delegate a decision and likelihood to make a choice are not polar opposites, additional hypotheses were needed. A review of research on decision delegation was presented previously. However, this research did not explicitly address whether a person would make a choice; instead it addressed whether a person would delegate a decision. Thus, most of these additional hypotheses concerning making a choice when traveling with others were written as null and non-directional (H1B – H8B and H11B). These "additional" (not to be mistaken with "alternative") hypotheses, were labeled with the suffix "B" (instead of "A").

However, previous research has suggested that two of the additional hypotheses should be directional, and these relate to desirability of control. First, individuals with the desire to control others would likely desire to make choices for themselves while traveling with others. This is shown in H9B. A high desire to relinquish control to others would be logically associated with the desire to defer a tourism decision, and this is written in H10B.

H1B: Individuals high in dependent decision-making style are neither more nor less likely to prefer choosing for themselves than those who are less dependent decision-makers.

H2B: Individuals high in avoidant decision-making style are neither more nor less likely to prefer choosing for themselves than those who are less avoidant decision-makers.

H3B: Individuals high in rational decision-making style are neither more nor less likely to prefer choosing for themselves than those who are less rational decision-makers.

H4B: Individuals high in spontaneous decision-making style are neither more nor less likely to prefer choosing for themselves than those who are less spontaneous decision-makers.

H5B: Individuals high in intuitive decision-making style are neither more nor less likely to prefer choosing for themselves than those who are less intuitive decision-makers.

H6B: Individuals with high purchase (brand-decision) involvement are neither more nor less likely to prefer choosing for themselves than those with low purchase (brand-decision) involvement.

H7B: Individuals who rate the (tourism) product as high importance are neither more nor less likely to prefer choosing for themselves than those who rate the product as low importance.

H8B: Individuals who are more risk averse in decision-making are neither more nor less likely to prefer choosing for themselves than those who are less risk averse.

H9B: Individuals with a high desirability to control others are more likely to prefer choosing for themselves than those who have less desire to control others.

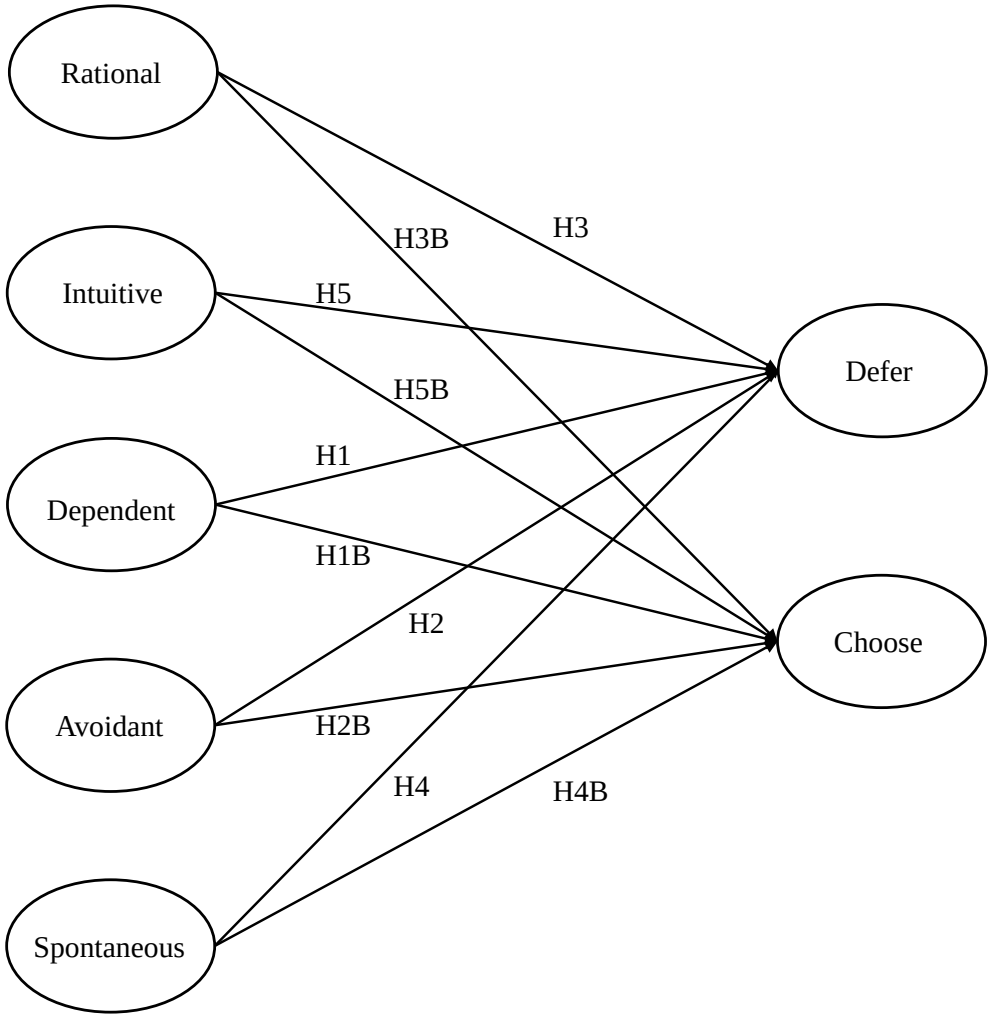
H10B: Individuals high in the desire to relinquish control are less likely to prefer choosing for themselves than those who have a low desire to relinquish control.

H11B: Individuals with a high desire for surprise are neither more nor less likely to prefer choosing for themselves than those with a low desire for surprise.

In summary, as a result of the scale analysis and exploratory factor analysis, two small changes were made. First, one item was deleted from the desirability of control scale, resulting in three items loading on each of two factors. Second, the preference for decision delegation in tourism was determined to have two underlying factors. After these changes, the reliability for all of the scales exceeded the recommended minimum of 0.7.

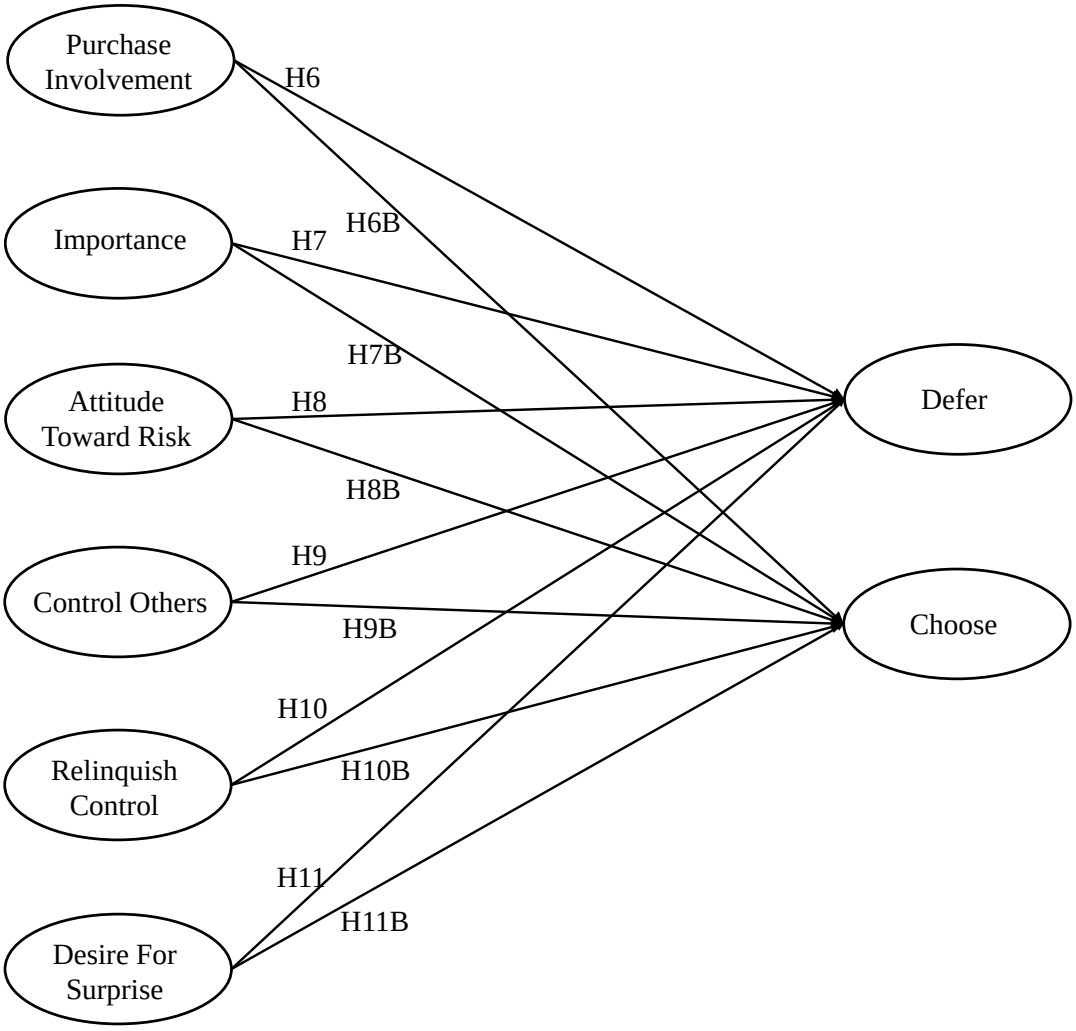
Additional hypotheses were developed to account for a second dependent variable relating to decision choice. Thus, the proposed model comparing decision-making style with decision delegation now includes two dependent variables. This revised Model 1 (originally presented as Figure 4.1) is shown in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 Revised Structural Equation Model 1 (Decision-Making Styles)



As with Model 1, it was necessary to revise Model 2 to show the additional hypotheses. The revised Model 2 (originally presented as Figure 4.2) can be see in Figure 5.2 The next chapter will present the testing of hypotheses using confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modelling, and other statistical measures.

Figure 5.2 Revised Structural Equation Model 2



CHAPTER VI

DATA ANALYSIS & HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Overview of Hypotheses Tested

This chapter details the analysis and results of the testing of the hypotheses. In particular, various independent variables were tested for their effects on decision delegation in tourism decision scenarios. Hypotheses H1 to H11 were analyzed utilizing the propensity to defer a decision to others ("defer") as the dependent variable. Hypotheses H1B to H11B utilized the "make choice" or "choose" factor, or the likelihood of making a choice when in decision scenarios while traveling with others. Due to the nature of the variables, two models were necessary. Hypotheses H1 to H5 (and H1B to H5B), regarding decision-making styles, were tested in Model 1. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the measurement model. Then, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to describe the relationship between the five decision-making styles and decision delegation.

A separate structural equation model (Model 2) was designed to test H6 to H11 (and H6B to H11B). Again, CFA was conducted to determine the adequacy and fit of the measurement model. Then, a structural model was analyzed using SEM. The dependent variables for this model were the same as for the previous model. Both of these models are detailed in this chapter.

Relative expertise (relating to H12) and relative experience (H13) used decision delegation in a single type of vacation decision as a dependent variable. Thus, instead of

a global measure of likelihood to delegate a decision, a single decision type was utilized. Thus, the independent variables for this model were relative expertise and experience of the traveler (in comparison to the rest of the travel party) on a single type of vacation decision on a recent vacation. For each, the dependent variable was the percentage of a decision that the individual decider made or the percentage of time in which the individual decision maker made (i.e. did not delegate) a decision. Because the dependent variable is a single continuous variable, multiple linear regression and correlation were utilized.

Missing Data Procedures

Before beginning SEM, it is essential that there are no missing values in the data. Upon analysis of the data, there was missing data for several items. One option for removal of data is listwise deletion; however this has been argued to be a poor choice, as a lot of data would be lost (Arbuckle, 2012). Instead, missing values can be imputed. Missing values were found in the nine items measuring decision delegation. The total number of missing values was seventeen from a total of 3,636 possible entries. No individual skipped more than one item, and there was no pattern to the missing data. Thus, they were determined to be missing completely at random. With such a small percentage of the data missing, imputing values for missing responses would not appear to alter the results. These missing values for the questions relating to decision delegation were imputed using PRELIS, a component of LISREL, a statistical program.

From this point forward, the data analyzed includes imputed values for the seventeen missing values. A single value was missing for the item "I frequently make risky decisions." Again, missing one response from a sample of 404 individuals appears to be a minor amount. This single missing value was replaced with the mean, which is not usually a preferred option. However, in this case, the rounded mean was also the median and the mode. (The mean was rounded to a whole number, as it was a Likert-type question.) Thus, imputation of the data would often result in the same value as replacement with the mean, so the mean was used for this single response.

Measurement Model for Decision-Making Style

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is used to measure relationships between observed measures (indicators) and latent variables (factors). It requires that the model and relationships between the variables are established a priori based on conceptual foundations. Because the hypothesized model in this study is based upon prior research, as detailed in Chapter III, CFA was believed to be appropriate to measure the relationships between the variables.

Before beginning a structural equation model, it is necessary to conduct CFA (Brown, 2006). A purpose of CFA is to confirm whether the pre-determined relationships between observed measures and latent variables actually exist (Byrne, 2001). Additionally, it can be used for evidence of convergent and discriminant validity. A measurement model (CFA model) specifies the number of factors, relationships

between the indicators and latent factors, and relationships among the indicator errors (Brown, 2006). The first step of this analysis was to analyze the measurement model.

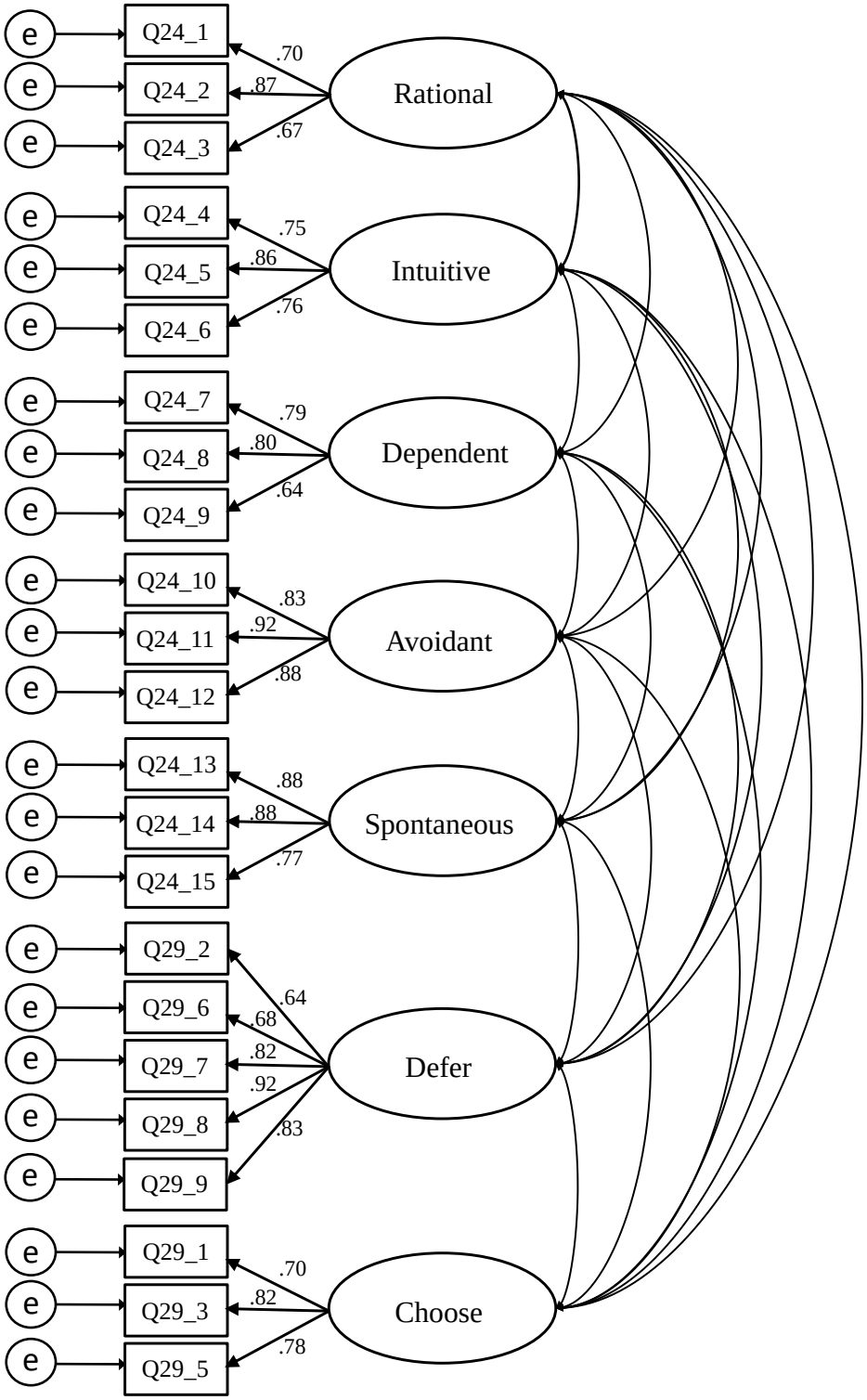
The first measurement model to be analyzed concerned decision-making styles as independent variables. Upon testing the model, the model fit was not optimal (χ^2 = 571.66, df=231, p<.001, CFI=.935; GFI=.891; RMSEA=.06). Investigation of the modification indices has been recommended to further evaluate model fit (Brown, 2006). The modification indices indicated that two items ("I prefer that others in my travel party choose where I go on vacation" and "I prefer that other choose the destination of trips that I take with them") were highly correlated. Upon review of the items, it is reasonable to assume that the items measured same concept. Additionally, because six items initially loaded on the construct of decision delegation, removal of one of the items would help to simplify the measurement. Because the modification indices suggested more problems with the latter of these two items, the item ("I prefer that other choose the destination of trips that I take with them") was removed from the model. Five items were still left to load on this factor.

The measurement model (with a single item removed) was again tested using CFA. The model fit was deemed acceptable (χ^2 = 440.982, df=209, p<.001, CFI=.953; GFI=.913; RMSEA=.052). Factor loadings for the final measurement model are shown in Table 6.1, and the final measurement model (Model 1) is shown in Figure 6.1. Additionally, it was necessary to test this model for validity and reliability.

Table 6.1 Factor Loadings, t value and Significance for Model 1

Variable	Factor Loading Standardized	Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Value	P Value
Rational Decision-Making Style					
(Q24_1)	.70	1.250	.106	11.77	<.001
(Q24_2)	.87	1.503	.119	12.58	<.001
(Q24_3)	.67	1.000			
Intuitive Decision-Making Style					
(Q24_4)	.75	.984	.070	13.99	<.001
(Q24_5)	.86	1.141	.077	14.84	<.001
(Q24_6)	.76	1.000			
Dependent Decision-Making Style					
(Q24_7)	.79	1.615	.136	11.90	<.001
(Q24_8)	.80	1.605	.134	11.97	<.001
(Q24_9)	.64	1.000			
Avoidant Decision-Making Style					
(Q24_10)	.83	.900	.042	21.36	<.001
(Q24_11)	.92	.988	.039	25.45	<.001
(Q24_12)	.88	1.000			
Spontaneous Decision-Making Style					
(Q24_13)	.88	1.151	.063	18.22	<.001
(Q24_14)	.88	1.212	.066	18.31	<.001
(Q24_15)	.77	1.000			
Defer Decision					
(Q29_2)	.64	.791	.054	14.70	<.001
(Q29_6)	.68	.828	.052	16.01	<.001
(Q29_7)	.82	.917	.042	21.76	<.001
(Q29_8)	.92	1.000			
(Q29_9)	.83	.942	.042	22.66	<.001
Choose (Make Choice)					
(Q29_1)	.70	.787	.060	13.12	<.001
(Q29_3)	.82	1.097	.075	14.69	<.001
(Q29_5)	.78	1.000			

Figure 6.1 Final Measurement Model: Model 1 (Decision-Making Styles)



Validity and Reliability Checks

Convergent validity was addressed by reviewing the t tests for factor loadings. It has been argued there is evidence of convergent validity if all factor loadings for indicators measuring the same construct are statistically significant (O'Rourke & Hatcher, 2013). Table 6.1 details this analysis, showing that all individual items loading on a single construct could be determined to measure the same construct. Previously, before utilizing confirmatory factor analysis, reliability was also tested using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. This was detailed in Chapter V. Composite reliability, a measure analogous to Cronbach's alpha, measures the internal consistency of the indicators for each factor (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All factors had a composite reliability value of .788 or higher, which is greater than .70 and very near a more conservative threshold of .80 (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003). Thus, this suggests that each factor reliably measures each construct sufficiently. Composite reliability and average variance extracted (AVE) are shown in Table 6.2. All AVE values were also above the minimum of .50 suggested by Netemeyer et al (2003).

Table 6.2 Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted for Model 1

	CR	AVE
Defer	0.886	0.613
Rational	0.794	0.565
Intuitive	0.830	0.621
Dependent	0.788	0.556
Avoidant	0.908	0.767
Spontaneous	0.882	0.714
Choose for Self	0.811	0.590

Discriminant validity refers to the distinctiveness of different constructs. Correlations between the constructs should be relatively weak, indicating that each factor measures a different and distinct construct (O'Rourke & Hatcher, 2013). Discriminant validity was investigated by comparing the inter-correlations of the constructs to the square roots of the average variance explained (see Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 6.3 shows the factor correlation matrix with the square root of the AVE on the diagonal. The square root of the AVE for each factor was higher than any of the interfactor correlations. Thus, the factors used in the model can be stated to have discriminant validity. Following these validity and reliability checks, a structural equation model was tested.

Table 6.3 Discriminant Validity Analysis: Model 1

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Defer (1)	**0.783**						
Rational (2)	0.059	**0.752**					
Intuitive (3)	0.115	0.289	**0.788**				
Dependent (4)	0.413	0.249	0.112	**0.746**			
Avoidant (5)	0.508	0.040	0.130	0.609	**0.876**		
Spontaneous (6)	0.403	-0.069	0.324	0.202	0.474	**0.845**	
Choose for Self (7)	0.056	0.481	0.379	0.219	0.299	0.297	**0.768**

Structural Equation Model for Decision-Making Style

After the measurement model had been tested for model fit, validity and reliability, the next step was to use SEM to determine the strength of the hypothesized relationships. The structural equation model was found to have a good fit with the data (χ^2 = 452.385, df=210, p<.001, CFI=.951; GFI=.911; RMSEA=.054). Thus, this model

was used to test hypotheses H1 to H5. The resulting model, called Model 1, is shown in Figure 6.2

Testing of Hypotheses 1-5

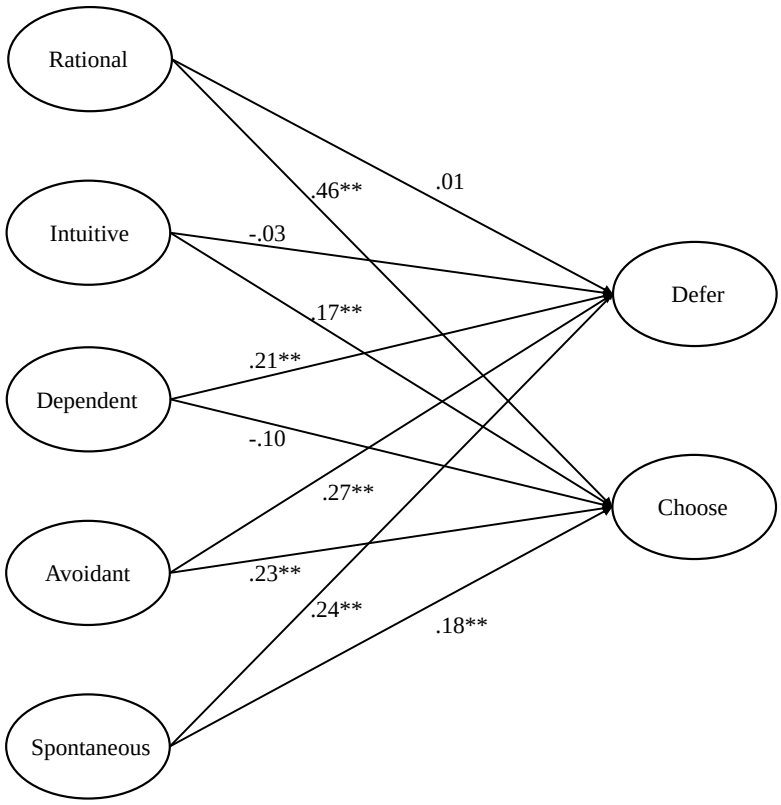
The first five hypotheses referred to decision delegation, an individual's tendency to delegate a decision to a social surrogate. Decision delegation was measured using the construct of "decision delegation," which measures an individual's propensity to defer or delegate tourism decisions. A second factor, the propensity of individuals to make a decision for themselves instead of delegating the decision, will also be addressed. Thus, two measures of decision delegation may be considered: propensity to defer or delegate a decision ("defer") and propensity to make a decision for oneself or to *not* delegate a decision ("choose"). A higher score on "defer" meant an individual was more likely to delegate a decision. A higher score on "choose" meant an individual was more likely to choose for oneself. The results of the testing of the structural model (Model 1) are displayed in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Summary of SEM for Model 1 (Decision-Making Styles)

Regression Path	Standard path coefficient	Non-standard Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio (t-value)	P-Value
Rational→ Defer (H3)	.01	.016	.137	0.12	.907
Rational→ Choose for Self (H3B)	.46**	1.205	.179	6.72	<.001
Intuitive→ Defer (H5)	-.03	-.048	.100	-0.48	.629
Intuitive→ Choose for Self (H5B)	.17**	.327	.116	2.81	.005
Dependent→ Defer (H1)	.21**	.382	.138	2.77	.006
Dependent→ Choose for Self (H1B)	-.10	-.199	.155	-1.29	.198
Avoidant→ Defer (H2)	.27**	.273	.077	3.54	<.001
Avoidant→ Choose for Self (H2B)	.23*	.253	.087	2.91	.004
Spontaneous→ Defer (H4)	.24**	.320	.080	3.80	<.001
Spontaneous→ Choose for Self (H4B)	.18**	.260	.094	2.77	.006

A higher value on Defer means more likely to delegate a decision.
A higher value on Choose for self means more likely to choose for oneself.
***Significant at p≤ .01*

Figure 6.2 Final SEM for Model 1 (Decision-Making Styles)



Hypothesis H1 stated that individuals who were dependent decision makers would be more likely to delegate decisions. This hypothesis was supported. Individuals who were more dependent decision makers were more likely to delegate decisions to others ($p<.01$). Hypothesis H1B was also supported. There was no statistically significant ($p>.05$) between being a dependent decision maker and making a choice for oneself in tourism.

Hypothesis H2 addressed avoidant decision makers, and stated that avoidant decision makers would be more likely to delegate decisions. The data in this study supported this hypothesis. Individuals who scored higher on avoidant decision making were more likely to delegate decisions ($p<.01$), so H2 was supported. Hypothesis H2B considered the relationship between being an avoidant decision maker and making a choice for oneself. In this study, avoidant decision makers were found to be more likely ($p<.05$) to make decisions for themselves, so H2B was not supported.

Hypothesis H3 considered rational decision makers, hypothesizing that rational decision makers would be less likely to delegate decisions. There was no significant relationship between deferring a decision and being a rational decision maker ($p>.05$), so H3 was not supported. However, there was a strong relationship between rational decision making and choosing for oneself. Thus, although rational decision makers were not found to be more or less likely to defer decisions, they were likely to desire to choose for themselves ($p<.01$). Thus, H3B, predicting no relationship, was not supported.

As it was suggested that different motivations and attributes may affect spontaneous decision makers, Hypothesis H4 anticipated no relationship between spontaneous decision makers and deferring decisions. In this study, however, there was a significant relationship between spontaneous decision makers and decision delegation. An individual found to be a more spontaneous decision maker was found to be more likely to delegate a decision ($p<.01$). Thus H4 was rejected. Those with high scores on spontaneous decision-making style were also found to be likely to control decisions for themselves ($p<.01$). Thus H4B was also rejected.

The final decision-making hypothesis (H5) did not anticipate a relationship between intuitive decision makers and decision delegation. This was found to be the case, as there was no significant effect of being a more intuitive decision maker on whether to defer a decision in tourism ($p>.05$), providing support for H5. Hypothesis H5B anticipated no relationship between intuitive decision-making style and choosing for oneself. Individuals who were more intuitive decision makers were found to be more likely to make decisions for themselves ($p<.01$), so H5B was rejected.

Overall, the model explained much of the variance in the dependent variables. Together, the decision making styles explained 31 percent of the variance in deferring a decision, while they explained 38 percent of the variance in making a choice. All of the hypotheses for decision-making style and the results of the hypothesis tests are summarized in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5 Results of Hypotheses Tests for Model 1 (Decision-Making Styles)

	Summary of Hypothesis	Results of Study
	Dependent Variable: Overall Preference to Defer Decisions	
H1	Dependent decision-making style→ more likely to delegate decisions	*H1 Supported* Dependent decision-making style→ more likely to delegate decisions
H2	Avoidant decision-making style→ more likely to delegate decisions	*H2 Supported* Avoidant decision-making style→ more likely to delegate decisions
H3	Rational decision-making style → less likely to delegate decisions	*H3 Rejected* No significant effects
H4	Spontaneous decision-making style→ no effect on decision delegation	*H4 Rejected* Spontaneous decision making style→ more likely to delegate decisions
H5	Intuitive decision-making style→ no effect on decision delegation	*H5 Supported* No significant effects
	Dependent Variable: Overall Preference to Make Own Decisions	
H1B	Dependent decision-making style→ no effect on individual's preference to make own decisions	*H1B Supported* No significant effects
H2B	Avoidant decision-making style→ no effect on individual's preference to make own decisions	*H2B Rejected* Avoidant decision-making style→ more likely to prefer making own decisions
H3B	Rational decision-making style→ no effect on individual's preference to make own decisions	*H3B Rejected* Rational decision making style→ more likely to prefer making own decisions
H4B	Spontaneous decision-making style→ no effect on individual's preference to make own decisions	*H4B Rejected* Spontaneous decision making style→ more likely to prefer making own decisions
H5B	Intuitive decision-making style→ no effect on individual's preference to make own decisions	*H5B Rejected* Intuitive decision making style→ more likely to prefer making own decisions

In summary, many decision-making styles affect tourism decisions, such as likelihood to delegate (or defer) a decision to others, as well as whether or not to make a choice when traveling with others. Regarding decision delegation (deferring a tourism decision to others), the decision-making styles most likely to defer decisions to others were avoidant, dependent, and spontaneous. A separate factor considered if individuals would desire to choose for themselves when traveling with others. Statistical tests revealed that rational, avoidant, spontaneous, and intuitive decision-making styles lead to a preference for making a choice for oneself in tourism scenarios with others.

Measurement Model for Multiple Decision Constructs

A separate measurement model was required to test hypotheses H6 to H10. In particular, this model tested the relationship between tourism decision delegation and several factors, which can be briefly described as: purchase (brand-decision) involvement, importance, two factors of control (control others and relinquish control), surprise, and risk-taking. Initial fit for this model suggested it was a decent, but not good fit of the data (χ^2 = 780.063, df=296, p<.001, CFI=.921; GFI=.877; RMSEA=.064), so modification indices were utilized to suggest improvements.

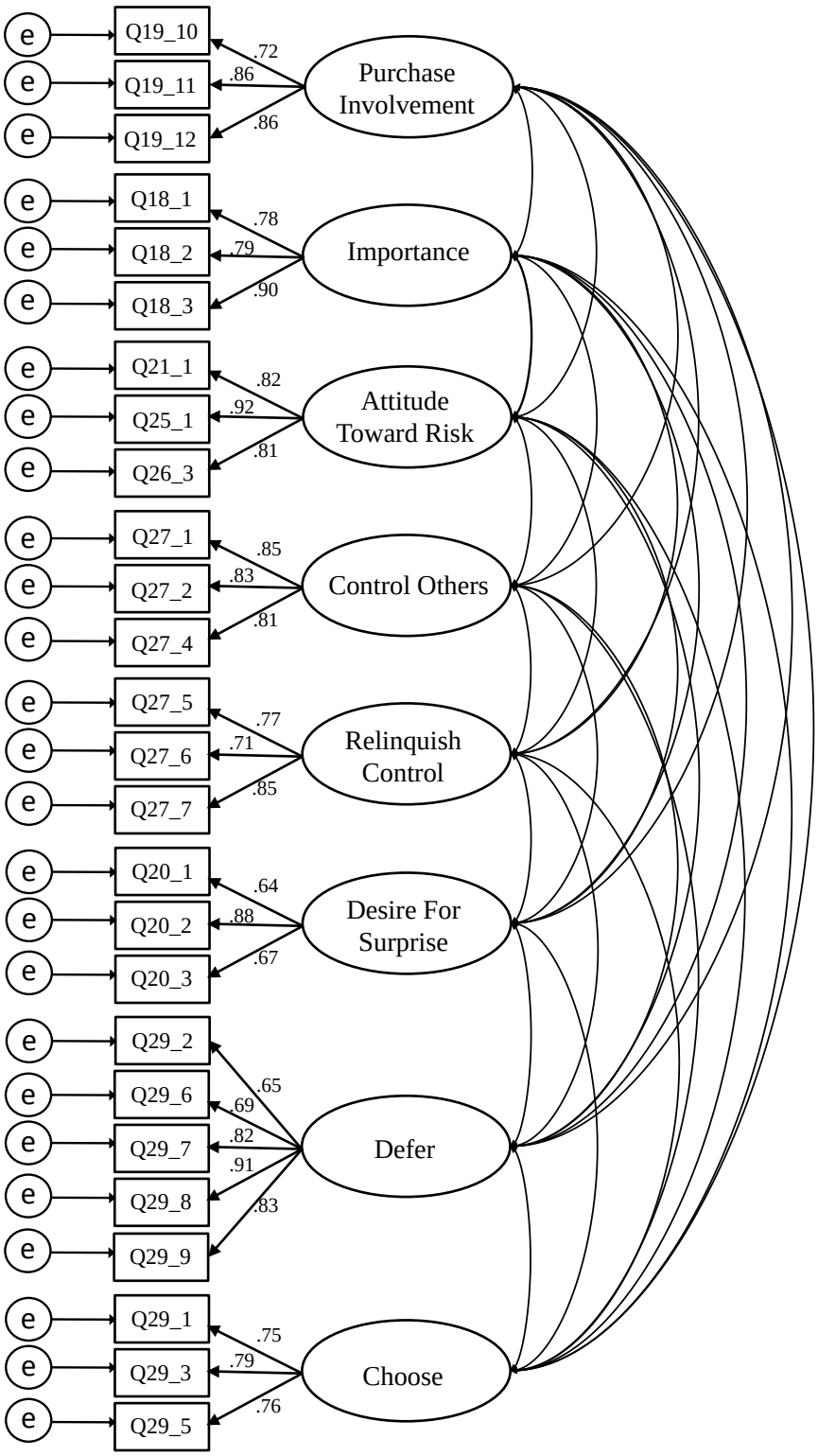
One item stood out in its confounding relationships with other variables. This item ("where to go on a trip does not matter to me") appeared to be nearly identical in meaning to another item ("where to go on a trip is important to me") but was worded in a reverse fashion. Reverse-coded items have been suggested to be problematic (Swain, Weathers, and Niedrich, 2008), as confusion or miscomprehension may result. By

removing this item, the factor of importance would still have three items, so removal of this item would be likely to improve model fit and provide a more succinct model. After removing this item, the measurement model resulted in a good fit (χ^2 =607.27 , df=271, p<.001, CFI=.943; GFI=.898; RMSEA=.055). Model 2, shown in Figure 6.3, depicts the final measurement model for these variables, and factor loadings are found in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6 Factor Loadings, t value and Significance for Model 2

Variable	Factor Loading Standardized	Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Value	P Value
Purchase (Brand-Decision) Involvement					
(Q19_10)	.72	.813	.051	16.06	<.001
(Q19_11)	.86	.955	.047	20.20	<.001
(Q19_12)	.86	1.000			
Importance					
(Q18_1)	.78	.837	.044	18.86	<.001
(Q18_2)	.79	1.065	.056	19.11	<.001
(Q18_3)	.90	1.000			
Risk					
(Q21_1)	.82	1.002	.054	18.50	<.001
(Q25_1)	.92	1.160	.056	20.84	<.001
(Q26_3)	.81	1.000			
Control Others					
(Q27_1)	.85	1.097	.060	18.20	<.001
(Q27_2)	.83	1.045	.059	17.76	<.001
(Q27_4)	.81	1.000			
Relinquish Control					
(Q27_5)	.77	.894	.057	15.67	<.001
(Q27_6)	.71	.772	.054	14.42	<.001
(Q27_7)	.85	1.000			
Desire for Surprise					
(Q20_1)	.64	.918	.085	10.86	<.001
(Q20_2)	.88	1.175	.096	12.18	<.001
(Q20_3)	.67	1.000			
Defer Decision					
(Q29_2)	.65	.955	.078	12.17	<.001
(Q29_6)	.69	1.000			
(Q29_7)	.82	1.088	.072	15.02	<.001
(Q29_8)	.91	1.175	.072	16.36	<.001
(Q29_9)	.83	1.113	.073	15.25	<.001
Choose (Make Choice)					
(Q29_1)	.75	.869	.062	14.12	<.001
(Q29_3)	.79	1.085	.073	14.84	<.001
(Q29_5)	.76	1.000			

Figure 6.3 Final Measurement Model: Model 2



Validity and Reliability Checks

For Model 2, validity and reliability checks were performed identical to those for model 1. Convergent validity was addressed by reviewing the statistical significance of all items loading on individual factors, and all were found to be statistically significant ($p \leq .05$) with p-values of less than .001. As previously mentioned, Cronbach's alpha for each factor exceeded 0.7, indicating that each was reliable, and composite reliability was again utilized as an additional measure in CFA (See Table 6.7). Composite reliability scores all measured above the threshold of .70, with all but one reaching a more conservative threshold of .80. Thus, each factor was considered to be reliable.

Table 6.7 Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted for Model 2

	CR	AVE
Involvement	0.853	0.661
Importance	0.866	0.685
Control Others	0.869	0.689
Relinquish Control	0.820	0.605
Surprise	0.775	0.539
Choose	0.810	0.587
Risk	0.887	0.725
Defer	0.887	0.615

Again following the previous model, discriminant validity was investigated by comparing the inter-correlations of the constructs to the square roots of the average variance explained. Table 6.8 shows the factor correlation matrix with the square root of the AVE on the diagonal. Because the square root of the AVE for each factor was higher than any of the interfactor correlations, discriminant validity was suggested.

Therefore, due to the sufficient validity and reliability, the proposed hypotheses were examined with a structural equation model.

Table 6.8 Discriminant Validity Analysis: Model 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Involvement (1)	**0.813**							
Importance (2)	0.787	**0.827**						
Control Others (3)	0.323	0.247	**0.830**					
Relinquish Control (4)	-0.042	-0.097	0.035	**0.778**				
Surprise (5)	-0.119	-0.043	0.140	0.186	**0.734**			
Choose (6)	0.543	0.415	0.644	0.332	0.070	**0.766**		
Risk (7)	-0.104	-0.058	0.266	0.350	0.596	0.268	**0.852**	
Defer (8)	-0.251	-0.218	-0.037	0.627	0.293	0.036	0.387	**0.784**

Structural Equation Model for Multiple Decision Constructs

As with Model 1, the measurement model for Model 2 was tested for model fit, validity and reliability. A structural equation model was devised to examine the hypotheses. This structural equation model was found to have a good fit with the data (χ^2 = 610.312, df=272, p<.001, CFI=.943; GFI=.898; RMSEA=.056) and was used to test hypotheses H6 to H10.

Testing of Hypotheses H6 – H10

This model used the same dependent variables as the previous model: propensity to delegate a decision and propensity to make a decision for oneself while traveling with others. A lower score on defer meant an individual was more likely to delegate a decision. A higher score on choose for oneself meant an individual was more likely to

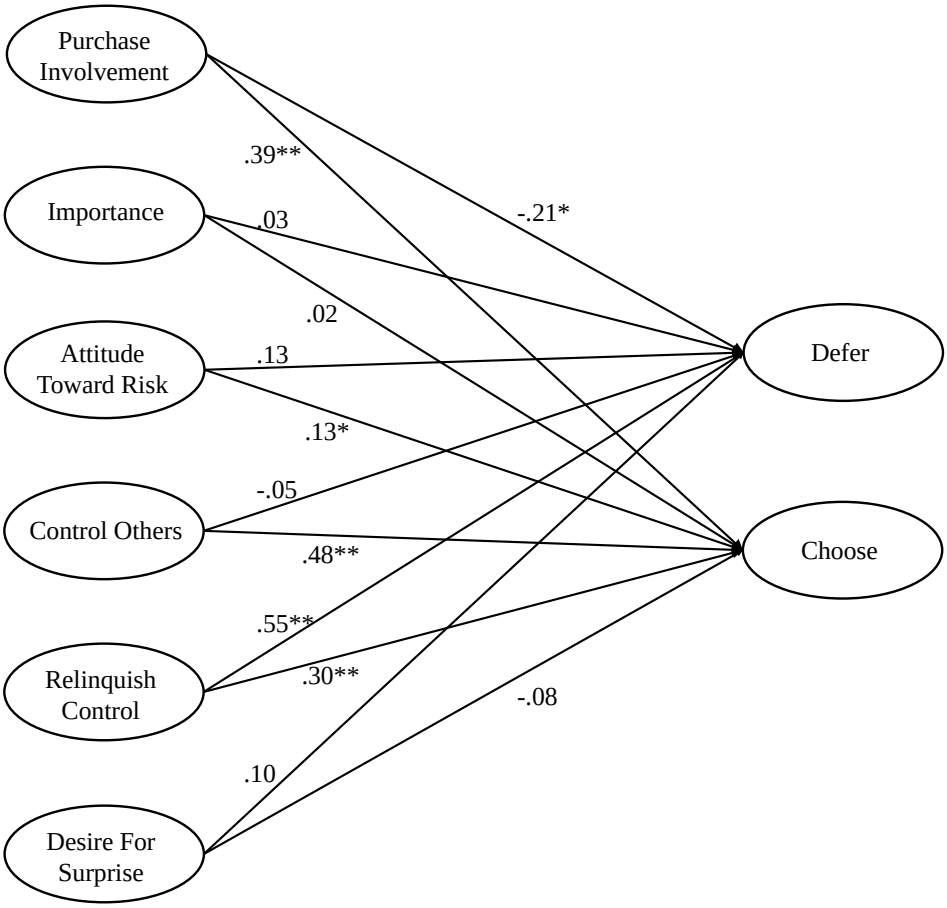
choose for oneself. The results of the testing of the structural model (Model 2) are in Table 6.9, and a summary of the model is shown graphically in Figure 6.4.

Table 6.9 Summary of SEM for Model 2

Regression Path	Standard path coefficient	Non-standard Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio (t-value)	P-Value
Purchase Involvement→ Defer (H6)	-.21*	-.497	.216	-2.30	.021
Purchase Involvement → Choose (H6B)	.39**	.683	.163	4.18	<.001
Product Importance→ Defer (H7)	.03	.043	.147	0.29	.769
Product Importance → Choose (H7B)	.02	.027	.108	0.25	.802
Attitude Toward Decision Risk→ Defer (H8)	.13	.129	.068	1.91	.056
Attitude Toward Decision Risk → Choose (H8B)	.13*	.098	.050	1.98	.048
Control Others→ Defer (H9)	-.05	-.053	.057	-.92	.358
Control Others→ Choose (H9B)	.48**	.400	.047	8.43	<.001
Relinquish Control→ Defer (H10)	.55**	.509	.051	10.05	<.001
Relinquish Control → Choose (H10B)	.30**	.204	.035	5.78	<.001
Desire for Surprise→ Defer (H11)	.10	.166	.103	1.61	.107
Desire for Surprise → Choose (H11B)	-.08	-.101	.075	-1.34	.181

A higher value on Defer means more likely to delegate a decision.
A higher value on Choose means more likely to choose for oneself.
** Significant at p≤ .05*
***Significant at p≤ .01*

Figure 6.4 Final SEM for Model 2



Hypothesis H6 stated that individuals with high purchase (brand-decision) involvement will be less likely to delegate decisions in tourism. This was supported by the data. There was a statistically significant ($p<.05$) relationship between purchase (brand-decision) involvement and both decision delegation and choosing for oneself. As predicted, high purchase involvement predicted a low propensity to delegate a decision. Hypothesis H6B predicted no relation between propensity to control a decision and purchase (brand-decision) involvement. However, there was a significant ($p<.01$)

positive relationship, causing a rejection of H6B. High purchase involvement led to individuals making choices for themselves when traveling with others.

Product importance in destination choice was addressed in H7. It was predicted that individuals who rated the decision as high importance would be less likely to delegate decisions in tourism than those who rate the decision as low importance. This hypothesis was rejected, as there was no statistically significant relationship ($p>.05$) between importance and decision delegation. However, this may be because most individuals felt that making travel decisions were highly important. Ratings of importance were not normally distributed, with a high negative kurtosis. However, because they were measured on a Likert-type scale, it was not believed that transforming the data would result in meaningful interpretation. If individuals felt that tourism decisions were important, transforming the data would only serve to alter the meaning of their response. Hypothesis H7B was accepted, as no significant relationship ($p>.05$) was found between product importance and controlling a decision in tourism.

One's attitude toward decision risk was addressed in H8, proposing that there would be no clear relationship between risk and decision delegation. This hypothesis was supported by the data. A second hypothesis (H8B) which proposed no relationship between risk and choice was also rejected. Individuals with a propensity toward making risky decisions were likely to choose for themselves when traveling with others ($p<.05$).

There were two aspects of desirability of control in this study. Hypothesis H9 stated that individuals who ranked highly on the "control others" scale would be less likely to delegate decisions. The data showed no significant relationship ($p>.05$)

between “control others” and delegating decisions in tourism, so this hypothesis was rejected. However, H9B was accepted, as there was a strong significant positive relationship ($p<.01$) between “control others” and choosing for oneself in tourism. This is logical, as the items are similar. Yet, it is important to note that these two constructs are distinctive. A propensity to control others is not identical to making choices for oneself when traveling with others, even though the decision may also affect others.

There was also a factor relating to control that measured relinquishing decisions to others. Hypothesis H10 stated that those who were high on the relinquish to others scale would be more likely to delegate decisions, as they would not have interest in making decisions. In this study, it was found that the higher a person’s desirability to relinquish decisions to others, the higher her propensity to delegate decisions ($p<.01$). Thus, H10 was supported. Additionally, individuals with a high desirability to relinquish decisions were also more likely to choose on their own behalf ($p<.01$), supporting H10B. While at first, this seems illogical, there is a possible explanation. First, the propensity to defer is greater than the propensity to choose. Second, an individual may have the desire to choose but may end up not being able to settle on a decision, thus resulting in deferral. This phenomenon may be similar to the avoidant decision maker.

Researchers have suggested that the need for surprise, an element of novelty, may be related to decision delegation. However, the research did not convincingly propose a direction of the relationship, and H11 stated that individuals with a high desire for surprise would be neither more nor less likely to delegate decisions. The final structural equation model showed no significant relationship ($p>.05$) between desire for surprise and deferring decisions. Likewise, there was no significant relationship ($p>.05$) between desire for surprise and choosing on one's own behalf in a travel environment with others (H11B). Thus, both H11 and H11B were supported.

Model 2 was very predictive in explaining the two dependent variables concerning decision delegation. Combined, the variables in the model explained 65 percent of the variance in making a choice. They also explained 47 percent of the variance in deferring a decision. All of the hypotheses for Model 2 and the results of the hypothesis tests are summarized in Table 6.10. The results are further analyzed in Chapter VII.

Table 6.10 Results of Hypotheses Tests for Model 2

	Summary of Hypothesis	Results of Study
	Dependent Variable: Overall Preference to Defer Decisions	
H6	High purchase involvement→ less likely to delegate decisions	*H6 Supported* High purchase involvement→ less likely to delegate decisions
H7	High product importance → less likely to delegate decisions	*H7 Rejected* No significant effects
H8	Preference for making risky decisions → no effect on decision delegation	*H8 Supported* No significant effects
H9	High desirability to control others→ less likely to delegate decisions	*H9 Rejected* No significant effects
H10	High desire to relinquish control→ more likely to delegate decisions	*H10 Supported* High desire to relinquish control→ more likely to delegate decisions
H11	Desire for surprise → no effect on decision delegation	*H11 Supported* No significant effects
	Dependent Variable: Overall Preference to Make Own Decisions	
H6B	High purchase involvement→ no effect on individual's preference to make own decisions	*H6B Rejected* High-brand decision involvement→ more likely to prefer making own decisions
H7B	High product importance → no effect on individual's preference to make own decisions	*H7B Supported* No significant effects
H8B	Preference for making risky decisions → no effect on individual's preference to make own decisions	*H8B Rejected* Preference for making risky decisions→ more likely to prefer making own decisions
H9B	High desirability to control others→ more likely to prefer to make own decisions	*H9B Supported* High desirability to control others→ more likely to prefer to make own decisions
H10B	High desire to relinquish control→ less likely to prefer to make own decisions	*H10B Rejected* High desire to relinquish control→ more likely to prefer to make own decisions
H11B	Desire for surprise → no effect on individual's preference to make own decisions	*H11B Supported* No significant effects

Role of Experience and Expertise in Decision Delegation

Hypotheses H12 and H13 investigated the relationship between relative experience, relative expertise, and decision delegation. Relative experience and expertise can be different for each trip a person takes, as they can be dependent on both the travel party and the destination. Thus, a different dependent variable would be necessary that is particular to a certain trip. In the original survey, individuals were asked about a particular trip taken with others. Thus, measures only for this particular trip were considered in testing this objective.

First, a summation of scores on three questions relating to relative experience was used to measure relative experience. Similarly, three items measuring relative expertise were added together to achieve a measure for relative expertise. Four different dependent variables were used, each relating to decision delegation on this trip: what percentage of the decision about where to go on this trip was made by you; what percentage of the time did you choose where the group would stay; what percentage of the time did you choose what attractions your group visited; what percentage of the time did you set the agenda for daily activities; and what percentage of the restaurant/dining decisions did you make.

The measures for relative experience and relative expertise were found to be reliable using Cronbach's alpha (α>.07). A multiple regression model was used to analyze the data, with two independent variables (relative experience and relative expertise) and one dependent variable (percentage of the decision made). This could be

written as: Percentage of Decisions Delegated = *f* (Relative Experience, Relative Expertise).

Testing of Hypotheses H11-12

The first multiple regression equation considered the dependent variable "what percentage of the decision of where to go on this trip was made by you." IBM SPSS Statistics 22 was used to run this analysis. First, the data was checked for outliers, using Mahalanobis distance. Data from two respondents exceeded the critical value of 13.82 (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), so these two responses were removed from the data set for future analysis. Additionally, missing responses for the percentage of decision delegated were excluded from the analysis.

The data analysis was re-run and multicollinearity was assessed. Tolerance, a measurement of multicollinearilty, was .168. Pallant (2010) noted that tolerance values under .10 suggest multicollinearity, so the value did not indicate multicollinearity. However, she recommended also considering the correlations. The correlations between the two independent variables (relative experience and relative expertise) were quite high (.912). Because this model met the standards for tolerance, it will be explored.

Both of the independent variables were statistically significant ($p<.05$) and the signs were positive as expected. More relative expertise and experience were associated with a higher percentage of the destination decision. The variable making the strongest contribution to delegation was relative expertise ($\beta=.287$; $p=.007$), while relative

experience (β=.216; p=.044) was less important. The total variance explained by the model was 24.2% ($F_{(2, 396)}$=62.232, p<.001).

As mentioned, relative experience and relative expertise were highly correlated. Experience and expertise were presumed to be related, but different, constructs. For example, an individual could have a lot of knowledge (expertise) about New York City without having visited. Thus, it would certainly be possible (and possibly common) for a person to be high in expertise but low in experience. However, for this study, individuals compared their experience and expertise to other individuals, which measured "relative expertise" and "relative experience." In this situation, they relied on their perceived knowledge of the others' expertise and experience. Thus, they may have perceived the differential to be the same for both measures. In other words, while an individual's expertise and experience would often differ, in this study it appears that the difference between their own and others' expertise and experience are perceived to be similar. O'Brien (2007) stated that, when multicollinearity exists in multiple regression, it would be appropriate to combine independent variables into a single measure if they are conceptually similar. A variable (relative experience and expertise) could be created as a combination of the two previous variables. Thus, H12 and H13 could be used to create a new, related hypothesis:

H14: Individuals who perceive themselves to have more combined relative experience and expertise than the potential social surrogates are

less likely to delegate decisions than those who perceive themselves to have less relative combined expertise and experience.

In order to avoid problems with analysis due to multicollinearity, a combined measure of relative experience and expertise was derived. The total scores of the relative expertise (3 items) and relative experience (3 items) were added together to get a score which ranged from 6 to 42. Thus because a single independent variable (relative expertise/experience) and a single dependent variable (percentage of decision delegated), correlation was appropriate to analyze the relationship.

Upon investigating correlation, there was a positive relationship between the relative expertise/experience and percentage of decisions delegated for each of the decisions (See Table 6.11). The correlations ranged from .432 to .605 for different decisions. Based on Cohen's (1988) suggestions, these range from medium (.30 to .49) to a large correlation (.50 and up) (Pallant, 2010). This provides evidence to support H14, although some could argue that it may support H12 and H13. Relative expertise and experience are associated with a higher percentage of control over decisions, and thus a lower prevalence of decision delegation.

Table 6.11 Correlations Between Relative Expertise/Experience and Percentage of Decisions Delegated

Correlation between "Relative Experience/Expertise" and:	Pearson r Correlation	Percentage of variance shared
Percentage of decision about where to go on this trip was made by you	.492**	24.2%
Percentage of the time you chose where your group would stay	.605**	36.6%
Percentage of the time you chose what attractions your group visited	.464**	21.5%
Percentage of the time you set the agenda for daily activities	.432**	18.7%
Percentage of the restaurant/dining decisions were made by you	.530**	28.1%

***Significant at p≤ .01*

Correlation provides evidence in support of this hypothesis, but additional analysis may provide additional support. In particular, individuals can be divided into two categories: those who felt they had a higher level of relative expertise/experience than those they were traveling with (with a composite score above 24 on the scale), and those who did not believe they had a higher level of relative expertise/experience than those they were traveling with (24 or less). Independent samples t-tests were used to compare the two different groups for each of the decision scenarios. The two individuals whose responses had been removed earlier in this analysis were left out of the current analysis.

Five t-tests were conducted for each of the five dependent variables. For four of the tests, Levene's test was not significant (p>.05), so equal variances were assumed. For one dependent variable (percentage of the time you set the agenda), Levene's test

was significant (p=.04), so equal variances were not assumed. For each of the five dependent variables, there was a significant (p<.05) difference in the two groups, and this is detailed in Table 6.12. Those who had a higher perceived level of expertise/experience were more likely to make decisions (and less likely to delegate decisions) than those not in that category.

Table 6.12 Decision Delegation Compared Between Two Groups Based on Relative Experience/Expertise

Dependent Variable	Mean (s.d.) higher relative expertise/ experience	Mean (s.d.) same or less relative expertise/ experience	t-value	Sig. 2-tailed	Effect Size [a]
Percentage of decision about where to go on this trip was made by you	69.7 (28.8)	39.6 (29.8)	-10.06	<.001	.203
Percentage of the time you chose where your group would stay	65.4 (33.3)	36.1 (34.5)	-8.454	<.001	.153
Percentage of the time you chose what attractions your group visited	53.8 (27.1)	38.0 (23.4)	-5.994	<.001	.083
Percentage of the time you set the agenda for daily activities	51.9 (28.6)	34.7 (22.8)	-6.639	<.001	.100
Percentage of the restaurant/dining decisions were made by you	54.7 (26.3)	36.5 (23.6)	-7.019	<.001	.110

N=399
[a] *Effect size measured with eta squared*

Effect sizes were investigated using eta squared, based on the following guidelines for interpretation: .06 is a moderate effect, and .14 is a large effect (Cohen, 1988 in Pallant, 2010). The effect size was large for percentage of decision about where to go on this trip (eta squared=.203) and percentage of time you chose where the group

would stay (eta squared=.153). For other decisions, the effect size was medium. These findings further support H14. Table 6.13 summarizes the results of effect of relative expertise and experience on decision delegation in actual travel scenarios.

Table 6.13 Results of Hypotheses Tests for Relative Expertise/Experience

	Summary of Hypothesis	Results of Study
H12	More relative expertise than those in travel party→ more likely to delegate decisions	Supported [a]
H13	More relative experience than those in travel party→ more likely to delegate decisions	Supported [a]
H14	More relative combined expertise/experience than those in travel party→ more likely to delegate decisions	Supported

[a] Potential limitation due to multicollinearity

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION & IMPLICATIONS

The major objective of this study was to explore decision delegation in tourism. Previous research in tourism decision making has focused on individual decisions, with the unstated assumption that individuals are responsible for making their own tourism decisions. Many researchers have presented detailed decision-making processes (e.g. Crompton, 1992; Moutinho, 1987; van Raaij & Francken, 1984) that theoretically describe how individuals make decisions, but much of this research is based on the assumption that an individual is a rational decision maker who makes his own choice (although others may play a role in that choice).

Decision delegation is based on the idea that individuals sometimes rely on others to make decisions, and that this decision delegation may be especially prominent in tourism, hospitality, and other social decision contexts. Formal surrogates (e.g. travel agents, wine stewards, or stock brokers) are individuals who are formally hired or procured to make decisions for others. Researchers (e.g. Aggarwal & Mazumdar, 2008; Hollander & Rassuli, 1999) have described surrogate decision making and identified some of the attributes of a decision (or a decision-maker) that may result in hiring or utilizing a surrogate.

However, not all decision delegation includes "formal" surrogates. People may explicitly defer a decision to a friend or family member (e.g. "Please pick a restaurant where we should go to dinner."). Or they may "informally" delegate a decision in which

they allow another person to make a decision on behalf of them ("Sure, I will go with you to the beach this weekend."). This phenomenon was identified by Gitelson and Kerstetter (1995) but not fully explored. Often the only choice an individual makes may be binary: to go along or not to go along. This study identified a *social surrogate* as an individual to whom all or part of a decision-making process is delegated informally. These social surrogates are proposed to be part of an informal relationship rather than a formally engaged (paid or unpaid) business relationship, and the social surrogate often takes part in the consumption of the good or the service for which the decision was delegated. This research identified many individuals who act as social surrogates, including friends, partners/spouses, children, and other relatives.

Evidence of Decision Delegation

This study demonstrated that decision delegation often occurs in tourism contexts and it is inaccurate to assume that individuals are making their own decisions. For example, concerning destination choice, over 85 percent of respondents indicated that another person had chosen a destination for them at least once in the past two years. Regarding sub-decisions in tourism, over 90 percent of individuals had let others choose meals or activities while on vacation together. Including all leisure trips taken in the past two years, 66 percent stated that other people had chosen half or more of all meals they ate while on vacation. Likewise 55 percent of respondents indicated that others had chosen at least half of the activities they had participated in on recent leisure trips.

This provides evidence that decision delegation frequently occurs in tourism scenarios, and informally to a travel companion.

In tourism decision making scenarios, deferral of a decision to a social surrogate was much more common than a formal surrogate. Only two percent of respondents said that they delegated a decision choice to a formal surrogate (such as a travel agent), while only 3.2 percent delegated activity decisions to a formal surrogate. "Formal" surrogates (or just "surrogates" as described by Solomon, 1986) may play a role in the purchase process, such as a travel agent providing information or processing a transaction. Yet, this study indicated that "formal" surrogates in tourism have little control over final choice.

At the same time, only 12.6% of respondents said they had not allowed others to choose the destination of a trip in the past two years, while 4.6 percent stated they had not allowed others to choose activities for them. Across time (but not for all instances) social surrogates were found to not only influence choice but also make choices on behalf of others.

Factors in Understanding Decision Delegation

For a single choice scenario, there may be only one decision: to make a choice, or to allow someone else to make a choice (e.g. "I can pick where we eat dinner, or you can pick."). However, across all of an individual's decisions (such as across multiple trips or multiple decisions within one trip), a person may have a general tendency to

defer a decision or to make a choice. This study revealed that, as a broader phenomenon, decision delegation may have multiple facets that may be examined.

The most relevant concept would seem to be the tendency to defer or delegate a decision to others as it directly addresses decision delegation. However, a related construct was identified, and that is the preference to make a decision for one's self. For each individual decision, usually only one of the two (make a choice or defer a choice) may be possible. However, a person may have a strong tendency to delegate or a strong tendency to make a choice depending on the decision-making situation. For example, some individuals agreed with both "I like to have control over where I go on vacation with others" and "When on vacation with others, I like to defer decisions about what to do to other people." The study revealed that a desire to control and a desire to defer decisions are not mutually exclusive. Both of these distinct constructs were used as dependent variables to understand decision delegation. Another key objective of this study was to determine how different variables affect decision making.

Review and Implications for Hypotheses H1 to H5B

Hypotheses H1 – H5 and H1B – H5B were designed to determine the effect of decision-making style on decision delegation in tourism. Based on qualitative research, Decrop and Snelders (2005) proposed six typologies for vacation decision-making. While they were clearly defined, there was no objective measure of decision-making style proposed by their research. Thus, this study used Scott and Bruce's (1995) five decision-making styles (rational, intuitive, dependent, avoidant, and spontaneous) to

assist in understanding the effect of decision-making style on decision delegation in tourism.

The study showed that an individual may not be simply one decision-making style or another, but may tend to use more than one decision-making style. Each of the decision-making styles was pronounced among some of the respondents. A conceptual model was developed to use these five factors as independent variables in a structural equation model with the two factors of decision delegation (defer and choose) as the dependent variables.

Hypotheses H1 to H5 studied how an individual's decision-making style would affect his/her preference for deferring (or delegating) tourism decisions to others. While each individual may rate high (or low) on multiple decision-making styles, this study investigated linkages between a person's preference for each decision-making style and decision delegation. The research showed significant effects for three of the decision-making styles on deferring decisions to others in tourism environments. Individuals who were dependent, avoidant, or spontaneous decision-makers were statistically ($p<.05$) likely to delegate decisions to others in a tourism context. There was no statistically significant ($p>.05$) relationship found between rational or intuitive decision-making style and decision delegation.

In the same structural equation model, Hypotheses H1B to H5B explored how an individual's decision-making style would affect the preference for making a choice for his/herself in a decision scenario. Those with rational, avoidant, spontaneous, and intuitive decision-making styles were found to be statistically more likely to prefer to

make their own decisions. There was no statistically significant (p.>.05) relationship between dependent decision-making style and making a choice for oneself in a tourism context. The strongest relationship was that between rational decision-making style and making a choice. The decision making styles together explained 31 percent of the variance in deferring a decision and 38 percent of the variance in making a choice.

Rational and Intuitive Decision-Making Styles

A key assumption in many decision-making models, both in consumer behavior (led by March & Simon, 1958) and tourism (e.g. Moutinho, 1987; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), is that people are rational decision makers who use a linear thought process in making choices. Within Scott and Bruce's (1995) model, these individuals would be classified as having a rational decision-making style. This research showed that rational decision-makers may be the most important decision-makers in a tourism context, as this study found them to be the most likely to make a choice in tourism environments. Intuitive decision makers were also statistically (p<.05) likely to make a choice for themselves.

Overall, rational and intuitive were the most prevalent decision-making styles, and rational decision makers may be the most influential among travelers. This study did not directly investigate the effect of this individual decision on others in the travel party. However, because rational decision makers had the strongest preference toward making a choice, it might be concluded that the individuals most likely to choose for

themselves when traveling with others would also have influence over those they are traveling with.

Knowing that rational decision-makers have the strongest tendencies to make a choice make them especially valuable from a marketing point of view. Knowing an individuals' decision-making style is one way to segment travelers, and it may be a potential proxy for likelihood to purchase. Using a question or two about decision-making styles or behaviors on guest/visitor satisfaction surveys or as part of frequent traveler programs may help to identify them.

Spontaneous Decision-Making Style

Individuals high in a spontaneous decision-making style were found to be likely to defer a decision, but also likely to make a choice. While at first these may seem at odds with each other, these styles could easily coexist in spontaneous decision-makers. They may simply make a choice or defer a choice based on the way they are feeling at that particular moment. From a marketing perspective, it seems like it would be difficult to influence or control this individual as spontaneity is not a particularly predictable trait. However, last-minute promotions and specials, as well as on-site upgrades and purchases, seem likely to work well with spontaneous decision makers.

Dependent and Avoidant Decision-Making Styles

Dependent and avoidant decision-makers appeared to be the least important from a marketing point of view, as they were the most likely to defer decisions to others.

Likewise, there was not a statistically significant ($p>.05$) relationship between dependent decision-making style and desire to make a choice. Following the definition, dependent decision makers were found to rely on others to make choices on their behalf. In an unexpected result, avoidant decision makers were also found to prefer making choices for themselves, in addition to preferring delegation. One possible explanation is that they avoid making decisions until they are faced with situations in which they *need* to choose. Or, perhaps they have a preference to choose, but they avoid making a final choice due to choice overload or other attributes.

Identification of dependent and avoidant decision-making styles in tourism is both practically and theoretically impactful. In situations in which it is not possible to identify the rational or intuitive decision-makers, identification of the dependent (and perhaps avoidant) decision-makers would be useful because they might be eliminated from many marketing efforts. Quite simply, they appear to be less valuable to communicate with prior to the service encounter than those with a stronger likelihood to actually make decisions. More research is necessary, to determine ways to identify these types of decision makers to know which ones to target.

Additional Managerial and Theoretical Implications of Decision-Making Style

Overall, decision-making style seems to be a useful way to delineate travelers—especially as it is a variable that relates directly to purchase. This research used simple questions to help determine decision-making styles, but marketers may also be able to use purchase activities to identify or approximate decision styles. For example, website

usage could be used to determine those who shop but avoid making choices, those who book for a large number of people, and those who make spontaneous decisions. This would expand the value of their data to better focus on those who may make a purchase. Alternatively, different messages could be provided based on decision-making style. Those who seem spontaneous would be best for last-minute specials. Those who are rational could be targeted with more "logical" reasons to purchase. Avoidant decision-makers may respond to messages to get them to the final purchase stage, as evidence shows that they may delay even after a choice has been made internally.

From a theoretical perspective, this research shows that an assumption of rational decision-making, while perhaps the most frequent type of decision making, is not always utilized. For example, just under half of the sample (49.7%) scored equally on dependent and rational decision-making styles or higher in dependent decision-making style. Thus, decision-making models based on the assumption of rationality may not be accurate. While this does not imply that decision makers are irrational, it does demonstrate that there are many different ways individuals may make (or choose to not make by delegating) decisions. Also, the door has been opened to further study and better understand less common types of decision-making, including spontaneous, dependent, and avoidant.

Review and Implications for Hypotheses H6 to H11B

Aside from decision-making style, previous research has suggested a number of factors that may affect decision making (in particular, decision delegation) in tourism

environments. Within Model 2, several of these variables were investigated: purchase (or brand-decision) involvement, product importance, attitude toward risk, desirability to control others, desirability to relinquish control, and desire for surprise.

Consumer Involvement, Importance, and Risk

Involvement and importance have been suggested to be correlated but distinct concepts (Mittal, 1989). In this study, tourism decisions were found to be highly important, based on scale items developed by Mittal (1989). One conclusion of this research is that tourism decisions are perceived to be highly important. Sub-decisions (in this case, meal choices) were also found to be important to travelers.

However, in this study, the level of importance did not result in differences in decision delegation. One explanation is that, among those who actually travel, there is little variance in importance. Because most of them believe travel, and travel decisions, to be important, travelers are quite homogeneous in this regard.

Purchase (or brand-decision) involvement, as defined and measured by Mittal and Lee (1989), was found to affect decision delegation. Those who had higher levels of purchase involvement (or the interest in making a decision), were both more likely to choose for themselves, as well as less likely to delegate, tourism decisions. It appears as if high involvement would increase one's likelihood to make a more appropriate decision based on the context. In some situations, choosing for oneself would be appropriate, while in others, deferral would seem to be an appropriate choice. From a

marketing perspective, identifying high-involvement individuals may be equivalent to identifying those close to making a purchase before they conduct a transaction.

Risk has also been considered to be related to involvement (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Mittal & Lee, 1989), and has been proposed as a reason that individuals may use a formal surrogate (Rosen & Olshavsky, 1987; Solomon, 1986). In this study, the component of risk found to be most important was decision risk, or propensity to make a risky decision. It was found that individuals with a higher tendency toward making risky decisions were more likely to choose for themselves. While this study did not address whether the decision they would make was risky, they were associated with a preference to choose. Risk propensity was not found to be related to deferring a decision. This seems to indicate that individuals who are not afraid of risk are important to marketers. Because they are more likely to make choices, they may also be counted on to influence others. Thus, they may potentially be relied upon as deciders.

Desire for Surprise (Novelty)

Desire for surprise, a component of novelty, had no significant ($p>.05$) effect on either component of decision delegation. As no relationship was found, this suggests that novelty seeking makes it difficult to determine if an individual will defer their decisions or choose by themselves. This indicates that novelty may affect *what* people choose (*where* they go and *what* they do) but now *how* they make a choice. Desire for surprise, or other components of novelty, are not suggested to be unimportant in attracting tourists

(i.e. *where* they visit and *what* they do). However, surprise does not seem connected to *how* they choose or defer decisions.

Desirability of Control

The strongest effect on both decision deferral and choosing for oneself concerned desirability of control measures (Burger & Cooper, 1979; Gebhardt & Brosschot, 2002). Thus, understanding this appears to be most important of the variables in this model (Model 2). Individuals with a high desire to control others were most likely to prefer to choose when traveling with others. This means that they have a strong desire to choose make their own vacation decisions.

It appears that desirability of control is a very important variable in tourism marketing. Often marketers are concerned with attracting a traveler who has interest in a destination, but control variables seem to be very important in influencing choice and how decisions are made. Because of the strong linkage between desire to control others and making decisions, marketing could potentially incorporate messages of control into advertising and marketing in order to speak strongly to these individuals. When in the decision-making phase (whether on a website, a reservation call or even perusing menus outside of restaurants in tourist areas), there are opportunities to tap into control tendencies which could lead to choosing one's product or service.

The relationship between desirability to control others and decision deferral was not statistically significant ($p>.05$) effect was identified either way. Theoretically, this provides evidence that a tendency to defer decisions to others and to make a choice for

oneself (in the company of others) are not opposites, but that they together help to explain decision delegation. If the two elements of decision delegation were indeed opposites, a high likelihood to make a choice would be associated with a low likelihood of deferring a decision.

The desire to relinquish control positively impacted both decision deferral and the desire to make a choice. However, the effect of relinquish control on deferring a decision was stronger. Logically, those with a stronger desire to relinquish control had a higher propensity to delegate decisions. Understanding how the desired to control others leads to making choices would help tourism businesses to identify guests and travelers who do not just meet demographic or interest variables but will more likely follow through on decisions.

From the opposite perspective, individuals who relinquish control would seem to be less valuable to pursue. While they may have interest in choice, their final actions may be to rely on others, many of whom may have different preferences or make different choices. Thus, implications for marketers seem to be similar to dependent or avoidant decision-makers. A key would seem to be to spend less time attempting to convert these individuals to purchase. When looking at tourism sub-decisions (like restaurants) the lesser importance of these individuals is more clear. They may be characterized as the "I don't care where we eat. Why don't you choose?" customer. While they should be equally treated during the service encounter, spending efforts trying to convert them from shoppers to purchasers may be futile.

Overall, the variables in Model 2 explained 65% of the variance in making a choice and 47% of the variance in deferring a decision. Thus, these variables together seem to be important to understand for tourism businesses (and other businesses that are part of the tourism landscape).

Review and Implications for H12 to H14

This research also considered delegation on a recent trip taken with others. While it could not be assumed that this trip (or decisions made on this trip) were typical, the decision-making style (Model 1) and additional variables (Model 2) were not investigated here. Instead, the research considered relative expertise and experience, proposing that if the traveler had a higher level of expertise and a higher level of experience, they would be less likely to delegate (and thus be more likely to decide for themselves). Analysis using multiple regression supported the notion that more experience and more expertise both led to less delegation. However, because of a high correlation (>.90) between relative experience and expertise, these variables were combined into one measure for additional analysis. Individuals with a higher level of relative experience/expertise, when compared with the travel party, were associated with a lower percentage of decisions delegated.

Again, there was ample evidence that individuals delegated decisions in real tourism decision scenarios. In over forty percent of the vacations examined in the current study, another individual made the final trip choice (43.1%). Additionally, a median of fifty percent of the dining choices and fifty percent of the attractions to visit

were made by the individual taking the survey. Thus, many decisions were made by social surrogates traveling with them.

From a marketing perspective, it appears that individuals with more experience and expertise with a destination would make more of the decisions when traveling with others. Although it was not tested within this study, the results seem to indicate that others defer decisions to those with more relative experience and expertise in travel scenarios. Those who have previous experience or a greater level of expertise make decisions to which others follow.

From a marketing perspective, this suggests that repeat visitors have worth beyond just additional personal receipts. They may additionally be important because of their influence over others in their travel party. Further research could explore in what ways the experts/more experienced travelers impact the decisions made on behalf of others.

Additional Theoretical and Practical Implications

Much decision-making theory has been based on the assumption that decision-makers are rational and that they follow a mental process in making choices (Engel, 1968). However, this research indicated that individuals may not have as much control over their decisions as previous decision-making research indicates. For example, over half of respondents delegated at least half of the restaurant and activity decisions while on leisure trips in the past two years. Thus, when surveying one hundred visitors, it may be the case that a substantial number, perhaps half, did not choose that destination or

attraction per se. Therefore, identifying, reaching, and converting these individuals to purchase seems to be extremely important, as each purchase may be on behalf of two or more others.

This study expanded the research in decision delegation, which has traditionally examined formal surrogates, to account for social surrogates. It showed that social surrogates are used frequently and are utilized for a variety of sub-decisions within vacations. Respondents suggested they delegated decisions to others in their travel party more than to formal surrogates. In the past two years, only two percent of respondents allowed a formal surrogate (e.g. travel agent, travel planner, or tour company) to choose a destination for them. Yet, over eighty percent noted that someone else (e.g. spouse/partner, friend, family member) had chosen a vacation for them.

These social surrogates frequently share in the travel experiences, which indicates that they are in effect making choices for others as well as themselves. From a research perspective, it may be an unsafe assumption to survey visitors on purchase or consumption without first understanding their role in the choice. For every decision, it is likely important who actually made the decision. For example, a visitor to a beach destination may not have chosen to visit. It may have been the case that a friend made the final choice and invited the visitor along. Thus, the only choice the visitor truly made was to come along or stay home. In other words, not all choices seem to be initiated by the individual, as they may simply have acquiesced with someone else's decision without the formal process of delegation.

The prevalence of decision delegation indicates that looking solely at the way one person makes a decision may result in faulty conclusions. If half of the decisions on meals and activities are delegated to others, perhaps half (or less) of tourists are responsible for decision-making. From a marketing perspective, this delineates customers into two clear categories: the decision-makers and the delegators. Of primary concern for most marketing practices would likely be the decision-makers.

From an industry marketing perspective, this can be quite simply summarized that all customers are not equal. Those who are decision makers not only control their own decisions, but they may also influence or control the behavior of others. In the "information search" phase of a decision, other individuals are often relied on for input (Moutinho, 1987). However, this study shows that influence does not stop there. Instead, social surrogates do not only recommend choices but often make purchases for and control consumption of other people. Thus, understanding who these deciders are could be essential to increasing visitation or market share, as well as making marketing efforts more focused. If a tourism provider could identify the deciders, they could more carefully target their marketing efforts. These individuals would seem to be more likely to be brand ambassadors. This research should begin with the process of identifying traits, characteristics and behaviors of these individuals.

This research also indicated there may be a population of individuals who does not wish to make decisions, instead electing to delegate many (or even most) of the vacation decision and sub-decisions to someone else. Decrop and Snelders' (2005) statement that for many individuals destination is not important as spending time

together is supported. In this study, 77 percent of respondents agreed with the statement "who I travel with is more important the destination itself."

This research also provides empirical support for different decision-making styles in tourism. While Decrop and Snelders (2005) identified several potential decision-making styles in tourism, this research began to incorporate broader decision-making typologies with those proposed ideas using quantitative methodologies.

This study also provided a better understanding of the facets of decision delegation from a theoretical point of view. For each decision, a person only may only be able to make a choice or defer a choice. However, across all choices, there are broader tendencies to choose or to delegate, and these are strongly rooted in desirability of control factors. This study identified decision delegation to have two related components: (propensity to) defer a decision, and to make a choice for oneself.

There remains the possibility that businesses lose customers not because a potential customer did not choose the business, but because the customer allowed someone else to make a choice. Knowing why an individual selected, or alternately did not select, a product or service could be beneficial to gaining or retaining customers. Likewise, knowing why an individual passed a decision on to someone else could help a tourism provider because they may be able to alter their offering or value proposition not just to attract a customer, but also to encourage a customer to make a decision. Conversely, attempting to woo a customer who is decision-avoidant or likely to delegate a decision to someone else may be not only futile, but a waste of resources that could be spent by attracting deciders.

Perhaps one of the biggest takeaways for any tourism provider or marketer is to concentrate not just on the information gathering or information search phase but on how final decisions are made. Questions like "how did you hear about us?" provide marketing and promotional insight but do not provide a clear glimpse into how a decision is made.

One of the simplest ways for a tourism or service provider to utilize the information in this study is to add a question similar to Q8 ("Which statement best describes who decided where to go on this trip?"), asking who decided to stay at this particular hotel or visit this particular attraction. Answers could range on a continuum from individual choice to decision delegation. That might be a simple way to help determine who are the relative decision-makers and who are the relative delegators in decisions.

This research suggested it is important to differentiate types of individuals based on decision delegation in promotion, and this conclusion suggests that every customer is not equal. However, this should not be construed that customers should be treated differently, as this research does not investigate future influence or effects of (dis)satisfaction. The differentiation based on decision-making attributes could primarily be used for promotions and outreach to visitors /guests/customers and potential visitors.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

While this study had many significant results, they are not without limitations. First, while the study reached a broad range of individual travelers within the United States, it was not statistically representative of the population. Although the results are informative, it may not be possible to generalize them across all travelers. Likewise, individuals who traveled only with the immediate family were not considered. While this may be a substantial population, it was felt that existing family relationships might not result in a true understanding of a social surrogate. Additionally, it utilized an online panel, which may result in coverage bias (Tuten, 2010). As many trips are taken within families (and many consumption decisions made within families), expansion of this research into families may be beneficial into understanding decision delegation.

Further, this should not be considered to be a comprehensive study of the phenomenon of decision delegation. Instead, it defined and introduced the phenomenon, and is only an initial exploration of the topic as this research did not fully investigate the attributes of the social surrogate, instead concentrating on the decision-maker. While it could be assumed that the social surrogate has many of the characteristics inherent in "select choice," there is room to explore this topic further. There may be other variables influencing decision delegation which were not addressed here. For example, other individual attributes (like personality type) may have some effect on decision delegation.

While the survey included in this survey asked questions about why a person would delegate a decision to others in tourism environments, this was not explored within this study. Further understanding of the reasons a person would delegate a

decision to someone else could provide a greater understanding of tourism behavior, with potential application to the broader field of consumer behavior.

The study also primarily considered tourism scenarios, in particular how an individual traveling (or dining) with another would influence destination or dining choice on behalf of the group. While this is a limitation, it also opens the door to future studies. First, it could be expanded into other tourism areas, from which stores are visited while window-shopping on vacation to how time is allocated among attractions on a trip. Other social scenarios within and outside tourism, from dining decisions with friends to festival visitation, could also be explored.

The roles which can be seen in surrogate usage in consumer purchasing resemble some roles from the organizational buying process, such as users, influencers, deciders, approvers, and buyers (see Kotler, Bowen, & Makens, 2010). Much as in organizational decision making, the user (perhaps a traveler) may not be the decider, relying on someone else in the travel party. This may parallel some organizational decision making, in which the buyer may select on behalf of others. A further comparison of social surrogate buying roles to traditional organizational roles would be an extension of this research.

This thread of research also has potential application outside of truly social situations, including social decisions at the workplace and organizational decision-making. For example, in a workplace, an individual is often asked to select a restaurant to deliver food to the office or a city for a corporate or association convention. Thus, the

current research may help provide the basis for understanding other areas of decision delegation.

This study intentionally excluded travel with solely the immediate family. However, it could also be integrated with family travel decision-making research. Previous researchers have focused on *which* family member (or member of a couple) made travel and tourism decisions (e.g. Jenkins, 1978; Litvin et al, 2004) without clearly investigating why these decisions were delegated. Within families, tourism decisions (e.g. hotel choice) and everyday decisions (e.g. grocery choice) are often delegated to one member of the family who likely takes others' considerations into account. Thus, this research may open the door to a better understanding of family travel and family consumer decision-making.

The current study may also parlay into a greater discussion of choice for others. This research began to explore why individuals may defer decisions. However, it did not consider the thought process or influences on the deciders who actually make the decision. There are certainly a variety of influences on the person who makes the final choice. For example, when choosing a restaurant for dinner, it could not be assumed that an individual would always choose his favorite restaurant without considering the others. Likewise, when someone delegates decisions about what attractions to visit during a vacation, it would be unlikely that the decision maker would act in a dictatorial fashion without taking the needs and wants (or perceived needs and wants) of others into consideration. At the same time, it would be unlikely for everyone to have equal influence.

Finally, there are likely links from decision delegation and decision choice to satisfaction, repeat visitation, and recommendation to others. For example, this research found that individuals defer decisions to those who have more expertise and experience, suggesting that repeat visitors may be especially important in influencing travel activities. However, this was not fully investigated here.

In conclusion, this study revealed that individual choice is not always individual in many tourism decisions and investigated possible linkages between attributes and characteristics of the traveler, the decision, and the travel party in understanding decision delegation. It was found that people not only rely on others traveling with them to make decisions, but often formally or informally delegate decision making to social surrogates. Further research may help to better identify and isolate this phenomenon, which may assist destinations and travel providers in better understanding their guests' and visitors' choices.

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APPENDIX

SURVEY UTILIZED IN THIS STUDY

Decision Making in Travel

Welcome to Our Research Survey

You are invited to take part in a research study being conducted by a researcher from Texas A&M University. The information in this form is provided to help you decide whether or not to take part. If you decide you do not want to participate, there will be no penalty to you, and you will not lose any benefits you normally would have.

Your participation is voluntary and all responses are anonymous.

The survey is expected to take up to 20 minutes.

Thank you in advance for your valuable input to this research study.

Why Is This Study Being Done?
The purpose of this study is to learn more about how people make travel decisions.

Why Am I Being Asked To Be In This Study?
You are being asked to be in this study because you meet the criteria of respondents: you have traveled with other people and are over 25 years old. Or, you may be a student at Texas A&M University.

How Many People Will Be Asked To Be In This Study?
450 people (participants) will be asked to participate in this study.

What Are the Alternatives to being in this study?

The alternative to being in the study is not to participate.

If you are participating for course credit, the alternative is to sign up for another study or to choose to complete another assignment as described in your syllabus.

What Will I Be Asked To Do In This Study?
You will be asked to complete an survey. Your participation in this study will last up to 20 minutes. Questions will ask about your recent travel experiences and questions about how you make travel decisions.

Are There Any Risks To Me?
The things that you will be doing are no more risk than you would come across in everyday life.

Will There Be Any Costs To Me?
Aside from your time, there are no costs for taking part in the study.

Will I Be Paid To Be In This Study?
You will not be paid by the researcher.

If you are a student at Texas A&M University, you may receive course credit for participation depending on your course requirements.

Will Information From This Study Be Kept Private?
No identifiers linking you to this study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Your responses are not linked to you and cannot be connected to you by the researcher. Information about you will be kept confidential to the extent permitted or required by law.

Who may I Contact for More Information?
You may contact the Principal Investigator , James Petrick, PhD, to tell him/her about a concern or complaint about this research at (979) 845-8806 or jpetrick@tamu.edu.

Decision Making in Travel

For questions about your rights as a research participant; or if you have questions, complaints, or concerns about the research, you may call the Texas A&M University Human Subjects Protection Program office at (979) 458-4067 or irb@tamu.edu.

What if I Change My Mind About Participating?
This research is voluntary and you have the choice whether or not to be in this research study. You may decide to not begin or to stop participating at any time. If you choose not to be in this study or stop being in the study, there will be no effect on you relationship with Texas A&M University

By completing the survey you are giving permission for the investigator to use your information for research purposes.

Thank you.

***1. Do you agree to participate in this survey?**

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

Decision Making in Travel

Thank you for participating in this research study. This is a survey about your travel experiences.

For this survey, think of "travel" as:

leisure travel or vacations (not for business travel)
with at least one overnight stay

All responses will remain anonymous and confidential.

***2. Have you taken a trip for leisure (not work) in the last 2 years with someone other than just your immediate family (spouse/partner and/or children)? This may be a trip with friends, your extended family, or a combination of friends and family.**

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

Decision Making in Travel

Destination

Please answer these questions about the most recent overnight trip for leisure you have taken with someone other than just your immediate family (spouse/partner and/or children). This may include your spouse/partner/immediate family. But someone else must have been on this trip with you (such as friends, your extended family, in-laws, co-workers, or a combination of friends and family).

***3. Who did you travel with on this trip? (Remember this trip should include more than just your spouse/partner and children). Check all that apply**

- [ ] Your spouse/ partner/ boyfriend/ girlfriend
- [ ] Your friend(s)
- [ ] Your coworker(s)
- [ ] Your parent/parents
- [ ] Your children
- [ ] Other people's children
- [ ] Your in-laws
- [ ] Other (please describe)

***4. How many people (including you) traveled with you on this trip (please include only those people in your traveling party)?**

***5. Where did you go on this trip?**

Decision Making in Travel

Destination

Thinking about the same trip (the most recent overnight, leisure trip you have taken with someone other than just your immediate family)

***6. Who made the initial (first) suggestion to take a vacation?**

- ◯ Me
- ◯ Someone Else
- ◯ Unsure

***7. Who made the initial (first) suggestion to visit that particular destination?**

- ◯ Me
- ◯ Someone Else
- ◯ Unsure

***8. Which statement best describes who decided where to go on this trip:**

- ◯ I made the choice.
- ◯ I suggested options, and I made the final destination choice.
- ◯ I suggested options, and those I was traveling with made the final destination choice.
- ◯ Those I was traveling with suggested options, and I made the final destination choice.
- ◯ Those I was traveling with suggested options, and they made the final destination choice.
- ◯ Those I was traveling with made the choice without my input.
- ◯ Someone not traveling with us (such as a travel agent) made the choice. If so, who made the decision:

***9. What % of the decision about where to go on this trip was made by you? (Please enter a number from 0 to 100). 0= I made none of the decision. 100= I was made the decision completely by myself).**

***10. Please briefly describe the process you and your group used to make the decision about where to go:**

Decision Making in Travel

***11. Overall, how satisfied were you with the choice of where to go on this trip?**

	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
Overall, how satisfied were you with the choice of where to visit on this trip?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***12. Please answer these questions about you and those traveling with you on this trip:**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I have more experience at making travel decisions than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have more experience traveling to this destination than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have more experience making decisions about where to travel than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I know more about travel than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I knew more about this destination than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have more expertise about places to visit than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***13. On this trip, some decisions may have been made by you, while some decisions may have been made by other people traveling with you.**

On this particular trip:

What % of the time did you choose where your group would stay? (Enter a number from 0 to 100)	
What % of the time did you choose what attractions your group visited? (Enter a number from 0 to 100)	
What % of the time did you set the agenda for daily activities? (Enter a number from 0 to 100)	

Decision Making in Travel

Dining on a Trip

***14. On this particular trip, what % of the restaurant/dining decisions on this trip were made by you? (Enter a number from 0 to 100, where 100 means that you made all of the restaurant/dining decisions)**

15. If you let others choose where to eat, why did you allow others to decide for you?

***16. On this trip:**

	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
Overall, how satisfied were you with the dining decisions that YOU made:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Overall, how satisfied were you with the dining decisions that OTHERS made:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***17. Please answer these questions about you and those traveling with you on this trip:**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I have more experience at making dining decisions than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have more experience eating at this destination than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have more experience making decisions about where to eat than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Overall, I know more about restaurants/dining out than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I know more about restaurants/dining out at this destination than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have more expertise about places to eat on a trip than those who traveled with me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

These questions are about traveling in general.

These questions are NOT about a certain trip.

***18. Overall,**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Where to go on a trip is important to me.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
The destination of a trip is an important part of my life.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I consider where to go on a trip to be an important decision.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Where to go on a trip does not matter to me.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***19. Please answer how you feel about choosing a vacation destination:**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
When you choose a destination to visit, it is not a big deal if you choose the wrong destination	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
It is very annoying to visit a destination which isn't the right one for me.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
A bad decision about what destination to visit could bring you grief.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I believe visiting different destinations would give different amounts of pleasure	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
All destinations could not be equally enjoyable.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
No matter which destination you visit, you get the same pleasure.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
You can tell a lot about a person by the destination he/she visits.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Judging someone by the destination he/she visits would be a mistake.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
If I know the destination that someone visits, I could pretty much guess what kind of a person he/she might be.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I would choose the destination of a trip very carefully.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Deciding which destination to visit would be an important decision for me.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Which destination I visit matters to me a lot.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***20. Overall:**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I don't like to plan a vacation trip in detail because it takes away some of the unexpectedness.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I like vacations that are unpredictable.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I would like to take off on a trip with no preplanned routes in my mind.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***21. When you think about making decisions:**

	Very unprobable	Unprobable	Somewhat unprobable	Neither probable nor unprobable	Somewhat probable	Probable	Very probable
What is the probability of you making a risky decision?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***22. Please think about <u>all trips</u> (not just a particular trip) when answering these questions:**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Where to eat on a trip is important to me.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
The place I eat on a trip is an important part of my life	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I consider where to eat on a trip to be an important decision.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Where to eat on a trip does not matter to me.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***23. When you think about dining out while on a trip:**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
When you choose a restaurant to eat on a trip, it is not a big deal if you choose the wrong one.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
On a trip, it is very annoying to eat in a restaurant which isn't the right one for me.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
A bad decision about where to eat on a trip could bring you grief.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I believe eating in different restaurants would give different amounts of pleasure	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
All restaurant choices could not be equally enjoyable.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
No matter which restaurant choice you make, you get the same pleasure.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
You can tell a lot about a person by the restaurant choice he/she makes.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Judging someone by where he/she eats would be a mistake.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
If I know the place where someone eats, I could pretty much guess what kind of a person he/she might be.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I would choose where to eat on a trip very carefully.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Deciding where to eat on a trip would be an important decision for me.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
On a trip, where I eat matters to me a lot.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***24. Please answer the following about how you make decisions**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I make decisions in a logical and systematic way.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
My decision making requires careful thought.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When making a decision, I consider various options in terms of a specific goal.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When making decisions, I rely upon my instincts.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When I make decisions, I tend to rely on my intuition.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When I make a decision, I trust my inner feelings and reactions.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I often need the assistance of other people when making important decisions.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I rarely make important decisions without consulting other people.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I use the advice of other people in making my important decisions.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I avoid making important decisions until the pressure is on.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I postpone decision making whenever possible.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I often procrastinate when it comes to making important decisions.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I generally make snap decisions.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I often make decisions on the spur of the moment.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I make quick decisions.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***25. When you think about making decisions:**

	Very unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Neither likely nor unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
What is the likelihood of you making a risky decision?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***26. When you think about making decisions:**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
When making everyday decisions, I try to avoid risk	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I try to avoid risks when making decisions in planning trips	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I freqently make risky decisions	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***27. Overall in your life**

	Doesn't apply to me at all	Usually does not apply	Most often does not apply	Applies about half the time or unsure if it applies	Applies more often than not	Usually applies to me	Always applies to me
I would prefer to be a leader than a follower.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I enjoy being able to influence the actions of others.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When I see a problem, I prefer to do something about it rather than sit by and let it continue.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When it comes to orders, I would rather give them than receive them.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I wish I could push many of life's daily decisions off on someone else.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
There are many situations in which I would prefer only one choice rather than having to make a decision.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I like to wait and see if someone else is going to solve a problem so that I don't have to be bothered with it.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***28. Here are a number of personality traits that may or may not apply to you indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.**

You should rate the extent to which the pair of traits applies to you, even if one characteristic applies more strongly than the other.

I see myself as. . .

	Disagree strongly	Disagree moderately	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree moderately	Agree strongly
Extroverted, enthusiastic	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Critical, quarrelsome	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Dependable, self-disciplined	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Anxious, easily upset	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Open to new experiences, complex	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Reserved, quiet	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Sympathetic, warm	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Disorganized, careless	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Calm, emotionally stable	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Conventional, uncreative	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***29. When you think about traveling with others (not in your immediate family):**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I like to have control over where I go on vacation with others	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I prefer that others in my travel party choose where I go on vacation	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
It is important that I personally choose the destination of my trips taken with others	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I prefer that others choose the destination of trips that I take with them	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When traveling with others, I like to make a majority of the dining decisions.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When traveling with others, I don't really have a preference of the destination we visit	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I like to defer decisions about where to eat to others in the group	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When on vacation with others, I like to defer decisions about what to do to other people	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I prefer that others in the group determine which activities we participate in	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***30. When you think about travel overall:**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Who I travel with is more important than the destination itself	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I pick the destination of a trip before I consider who I will be going with	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
If a friend or family member (outside of my immediate family) suggests I go on vacation with them, I am likely to join	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Decision Making in Travel

***31. Please answer the following about your overall travel experiences.**

Think about the total number of overnight trips (for leisure and not for work) in the past 2 years, how many of the trips were taken:

Alone	
With your partner/spouse/boyfriend/girlfriend only	
With your partner/spouse and children	
With your children only	
With friends only	
With your partner/spouse and other family members	
With your parner/spouse and friends	
Other	

***32. How many of these trips were taken to visit friends and/or relatives?**

Decision Making in Travel

***33. Including all leisure trips you have taken in the past 2 years, what percentage of the time did you let someone else choose the destination of the trip? (Please enter a number from 0 to 100)**

***34. In the last 2 years, who have you let choose a trip destination for you? (Choose all that apply)**

- [ ] My partner/spouse/boyfriend/girlfriend
- [ ] My children
- [ ] Other family members
- [ ] Friends
- [ ] A travel agent, professional travel planner, or tour company
- [ ] Nobody has chosen a trip destination for me in the last 2 years.

Other

35. Why did you let someone else choose the destination of a trip for you?

***36. Including all leisure trips you have taken in the past 2 years, what percentage of the meals did you let someone else choose where to eat? (Please enter a number from 0 to 100)**

Decision Making in Travel

***37. Including all leisure trips you have taken in the past 2 years, what percentage of the activities you participated in were chosen by others? (Please enter a number from 0 to 100)**

***38. On these trips, who have you let choose what activities to participate in? (Choose all that apply)**

- [ ] My partner/spouse/boyfriend/girlfriend
- [ ] My children
- [ ] Other family members
- [ ] Friends
- [ ] A travel agent, professional travel planner, tour company, concierge, or hotel staff
- [ ] Nobody has chosen a trip destination for me in the last 2 years.

Other

39. Why did you let someone else choose what activities to participate in?

Decision Making in Travel

***40. These are the final questions on the survey. Remember that all answers on the entire survey are confidential and anonymous.**

What is your gender?

- ◯ Male
- ◯ Female
- ◯ Prefer not to answer

***41. What is your approximate average household income?**

- ◯ $0-$14,999
- ◯ $15,000-$24,999
- ◯ $25,000-$49,999
- ◯ $50,000-$74,999
- ◯ $75,000-$99,999
- ◯ $100,000-$124,999
- ◯ $125,000-$149,999
- ◯ $150,000-$174,999
- ◯ $175,000-$199,999
- ◯ $200,000 and up
- ◯ Prefer not to answer

***42. What is your age?**

***43. Which best describes your household?**

- ◯ Single
- ◯ Married, opposite sex couple
- ◯ Unmarried, opposite sex couple
- ◯ Married same sex couple
- ◯ Unmarried same sex couple
- ◯ Prefer not to answer

Decision Making in Travel

***44. Do you have children under 18 living with you?**

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No
- ◯ Prefer not to answer

***45. What is your ethnicity/race?**

- ◯ White (not Hispanic or Latino)
- ◯ Hispanic or Latino (of any race)
- ◯ Black / African-American
- ◯ Asian
- ◯ American Indian or Alaska Native
- ◯ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- ◯ Prefer not to answer
- ◯ Other (please specify)

46. In what ZIP code is your home located? (enter 5-digit ZIP code; for example, 00544 or 94305)

Decision Making in Travel

Thank you!

Your participation is appreciated!

Your responses are important to the understanding of travel and tourism.