

Companionship Preferences in Incentive Travel

by

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ABSTRACT

Incentive travel continues to grow as a form of motivation in the work place. However, there is little research that has examined future potential incentive travelers' wants and needs from an incentive travel trip. The purpose of this study was to understand how and in what way various potential incentive travelers' beliefs, including attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control and motivation, influence their future inclusion of a significant other on an incentive travel trip using a modified theory of planned behavior. Moreover, the potential moderating effect of past inclusion of a significant other experience was examined as well. The study collected 129 usable responses from potential incentive travelers from companies based in Iowa and Arizona. The research for this project was conducted through online questionnaires that included quantitative and qualitative questions. The study used exploratory factor analysis (EFA), Pearson's correlation and multiple regression to test study hypotheses. The results of the multiple regression indicated three constructs, attitudes, subjective norm and motivation appeared to be statistically significant, while perceived behavioral control was not statistically significant in predicting potential incentive travelers' intended inclusion of a significant other. Perceived behavioral control was not significant because the control of including a significant other is dependent on the participant's employer. Pearson's correlation found a moderating

effect of past inclusion of a significant other on subjective norm and perceived behavioral control. In conclusion, the results validated the theory of planned behavior in the context of incentive travelers' inclusion of a significant other.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my family. Throughout this process my family has been overwhelmingly supportive and thoughtful. There is no doubt in my mind that without their continued support and counsel I could not have completed this journey.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Tourism is one of the largest industries in the world today. The World Tourism Organization predicts that by 2020 1.6 billion people will travel annually (World Tourism Organization, 2009.) Incentive travel is a key sector of the travel and tourism industry. According to Stolovitch (2002), incentive travel is one of the fastest growing segments in the travel industry. An incentive trip is an all expense paid trip given to an employee by his or her employer as a reward for excellent performance.

Vacation is a valued piece of time away from one's everyday life and world. Many companies are rewarding employees for their hard work and commitment by giving them time away to relax, re-group and reflect not only on work but also on their life as a whole. There are also important health implications of providing vacation breaks to deserving employees (Bloom, 2011). Bloom (2011) found health and well being increased during vacations. The duration of the vacation did not seem to affect the results. Bloom (2011) concluded that vacationers were more involved in conversation with their companion, which led to a greater sense of relaxation, more pleasure and better detachment from work. One important element of the incentive travel experience that has been virtually ignored by tourism scholars is the socialization role associated with travel companions.

The research of incentive travel gained popularity through the creation of the Society of Incentive Travel Executives (SITE) in 1973. The purpose of SITE is “unleashing human potential through extraordinary motivational experiences” (History of SITE, n.d.). Each year SITE releases the Incentive Travel Fact Book, which discusses the trends and growth of the incentive travel market in the United States. Incentive travel is a part of the MICE industry, which stands for meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions. MICE refers to a certain type of tourism where events are planned, well in advance, for large groups. Incentive tourism is different from the other components of MICE because incentive travel is conducted with the sole purpose for entertainment, whereas meetings, conventions and exhibitions are for professional or educational purposes.

Statement of the Problem

The potential incentive traveler is a largely unknown and understudied individual. There has been a lack of research that helps provide an understanding of what incentive travelers seek from their trips. Variables that increase the attractiveness of incentive travel have been given little attention, including the companionship of significant others (Shinew & Backman, 1995). As already noted, the incentive travel sector has become an increasingly dominant part of the tourism industry as a whole. Additional research and insight into companionship preferences and experiences can help incentive travel providers understand what their

customers are seeking. Shinew and Backman (1995) found that one's significant other has the most influence on decision making for the majority of people. Determining whether a significant other is preferred as a travel companion on incentive trips may help service providers increase satisfaction and better performance in the workplace, based on findings indicating that behavior that is rewarded is more likely to be repeated, as well as the additional positive effect rewards have on job performance and job satisfaction (Puffer, 1990; Steers & Porter, 1975). A literature gap shows the absence of research study findings linking the importance of a companion while traveling specifically a significant other, along with the growing popularity of incentive travel programs in the workplace.

Objective of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate how and in what ways potential incentive travelers' companionship preferences influence their intended participation in an incentive travel experience with a significant other with the interpretive help of the theory of planned behavior (TPB). Specifically, this study uses the predictors of theory of planned behavior – attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control – along with the addition of a motivation behavioral predictor. In addition, this study investigates a moderating effect of travelers' past incentive travel experience to each of the four components toward intended inclusion of a significant other. Therefore, the objective of this study is to test potential incentive travelers' intention to include a significant other on incentive

travel experiences using a revised version of TPB as well as to examine the potential moderating effect of travelers' past incentive travel experience within the TPB.

Research Questions

1. How and in what ways does the combination of the three constructs of the theory of planned behavior – attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control – affect future inclusion of a significant other on an incentive travel trip?
2. How does motivation increase the predictive ability of the theory of planned behavior in the context of companionship travel in incentive travel?
3. Does past inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip act as a moderator for the relationship between attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, motivation and intended inclusion? If so, how and in what ways does past inclusion experience moderate those relationships?

CHAPTER 2

Background Literature

Workplace Incentives

The first part of this section discusses the background, types and purpose of incentives in the work environment. The second part discusses the effectiveness of incentives in the workplace. The third part discusses the effectiveness of individual versus team incentives.

An incentive is a gift from a company to its employee that pushes the employee to achieve a final outcome desired by the employer. Incentives are used in the workplace to reward hard work, improve work habits, build morale, decrease employee turnover, increase employee suggestions and promote job safety (History of SITE, n.d.). Each year American companies spend \$117 billion on cash and non-cash incentives (Incentive Research Foundation, 2002). Incentive competition can be in the form of competitive or criterion-based. Competitive incentive competition rewards only the highest single performer, while criterion-based competition rewards everyone if the performance of the team reaches a certain level (Condly, Clark, & Stolovitch, 2003). The length of incentive competitions can be long-term (over 6 months), intermediate-term (1-6 months) and short-term (less than one month) (Condly et al., 2003). The choice of length is dependent on the specific goal and the needs of the particular company. As the industrial revolution gained strength in the United States in the late 1800s, companies started noticing

lower productivity and morale (Merkle, 1980). These issues led to the practice of offering incentives, or pay-for-performance programs, as they were known back then, in the workplace became more prominent to help workers become more motivated and efficient in their efforts. As the years went on, incentives changed from monetary to non-monetary, and spread to a multitude of different industries. Every year, incentives are pushing the boundaries to create an extraordinary experience that motivates and builds morale in companies around the world.

Incentives have been studied in research projects in order to understand their ability to improve productivity and morale. Incentives come in several forms, including monetary incentives (cash), non-monetary tangibles (trips) and non-monetary intangibles (public praise from a boss) (Condly et al., 2003). In Condly et al.'s analysis of incentive studies, cash was the most effective way of improving performance, yet the authors warned readers to accept the conclusions with caution. Although cash may be the favored incentive, the cost-effectiveness of providing trips might be a better choice for employers. Employees value incentive trips very highly, when in actuality the trips might be more cost-effective than cash for the employer (Condly et al. 2003). On the contrary a study done by the Center for Concept Development found more respondents preferred merchandise and travel incentives than cash incentives along with the fact that travel incentives are more exciting and

memorable than any other incentive (Center for Concept Development, 2005).

Not only are incentives memorable but they are also a great form of motivation for employees. The success of incentives as a motivator in the workplace has been extensively studied in the literature (e.g. Lawler, 1981, 1987; Hale, 1998; Eisenberger, Rhoades, & Cameron, 1999; Board, 2007). Eisenberger et al. (1999) found incentive programs were consistently successful and personal interest and value for work increase with tangible incentives. Board (2007) came to the same conclusion and suggested that incentives are effective motivators for employees. Tailoring incentives to specific employees is a subject of recent attention in the literature (Dubinsky, Anderson, Mehta, 2000). Dubinsky et al (2000) found six rewards that were imperative to employees regardless of their position in the company. The six rewards include achievement of market goals, bonus, attitude of superiors toward manager, salary and commission, opportunities for promotion and retaining respect of salespeople. An incentive travel trip could be included in the bonus reward category. The findings demonstrate that as employees move up the hierarchy of the workplace, their preferences for incentives do not change. In the incentive travel world this could possibly differ by incentive travelers looking for different type of experiences and destinations. This suggests that incentive travel agents might need to focus less on one's position in the

corporation/stage on the career ladder, and more on other possible influential factors such as travel companions.

Finally, studies on workplace incentives have looked at the effectiveness of team vs. individual incentives. Condly et al. (2003) found a significant difference between the two; team incentives were found to increase performance a great deal more than individual incentives. Bandura (1997) commented on the team incentive contests and the idea of “social loafing.” Social loafing is when individuals will not put as much effort into the task because there are other people to contribute. Bandura (1997) suggests that individuals ought to be assessed on their specific participation in the specific task but that the incentive reward is given to the group as a whole. Team incentives not only help a team work more collectively to achieve goals, but they might be more cost-effective for the company as well (Condly et al., 2003). As seen through this section of the literature review, incentives in the workplace are becoming more popular and effective at not only motivating employees but also making them happy. This current study can potentially lead to higher motivation and happiness by understanding the companionship preferences of incentive travelers today.

Incentive Travel

This section of the literature review examines incentive travel research and shows the importance of incentive travel for the tourism industry as it forms the basis of the proposed study.

Incentive travel is a booming trend that continues to grow. In 1990, there were approximately 11 million incentive trips taken, with more than half of those trips being given by companies in the United States (Sheldon, 1995). In 2010, almost that amount alone were incentive trips in the United States, along with bringing in \$13.2 billion for the economy (Jakobson, 2011). The implication of the growing number of trips for the tourism industry is immense. Incentive travel will continue to increase demand for hotels, travel agents and recreation companies (Shinew & Backman, 1995).

The incentive travel concept is not new, it can be dated back to Roman emperors, who would reward their successful generals with travel (Ricci & Holland, 1992). The modern idea of incentive travel originated in the United States during the industrial revolution when managers were rewarded with vacations for high productivity, although the majority was from the elite class (Ricci & Holland, 1992). The National Cash Register Company in Ohio is recognized as the first company to use incentive travel when 70 salespeople were given trips to the headquarters (Ricci & Holland, 1992). During the Great Depression there is little recorded use of incentive travel because of the economy. The popularity of mass travel and recreation during the 1960s and 1970s brought back the concept, while in the 1980s many companies were spending more than \$1 billion on incentive travel trips (Ricci & Holland, 1992). While the United States is still the largest consumer and supplier of incentive travel products, the

idea has spread globally (Ricci & Holland, 1992). With the growing popularity of incentive travel over the past few decades, the question of including a significant other is critical to understand travel preferences and work satisfaction better. This is especially true given that many incentive trips are taken with a significant other, although little is known about the companionship element of this growing subsector.

Incentive travel is defined by The Society of Incentive Travel Executives as “a modern management tool used to accomplish uncommon business goals by awarding participants an extraordinary travel experience upon attainment of their share of uncommon goals” (History of SITE, n.d.). An incentive trip typically takes people to exceptional destinations where the employees might never think of going. It is intended to be an experience of a lifetime, either as an individual or with a significant other. Incentive travel includes three customers: the participant in the travel experience, the company sponsoring the experience and the incentive company who produces the experience. Incentive trips can be rewarded based on individual, group or organizational performance. The type of incentive goal is chosen based upon the company’s overall goals because the effects of the incentives are sensitive to the company’s situation (Campbell & Campbell, 1988). The specific situation of each company has to be taken into account in order to accomplish the company goals most effectively. All three types

are used in many different industries, such as insurance companies, real estate firms and the service sector.

No matter what industry one is in, the primary goal of incentive travel is to motivate employees, which can lead to increased sales, productivity, morale and profits. “Unlike other incentives, travel incentives have ‘trophy value,’ which implies that they provide long-lasting positive reinforcement, an element that adds to their motivational value” (Shinew & Backman, 1995, p. 285). A study by Incentive Central (2007) also found 78% of respondents believe travel awards are remembered longer than cash rewards. Even with the knowledge that incentive travel can be a powerful tool in the workplace, research on the subject is relatively limited, especially on incentive travel preferences, along with the attractiveness of the incentive and how successful travel programs are (Shinew & Backman 1995; White, 2001). The use of some incentives, such as cash and gifts, has been declining in popularity because top executives are used to living lavish lifestyles already, so they tend to expect something more (Shinew & Backman 1995). Incentive travel rewards are commonly seen as a good alternative.

The attractiveness of incentive travel and the motivational effects of contests was studied by Shinew and Backman (1995); Hastings, Kiely and Watkins (1988); and Ricci and Holland (1992). Shinew and Backman’s (1995) study was critical to the incentive travel literature because it showed that incentive travel could be a leading motivational tool for

employers. Their study also examined the effect of social pressure on participants' desires for an incentive trip, which had a significant effect on the attractiveness of rewards in the workplace. Hastings et al. (1988) studied the use of incentive travel as a motivational tool. Ricci and Holland (1992) also studied the use of incentive travel as a motivational tool for employees; they also investigated recreation preferences of travelers. Both studies concluded that incentive travel was not only successful as a motivational tool but was in fact the preferred incentive for employees (Ricci & Holland 1992; Hastings et al. 1988). Sheldon (1995) used a demand model to gain a deeper understanding of the incentive travel sector. The findings suggested a shift in the popularity of use of incentive travel from non-service companies to service companies. This means incentive travel will likely continue to gain more popularity by including companies in a variety of industries. Sheldon's study also found that companies with larger travel departments were more likely to engage in incentive travel programs.

Not only for the benefit of researchers but also incentive houses a marketing approach was used in a study by Mehta, Loh and Mehta (1991), where they analyzed the current use of incentive travel in Singapore. The authors discussed the attractiveness and popularity of Singapore as an incentives destination. The pros and cons of attracting this tourist segment were discussed, along with suggestions for marketing countries for this particular sector. The pros and cons of attracting the incentive

travel participant is the vast market mix. Understanding the target market for incentive experiences is a complex process. Participants can have varying expectations for factors such as accommodations, activities, and the accompaniment of a significant other or family. The preferences of each participant can be a stressful situation but can also lead to a wide variety of business for many different companies in that particular destination. Understanding the trends, such as preference of a companion, can help the destination market itself better to the initial customer, the company that produces incentive experiences.

Not only is understanding the needs of the customers very important, it is also important for managers to validate the effectiveness of the incentive experience. White (2001) discussed the difficulty in measuring the return on investment of travel incentive programs implemented in Canada. White concluded that the initial step is to clarify the specific company goals of incentive travel rewards. Markarian and Hauss (1990) found a huge improvement in sales after incentive travel rewards were put in practice in Cox Cable Company, which led to an increased profit of \$9 million the following year. It is still challenging to relate incentive travel rewards to positive effects on the company goals, because companies also have to consider other factors such as advertising or pricing strategies. This issue needs to be looked at through a long-term experiment that studies sales before and after incentive travel reward programs are put into place in a company. The success of

incentive programs in companies is greatly based on the satisfaction of the travelers' experience. To gain greater return on investment, understanding the companionship preferences has potential to make the travelers' experience more satisfying.

One issue that can greatly affect a traveler's experience is the wide number of factors that influence the tourism industry. An interesting collection of research studies have been done on the factors affecting the ever-changing tourism industry (e.g., Coshall, 2003; Kahle, 2003; Yuan & Fesenmaier, 2000), but only one specific to the incentive sector (Xiang & Formica, 2006). Many worldwide forces such as information technology, environmental disasters, terrorist attacks and diseases affect the travel industry as a whole. Xiang and Formica (2006) studied how managers perceive these worldwide factors and how these factors changed their incentive travel programs. Besides the changing forces of information technology, managers found corporate spending, diversity of travel needs, difficulties in decision-making and communications as major challenges (Xiang & Formica, 2006). These forces can be viewed as opportunities if managers are fully aware of the quick changing nature and characteristics of environmental change by raising familiarity of the forces, and instilling a sense of urgency into companies. Understanding the companionship preferences of incentive travel participants might help managers adjust trips not only to satisfy recipients but also take full advantage of the current factors affecting tourism.

Couples and Family Travel

This third section of the literature review addresses couples travel and family travel research. The family unit is very dynamic, and the traditional family structure is changing. The presence of more single-parent families can lead to a limited amount of time to spend on travel and recreation (Nickerson & Black, 2000). The average work week has increased in the past decade. This, along with the fact that both parents are in the work force in many instances, can lead to a hectic schedule to try to incorporate any vacation time (Nickerson & Black, 2000). The idea of incentive travel may give adults much-needed vacation time without their having to worry about taking time away from work since it was rewarded to them by their employers.

Even though vacation is needed in everyone's lives, vacation decision-making can become stressful as it has become a complex process. The vast number of destinations available to choose from leads to a greater involvement in the vacation decision process from the primary planners, usually the team of husband and wife or other domestic partner. There has been an extensive amount of research done on vacation decision-making and customer satisfaction (e.g. Bokek-Cohen, 2011; Zalatan, 1998; Getz 1986, 1992; Myers & Moncrief, 1978; Mottair & Quinn, 2004, Baker & Crompton, 2000; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Decrop, 2005; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), but these studies lack the input of spouses and children and their influence on travelers' satisfaction.

During an incentive travel experience, the traveler does not deal with any of the decision-making process. This usually is in the hands of the company handling the incentive package. This study is more interested in the influence of the travelers' spouse or partner on the overall satisfaction of the experience. Marketing and tourism industry studies have found a significant relationship between overall satisfaction and intention to return (Woodside, Frey, & Daly, 1989; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Sivadas & Baker-Prewitt, 2000). When dealing with incentive travel it could also be assumed that the higher the satisfaction of the experience, the intention to return would be seen through the motivation to succeed during future incentive contests in the workplace. Kozak and Duman (2012) studied the satisfaction of the spouse and family and how that satisfaction influences travelers' satisfaction, intentions to revisit and intention to recommend the destination. The results indicated spousal satisfaction had a greater effect on the traveler's satisfaction and intention to return (Kozak & Duman, 2012).

The importance of spousal or partner satisfaction is highly dependent on the experience as a whole, including accommodations, dining, and recreation. Women's participation in activities on incentive travel trips can range from spa activities to cooking classes to hiking. Karla Henderson (2000) discussed the role of women in recreation activities and found that women are taking more interest in them. Men who are competitive in work, which usually leads to the reward of an incentive trip, are more

interested in competitive leisure activities such as competitive games (Kirkcaldy & Cooper, 1992). Understanding activity preferences not only for women, but also for men, can help make the incentive trips more enjoyable by offering activities that are enjoyable both to male and female participants.

Another factor important to understand for this particular study is trip planning. Several studies have examined the involvement of each significant other in the planning and executing stages of travel, along with how decision-making changes through the tourist's life cycle (e.g. Zalatan, 1998; Getz, 1986, 1992). Understanding the dynamics between couples during travel planning is important in understanding tourism behavior because it can help many sectors of the industry target a certain spouse, depending on the spouse's role in the planning process. Incentive planners can decide on how to inform each partner on the upcoming incentive travel experience, whether it is through brochures on potential destinations or letting the participant choose his/her activities during the trip.

The selection of travel destination, route and choice of lodging have been studied by analyzing the varying participation of spouses (Myers & Moncrief, 1978; Mottair & Quinn, 2003). Myers and Moncrief (1978) used generalizations from Mirra Komarovsky (1961) and found 70% of destination choices were made jointly; husbands' predominately planned the route of the trip, while the lodging decisions were made jointly. The

fact that most decisions were made jointly by couples, according to published studies, leads one to believe that both partners are interested in trip design, which could mean an incentive travel participant would want to include his or her significant other. Mottair and Quinn's (2003) more recent study had similar findings to those of Myers and Moncrief (1978). New findings from the study showed women have more influence in the beginning stages of vacation planning, such as initiation of discussion, research on destinations, use of travel agents for help, and booking and paying (Mottair & Quinn 2003). These findings are important to understand marketing efforts and, as will be discussed later, the intention to travel leads to the likelihood of actually traveling as shown by the theory of planned behavior. Unlike other forms of travel, someone else typically does the planning for incentive trips, but it is still important to understand who has the most say on activities and destination choice so the incentive firm can cater to the needs of both partners.

Lastly, Incentive planners need to understand the use of vacation time of potential incentive travelers. Maume (2006) researched the differences between gendered uses of vacation time off work. His findings showed that men have more unused vacation time than women. Maume (2006) found males are more concerned with job security and schedules than women. Since men are less likely to use their allotted vacation time, the incentive trip can be seen as a break without having to worry about job responsibilities. In this sense, it may be seen as an extension of work on

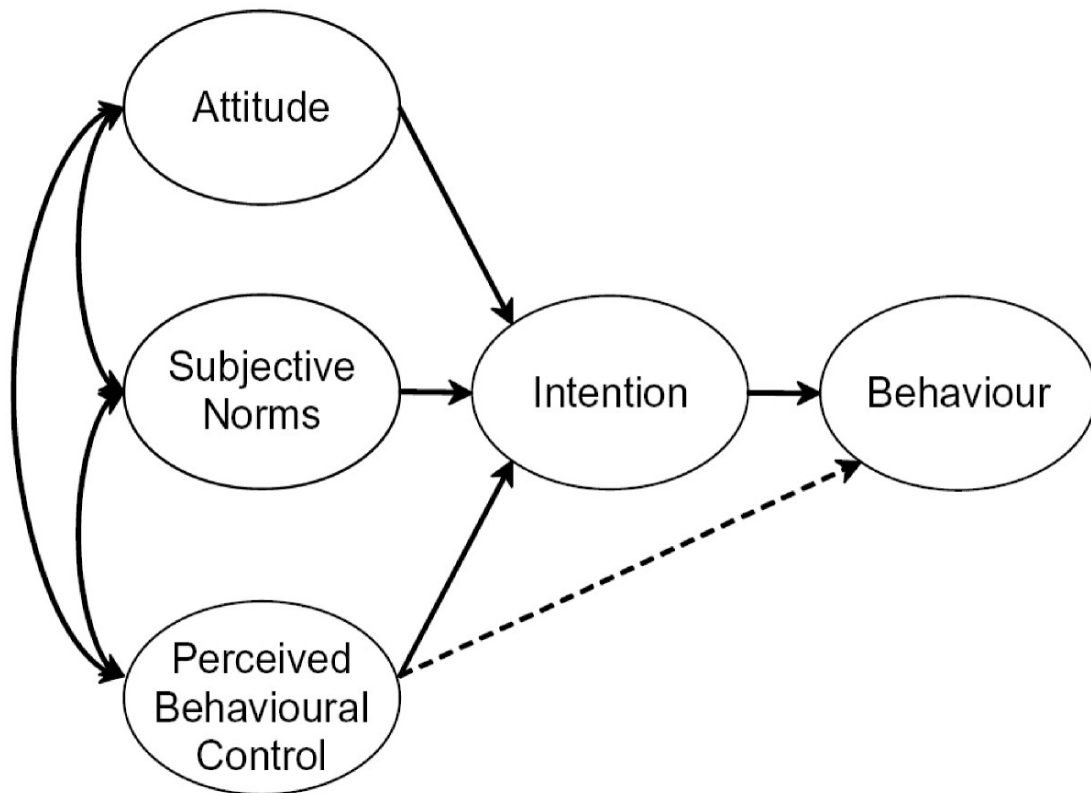
holiday. One problem with Maume's (2006) study is the fact that researchers do not take into account the amount of paid vacation each respondent is allotted. Respondents may be actually taking the same amount of vacation time even though they have left over allotted vacation days. Future studies need to find a way to factor in the amount of time of each respondent, males and females, to truly understand the amount of vacation each respondent takes. Along with understanding the number of days preferable to be away from work on vacation, it would also be beneficial to understand the preferred month to take an incentive travel trip.

Theoretical Foundation

This final section of the literature review outlines the theory of planned behavior (TPB). The following review is important to this research because it provides a theoretical background to understand better the intention to include a significant other on an incentive trip. The first part discusses the history and backbone of TPB. The second part discusses studies using TPB to predict intentions of leisure choice. The third part discusses TPB theory used in studies dealing with travel intentions. The fourth part analyzes the validity and reliability of TPB versus a Value-Belief-Norm model. The final part discusses the each of the constructs of TPB specifically along with the addition of motivation and past experience to this study.

The theory of planned behavior is an expansion of the theory of reasoned action. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) developed the two-component independent construct (TRA) that consisted of attitudes and subjective norm as a way to predict the ultimate intention to perform the dependent variable. Attitudes are one's feelings toward a specific person or thing. Subjective norm refers to the importance of people's opinions in one's life. Ajzen (1988, 1991) added an additional construct that he believed would help increase the variance explained—perceived behavioral control, and named it the theory of planned behavior. Perceived behavioral control is the control one has over the actions one performs. The increased strength of TPB versus TRA was shown through studies done by Kaiser and Gutscher (2003) and Lemmens, Abraham, Hoekstra, Ruiters, De Kort, Brug and Schaalma (2005). TPB has been applied in a variety of fields such as exercise behavior (Brenes, Strube, Storaandt, 1998), ecological behavior (Kaiser & Gutscher, 2003) and blood donors' behavior (Lemmens et al., 2005). Even though TPB has been utilized across several research fields, it has not been explored in the context of incentive travel research. Ajzen (1991) argued that the use of TPB in a multitude of research subjects would lead to an enhanced and extended theory.

Figure 1. Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991)



At the core of the theory is the idea of an individual's intention to participate in a certain behavior; this study traveling with or without a companion in the focus. Behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs are the three considerations that guide human behavior according to TPB (Ajzen, 1988; 1991; 2006). Ajzen (1988, 1991, 2006) noted that the more positive the attitude and subjective norm and the better perceived behavioral control toward a behavior, the stronger the intention to perform the behavior would be. When a human being has actual control of a particular behavior, it will lead to carrying out his/her intention of the behavior (Ajzen, 1988; 1991; 2006). The theory of planned behavior

and subjective norm “have been applied in a variety of experimental and naturalistic settings, but they have not been applied to behaviors associated with the attractiveness of various incentive reward options” (Shinew & Backman, 1995, p. 288).

Previous tourism research has shown that the strength of the relationship between the three constructs of TPB and intention is not always consistent. A meta-analysis was done to provide insight into the relationship between the three components of the TPB and intention (Table 2.1). Researchers who perform meta-analyses can help determine the overall efficacy of the TPB and the predictive power of the three constructs in relation to behavioral intention (Guzzo, Jackson, & Katzell, 1987). A meta-analysis can also provide information about the relationships between the variables by using effect sizes (Guzzo, et al., 1987).

For this study, previous research in the area of Tourism and TPB was identified and their effect sizes were analyzed. The most accessible effect size across all studies was the correlation coefficient. First, the researcher found tourism and leisure research which had used TPB or TRA, which totaled 14 tourism studies, which included 14 correlation coefficients for attitude and subjective norm, and 11 correlation coefficients for perceived behavioral control. Secondly, the researcher investigated the reliability and correlation coefficient between variables for each study. Effect sizes of the three constructs of TPB indicated a moderate effect size for

attitudes ($\rho = 0.43$), subjective norm ($\rho = 0.41$) and perceived behavioral control ($\rho = 0.52$).

Table 2.1 Review of Tourism Research Using the TPB

Author	Sample Size	Subject	IV	DV	Correlation Value
Brown	433	Cultural tourists	Attitudes	Intention to climb	.67
			Subjective norm (SN)		.48
Han, Hsu & Sheu	428	Green hotel visitors	Attitudes	Visit intention	.65
			SN		.59
			Perceived Behavioral Control (Pbc)		.45
Lam & Hsu	299	Potential Chinese travelers	Attitudes	Intention to travel	.36
			SN		.28
Lee	100	American & Chinese customers	Pbc	Bargaining intention	.21
			Attitudes		.72
Lee & Back	245	Meeting participants	SN	Participation intention	.67
			Attitudes		.24
			SN		.28
Lee, Qu & Kim	208	Travel subscribers	Pbc	Intention to search	.31
			Attitudes		.49
Oh & Hsu	485	Current gamblers	SN	Intention to gamble	.21
			Attitudes		
			SN		
Phetvaroon	385	Tourists	Pbc	Intention to visit	.33
			Attitudes		
			SN		.27
			Pbc		.45

Table 2.1 Review of Tourism Research using TPB Continued

Author	Sample Size	Subject	IV	DV	Correlation Value	
Quintal, Lee & Soutar	168	Korean online travelers	Attitudes	Visit intention	.35	
			SN		.38	
			Pbc Attitudes		.43 .49	
	308	Chinese	SN		.62	
			Pbc Attitudes		.53 .41	
			SN		.47	
Shen, Schuttemeyer & Braun	366	Chinese visitors	Pbc Attitudes	Intention to visit	.42 .02	
			SN		.07	
			Pbc Attitude			.29 .26
Sparks	427	Potential wine tourists	SN	Intention to travel	.35	
			Pbc Attitudes			.58 .15
			SN			
Sparks & Pan	548	Chinese outbound tourists	Pbc	Visit intention	.58 .15	
			Attitudes			
			SN			
			Pbc			

The TPB has been applied to several leisure studies (Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Blue, 1995; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Hrubes & Ajzen, 2001). One of the main applications has been predicting people's intention to engage in some sort of leisure activity. Ajzen and Driver (1992) studied college students' intentions to participate in a variety of leisure activities including running, biking and climbing. Blue (1995) looked at TPB's predictive ability

in exercise intentions. Perceived behavioral control was found to have the strongest influence on exercise intentions. Armitage and Conner (2001) also analyzed a series of previous studies that used TPB. Their study also concluded that perceived behavioral control had the strongest influence on behavior intention. Perceived behavioral control was a construct added onto the theory of reasoned action. Both of these studies help strengthen the credibility of TPB. Hrubes and Ajzen (2001) used TPB to examine hunting intentions. All three constructs of TPB were shown to have a significant effect on the hunting intentions of participants. Attitudes, subjective norm and perceptions of behavioral control were shown to have differing levels of importance, depending on the type of leisure activity undertaken. The strengths of each construct dealing with intention to include a companion on an incentive travel experience will be an interesting finding that will help fill this lacuna in research literature.

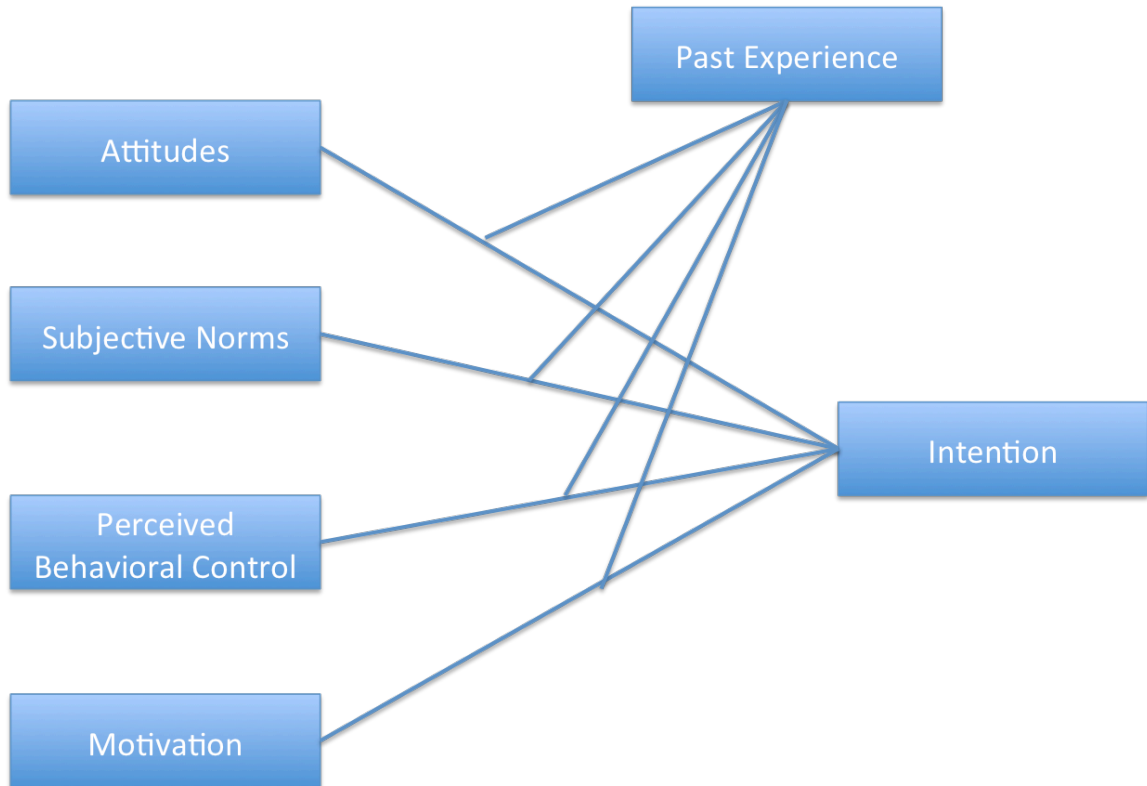
Along with studies in the field of leisure, the TPB model has been applied to a few travel studies including Lam and Hsu (2006) and Bamberg, Ajzen and Schmidt (2003). Planning a vacation or other trip is a complex process with many different decisions to be made, as noted earlier. Using a questionnaire, Lam and Hsu (2006) implemented TPB to predict behavioral intention to visit a certain travel destination. Predictably, the study found travelers with positive attitudes towards a destination were more likely to visit in the future. Bamberg et al.'s (2003) study used an intervention approach with a prepaid bus ticket, to measure the effects the

ticket intervention had on students choosing to take the bus. Both studies found all constructs of TPB, with the added variable of past behavior, fit the model moderately well (Lam & Hsu, 2006; Bamberg et al., 2003.).

Another test of reliability on TPB was shown in a study completed by Kaiser, Hubner and Bogner (2005). TPB was tested against the Value-belief-Norm model on predicting conservation behaviors. 76% of the variance in behavioral intentions was explained by the three factors of attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. The variance in conservation behaviors was explained by 92% of the TPB behavioral intentions. The value-belief-norm model was expected to be the better predictor, but it only explained 64% of the variance in participants' behavior (Kaiser *et al.*, 2005). TPB has been shown to predict people's intentions in leisure fairly well, especially in travel terms. As such, it was chosen as a useful theoretical and interpretive tool for this study.

As Ajzen (1991) stated, all three constructs tested together could represent a more valid measure of behavior intention than any single construct alone. This present study attempts to examine how and in what ways each of the three constructs of TPB and motivation determine potential inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip. Therefore, a modified model of the theory of planned behavior is presented for this study (Figure 1).

Figure 2. The Proposed Modified Theory of Planned Behavior



Intentions

The dependent variable for this study was potential incentive travelers' intended inclusion of a companion. The intention construct has been used as a dependent variable in research across multiple academic disciplines. Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) believe one will perform a behavior when the opportunity presents itself but one's intention to perform the behavior is a strong indicator of the likelihood to perform the behavior. There are many factors that can influence the ability to perform a behavior. This is why the intention, along with the statement of one's behavioral intention, is successful predictors of future behavior (Ajzen &

Fishbein, 2000). The intention variable is frequently measured using a Likert scale (Lam & Hsu, 2006; Ajzen, 2006). For this study, the intention variable was measured using a seven-point Likert scale to understand potential incentive travelers' intended inclusion of a companion on an incentive travel experience. Items for the variable are based on a modified theory of planned behavior, based on Ajzen (1991).

Table 3.1 Intended Inclusion of a Significant Other

I intend to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

I will try to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

I am determined to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

I plan to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

I have decided to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

Note. All items were measured on a seven point Likert scale

Attitudes

In 1934, the first empirical study of attitudes and behavior was completed by LaPiere (1934). It was not until years later that other constructs were studied in addition to attitude to understand behavior intention. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) added constructs because they believed attitude alone was not sufficient to predict behavior. The researchers defined attitude as one's degree of "favorableness or unfavorableness" to a behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The construct of attitude has been studied in anthropology (Galani-Moutafi, 2000; Kearney, 1995), social psychology (Cohen, 1988; MacCannell, 1992, Stedman,

2002), tourism (Brown, 1999; Lee & Moscardo, 2005), and other disciplines.

Research findings of tourists' attitudes illustrated that attitudes were positively related to tourists' behavioral intention (Brown, 1999; Lee & Moscardo, 2005). The relationship between travelers' cultural attitudes and intention to climb in Australia was studied by Brown (1999). The study found attitude influenced climbing intention greater than subjective norm. In other words, the study showed that the construct of attitude was a significant predictor of behavior intention. Lee and Moscardo (2005) examined the relationship between tourists' environmental attitudes and behavioral intention. Their objective was to learn if tourists would be willing to pay more for environmentally-friendly accommodations, which was found to be true. Again, a significant relationship was found between attitude and behavior intention. These findings led the researcher to believe the more positive the attitudes of companionship inclusion, the greater the intention to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

For this study, the attitude variable is measured using a seven-point Likert scale (see Table 3.2) and open-ended questions to understand potential incentive travelers' attitudes toward inclusion of a companion on an incentive trip. Items for the variable are based on a modified theory of planned behavior, based on Ajzen (1991).

Table 3.2 Attitudes Toward Inclusion of a Significant Other

Including a significant other on an incentive travel trip is ...

... 1 – Bad , 7 - Good

... 1 – Unpleasant, 7 - Pleasant

... 1 – Harmful, 7 - Beneficial

... 1 – Useless, 7 - Useful

... 1 – Unenjoyable, 7 - Enjoyable

... 1 – Unhealthy, 7 - Healthy

... 1 – Not important, 7 - Important

Subjective Norm

The second construct in TPB is subjective norm. Ajzen (1991) defined subjective norm as “the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior” (p.188). For this study, subjective norm is defined as the perceived social pressures that influence potential inclusion of a companion on an incentive trip. Subjective norm is important to this study because the intended companion on the incentive travel trip is most likely one of the subjective norm influences.

Organizational behavior (Ajzen, 1991), health (Wambach, 1997), and tourism (Lam & Hsu, 2006) are some of the few fields to study subjective norm. Lam and Hsu (2006) investigated the intention to visit a specific destination. Not only were attitudes and perceived behavioral control measured, but three items measured subjective norm as well. The

study found subjective norm played the most significant role when dealing with the intention to travel. A study by Phetvaroon (2006) came to the same conclusion; subjective norm had the strongest influence on intention of travel choice, in this case. The significance of subjective norm will be interesting in this study; the researcher believes it will be the strongest influence of intention.

The subjective norm in this study will be asked from the perspective of a significant other, family, friends, boss/supervisor, coworkers, and relatives. In past TPB studies, subjective norm usually are measured with a small number of items, primarily including family and friends. A small number of measurement items can possibly result in low reliability, leading to weak findings in the research (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Generally, using more than two measurements increases reliability. The six referents chosen could possibly exert subject norm and therefore affect potential incentive travelers' intended participation in companionship travel (Lam & Hsu, 2006).

For this study, the subjective norm variable is measured using a seven-point Likert scale (see Table 3.3) and open-ended questions to understand potential incentive travelers' subjective norm toward inclusion of a companion on an incentive travel experience. Items for the variable are based on a modified theory of planned behavior, based on Ajzen (1991).

Table 3.3 Subjective Norm of Inclusion of a Significant Other

My significant other believes that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your significant other that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?

My boss/supervisor believes that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your boss/supervisor that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your boss/supervisor that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

My coworkers believe that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

How motivated are you to comply with the belief of coworkers that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?

My immediate family members believe that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

How motivated are you to comply with the belief of immediate family members that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?

My other relatives believe that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

How motivated are you to comply with the belief of other relatives that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?

My friends believe that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

How motivated are you to comply with the belief of friends that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?

Note. All items measured a seven point Likert scale (1 being strongly disagree to 7 strongly agree and 1 being not at all motivated to 7 extremely motivated).

Perceived Behavioral Control

Ajzen (2006) defined perceived behavioral control as a person's perceptions of their ability to perform a specific behavior. The majority of research on perceived behavioral control in tourism has concentrated on discretionary income, time constraints, schedule, age and health (e.g. Harrison, 1995; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Sparks, 2007). Perceived behavioral control in the beginning was measured by perceived competence and perceived ability to overcome obstacles (McGehee & Norman, 2002). When discussing perceived behavioral control in incentive travel experiences, money and time constraints are generally not obstacles, because the trip is given as a reward and the time away is granted for the experience. Company policies will affect perceived behavioral control, as the company can choose to let the winner include a significant other or not.

For this study, the perceived behavioral control variable will be measured using a seven-point Likert scale (see Table 3.4) and open-ended questions to understand potential incentive travelers' perceived behavioral control toward inclusion of a companion on an incentive travel experience. Items for the variable are based on a modified theory of planned behavior, based on Ajzen (1991).

Table 3.4 Perceived Behavioral Control of Inclusion of a Significant Other

How much control do you have over whether you include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

It is mostly up to me whether I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

If I want to, I can include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.

Note. All items measured using a seven point Likert scale.

Motivation

Ajzen (1991) argued that the predictive power of the TPB model could be affected by many external factors. The three major constructs of TPB do not always consistently predict human behavioral intention.

Therefore, motivation was added as a fourth predicting variable toward potential incentive travelers' intention to include a companion in a trip, because motivation is a primary factor in incentives and travel. Bandura (1991) discussed the fact that motivation is not a single concept that can be defined in a certain way but is dependent on the particular research setting. For this study, the definition of motivation was adopted from tourism researchers Beerli and Martin (2004) as "the need that derives an individual to act in a certain way to achieve the desired satisfaction." Here, the tourism-oriented definition is favored because incentive travel is a division of tourism in general.

As discussed in the literature review already, much of the relevant incentives research has found that motivation affects one's behavior (Shinew & Backman, 1995; Hastings, Kiely & Watkins, 1988; Ricci &

Holland, 1992). Pearce and Lee (2005) investigated motivational factors of tourists against travel experiences using the travel career pattern model. The travel career pattern model is a modified model of Maslow's hierarchy-of-needs theory. Pearce and Lee found 14 motivational factors that had some relation with tourists' travel patterns and life stages.

Travelers' motivation differed dependent on the level of travel experiences. This finding is important to this study because it acknowledges travelers convey different motivational patterns over their life and travel experience stages. Since incentive travel participants are all ages, their motivation to include a significant other could possibly change in different stages of their life and travel experience.

Along with changing motivations over the lifespan when it comes to traveling, Gitelson and Crompton (1984) found first-time tourists were more focused on curiosity and autonomy, whereas repeat tourists were more focused on relaxation and relationships. Past experience, along with motivation, were added onto TPB to help improve the predictability because of the notion that motivation is not only pivotal in including a significant other on an incentive trip but past experience may change travelers' motivation. The addition of the motivation construct will not only add to knowledge about incentive travel but also about couples travel.

In this study, the motivation variable is measured with a yes or no question along with an open-ended question to understand potential incentive travelers' motivation to include a companion on an incentive

travel experience and if the inclusion motivates them to work harder in the workplace (Table 3.5). Items for the variable are based on a modified theory of planned behavior, based on Ajzen (1991).

3.5 Motivation of Inclusion of a Significant Other

Does the inclusion of your significant other on an incentive travel trip motivate you in the workplace?

What motivates you to include your significant other on an incentive travel trip?

Past Experience

This study will not only investigate the value of using TPB for understanding inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip, but will also address the role of past behavior on the constructs – attitudes, subjective norm, motivation and perceived behavioral control – and the intention to include a significant other on an incentive trip. Ajzen (1991, p.189), stated “In some applications it may be found that only attitudes have significant impact on intentions, in others that attitudes and perceived behavioral control are sufficient to account for intentions, and in still others that all three predictors make independent contributions.” The examination of the moderating effects of past behavior could lead to a better understanding of the behavioral intention.

Past behavior can help in predicting one’s actions in the future (Ouellette & Wood, 1998). Past behavior can turn into habits in human

beings. Understanding habits can help to understand how to change, break or initiate a habit. On the contrary, if the person has not participated in a previous behavior it may involve some level of controlled processing to carry out a behavior because the individual has to obtain information to perform the behavior. Ouellette and Wood analyzed studies to understand better the effect of past behavior on future behavior. The authors also included ways on how to measure past behavior better, such as using actual numbers rather than frequency descriptions (Ouellette & Wood, 1998). The study shows the power that past behavior has on predicting intentions to participate in an activity, along with how best to measure the past. Understanding the previous choice of inclusion of a companion in an incentive travel experience will provide a better understanding of intention to include a companion in the future.

Conclusion

The literature review illustrates that incentives are effective in motivating workers and improving morale in the workplace. Travel is one of the most sought after incentives because of the effect it has on productivity and motivation. Additionally, the examination of TPB helped the researcher form the hypotheses by gaining a greater understanding of the constructs effects on behavior intentions. The ability of the theory of planned behavior to explain human behavior and interpret research findings will lead to a better understanding of the attitudes, perceived

behavior controls, subjective norm, motivations, and past behaviors of participants' preference of including a significant other on an incentive trip.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses are based on a modified theory of planned behavior as already described. The independent variables of subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, attitudes and motivation are hypothesized to have a direct effect on the dependent variable: intention to engage in companionship travel. The last hypothesis adds the factor of past experience as a moderating variable to the model (Table 3.6).

H1: There is a direct positive relationship between potential travelers' attitudes toward a companionship travel experience and their intended participation in a companionship travel experience in the future.

H2: There is a direct positive relationship between potential travelers' subjective norm toward a companionship travel experience and their intended participation in companionship travel in the future.

H3: There is a direct positive relationship between potential travelers' perceived behavioral control toward a companionship travel experience and their intended participation in companionship travel in the future.

H4: There is a direct positive relationship between potential travelers' motivation toward a companionship travel experience and intended participation in companionship travel in the future.

H5: The relationship between attitude and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.

H6: The relationship between subjective norm and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.

H7: The relationship between perceived behavioral control and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.

H8: The relationship between motivation and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.

Table 3.6 Hypotheses for the Study

Hypotheses	Concept Names:	Theoretical Definition:	Operational Definition:
H1: There is a direct positive relationship between potential travelers' attitudes toward a companionship travel experience and their intended participation in a companionship travel experience in the future.	IV – Attitudes DV - Intended Participation	IV: Attitude – favorableness or unfavorableness to a behavior DV: Intention – one's anticipation, plan, subjective probability toward behavioral performance.	IV – Potential incentive travelers' favorableness or unfavorableness to including a significant other on an incentive trip. DV – A potential incentive traveler's anticipated plan of including a significant other on an incentive trip. A seven point Likert scale (seven items)
H2: There is a direct positive relationship between potential travelers' subject norm toward a companionship travel experience and their intended participation in companionship travel in the future.	IV - Subjective norm DV - Intended participation	IV: Subjective Norm – the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior. DV: Intention – one's anticipation, plan, subjective probability toward behavioral performance.	IV – the strength of social pressures to influence potential incentive travelers' inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip. A seven-point Likert scale (12 items).

Hypotheses	Concept Names:	Theoretical Definition:	Operational Definition:
H3: There is a direct positive relationship between potential travelers' perceived behavioral control toward a companionship travel experience and their intended participation in companionship travel in the future.	IV – Perceived behavioral control DV – Intended participation	IV: Perceived behavioral control – people's perceptions of their ability to perform a given behavior. DV: Intention – one's anticipation, plan, subjective probability toward behavioral performance.	IV – A potential incentive travelers' perception of their ability to include a significant other on an incentive trip. A seven-point Likert scale (3 items).
H4: There is a direct positive relationship between motivation toward a companionship travel experience and intended participation in companionship travel in the future.	IV – Motivation DV – Intended participation	IV: Motivation – the need that derives an individual to act in a certain way to achieve the desired satisfaction DV: Intention – one's anticipation, plan, subjective probability toward behavioral performance.	IV – the need that derives a potential incentive traveler to include a significant other to achieve desired satisfaction. Yes/No question and open-ended question.
H5: The relationship between attitude and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.	IV – Attitudes DV – Intended participation Moderator – Past Experience	A person's past occurrence of a behavior.	Moderator – past inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip. Responses – frequency, coded 0= never included a significant other, 1=have included a significant other one or more times.

Hypotheses	Concept Names:	Theoretical Definition:	Operational Definition:
H6: The relationship between subjective norm and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.	IV – Subjective norm DV – Intended participation Moderator – Past experience	A person's past occurrence of a behavior.	Moderator – past inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip. Responses – frequency, coded 0= never included a significant other, 1=have included a significant other one or more times.
H7: The relationship between perceived behavioral control and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.	IV – Perceived behavioral control DV – Intended participation Moderator – Past experience	A person's past occurrence of a behavior.	Moderator – past inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip. Responses – frequency, coded 0= never included a significant other, 1=have included a significant other one or more times.
H8: The relationship between motivation and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.	IV – Motivation DV – Intended participation Moderator – Past experience	A person's past occurrence of a behavior.	Moderator – past inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip. Responses – frequency, coded 0= never included a significant other, 1=have included a significant other one or more times.

CHAPTER 3

Methods

The purpose of this study is to answer these research questions:

1. How and in what ways does the combination of the three constructs of the theory of planned behavior – attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control – affect future inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip?
2. How does motivation increase the predictive ability of the theory of planned behavior in the context of companionship travel in incentive travel?
3. Does past inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip act as a moderator for the relationship between attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control and intended inclusion? If so, how and in what ways does past inclusion experience moderate those relationships?

Background

This study aims to understand what determines whether or not someone will include a companion on an incentive trip. These issues will be examined with the aid of TPB. Mixed methods approaches are becoming much more common in recent years. Mixed methods research entails the combination of qualitative and quantitative data to answer research questions. The combination of qualitative and quantitative data can produce more complete knowledge to inform or develop theory. Mixed

methods are useful in diminishing inherent biases in research, and they provide different data types and sources that can help triangulate, or validate, research findings. Triangulation effectiveness can counterbalance weaknesses in each single method by compensating with the strengths of another (Amaratunga et al., 2002). Qualitative analysis allows the researcher to develop a level of interaction with the participants that results in a better understanding of human behavior and choice which might not be accomplished through quantitative questionnaire based data collection. Qualitative research asks questions focused on the why and how compared to where and when (Taylor and Bogdan, 1998). Taylor and Bogdan (1998) noted that when researchers study people qualitatively they often get to know the participant so well they actually experience what the participant experienced.

Study Area and Participants

The participants in this study are employees of four different companies, based in Iowa and Arizona, who have had, or might have, opportunities to participate in incentive trips provided by their employers. One of the companies is an incentive travel house, whose clients have opportunities to participate in incentive travel. The incentive house's client pool includes participants from all over the United States, which helps provide a better representation of the general population. The incentive travel house also has access to participants from a variety of professional industries. Respondents were chosen based on a non-probability

convenience sampling method. The reason for this method was because of the author's familiarity with the companies and her contacts there, as well as the number of participants needed and their participation in incentive reward programs. Respondents were informed of the purpose of the study and asked for their participation.

Data-Collecting Instruments

A questionnaire was chosen as the primary data-collecting instrument because of its potential for quick responses, ability to elicit a higher response rate, and its ability to key in more data to understand a whole population from a smaller group of participants (Creswell, 2009). Another reason for using a questionnaire was the lower cost. The questionnaire was designed to gather information on the probability of choosing to include a companion on an incentive trip based on the elements of a modified TPB. The questions on the questionnaire covered intentions, attitudes, perceived behavioral control and subjective norm on the topic of incentive travel companionship preferences. These questions were structured around scales of TPB. Past behavior questions were based on Ouellette and Wood (1998). Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) laid out guidelines to help create a questionnaire using TPB.

Content validity and suitability were believed to be strengthened through the use of Ajzen & Fishbein's suggestions. After an extensive literature review, the items were based on a similar study done by Martin and Kulinna (2005), which generated seven attitude items, twelve

subjective norm items, three perceived behavioral control items, five intention items, one past experience and one motivation item. These measurements were submitted to two industry experts for assessment of content validity. The reviewers were asked to provide comments on the content and edit the items to enhance their clarity and understandability. After testing for content validity, the only changes made were to one of the Likert scales for an attitude item.

Attitude was measured with seven-point Likert scales. The items used to assess attitude were: including a significant other on an incentive travel trip is, (a) 1= very bad, 7= very good, (b) 1= extremely unpleasant, 7= extremely pleasant, (c) 1= extremely harmful, 7= extremely beneficial, (d) 1= extremely useless, 7= extremely useful, (e) 1= extremely unenjoyable, 7= extremely enjoyable, (f) 1= extremely unhealthy, 7= extremely healthy, (g) 1= very unimportant, 7= very important.

Subjective norm was assessed using two seven-point Likert scales, 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree and 1=not at all motivated to 7= extremely motivated. Twelve items were included, six of the items stated “my significant other/my boss/my immediate family/my coworkers/my other relatives/my friends believe that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive trip.” The other six items assessed the motivation of the respondent to comply with the belief of each category of people.

Perceived behavioral control was measured with three items on a seven-point Likert scale: (a) how much control do you have over whether you include a significant other on an incentive trip (1= absolutely no control, 7= complete control), (b) it is mostly up to me whether I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip (1= strongly disagree, 7= strongly agree), (c) if I want to, I can include a significant other on an incentive travel trip (1=strongly disagree, 7= strongly agree).

Intention was measured by five items on a seven-point Likert scale: (a) I intend to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip (1= definitely do not, 7 = definitely do), (b) I will try to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip (1= definitely will not, 7= definitely will), (c) I am determined to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip (1= definitely false, 7= definitely true), (d) I plan to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip (1=definitely do not, 7= definitely do), (e) I have decided to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip (1= definitely false, 7= definitely true).

Past behavior was measured on statement of frequency. Also collected in the survey were participants' demographic variables such as gender, salary, age, education level and marital status. The socio-demographic variables were included to understand better the characteristics of the sample. The findings will be useful for incentive travel providers to understand their potential clients better.

The validity of these instruments has been well established by many researchers such as Ajzen (1991) and Martin et al. (2001). Martin et al. (2001) and Martin and Kulinna (2005) found predicted associations among variables from TPB, which leads to evidence predictive validity.

Additionally, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, attitude and motivation were measured through open-ended questions.

Incorporating the additional open-ended questions led to a greater and more thorough understanding of the construct in question. The short answer responses were used to strengthen the findings found through the questionnaires. The questionnaire and open-ended questions took a cross-sectional approach where the data were collected all at one time.

Data Collection

The survey instrument for this study was conducted online through [surveymonkey.com](https://www.surveymonkey.com). The questionnaires were emailed to participants with a link to the appropriate website. All answers to the Likert questions were reported into a spreadsheet. Open-ended questions were included with the questionnaires. Once received, the answers were transcribed in their original form and analyzed for themes about subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, attitudes and motivations, and were coded appropriately. The themes sought were positive and negative attitudes toward companionship travel in incentive trips. No computer programs were used for this analysis. The frequencies of the themes were analyzed;

the level of frequency was dependent on how many surveys were returned.

Online surveys provide many advantages over mail surveys (Zikmund, 2003). Online surveys give participants the ability to take part in the survey wherever Internet is available, unlike mail surveys where the participant is required to have a physical address. Participants are able to participate in the questionnaire at their leisure instead of setting up a specific time to be interviewed by the researcher. White (2005:11) believes that an online survey does a better job of seeking out specific target groups that the researcher is looking for. In this study, the researcher targeted a specific group of people who intend to engage in incentive travel trips with a companion in the future. Traditional survey research would possibly be more difficult to target that specific group. Additionally, Internet-based surveys have the ability to connect with hundreds of people in a short time period. Finally, online surveys are cost effective compared to mailed surveys.

Unfortunately, there are some disadvantages of using online surveys over other research methods. Dillman (2000) argued that Internet-based surveys can be less dependable when a researcher does not know about the demographics of people in online groups, such as email lists from web survey services. Also, a participant can fill out an online survey multiple times unless there is a mechanism to monitor each respondent. Finally, not all people have access to the Internet.

Data Analysis & Reporting

Demographic data were analyzed for descriptive statistics such as mean, median, mode, skewness and kurtosis. The results are shown through a cross-tabulation. The demographic responses were analyzed to see if they have an influence on the constructs. The questionnaire data were analyzed using Cronbach's coefficient to determine internal consistencies of the constructs. The data were also analyzed using multiple regression analysis and EFA (error factor analysis). The relationships of the variables are shown in a concept map. The thickness of the arrow depends on the effect of that specific independent variable on the dependent variable. Relevant SPSS tables are included to highlight the main findings of the study. The qualitative answers are summarized in the results, and quotes are included if they convey the overall theme discussed.

CHAPTER 4

Results

Descriptive Statistics for the Study

Invitation emails were sent to four different companies with employees or clients who have had or will have the opportunity to participate in incentive travel reward programs. While the exact numbers cannot be determined, it is estimated that three hundred potential respondents were contacted via email. A total of 129 online surveys were obtained, a response rate of 43%. The response rate is higher than previously reported email response rates around 20% (Deutskens et al., 2004). There was zero to eight missing answers for all questions on the survey, which were left out of the data analysis.

Table 4 displays the characteristics of the study participants, including gender, education, occupation, years in industry, income, age, marital status, and primary residence. In terms of gender, the majority of the study participants were male (56.5%), but females were close behind at 43.5%. The majority education of the study participants was bachelor degree (71.3%) and graduate degree (23.0%). The occupation of the study participants varied with the majority being in the insurance industry (37.7%), followed by banking (13%), finance (8.9%), and healthcare (6.9%). Study participants varied in length of time in their work industry with less than five years being most common (32.3%), with the rest of the lengths of times between 10-15%. Income of the study participants

varied, including \$250,000 and above (25.2%), \$40,000-59,999 (16.0%), and \$100,000-149,999 (15.1%). The majority of participants' age was 20-29 (29.8%), followed by 40-49 (25.8%), 30-39 (19.4%), and 50-59(17.7%). The majority (64.5%) of respondents were married, never married (29%). As for primary residence, the most responses came from Iowa (40.2%), Colorado (20.5%) and Arizona (9.8%). These states were highly represented because the companies were based in Iowa and Arizona while one of the companies had a large branch in Colorado. Only one of the demographics is like the overall population of the United States: gender proportion (USA QuickFacts, 2012). To generalize the study results to the specified incentive travel market, more information will need to be collected on the certain demographic variables of past, present and future participants.

Table 4.1 Characteristics of Study Participants

Characteristic	Frequency	Valid Percent
Gender		
Female	54	43.5
Male	70	56.5
Total	124	100.0
Missing	6	

Table 4.1 Characteristics of Study Participants Continued

Characteristic	Frequency	Valid Percent
Education		
Some college but no degree	5	4.1
Associate degree	2	1.6
Bachelor degree	87	71.3
Graduate degree	28	23.0
Total	122	100.0
Missing	8	
Occupation		
Advertising	5	4.1
Aerospace & defense	1	.8
Banking	16	13.0
Construction	3	2.4
Education	6	4.9
Finance	10	8.1
Healthcare	9	6.9
Hospitality	1	.8
Insurance	49	37.7
Real Estate	5	4.1
Retail	2	1.6
Sales	5	4.1
Security	1	.8
Technology	4	3.3

Telecommunications	1	.8
Transportation	5	4.1
Total	123	100.0
Missing	7	

Years in Industry

Less than 5 years	40	32.3
5-9 years	19	15.3
10-14 years	17	13.7
15-19 years	14	11.3
20-24 years	18	14.5
25-30 years	16	12.9
Total	124	100.0
Missing	6	

Income

Under \$20,000	4	3.4
\$20,000-39,999	5	4.2
\$40,000-59,999	19	16.0
\$60,000-79,999	8	6.7
\$80,000-99,999	11	9.2
\$100,000-149,999	18	15.1
\$150,000-199,999	15	12.6
\$200,000-249,999	9	7.6
\$250,000 and above	30	25.2
Total	119	100

Table 4.1 Characteristics of Study Participants Continued

Missing	11	
<hr/>		
Age		
20-29 years old	37	29.8
30-39 years old	24	19.4
40-49 years old	32	25.8
50-59 years old	22	17.7
60-69 years old	6	4.8
70-79 years old	3	2.4
Total	124	100.0
Missing	6	
<hr/>		
Marital Status		
Married	80	64.5
Widowed	1	.8
Divorced	7	5.6
Never married	36	29.0
Total	124	100.0
Missing	6	
<hr/>		
Primary Residence		
Arizona	12	9.8
California	1	.8
Colorado	25	20.5
Idaho	1	.8
Illinois	8	6.6
<hr/>		

Table 4.1 Characteristics of Study Participants Continued

Iowa	49	40.2
Kansas	6	4.9
Maryland	1	.8
Michigan	1	.8
Missouri	2	1.6
Montana	1	.8
Nebraska	1	.8
New Mexico	1	.8
South Dakota	4	3.3
Texas	7	5.7
Washington	1	.8
Wyoming	1	.8
Total	122	100
Missing	8	

Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are two key elements in the measurement of constructs. Reliability deals with the consistency of a set of measurements. In other words, reliability explains how consistently similar measurements produce similar results (Zikmund, 2005). Therefore, the higher reliability indicates that the measure has greater consistency with fewer error values. Validity refers to how well the measurement represents what it is supposed to. The assessment of content validity is a critical step when utilizing relatively-untested items on a survey instrument. Two types of validity were performed: content/face validity and convergent validity.

According to Zikmund (2005), content validity refers to the subjective agreement among professionals that a scale logically appears to reflect accurately what it purports to measure (p. 302). Hinkin, Tracey and Enz (1997) suggested that newly produced measurement items can be assessed for content validity using experts. Informed experts were asked to review the untested items in this study. After conducting this assessment, any misleading, incorrect or irrelevant items were deleted or refined. As a result of the content validity assessment, the survey instrument for this study ultimately consisted of five items for intention, seven items for attitudes, twelve items for subjective norm, three items for perceived behavior control, one item for motivation, and one item for past inclusion of a significant other experience.

Convergent validity refers to the degree to which a measure is similar to other measures that theoretically should be similar. It can be assessed using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). If all factor loadings for each indicator in the same construct are significant, which they were, convergent validity is supported (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

Internal Consistency

Cronbach's coefficient was used to determine if all items were measuring the same underlying construct. Cronbach's alpha is sensitive to low numbers of items, but this was not seen in the analysis. Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951) showed a high level of inter-item

agreement for all four multi-item scales. Motivation was not checked for internal consistency because motivation was measured by only one item. According to Nunnally's (1978) minimal criteria of $\alpha = .70$, while values over .8 are preferred, all four scales were deemed excellent because they surpassed that criterion. Attitude was reported as $\alpha = .909$, subjective norm $\alpha = .884$, perceived behavioral control $\alpha = .864$, and intention $\alpha = .928$.

Factor Analysis of the Constructs

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with principal factor extraction and varimax rotation method was used to test reliability and study the relationship between the observed variables. EFA's purpose is to look for a way data may be reduced using a smaller set of factors by grouping items that are correlated. Additionally, factor analysis explored the core dimensions of each construct.

Intention

The dependent variable, intended inclusion of a significant other, was measured using five items. Prior to performing EFA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. All coefficients were .3 and above on the correlation matrix. The Kaiser-Meyer-Okin (KMO) value was .871, higher than the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970; 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant at $p = .000$. Factor analysis with principal factor extraction and varimax rotation method resulted in one factor with high loadings ranging from .834 to .926.

The factor explained 79.17% of the variance and had an initial Eigen value of 3.958. The five items for intentions were tested for reliability; the value of reliability was .928 (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Factor Analysis of Intentions

Item	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
I intend to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	.900	.928	79.17
I will try to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	.926		
I am determined to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	.869		
I plan to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	.915		
I have decided to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip	.834		

Attitudes

The independent variable, attitude, was measured using seven items. Prior to performing EFA, the suitability of data for factor analysis

was assessed. All coefficients were .3 and above on the correlation matrix. The Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was .876, higher than the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970; 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant at $p = .000$. Factor analysis with principal factor extraction and varimax rotation method resulted in one factor with high loadings ranging from .717 to .881. The factor explained 66.87% of the variance with an initial Eigen value of 4.681. The seven items for attitudes were tested for reliability; the value of reliability was .909 (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3 Factor Analysis of Attitudes

Item (seven-point Likert scale)	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
Bad - Good	.768	.909	66.87
Extremely Unpleasant - Extremely Pleasant	.881		
Extremely Harmful – Extremely Beneficial	.837		
Extremely Useless - Extremely Useful	.717		
Extremely Unenjoyable – Extremely Enjoyable	.851		
Extremely Unhealthy – Extremely Healthy	.850		
Very Unimportant – Very Important	.809		

Subjective Norm

The independent variable, subjective norm, was measured using seven items. Prior to performing EFA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. All coefficients were .3 and above on the correlation matrix. The Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was .850, higher than the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970; 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant at $p = .000$. Factor analysis with principal factor extraction and varimax rotation method resulted in two factors with loadings ranging from $-.236$ to $.873$ and initial Eigen values of 6.187 and 1.514. The two factors explained 51.56% and 12.61% of the variance. The twelve items for subjective norm were tested for reliability; the value of reliability was .884 (Table 4.4).

Two of the items were removed from the final subjective norm construct to reduce the items to one factor only, items dealing with the boss. They were removed after examining Cronbach's alpha if item was deleted. The item "my boss/supervisor believes that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip" would increase Cronbach's alpha from .275 to .890, while "how motivated are you to comply with the belief of your boss/supervisor that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip" increased Cronbach's alpha from $-.120$ to .918.

Table 4.4 Factor Analysis of Subjective Norm

Item	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
My significant other believes that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	C1: .490 C2: .608	.884	C1 – 51.56% C2 – 12.61%
How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your significant other that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?	C1: .545 C2: .547		
My boss/supervisor believes that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	C1: .362 C2: .587		
How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your boss/supervisor that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?	C1: -.127 C2: -.562		
My coworkers believe that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	C1: .737 C2: -.015		
How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your coworkers that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?	C1: .802 C2: -.085		
My immediate family members believe that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	C1: .833 C2: -.091		
How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your immediate family members that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?	C1: .844 C2: -.160		
My other relatives believe that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	C1: .871 C2: -.202		
How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your other relatives that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?	C1: .873 C2: -.236		
My friends believe that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	C1: .841 C2: -.039		
How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your friends that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?	C1: .826 C2: -.213		

Note: C1 – Component 1 , C2 – Component 2

Perceived Behavioral Control

The independent variable, perceived behavioral control, was measured using three items. Prior to performing EFA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. All coefficients were .3 and above on the correlation matrix. The Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was .687, higher than the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970; 1974), and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant at $p = .000$. Factor analysis with principal factor extraction and varimax rotation method resulted in one factor with high loadings ranging from .818 to .927 and an Eigen value of 2.263. The factor explained 78.77% of the variance. The three items for perceived behavioral control were tested for reliability; the value of reliability was .864 (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 Factor Analysis of Perceived Behavioral Control

Item	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
How much control do you have over whether you include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	.927	.864	78.77
It is mostly up to me whether I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	.914		
If I want to, I can include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	.818		

Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlation analysis is the most widely used technique to examine the relationship between variables (Zikmund, 2005). This study examines the relationship between the four study constructs, including attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control and motivation and intended participation. Pearson correlation coefficient ranges from plus and minus 1. Therefore, correlation coefficient of +1 indicates a perfect positive relationship and -1 implies a perfect negative relationship. In other words, the larger the correlation coefficient is, the greater the relationship between the variables.

All constructs were analyzed using Pearson's correlation to the behavior (Table 4.6). The relationship between the constructs attitude and perceived behavioral control showed an extremely small, positive correlation, $r = .04$, $n = 121$, $p = .662$. There was a medium, positive correlation between attitude and intention, $r = .445$, $n = 119$, $p = .000$. A large, positive correlation was found between attitude and subjective norm, $r = .528$, $n = 112$, $p = .000$. A small, negative correlation was found between attitude and past experience, $r = -.02$, $n = 123$, $p = .806$. The relationship between attitude and motivation showed a small, negative correlation, $r = -.23$, $n = 113$, $p = .016$.

The relationship between the constructs perceived behavioral control and intention showed a small, positive correlation, $r = .10$, $n = 121$,

$p = .268$. A small, positive correlation was also found between perceived behavioral control and subjective norm ($r = .235$, $n = 117$, $p = .017$) and past experience ($r = .19$, $n = 127$, $p = .031$). A small, negative correlation was found between perceived behavioral control and motivation, $r = -.29$, $n = 119$, $p = .751$.

The relationship between the constructs intention and subjective norm found a medium, positive correlation, $r = .526$, $n = 112$, $p = .000$. A small, positive correlation was found between intention and past experience, $r = .095$, $n = 12$, $p = .296$. A small, negative correlation was found between intention and motivation, $r = -.223$, $n = 115$, $p = .017$.

The relationship between the constructs subjective norm and past experience showed a small, positive correlation, $r = .222$, $n = 117$, $p = .016$. A medium, negative correlation was found between subjective norm and motivation, $r = -.461$, $n = 109$, $p = .000$. Lastly, the relationship between past experience and motivation showed a small, negative correlation, $r = -.024$, $n = 121$, $p = .797$.

Table 4.6 Correlation Analysis between Dependent and Independent

Variables

Variable	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Intention	123	5.847	1.201					
2. Attitude	123	6.211	.789	.445**				
3. Subjective Norm	117	4.991	1.215	.526**	.528**			
4. Perceived Behavioral Control	127	4.499	1.644	.102	.040	.235*		
5. Motivation	121	1.35	.478	-.223*	-.225*	-	-.029	
6. Past Experience	129	.74	.438	.095	-.022	.222*	.191*	-.024

**p< .01, two-tailed. *p< .05, two-tailed.

Testing the Theory of Planned Behavior

To test the theory of planned behavior (TPB) with the three original constructs – attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control – along with the addition of the motivation construct and how each affects future inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip, multiple regression was used. Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity.

A multiple linear regression was calculated to predict participants' intention to include a significant other on an incentive trip based on their

attitude, perceived behavioral control, subjective norm and motivation. 35.8% of the variation in intention to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip can be explained by the four constructs. A significant regression equation was found ($F(4,95) = 13.261, p < .001$), with an R^2 of .358. Participants' predicted inclusion of a significant other is equal to $2.661 + .258$ (attitude) $- .010$ (perceived behavioral control) $+ .638$ (subjective norm) $+ .388$ (motivation).

Additionally, attitude, motivation and subjective norm were found to be significant predictors with $\beta = .273$ at significance level less than .05, $\beta = .258$ at a significance level below .05 and $\beta = .638$ at significance level less than .001 respectively. Perceived behavioral control was not a significant predictor. A multiple linear regression was calculated excluding perceived behavioral control. A significant regression equation was found ($F(3,96) = 17.848, p < .001$), with an R^2 of .358. Participants' predicted inclusion of a significant other is equal to $2.614 + .261$ (attitude) $+ .631$ (subjective norm) $+ .386$ (motivation). Attitude, subjective norm and motivation were found to be significant predictors at significance level less than .05.

Test of Moderating Variable

This component of the study tested for the moderating effect of past inclusion of a significant other between the independent variables (attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control and motivation) and intended inclusion of a significant other in future incentive trips. In

other words, does past inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip strengthen the effect of the predicting variables?

Past inclusion of a significant other was measured by open-ended questions: “How many times have you included a significant other on an incentive trip?” and “How many times have you not included a significant other on an incentive trip?” The responses were organized into a categorical variable for convenience and clarity (Hair, et al., 2005). A categorical variable is much easier to understand than a continuous variable for the moderating effect. About 25% had not included their significant other on previous incentive trips, while about 75% had included their significant other in the past (Table 4.7).

To test the hypotheses, participants who had never included their significant other on an incentive trip were coded as “0” and people who have previously included their significant other on incentive trips were coded as “1”. The moderating variable was tested through multiple regression analysis; independent variables were created by multiplying past experience with each construct. 18.0% of the variation in intention to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip can be explained by the four constructs. A significant regression equation was found ($F(4,106) = 5.583, p < .001$), with an R^2 of .180. Participants’ predicted inclusion of a significant other is equal to $5.562 - .263 (\text{attitude*PE}) - .036 (\text{perceived behavioral control*PE}) + .458 (\text{subjective norm*PE}) + .015 (\text{motivation*PE})$.

Additionally, subjective norm was found to be a significant predictor with $\beta=1.077$ at significance level less than .01. Perceived behavioral control, motivation and attitude were not significant predictors. When the dichotomous variable, motivation, was left out of the multiple regression attitude and subjective norm were found to be significant. A significant regression equation was found ($F(3,111) = 6.842, p < .001$), with an R^2 of .160. Participants' predicted inclusion of a significant other is equal to $5.567 - .250(\text{attitude*PE}) + .416(\text{subjective norm*PE}) - .01(\text{perceived behavioral control*PE})$. Attitude and subjective norm were found to be significant predictors at significance level less than .05.

The multiple regression analysis shows past experience has a significant moderating effect on subjective norm and intention to include a significant other along with attitude and intention. Therefore, hypotheses five and six were supported, while hypotheses seven and eight were not.

Table 4.7 Categorized Past Inclusion of a Significant Other Experience

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	96	74.42	74.42	74.42
1	33	25.58	25.58	100.00
Total	129	100.00	100.00	
Missing	0	0.00		
Total	129	100.00		

Note. 0 indicates no experience of including their significant other, 1 indicates at least one or more experiences of including their significant other.

Table 4.8 Summary of the Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypothesis	Results
H1: There is a direct positive relationship between potential companionship travelers' attitudes toward a companionship travel experience and their intended participation in a companionship travel experience in the future.	Supported
H2: There is a direct positive relationship between potential companionship travelers' subject norm toward a companionship travel experience and their intended participation in companionship travel in the future.	Supported
H3: There is a direct positive relationship between potential companionship travelers' perceived behavioral control toward a companionship travel experience and their intended participation in companionship travel in the future.	Not supported
H4: There is a direct positive relationship between motivation toward a companionship travel experience and intended participation in companionship travel in the future.	Supported
H5: The relationship between attitude and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.	Supported
H6: The relationship between subjective norm and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.	Supported
H7: The relationship between perceived behavioral control and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.	Not supported
H8: The relationship between motivation and intended participation in companionship travel is moderated by past companionship travel experience.	Not supported

Qualitative Results

After coding the qualitative answers into categories, the answers were analyzed for frequency of categories. Seven themes were apparent through the analysis; companionship, sharing the reward with the significant other, scheduling, cost, company policies, children and pets, and distraction. Companionship and sharing the reward were seen as advantages of including a significant other. Companionship and sharing the reward were also the most frequent answers for what motivates a participant to include a significant other. Some examples of the answers were “she has earned the incentive in implicit and supportive ways,” “the trip is earned while working and being gone, and often times the significant other misses out on time together as well. Additional comments were it is usually felt the trip is “earned together,” and “someone to enjoy the trip with and time to relax and get away.”

Cost was a theme seen as both an advantage and disadvantage. The reason being that some companies will pay for the trip for the participant and significant other while other companies will make the participant pay for the addition of a significant other. Cost was the only theme seen as both a positive and negative. The frequencies of being a negative or positive was relatively even. Many companies have cut their budget on incentive travel, which has lead to not paying for a significant other. It would be interesting to see if cost is seen as a negative as much in ten years down the road as the economy continues to recover.

Scheduling, company policies, children and pets and distraction were the negative themes found through the analysis. Distraction referred to the participant feeling the significant other would cause a loss of focus if any business aspects were required during the incentive trip along with not being able to create as many business relationships. Scheduling and children dealt with being able to schedule time off for the significant other as well as scheduling and arranging childcare while away. The most popular response was distraction with answers such as, "You feel as if you have to entertain" and "if trip requires meetings, significant other may be left alone for periods of time with no one else to accompany them." The second most frequent answer had to do with scheduling and being able to find/afford a babysitter. The timing and scheduling would have to be flexible for the significant other in terms of their work and home schedule; along the same lines are the scheduling of child/pet care while away. Company policies were mentioned to make including a significant other more difficult. If companies do not offer a significant other the opportunity to join or if the cost is not covered deterred participants from wanting to include their significant other. When the respondents were asked for any other thoughts on including a significant other, the positives outweighed the negatives by far.

Lastly, the specific details of the trip, such as activities included and destination, made the incentive trip more attractive. Specific details was also mentioned frequently as motivation to include a significant other.

Looking at the questions dealing with specific details of an incentive trip such as the inclusion of business meetings, time of year, length of trip, and destination spot the majority of respondents believe all these details affect their choice to include a significant other. The percentages are reported in Table 4.9, if certain factors influence the respondent's choice to include a significant other on an incentive trip.

Table 4.9 Incentive Trip Details Responses

	Business Meetings	Time of Year	Length of Trip	Destination Spot
Yes	57.7%	60.8%	69.2%	69.2%
No	35.4%	32.3%	24.6%	24.6%
Missing	6.9%	6.9%	6.2%	6.2%

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

Introduction

The objectives of this study were threefold: 1) to examine how a combination of the three predicting variables (attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control) affect potential incentive travelers' intended inclusion of a significant other on an incentive travel trip using the theory of planned behavior, 2) to investigate the predictive power of the fourth predicting variable (motivation) toward potential incentive travelers' intended inclusion of a significant other on an incentive travel trip, and 3) to explore the moderating effect of potential incentive travelers' past inclusion of a significant other experience over the four predicting variables toward intended inclusion of a significant other.

As such, this study addressed the following research questions: 1) How and in what ways does the combination of the three constructs of the theory of planned behavior – attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control – affect future inclusion of a significant other on an incentive travel trip? 2) How does motivation increase the predictive ability of the theory of planned behavior in the context of companionship travel in incentive travel? 3) Does past inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip act as a moderator for the relationship between attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control and intended inclusion? If so, how and in what ways does past inclusion experience moderate those

relationships? This chapter discusses the study findings in relation to each of the research hypotheses. It also covers implications resulting from the study findings, followed by limitations of the study, and concludes with suggestions for future research.

Summary of the Discussion

Overall, the findings of the study have provided interesting results. Pearson correlation showed that there are some positive and negative relationships between the four predictors – attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and motivation – and intended inclusion of a significant other on an incentive travel trip. Multiple regression analysis found that motivation, subjective norm and attitude were significant predictors of intended inclusion of a significant other, while perceived behavioral control was not significant. Thus, study hypothesis one, two and four were supported, while study hypothesis three was not supported. The four constructs accounted for 35.8% of the variance in intention. According to a meta-analytic review on 185 theory of planned behavior studies done by Armitage and Conner (2001), the mean variance explained was 39%. Therefore, the variance explained for this study is a strong number compared to other studies.

Furthermore, the moderating effect of past inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip on the relationship between four predictors (attitudes, subjective norm, motivation and perceived behavioral control) and past inclusion was found to be significant for attitude and subjective

norm, but not perceived behavioral control or motivation. Therefore, hypotheses five, six were supported, while seven and eight were not supported by this study.

Qualitative analysis helped strengthen the findings that attitudes and subjective norm are strong predictors of intention to include a significant other. Additionally, the open-ended questions asking to list any factors that would make it easy or enable the respondent to include a significant other on an incentive trip strengthened the findings that perceived behavioral control was out of the participant's hands. The category of company policies (allowing a significant other to join) was one of the most frequently mentioned. Lastly, specific details of incentive trips were shown to have an effect on including a significant other (Table 4.9). These findings strengthen the work done by Nickerson and Black (2000) and Maume (2006).

Theoretical Implications

This study utilized a revised theory of planned behavior to identify how and in what ways the three components – attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control – affect potential incentive travelers' intended inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip. Motivation as a fourth predictor was added to the model to test whether it increased the predictive power of the model. Also, the theoretical model took into account past inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip experience as a moderating variable to examine whether it moderated the relationship

between the predictors and intended participation. From a theoretical perspective, the findings of this study indicated that TPB is valid for this sample of incentive travelers'. Even though perceived behavioral control was not found as a significant predictor, it makes sense for the situation of incentive trips. Participants do not have control over being able to include a significant other, it is solely up to the employers. Therefore, it makes sense the construct of perceived behavioral control was not significant in the participant's choice to include a significant other on an incentive trip. A study done by Terry and O'Leary (1995) both found perceived behavioral control was not significant on the specified intention, regular exercise, yet the model still had a good fit. The same situation was found with the study on companionship preferences in incentive travel.

Subjective norm was the strongest significant predictor of future incentive travelers' intention to include a significant other on an incentive trip. As discussed in the section on meta-analysis in Chapter Two, previous general tourism research found that subjective norm was the weakest predictor among the three components of TPB, but this study found that subjective norm played a highly significant role in predicting incentive travelers' intention to include a significant other on an incentive trip. This significant finding can be an important theoretical contribution. Unlike much previous general tourism research, which has used a small number of subjective norm variables (two or three subjective norm variables), and often resulted in a saturated construct, this study utilized

ten important variables. Hence, it is recommended for future research that more representative variables of the study that increase the predictive power of the TPB should be utilized. Two items were removed after explanatory factor analysis, dealing with boss/supervisor. This finding is important to mention, this study showed a boss/supervisor had a much lower effect on participants' intention to include a significant other than the other subjects mentioned in the subjective norm items.

Motivation had the second largest effect on this sample of incentive travelers' potential inclusion of a significant other on an incentive travel trip. These findings support the findings discussed in the literature review that motivation affects one's intention to perform a behavior (Shinew & Backman, 1995; Hastings, Kiely & Watkins, 1988; Ricci & Holland, 1992). Unfortunately, this study only included one item to measure motivation so these findings need to be accepted with caution. Also, the motivation item was dichotomous. According to Aiken and West (1991), continuous and categorical variables can be combine in multiple regression with appropriate dummy coding of the dichotomous variables, which was done in this study. It will be useful in future research to identify the different motivations of traveling with a significant other. The identifying of specific motivations, would lead to a stronger motivation construct.

The attitude construct was a significant predictor of incentive travelers' intention to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip. Armitage and Conner (2001) found attitude had the strongest correlation

of $q_s = .19$ at a significance level of less than .01. Armitage and Conner's meta-analytic review looked at 185 studies that used the theory of planned behavior. The results found in this study that attitude is a significant predictor is not a surprise as previous research shows that attitude is usually significant. Even though the semantic scale of attitudes can continue to play an important role in predicting human behavior, this study recommends that more specific attitudinal variables to reflect the subject of the research can increase the predictive power of human behavior.

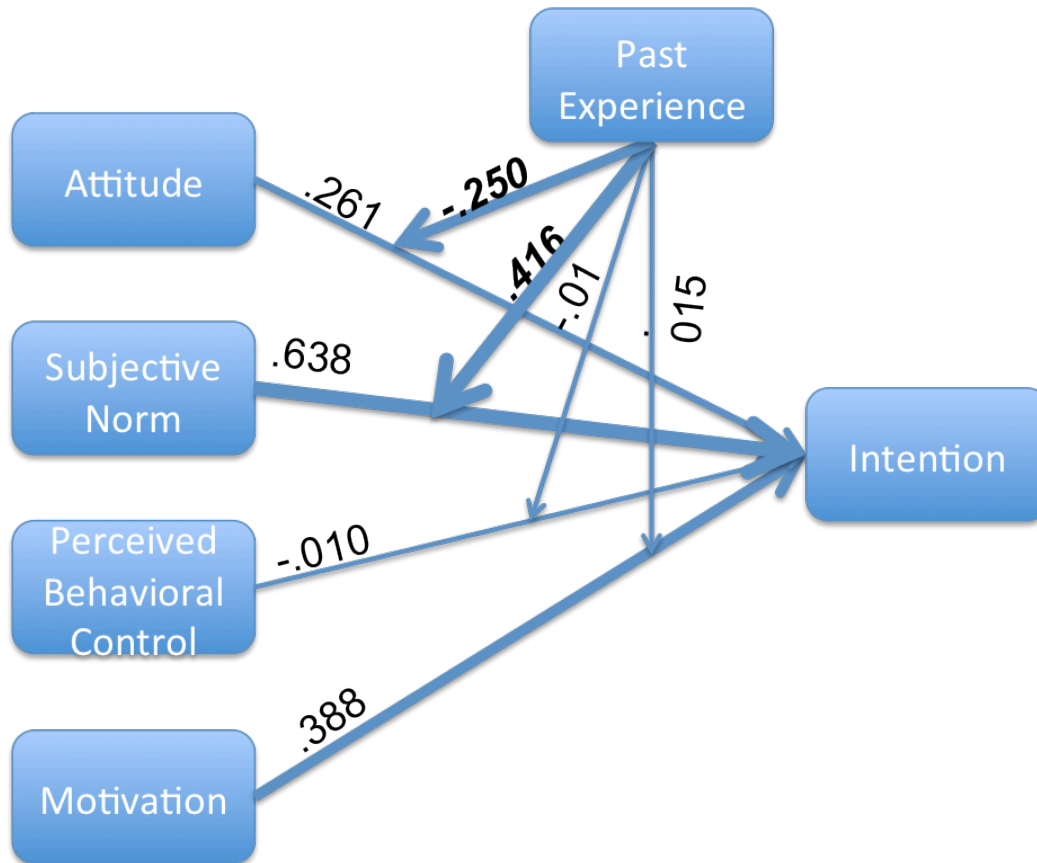
Perceived behavioral control within the TPB, did not contribute to increasing the predictive power of intention in this study. This finding did not support the research mentioned in the literature review done by Ajzen and Driver (1992), Blue (1995) and Hrubes and Ajzen (2001). One possible reason perceived behavioral control did not affect intention in this study is the absence of time and money constraints. The majority of incentive trips are fully paid for and the time away is granted by the employer. Company policies was frequently mentioned in the qualitative section as a factor that would make including a significant other difficult or easy, this factor could be addressed specifically in future research. Ajzen (1991) states that the magnitude of the perceived behavioral control-intention relationship is dependent upon the specific behavior. As mentioned earlier, the inclusion of a significant other is completely up to the employer. The participant has no control on the decision to bring a significant other, either the employer gives the option or not. Ajzen (1991)

also mentioned if attitude and subjective norm predictive power is high, perceived behavioral control power might be weak.

The moderating variable of past experience, through multiple regression was shown to be significant on the intention to include a significant other and the constructs of attitude and subjective norm. The fact past experience was significant was not a surprise as 75% of respondents had included a significant other on previous incentive trips. Past experience explained 16% of the variance in intention. The use of past experience in leisure studies has not been used extensively; the future use of this variable will lead to the understanding if past experience is an effective variable to include when studying theory of planned behavior.

The theory of planned behavior was proven to be a valid and the model fit companionship preferences in incentive travel well. Even though perceived behavioral control was found to not be a significant predictor of intention, the reasoning makes sense. Therefore, this result introduces the idea that the TPB can be a useful tool for future incentive travel studies.

Figure 3. Results of Revised Theory of Planned Behavior



Limitations and Future Research

As with all research, there are limitations to this study. First, this study focused on individuals who had either participated in an incentive travel experience or had the possibility to participate in an incentive travel experience. For that reason, the findings from the research cannot be generalized to the overall population, but rather are focused on the specific group of potential, current and past incentive travelers.

Another limitation to this proposed study is population

representativeness and sample size. As mentioned earlier, the sample in this study did not produce a representativeness to generalize the findings. The sample size was 129; the addition of more respondents would strengthen the findings and possibly alleviate the population representativeness problem. In addition, this online survey method did not have a way to prevent individuals from accessing the survey repeatedly, although only one survey per IP address was designated.

There are myriad concepts that could be researched about incentive travel. There is limited research about many aspects of incentive travel, so understanding even the basics about incentive travel is essential. Topics such as the motivational effects of incentive travel, the return on investment of incentive travel programs, and what incentive travelers are looking for from an incentive travel trip are questions that have yet to be adequately addressed. Even though some of these topics have been researched, there is still a need to understand them in greater depth. From this study, the overall positive outlook on including a significant other on an incentive trip could lead researchers to look at whether or not the inclusion of a significant other motivates the employee, makes the trip more enjoyable or provides longer-lasting improved morale after the journey is over.

As mentioned in the literature review, Kozak and Duman (2012) found spousal satisfaction had a greater effect on the traveler's satisfaction and intention to return. Future research could study this fact

more in depth by looking at if significant other satisfaction has an effect on the motivation of the traveler in the workplace when it comes to earning incentive travel rewards. Additionally, Nickerson and Black (2000) analyzed the changing work week and time spent at work in households, as shown in the qualitative results scheduling the time off for the significant other was seen as a negative. Future research should focus on how to alleviate this issue for couples traveling not only on an incentive trip but also vacations. Lastly, the social aspects of companionship travel, such as dining and activities, should be researched more fully as it is absent in the research literature.

Conclusion

This study proposed and tested a revised theoretical model that attempted to examine how and in what way the four predicting variables – attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and motivation – influence incentive travelers' intention to include a significant other on an incentive trip. Exploratory factor analysis, regression analysis and Pearson's correlation were used to test eight hypotheses. Pearson correlations showed that, to a degree, all predicting variables, besides perceived behavioral control, were significantly correlating to incentive travelers' intended inclusion of a significant other when the individual variable was only considered. Further analysis by multiple regression found all constructs, excluding perceived behavioral control again, were significant predictors of the dependent variable.

This study found the moderating effect of past inclusion of a significant other on an incentive trip was significant between the dependent variable and the independent variables of attitude and subjective norm through a multiple regression analysis. Finally, findings showed that the TPB model help up in the context of incentive travel companionship, and should be used for future incentive travel research.

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APPENDIX A
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Research Questionnaire Cover Letter

Welcome to the Incentive Travel Companionship Survey

Hello,

Incentive travel is one of the fastest growing travel segments in the tourism industry. It is defined as “ a modern management tool used to accomplish uncommon business goals by awarding participants an extraordinary travel experience upon attainment of their share of uncommon goals “ by The Society of Incentive Travel Executives.

The following survey has been developed to explore the various needs and motivations of both experienced and potential incentive travelers. Your responses are completely confidential and voluntary. We value your thoughts and opinions. If you have any questions or comments about the questionnaire or the survey overall, please contact Annie Dorweiler via the contacts listed below. We very much appreciate your participation in this survey.

Sincerely,

Annie Dorweiler
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5) Including a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip is:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
unenjoyable					enjoyable	

6) Including a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip is:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
unhealthy					healthy	

7) Including a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip is:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not important			important			

1) My significant other believes that it is important that I include a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree					strongly agree	

2) How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your significant other that you should include a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all motivated					extremely motivated	

3) My boss/supervisor believes that it is important that I include a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree					strongly agree	

4) How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your boss/supervisor that you should include a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all motivated					extremely motivated	

5) My coworkers believe that it is important that I include **a significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree						strongly agree

6) How motivated are you to comply with the belief of coworkers that you should include **a significant other** on an incentive travel trip?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all motivated						extremely motivated

7) My immediate family members believe that it is important that I include **a significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree						strongly agree

8) How motivated are you to comply with the belief of immediate family members that you should include **a significant other** on an incentive travel trip?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all motivated						extremely motivated

9) My other relatives believe that it is important that I include **a significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree						strongly agree

10) How motivated are you to comply with the belief of other relatives that you should include **a significant other** on an incentive travel trip?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all motivated						extremely motivated

11) My friends believe that it is important that I include a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree						strongly agree

12) How motivated are you to comply with the belief of friends that you should include a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all motivated						extremely motivated

1) How much control do you have over whether you include a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
absolutely no control						complete control

2) It is mostly up to me whether I include a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree						strongly agree

3) If I want to, I can include a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree						strongly agree

4) I intend to include a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
definitely do not						definitely do

5) I will try to include a **significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
definitely						definitely

will not

will

1) I am determined to include **a significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
definitely false						definitely true

2) I plan to include **a significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
definitely do not						definitely do

3) I have decided to include **a significant other** on an incentive travel trip.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
definitely false						definitely true

Past Behavior

In the past I have included/not included my significant other on my incentive travel trips...

Number of trips w/significant other: ____ times

Number of trips without significant other: ____ times

Total number of trips: ____ times

Section 2: Next, we would like to ask some questions about yourself

1. Are you: -Male -Female

2. What year were you born? _____

3. Your highest level of education is: -High school or less - University/college -Graduate or professional degree -Other

4. What is your marital status? -Married/partner -widowed – divorced - separated -never married

5. Where do you live? (Primary residence) _____ (state)

6. Which of the following numbers reflects your annual total household income?

-Under \$20,000 -\$20,000-39,999 -\$40,000-59,999 -\$60,000-79,999

-\$80,000-99,999 -\$100,000- 149,999 - \$150,000-199,999 - \$200,000-249,999 -\$250,000 and above

7. What work industry are you in?

8. How many years have you been in your current work industry?

Section 3: Finally, we would like to ask you some more detailed questions about your incentive travel preferences that may possibly influence your inclusion of a significant other/spouse/partner.

1. Do you have a significant other to include on an incentive travel trip?
2. Who would be your first choice to include on an incentive travel trip? (Does not have to be a significant other).
3. What do you see as the advantages of including your significant other on incentive travel trips you are rewarded?
4. What do you see as the disadvantages of including your significant other on incentive travel trips you are rewarded?
5. What other thoughts come to mind when you think about including your significant other on incentive travel trips you are rewarded?
6. Would you recommend others include their significant other on incentive travel trips?
7. Please list any factors or circumstances that would make it easy or enable you to include a significant other on incentive travel trips.
8. Please list any factors or circumstances that would make it difficult or prevent you from including a significant other on incentive travel trips.
9. What motivates you to include your significant other on an incentive travel trip?
10. Does the inclusion of your significant other on an incentive travel trip motivate you in the workplace?
11. Does the destination spot influence your choice on including a significant other on an incentive travel trip?
12. Does the length of the trip influence your choice on including a significant other on an incentive travel trip?
13. Do the activity options influence your choice on including a significant other on an incentive travel trip?
14. Does the time of the year influence your choice on including a significant other on an incentive travel trip?
15. Does the inclusion of business meetings on an incentive travel trip influence your choice on including a significant other on an incentive travel trip?

APPENDIX B

RESEARCH ITEMS WITH MEAN AND FREQUENCY

Note. Number frequency with percentage in parentheses

1. Intended Inclusion of a Significant Other

	Definitely do not						Definitely do	Mean
I intend to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	1 (.8)	1 (.8)	1 (.8)	13 (10.2)	20 (15.7)	35 (27.6)	56 (44.1)	5.98
	Definitely will not						Definitely will	Mean
I will try to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	1 (.8)	2 (1.6)	2 (1.6)	6 (4.7)	14 (11)	37 (29.1)	65 (51.2)	6.16
	Definitely false						Definitely true	Mean
I am determined to include a significant other on an incentive travel trip.	4 (3.1)	2 (1.6)	4 (3.1)	19 (15)	24 (18.9)	30 (23.6)	44 (34.6)	5.54
	Definitely						Definitely	Mean

I am plan to include a signific ant other on an incentiv e travel trip.	do not 2 (1.6)	3 (2.3)	4 (3.1)	11 (8.5)	19 (14.7)	33 (25.6)	ely do 57 (44.2)	5.86
I have decided to include a signific ant other on an incentiv e travel trip.	Definitely false 4 (3.1)	4 (3.1)	3 (2.3)	16 (12.5)	25 (19.5)	24 (18.8)	Definit ely true 52 (40.6)	Mean 5.61

2. Attitudes

Including a significant other on an incentive travel trip is:

Bad	Good						Mean
0 (0)	2 (1.6)	0 (0)	2 (1.6)	12 (9.4)	19 (14.8)	93 (72.7)	6.54
Extrem ely unpleas ant	Extremely pleasant						Mean
0 (0)	1 (.8)	2 (1.6)	2 (1.6)	10 (7.8)	41 (31.8)	73 (56.6)	6.38
Extrem ely harmful	Extremely beneficial						Mean
0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (.8)	6 (4.7)	20 (15.6)	41 (32.0)	60 (46.9)	6.20
Extrem ely useless	Extremely useful						Mean

0 (0)	2 (1.6)	1 (.8)	21 (16.4)	21 (16.4)	40 (31.3)	43 (33.6)	5.76
Extremely unenjoyable						Extremely enjoyable	Mean
0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (.8)	4 (3.1)	13 (10.2)	33 (25.8)	77 (60.2)	6.41
Extremely unhealthy						Extremely healthy	Mean
0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (1.6)	8 (6.3)	15 (11.7)	45 (35.2)	58 (45.3)	6.16
Very unimportant						Very important	Mean
1 (.8)	2 (1.6)	3 (2.4)	13 (10.2)	20 (15.7)	31 (24.4)	57 (44.9)	5.91

3. Subjective Norm

My _____ believes that it is important that I include a significant other on an incentive travel trip:

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree	Mean
Significant other	1 (.8)	1 (.8)	2 (1.6)	14 (10.9)	22 (17.1)	31 (24)	58 (45)	5.95
Boss/s supervisor	2 (1.6)	4 (3.1)	9 (7.1)	33 (26)	31 (24.4)	23 (18.1)	25 (19.7)	5.02
Coworkers	4 (3.2)	5 (4)	12 (9.6)	35 (28)	23 (18.4)	21 (16.8)	25 (20)	4.85
Immediate family members	3 (2.4)	2 (1.6)	8 (6.3)	24 (19)	24 (19)	32 (25.4)	33 (26.2)	5.32
Other relatives	5 (4)	5 (4)	13 (10.3)	38 (30.2)	25 (19.8)	19 (15.1)	21 (16.7)	4.70
Friends	4 (3.1)	10 (7.8)	11 (8.6)	32 (25)	26 (20.3)	26 (20.3)	19 (14.8)	4.72

How motivated are you to comply with the belief of your _____ that you should include a significant other on an incentive travel trip?

	Not at all motivated	2	3	4	9	24	34	Extremely Motivated	Mean						
Significant other	2	(1.6)	3	(2.4)	4	(3.1)	9	(7.1)	24	(18.9)	34	(26.8)	51	(40.2)	5.80
Boss/supervisor	11	(8.6)	18	(14.1)	13	(10.2)	29	(22.7)	15	(11.7)	22	(17.2)	20	(15.6)	3.71
Coworkers	12	(9.4)	8	(6.3)	9	(7)	30	(23.4)	28	(21.9)	19	(14.8)	22	(17.2)	4.55
Immediate family members	7	(5.5)	7	(5.5)	10	(7.9)	27	(21.3)	22	(17.3)	28	(22)	26	(20.5)	4.87
Other relatives	14	(10.9)	12	(9.4)	12	(9.4)	38	(29.7)	15	(11.7)	17	(13.3)	20	(15.6)	4.24
Friends	19	(14.7)	11	(8.5)	8	(6.2)	29	(22.5)	19	(14.7)	25	(19.4)	18	(14)	4.28

4. Perceived Behavioral Control

	Definitely do not	19	18	16	20	19	17	Definitely do	Mean						
How much control do you have over whether you include a significant other on an incentive travel	19	(14.8)	18	(14.1)	16	(12.5)	20	(15.6)	19	(14.8)	17	(13.3)	19	(14.8)	4.01

trip.	Definite ly will not						Definit ely will	Mea n
It is mostly up to me whether I include a significa nt other on an incentive travel trip.	14 (10.9)	16 (12.5)	13 (10.2)	21 (16.4)	22 (17.2)	21 (16.4)	21 (16.4)	4.31

	Definite ly false						Definit ely true	Mea n
If I want to, I can include a significa nt other on an incentive travel trip.	4 (3.1)	4 (3.1)	12 (9.3)	22 (17.1)	26 (20.2)	33 (25.6)	28 (21.7)	5.12

5. Motivation

Does the inclusion of your significant other on an incentive travel trip motivate you in the workplace?

	Response Count	Response Percent
Yes	79	65.3
No	42	34.7