CHAPTER 2

Investigating Tourist-Tourist Encounters: The Methodological Issues

2.0 Introduction

The previous chapter reviewed the relevant existing literature. Since there is not a rich research record regarding tourist-tourist encounters, the literature on cultures in contact as well as studies of people's encounters at leisure settings were the central areas of the review. At the end of the chapter, some questions were developed about tourist-tourist encounter settings arising from the concepts and issues drawn from the literature. This chapter will focus on the methodological questions, related to the studies of encounter reactions in leisure studies, culture studies and as a secondary concern, and tourism research in general. Appropriate methodologies for use in the present research to measure the tourists' reactions in encountering other tourists will be explored. The objectives of the research as a whole, which are drawn from the literature review and supplemented by these methodological considerations, will be outlined. The purposes of each chapter in the thesis are also considered together with the methodology employed. Finally, a list of definitions of some terms used in the thesis are specified at the end of the chapter.

2.1 Methodological Issues in Encounter Reactions in Leisure Studies

Leisure researchers point out that there are no established standard tools to measure the extent of encounter reactions at recreation settings (Ivy et al., 1992; Watson et al., 1994). While the definitions and the model of conflict developed by Jacob and Schreyer (1980) have been widely accepted and used in this field, how recreation conflict should be measured was not specified in their study. Indeed, measurement methods for conflict studies have varied from study to study. Due to this lack of standardised measurement, researchers like Ramthun (1995) question the validity of some study results. The findings of some studies which contradict one another may be due to different methodological approaches.

2.1.1 Commonly Used Encounter Measurement Techniques

Table 2.1 summarises the methods employed in the major recreation encounter studies. Surveys were typically conducted in the form of either on-site questionnaires or mail surveys. Many encounter reaction studies were conducted on-site immediately following the participants' visit to the site in question. Examples include the study by Tarrant & English (1996). A diary-style report can be categorised as a type of on-site survey, but it usually requires the participant to keep a structured questionnaire everyday, usually at the end of each day, during their visit.

When questionnaires were delivered by mail, the name and address of the potential participants were obtained either from the visitor lists of the study location or from direct contact with these visitors when they were visiting the site. Most of the surveys were conducted following a visit to the study sites. Often this approach combined a short interview followed by requesting participation in a longer mail questionnaire. Some researchers used an activity membership list to identify the probable user of the study site to mail the questionnaire. Many studies indicated that mail surveys were posted within two weeks after the participants visited to the study site. The researchers seem to assume that the participants were able to recall the densities they experienced, as well as density expectations and preferences before the visit, and the feeling of crowding.

The other approaches included the use of trained observers who accompanied the visitor during their stay in an area to keep a record of all the encounters by numbers and types. Information obtained typically included the number of encounters, time in sight, proximity and the nature of interaction. This may be the most accurate approach, however, it does not reflect the views of the visitors such as "perceived" crowdedness. Observers are usually used in combination with the on-site interview or questionnaire.

Table 2.1 Type of Survey Employed in Major Encounter Studies

Visitor Report Based	
On-site interview	Mainning, Lime, Freimund & Pitt 1996; Westover & Collins 1986 (combined with observation)
On-site self administered survey	Andereck & Becker 1993 (on boat following a visit to the site); Carothers, Vaske & Donnelly 2001; Hall & Shelby 1996; Hammitt, McDonald & Noe 1984 (combined with observation); Tarrant & English 1996; Vaske, Donnelly & Petruzzi 1996
On-site diary-style report (completed at the end of each day of their trip)	Lewis, Lime & Anderson 1996 (combined with pre-trip interview); Stewart & Cole 2001 (observations & mailed pre-trip questionnaire)
On-site contact & mail-back survey	Blahna, Smith & Anderson 1995; Gramann & Burdge 1981; Hammitt & Patterson 1991; Hammitt & Rutlin 1995; Kuentzel & McDonald 1992; Manning & Ciali 1980; Manning , Johnson & Kamp 1996; Patterson & Hammitt 1990; Ramthun 1995; Ruddell & Gramann 1994; Shelby 1981 (part); Tarrant 1999; Tarrant, Cordell & Kibler 1997; Vaske, Donnell, Wittmann & Laidaw 1995; Williams, Roggenbuck & Bange 1991
Mail survey	Gibbons & Ruddell 1995 (samples were collected either from the user list or contacted at the visited spot); Hall, Shelby & Rolloff 1996; Heywood & Aas 1999 (questionnaire was handed out at the site); Ivy, Steward & Lue 1992 (samples were selected from the list of the visitors); Jackson & Wong 1982 (samples were selected from the available lists of cross-country skier and snowmobilers who are residents of the target cities); Manning, Valliere, Wang & Jaccobi 1999; Watson, Niccolucci & Williams 1994
Questionnaire filled at the public meeting	Shelby 1981
Observation based	
Observation	Hammitt, McDonald & Noe 1984 (combined with self-administered contact questionnaire on site); Heberlein & Dunwiddie 1979; Westover & Collins 1987 (combined with on-site interview)
Off-site (slide show)	
	Basman, Manfredo, Barro, Vaske & Watson 1996; Inglis, Johnson & Ponte 1999

Shelby and Colvin (1982) examined the accuracy of the reported encounter in questionnaires and diaries compared to observations (actual encounters). Their study found that both questionnaire participants and diary writers tended to under-report actual contact by half, except at the lower contact level. They concluded that it is best to use trained observers who accompany the party to gain accurate data. They suggested that when observers cannot be used, a questionnaire survey is the “next best” approach because it is less expensive to carry out rather than the diary approach, while the accuracy is at about the same level. Shelby and Colvin (1982), however, acknowledged the advantages of the diary method for its potential in providing detailed descriptive information. The examination and discussion by Shelby and Colvin is useful to determine which approach to take for encounter measures, however, it is also necessary to consider whether the research requires accurate data concerning the encounter or is directed at assessing the “perceived” reality of visitors.

There is also an alternative approach with visual aids. Both Basman, Manfredo, Barro, Vaske and Watson (1996) and Inglis, Johnson and Pone (1999) used photographic images as the basis of a slide show to collect viewer opinions. Other visual approaches will be discussed later in this chapter.

2.1.2 Commonly Used Encounter Operational Measurements

There are three measurement types most commonly used in questionnaires for interpersonal conflict studies. One is the use of Likert scale responses typically anchored by such expressions "very desirable" and "very undesirable" to evaluate the indication of general disposition toward other groups, or "not at all crowded" and "extremely crowded" for the perceived crowding. A nine-point Likert-type scale is frequently used. For example, to examine visitors’ perceptions of crowding, the scale 1 “not at all crowded” to 9 “extremely crowded” is used. Participants choose a number from 1 to 9. Some examples of studies employing this type of questionnaire are listed in Table 2.2. Tarrant and English (1996) believe that "the 9-point scale has been shown to be reliable across on-site and mail-back administration and has demonstrated validity across various use settings."

Table 2.2: Operational Measurement Related to Crowd Norm (Likert Type Scale)

Likert Type Scale

- 9-point scale
  - **Perceived crowding**: from 1 "not at all crowded" to 9 "extremely crowded"
    - Andereck & Becker 1993; Hammitt, McDonald & Noe 1984; Heberlein & Vaske 1997; Shelby, Vaske & Heberlein 1989; Stewart & Cole 2001 (7-point instead of 9); Tarrant 1999; Tarrant, Cordell & Kibler 1997; Tarrant & English 1996; Vaske, Donnelly & Petruzzi 1996
  - **Expectations density**: from 1 "fewer than expected" to 9 "more than expected"
    - Andereck & Becker 1993
  - **Preferences density**: from 1 "fewer than preferred" to 9 "more than preferred"
    - Andereck & Becker 1993
- 5-point scale
  - **Motives/Crowding perceptions/Managemental action**: from 1 "not at all important" to 5 "extremely important"
    - Kuentzel & McDonald 1992
  - **Personal Norms** for selected hypothetical numbers of encounter: from 1 "very pleasant" to 5 "very unpleasant":
    - Manning , Johnson & Kamp 1996
  - **Effect of Encounter on Enjoyment:** from 1 "substantially add" to 5 "substantially detract":
    - Manning , Johnson & Kamp 1996
  - **Preferred Encounter**: from 1 "much more" to 5 "much less" than what was observed on their trip
    - Tarrant 1999; Tarrant, Cordell & Kibler 1997
- 7-point scale
  - **Evaluating of the scene**: from 1 "very acceptable" to 7 "very unacceptable"
    - Inglis, Johnson & Ponte 1999
- 10-point scale
  - **Desired Level of Privacy**: form 1 "low degree of desired privacy" to 10 "high degree of desired privacy"
    - Hammitt & Rutlin 1995
- 11-point scale
  - **Satisfaction to the Use Density**: 1 from "least satisfied" to 11 "most satisfied"
    - Manning & Ciali 1980

The second style of measurement is a set of forced-choice approaches asking respondents to evaluate specific encounters with such terms as "enjoyed", "disliked" or "did not mind meeting other types of users." Another commonly and traditionally observed measurement technique is to ask respondents to indicate the maximum acceptable size or preferred number of people in the setting. Those forced and numerical measurements are summarised in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Operational Measurement Related to Crowd Norm (Forced-Choice and Numerical)

Forced-Choice

preference/acceptability/acceptability to others/managemental action/absolute tolerance
Manning, Valliere & Wang 1999

six categories of number of visual encounters
expect to see more/about the same/fewer for expectations toward the number of other users
no/not sure/yes for feelings about encoutners ("I feel there aware too many innertube floaters")
Hammitt, McDonald & Noe 1984

not at all/not very crowded/somewhat crowded/ very crowded for perceived crowding
Westover & Collins 1986

"added greatly"/"added a little"/"neither added or detracted"/"detracted a little"/"detracted greatly" from the experience
Patterson & Hammitt 1990

too few/too many/about right number of people seen
yes/no for number of people they saw on the river was disturbing
yes/no for avoiding behaviour (go faster or slower to avoid encounter/ passed up attractions or preferred lunch stop to avoid other boaters)
unacceptable/poor/fair/good/verygood/excellent/perfect for satisfaction (how do you rate your trip?)
Williams, Roggenbuck & Bange 1991

Numerical

norms of maximums number and size of party encounters by location
actual encounter levels
reactions to the number and size of parties encountered
Patterson & Hammitt 1990

Wilderness use encounter (actual, maximum, ideal)
Hammitt & Rutlin 1995

encounters with others: "about how many other visitors were within eyesight?"
encounter norm: "what is an acceptable number of other visitors?
Vaske, Donnelly & Petruzzi 1996

encounter norm: "the maximum number of groups it is acceptable to meet in a day in the wilderness is approximately __ "
Hall & Shelby 1996

number of watercraft and aircraft seen
Manning , Johnson & Kamp 1996

perceived encounter
Tarrant 1999; Tarrant, Cordell & Kibler 1997

tolerable encounter levels: indicate the maximum number of encounter they would tolerate seeing before the quality of their recreation experience would be unacceptably reduced
Tarrant 1999; Tarrant, Cordell & Kibler 1997

maximum number of people that they thought would be acceptable
Inglis, Johnson & Ponte 1999

Most researchers used a combination of the above questionnaire types. For example, Watson, Niccolucci and Williams (1994) used three conflict-related measures. They used forced-choice of “enjoyment”, “dislike” and “neutrality” toward encounters with various types of groups on trails. Their questionnaire also included Likert-type scale responses with one side being “very desirable“ and the other end being “very undesirable.” In addition, they asked the survey participants if the behaviour of any group had interfered with their enjoyment of a past visit to the wilderness, and if the answer was yes, they were asked to identify the type of group that interfered with their enjoyment of a trip and to specify the interfering behaviour. This last part of the questionnaire is, as Watson et al. remarked, “more in the line with both Jacob and Schreyer’s (1980) goal interference definition of conflict and Owens’ (1985) call for more cumulative measurement of conflict.

Some of the methodological complexities of this field are illustrated by the study of Patterson and Hammitt (1990), who found that there are differences between visitors’ encounter norms and actual reported encounters. In their study, though 83% of the respondents reported encountering more parties than their acceptable norms, only 34% of the respondents reported that the number of encounters detracted from their solitude experiences. Overall, 61% of the respondents whose personal norms were exceeded indicated that the number of encounters did not detract from the trip experience. The study results seemed to suggest that what respondents give as their “norm” may not be an accurate indicator to measure encounter reactions and actual conflicts.

Noe (1992), commenting on this kind of work, pointed out the problems of using norms to study perception of encounters. He argued that “norms were found to affect behaviour when social approval or disapproval mattered, or when the behaviour was more instrumental and viewed as a means to achieving a social value.

The perception of encounters by size or number would seem to involve more a personal preference rather than a matter of approval-disapproval" (1992:91). Noe (1992) argued that preferences are more likely than norms to influence behaviour when they offer immediate gratification or involve matters of personal choice.

2.1.3 Commonly Used Encounter Measurement Terminology

Manning, Valliere, Wang and Jacobi (1999) also reviewed the literature examining measurement approaches in encounter reaction studies. They summarised the response scales in questionnaires in terms of the terminology for evaluative dimensions as shown in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Terminology of the Evaluative Dimension Used in Encounter Reaction Studies

terminology for the evaluative dimension	citations
Preference	Heywood 1996; Martinson & Shelby 1992; Tarrant, Cordell & Kibley 1997; Watson 1995; Williams, Roggendbuck, Patterson & Watson 1992
Desirability	Martine et al. 1989; Shelby & Harris 1985
Pleasantness	Heberlein, Alfano & Ervin 1986; Manning, Johnson & VandeKamp 1996; Stankey 1973; Vaske 1977
Ideal	Hammit & Rultin 1995
Favourability	Ormiston, Gilbert & Manning 1997
Acceptability	Hall, Shelby & Rolloff 1996; Heywood 1993a; Lewis, Lime & Anderson 1996; Manning et al. 1996; Martin et al. 1989; Roggenbuck, Williams, Bange & Dean 1991; Roggenbuck, Williams & Watsosn 1993; Shelby, Vaske et al. 1988; Shelby & Shindler 1990; Shindler & Shelby 1995; Vaske, Donnelly, Doctor & Petruzzi 1995; Watson 1995; Williams et al. 1992
Satisfaction	Shelby, Stankey & Shindler 1992; Shelby & Whittaker 1995
Okay	Martinson & Shelby 1992; Sheby 1981b; Shelby, Bregenzer & Johnson 1988; Whittaker & Shelby 1988
Tolerance	Hall & Shelby 1996; Hammitt & Patterson 1991; Hammitt & Rutlin 1995; Patterson & Hammitt 1990; Tarrant et al. 1997

Modified from Manning et al. (1999)

Manning and his colleagues suggested that "these alternative evaluative dimensions may have substantially different meanings to respondents and may result in significantly different personal and social norms" (Manning et al., 1999:100).

2.1.4 Descriptive Approach and Visual Approach to Encounter Studies

Studies of encounter reactions in recreation settings have traditionally employed the descriptive and numerical approaches, however there also is a current trend to use the visual approach (Hall et al., 1996; Manning et al., 1996, 1999).

Traditionally, crowding norms have been measured using only a text-based approach. For example, respondents are asked to evaluate a range of encounters (0, 5 10, 15, etc.) with other groups per day along trails. This numerical approach is often shortened to reduce respondent burden by simply asking respondents in an open-ended format to report the maximum acceptable number of encounter with other groups per day (Manning et al., 1999). Most of the literature reviewed in Chapter 1 employed such a descriptive approach. Besides the traditional structured questionnaires, there is a trend that searches for alternative measurement approaches in visitor encounter research. The visual approach, which uses photographic or illustrative simulations, actually has been advocated in leisure and environmental studies to measure people's reactions to the environments (Bateson & Hui, 1992; Inglis, Johnson & Ponte, 1999; Burgess, 1996; Carls, 1974; Manning et al., 1996, 1999; Ruddell & Hammitt, 1987; Shelby & Harris, 1985). Major studies employing a visual approach are summarised in Table 2.5.

Carls (1974) found that preference tends to decrease as the levels of people and development increase. Burgess (1996), too, indicated that the preferred technique used by environmental psychologists to measuring landscape preferences is the use of colour photographs or slides as surrogates for landscape experience.

Table 2.5 Major Studies Employing Visual Approach in Recreation Studies

Citation	Summary
Manning, Lime, Freimund & Pitt (1996)	• A visual approach plus the traditional numerical approach to measure crowding norms • Strong relationship was found between the number of people in the photographs and acceptability ratings • Considerable consensus existed among the sample regarding acceptability ratings of each photograph, and respondent evaluations of actual use conditions experienced were generally congruent with the social norm development • The normative standards developed form the visual and traditional numerical approaches were found to differ substantially, suggesting that the visual approach may provide a more valid measure of crowding norms in relatively high-use areas
Manning, Valiere, Wang & Jacobi (1999)	• A visual approach plus the traditional numerical approach to measure crowding norms with different evaluation dimensions • There are statistically significant differences between crowding norms derived from the visual and numerical measurement approaches • Visitors tend to substantially underreport encounters if use levels are relatively high • Visual based studies may provide more “realistic” estimates of crowding norms
Inglis, Johson & Ponte (1999)	• Examining crowding norms of reef visitors using a visual approach • The ratings were significantly influenced by the number of people in the images, prior experience and gender of the respondents, and the presence of safety infrastructure

Bateson and Hui (1992) demonstrated that photographic slides used as environmental simulations have ecological validity. They also outlined some advantages of simulation studies. For one thing, it becomes possible to study person-environment interactions in laboratory settings, and this allows researchers to exert tighter control on any possible confounding variables. Second, environmental simulations increase the cost-effectiveness of person-environment research. Moreover, researchers may also study human reactions to some potentially dangerous or unpleasant environments through the employment of a simulation technique. They also noted that a number of non-visual cues, such as sound level and smell which also influence human reactions to density, cannot be simulated in photographs, and would be another logical direction for future research.

Manning et al. (1996) attempted to use visual approaches to investigate the encounter conflicts, with pictorial images being evaluated by participants. They clobjectiveed that a visual approach is more appropriate in a frontcountry setting (highly-used area) than in a backcountry (wilderness or undeveloped) setting. Manning and his colleagues (1999) also concluded, after examining the results of their studies, that the study results can vary widely depending on the measurement approach used, and that there are potential advantages in visual approaches over traditional numerical approaches. Shelby and Harris (1985), when they compared the measurement methods for determining visitor evaluation of ecological impacts, found that use of a photographic image to depict natural setting produced results that did not differ significantly from actual on-site. The meta analysis of Stamp (1990) also proved that photographs were an appreciatively valid simulation of the environment.

2.1.5 Major Study Locations and Sites

The major locations of the surveys conducted are summarised in the Table 2.6. Almost all of the studies are about wilderness areas such as rivers and forests. Of the 35 cases, 32 were conducted in the US. While this is not a complete list of the recreation encounter studies, it is clear that the existing literature focuses on North American visitor sites. Also, the participants in these surveys were usually North Americans, except the one which compared the data from different nationality groups. The present study will be conducted in Australian settings, thus providing a novel physical environment to extend this kind of work as well as working in a different socio-cultural context of visitor types and host communities. Burnett, Uysal and Jamrozy (1991) pointed out the similar problem when examining penetration of subjects and themes in tourism journals. They suggested that much of the research has an ethnocentric, Anglo-American orientation, which seriously neglects the rest of the world (1991:49).

Table 2.6 Study Sites of Major Encounter Studies

citation	study site
Andereck & Becker 1993	Fort Sumter National Monument (California, USA)
Blahna, et al. 1995	Bachler Meadow region of Yellowstone National Park (Wyoming, USA)
Carothers, et al. 2001	Jefferson County Open Space trail (Colorado, USA)
Gibbons & Ruddell 1995	Wasatch-Cashe National Forest (Uta, USA)
Gramann & Burdge 1982	Lake Shelbyville (Illinois, USA)
Hall & Shelby 1996	Eagle Cap Wilderness (Oregon, USA)
Hammitt & Patterson 1991	Great Smoky Mountains National Park (North Carolina-Tennessee, USA)
Hammitt & Rutlin 1995	Sumter National Forest (South Carolina), Nantahala National Forest (North Carolina) & Chattahoochee National Forest (Georgia) (USA)
Hammitt, et al. 1984	Hiwassee River (Tennessee, USA)
Heberlein & Dunwiddie 1979	Island Lake (Wyoming, USA)
Heywood & Aas 1999	Lillehammer (Norway)
Inglis et al. 1999	Great Barrier Reef (Queensland, Australia)
Ivy et al. 1992	Everglades National Park (Florida, US)
Jackson & Wong 1982	Edomonton & Calgary (Canada)
Kuentzel & McDonald 1992	The Oceoee River (Tennessee, USA)
Lewis, et al. 1996	Boundary Waters Canoe Wilderness (Minnesota, USA)
Manning & Ciali 1980	four major Vermont rivers (USA)
Manning , Johson et al. 1996	Glacier Bay National Park (Alaska, USA)
Manning, et al 1999	Acadia National Park (Maine, USA)
Mainning, Lime et al. 1996	Delicate Arch (Utah, USA)
Patterson & Hammitt 1990	Great Smoky Mountains National Park (North Carolina-Tennessee, USA)
Ramthun 1995	Big Water (Uta, USA)
Ruddell & Gramann 1994	Birt Island Basin (Texas, USA)
Shelby 1981	River in the Grand Canyon, River on the Rogue, River on the Illinois (USA)
Stewart & Cole 2001	Great Canyon National Park (Arizona, USA)
Tarrant 1999; Tarrant et al. 1997; Tarrant & English 1996	Nantahala River (North Carolina, USA)
Vaske et al 1995	Mt Evans (Colorado, USA)
Vaske et al. 1996	The Columbian Icefield (Canada)
Watson et al. 1994	John Muir Wilderness National Forest (California, USA)
Westover & Collins 1986	Potter Park (Michigan, USA)
Williams et al. 1991	New River Gorge National River (Virginia, USA)

2.2 Methodological Issues in Culture Difference Studies

Hofstede (1980:9) believed that a better understanding of invisible cultural differences is one of the main contributions which social sciences can make to socio-psychological well-being. However, he also noticed that

> Highlighting culture-dependent differences in thinking and acting is not always a welcome intervention. My general experience in discussing the topics ……. is that the amount of international exposure within the group strongly affects the way the subject is received. Internationally experienced audiences have little trouble seeing its importance and tolerating a certain amount of introspection into their own cultural constraints. Internationally naïve audiences have difficulty seeing the points, and some members even feel insulted when their own culture is discussed (Hofstede 1980:9).

Ethnic and race related topics are sometimes rather sensitive for some people and the research in this area may require careful precautions in order not to be considered as indicating “racial discrimination” or being racist. This issue has been discussed for some time in the cross-cultural literature and a number of points have been made. As a practical point, Brislin, Lonner and Thorndike (1973) noted that direct face-to-face contact by researchers with respondents may highlight people’s ethnic or racial identity, which may not always be welcomed. They pointed out that extreme response biases can occur when the interviewer does not belong to the same racial group as the respondents.

Brislin, Lonner and Thorndike (1973) also suggested that language differences in survey forms represent another major issue for participants. There are a number of points to keep in mind for questionnaire wording and translation. The technique of back-translation is recommended to check the quality of both the questionnaire and the translators. This procedure is a chain of events that starts with surveys in one language translated into another language and then translated back to the original language again. Full presentation of the original meaning is required to validate the accuracy of the first translation. This technique is reported by various studies and has proved to be useful (Brislin, 1970; Dimanche, 1994; Heung et al., 2001).

Yet another issue in the existing criticism of this field lies in the use of terms and definitions, namely “nationality” and “country of residence” variables. Dann (1993) argued that “nationality” or “country of origin/residence” is a misleading interpretation and is associated with stereotyping. He suggested some items such as personality, role, culture, social class, and lifestyle as alternative approaches to such variables for better data analysis. However, nationality and country of residence/origin are believed to remain a convenient categorisation of people’s cultural background and home environment, as the literature review in Chapter 1 demonstrated. In a tourism study, Pizam and Sussmann argued that

> the evidence at hand suggests that nationality is one among a number of factors that account for behavior. National cultures have a moderating or intervening impact on tourist behavior, and if properly controlled and/or used with other variables, would add significantly to one’s understanding of tourist behavior (1995:905)

Therefore, while the present research is aware of the heterogeneity of respondents within a “nationality” categorisation, it will still employ such variables as important ones for research. A further formal statement of the definitional categories used in this present research is presented in full in the concluding sections of this chapter.

2.3 Methodological Issues in Tourism Research

Some tourism researchers have reviewed published tourism research and investigated the methods and statistics used (Crawford-Welch & McCleary, 1992; Dann, Nash & Pearce, 1988; Reid & Andereck, 1989; Riley & Love, 2000; Walle, 1997). Among those, Dann, Nash and Pearce (1988) emphasised that both methodological sophistication and theoretical awareness are required for the development of tourism research as an emerging academic field of study. Among other things, they called for unobtrusive measurements, including the analysis of diaries and other sources of tourism data. They believed that the diary approach can enhance the validity of both quantitative and qualitative tourism data. They emphasised, referring to Sechrest and Phillips (1979), that unobtrusive measures have the strong advantages of reducing the respondent contamination and interactive effects associated with more direct techniques such as interviewing and participant observation, as well as reducing halo effects associated with questionnaire design. Another suggestion Dann et al. (1988) made is the use of simulation techniques and the manipulation of tourist environments to assess preferences, behaviours, and social interactions. Finally, in their article of an over a decade ago, Dann and his colleagues challenged tourism researchers to experiment with novel investigative devices, which at that time were not very common in tourism research. One of the possible contemporary devices one can think of as a alternative delivery method for questionnaires is the use of the Internet. Such an approach will be discussed later in this chapter.

2.3.1 Multi-method Approach and Tourism Research

In social science research, it is commonly accepted that a multi-method approach is desirable for valid research findings and discussion. Brewer and Hunter (1989:48-54) identified some advantages of the multi-method approach in research including:

- Avoiding the specific sources of error associated with a single methodology
- Bringing different but complementary strengths together
- Relatively strong methods aiding relatively weak methods

- Assisting the low feasibility or credibility of any one method
- Guards against and corrects inherent methodological biases

In tourism studies, a multi-method approach can be recommended. Tourism research is essentially multi-disciplinary with much attention being focused on adapting methodologies from other disciplines to fit its particular needs (Graburn & Jafari, 1991). Examining the topic from different dimensions and through various methods can enhance understanding. Multi-method approaches will be employed in this thesis to the extent that their use fits the aims and the financial constraints of the work.

2.4 The Methodological Needs of This Thesis

The discussion so far has identified some methodological possibilities for the research. These include:

Need 1. The tourist-tourist encounter phenomenon has not yet been investigated in depth. First, it might be appropriate to explore this topic by examining easily accessible data to grasp the big picture or the general idea of how tourists react to encounter settings with other tourists.

Need 2: This thesis is interested in nationality differences. Most of the existing literature focuses on study sites in North America and the data available is closely tied linked to a Western point of view. Here too encounter reactions between different nationality groups have not been investigated much in depth. Related to the work on in-groups and out-groups, stereotypical ideas about tourists from certain nationalities can be investigated.

Need 3: As discussed in the review of methodological issues on encounter studies in recreation settings, a visual approach might be an appropriate method to employ to examine tourists' preferences in "front" settings.

Need 4: Where possible, multi-method approaches to enhance the reliability and confidence in the findings would be an advantage.

Need 5: Where possible, utilising an unobtrusive measurement approach may be appropriate to collect valid data.

Neet 6: There is also a need to explore new media or approaches to data collection as technology develops, and the Internet is one of the potential sources of information.

2.5 Utilising Different Methods in This Thesis

As a multi-dimensional approach is recommended, this thesis is interested in exploring the tourist-tourist encounter issues with different approaches. In addition to the conventional on-site questionnaire survey, two rather unconventional approaches are taken in the studies reported in this thesis. As an unobtrusive measurement approach, content analysis of personal travelogues was employed. Following the research in recreation settings, a visual simulation approach was employed rather than a text-based approach. Moreover, to supplement the findings from the quantitative data collected through the questionnaire survey, focus groups were employed for qualitative analysis. Also, this thesis used the Internet as a questionnaire delivery device as well as a source for the personal travelogue analysis. These major methodological attempts represent a reply to the call for methodological advancement by Dann, Nash and Pearce (1988), mentioned in the earlier section of this chapter. The non-traditional methods and approaches used in this research listed here are explained briefly in the next section, while the detailed procedures of each of the methods for the individual studies will be explained in the appropriate chapter.

2.5.1 Content Analysis

Content analysis is, by its definition, a "technique for making inferences by systematically and objectively identifying specified characteristics of messages" arrived at by counting items within established categories (Holsti, 1968). Instead of conducting a survey to collect data from the providers or receivers of the message, content analysis directly deals with the message itself. Therefore, it is the essential nature of the content analysis method to study the meaning of a message and not the communicator or its audience (Peterson, 1996). The main advantage of content analysis is its ability to provide accurate and consistent interpretations of the accounts of events without depriving these accounts of their power of eloquence (Peterson,1996:55). Krippendorff (1980) also values this technique for its proficiency in processing symbolic forms. Bernard (1994) outlines an approach for this procedure as follows: it starts with text, then proceeds to systematic coding and can include statistic analysis. The results may be interpreted in the light of historical, cultural, or ethnographic information. The findings are often presented as themes, sometimes with qualitative support and sometimes with illustrative prototypical examples. Dann's (1996b) investigation of "the people of tourists brochures" is a good example of the benefits of employing content analysis by using both qualitative data collecting and qualitative data analysis. In general, recent studies using content analysis often aim at gaining insights into complex social and psychological variables (Borg & Gall, 1989).

Content analysis is considered an effective research tool in many areas of study. From the marketing standpoint, for example, such research is frequently employed to examine the information content of print advertisements and television commercials to yield insights useful for developing advertising strategies (Carlson & Grove, 1993; Collcott & Lee, 1994; Graham & Kamins, 1993; Hong, Muderrisonglu, & Zinkhan, 1987; King, Reid, Tinkham & Pokrywczynski, 1987; Madden , Caballerok & Matsukubo, 1986; McCullough, 1993; Rice & Lu, 1988). However, it is surprising that these methods have not been more thoroughly applied to take advantage of content analysis as a research technique in the hospitality and tourism fields. A few exceptions include studies by Albers and James (1983), Bhattacharyya (1997); Dann (1995, 1996b), Dilley (1986), Goodall and Bergsma (1990), Jurowski and Olsen (1995), Luk, Tam and Wong (1995), MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997), Marti (1993), Metelka (1969), and Peterson (1996).

2.5.1.1 Content Analysis of Travelogues

The obtrusiveness of survey questionnaires has been noted by some scholars (Dann, 1981). Similarly, Pearce (1988) identified the requirement to examine the behaviour and experience of tourists in a natural context. Markwell and Basche (1998), too, suggested "tourists may be reluctant to participate in studies where they are to be interviewed or required to complete a questionnaire simply because they are on holiday and do not wish to be disturbed. Additionally, the presence of the researcher in the setting may alter to a greater or lesser extent the behavior and experiences of the tourists" (1998:229). The same researchers suggested that one research strategy to maximise naturalness, but minimise reactivity, is the greater use of personal diaries. They believed that a personal diary is a rich contextualised narrative of the tour from the writer's perspective, which is unprompted by the probing questions of a survey.

In fact, travelogues and travel stories are regarded as an unobtrusive method (Dann, 1992). The writers of the travelogues have freely chosen what to write, what not to write, how to express themselves and how much to write. Allowing for the fact that the writers only discuss what they wanted to mention, it is possible to assume that themes mentioned have some importance and personal significance. Finn, Walton & Ellitto-Whilte (2000) also see personal diaries as a qualitative methodology, one advantage of which includes understanding the expression of human emotions. However, there are limited attempts to examine travelogues, travel stories, or travel diaries. A few exceptions include Pearce (1991) who examined self-disclosure in travel stories and Zeppel's investigation (1999) of how Australian aboriginal people are described in travel articles.

When Dann (1992:59) defined travelogues as "an impressionistic and evaluative post-trip published account of one or more destination areas, which has been authored for purposes of promotion, information, and entertainment," he excluded the personal traveller's tale or travel story because they were not produced to promote the destination. However, in this present research, travelogues are defined as personal traveller's tale or travel story, because the interest of the research is in ordinary people's psychology and behaviour, not that of the professional writers. In this sense, travelogues here are synonymous with the term "personal diaries" used by Markwell and Basche (1998). Yet, the study of Markwell and Basche (1998) was based on the analysis of personal travel diaries which travellers were "requested" to keep and provide to the researchers as data. In that case, participants' consciousness toward the researcher and the very thought that their diaries would be analysed may have engendered bias. The present research looks further for even more unprompted and unobtrusive data collection: personal travel stories that were available for analysis but not that were requested to provide as research data. As Markwell and Basche mentioned, ethical issues are involved to reach closed personal documents. However, if the personal travel diaries are open for public audience, they are available as research data to be accessed. Fortunately, such data are available, brought about through the technology of the

Internet. The particular details of accessing the Internet travelogues will be explored in the relevant chapter of this thesis.

2.5.2 Visual Simulation Approach

Pearce and Black (1996) believe that a visual simulation approach can be highly useful in tourism research. The approach can be linked to Bitgood's (1988 cited in Pearce & Black, 1996:2) qualifications for research measurement: "must be representative, accurate, meaningful and related to the real experience of visitors." Pearce and Black (1996:7) also suggested that Stamps (1990:908) meta analysis established that photographs were valid simulations of the environment. Pearce and Black (1996) further recommended the use of visual simulation techniques in visitor density studies to gain information about the acceptability of site use.

Visual simulation approaches, though limited in numbers, have been employed successfully in tourism studies. MacKay & Fesenmaier (1997) used photographic images to measure pictorial element of destinations in image formation. Fairweather and Swaffield (2001) investigated tourists' attitude toward different landscapes using photographic simulations.

Additionally, Pearce and Black (1996) encouraged off-site research through the visual presentation of environmental settings. They pointed out "with quality simulation it becomes possible to evaluate visitor response away from the site where the tourists experience takes place" (1996:5). They suggested a number of research questions might be best answered through environmental simulation studies including "what sorts of public reactions can we expect from crowd sizes and densities" and "how perceived satisfaction changes with hypothetical environmental alterations." Pearce (1988:47) also argued "the issue of the naturalness of the stimuli or experimental manipulation also has implications for the tourist field. When tourists are asked to judge slides, photographs, models or simulations of tourist areas or development, there is abundant evidence that the richer the manipulation the more complete the judgement." In the present research, the visual simulation approach, especially the construction of the simulation materials, followed the work noted in leisure research studies, and used advanced computer graphic editing software. Detailed procedures will be described in the appropriate chapters (Chapters 5 and 6) as a part of the methodology of the study.

2.5.3. Focus groups

Peterson argues that the role of qualitative methods used in general marketing are rather underutilised in travel and tourism research (1994:487). Focus group discussion is one of the methods to which he refers. Focus group interviews, sometimes called group interviews, interview groups of people together rather than individually. In this technique the interviewer becomes the facilitator of a discussion to explore the topic according to a semi-structured question list (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Veal, 1997). Group dynamics are used to generate ideas and pursue a topic in greater detail through the interaction among the participants (Finn et al., 2000).

The main characteristics of focused group discussion Finn et al. (2000:78) can be listed as follows:

- discussion is a social event with a range of personalities and a skilled moderator sustaining participation
- exchange of opinions and experiences, with different and sometimes contradictory perspectives
- collective productions of ethnographic knowledge
- goal is not to produce a single meaning, but to share experiences from which multiple meanings can be made

- collaborative inquiry between researchers and participants (empowerment to participants)

Focus groups are recommended to be used to supplement other methods or used as triangulation in multi-method research strategies, especially as a complement to survey-based research and helping in the interpretation of quantitative data (Finn et al., 2000; Goss, 1996; Holbrook, 1996; Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990; Veal 1997). Steward and Shamdasani (1990) believe that focus groups are particularly useful for exploratory research where rather little is known about the phenomenon of interest. Morgan and Krueger (1993) recommended employing focus groups when investigating complex behaviour and motivation. These comments establish that focus group discussion can be suitable in the present research to investigate tourists' interpretations of encountering other tourists.

2.5.4 Attribution Theory

While it is not actually a methodology, a consideration will be made here on attribution theory for it will be used to analyse the results of the focus groups in later chapter. Attribution theory has been proposed to develop explanations for the ways in which we judge people differently depending on what meaning we attribute to a given behaviour (Kelley, 1967 introduced in Bootzin, 1991:639). According to the theory, when we observe an individual's behaviour, and particularly any puzzling or unusual behaviour, we attempt to determine whether it was internally or externally caused (Pearce, 1988:43). Such determination depends largely on three factors and people seek this information in inferring the causes of their own or other's behaviour as follows:

- Distinctiveness, the extent to which behaviour occurs to a particular stimulus but not to others

- Consensus, the extent to which on person's behaviour is consistent with that of others
- Consistency, the extent to which one person's behaviour is consistent across time and/or settings

Robbins, Waters-Marsh, Cacioppe and Millett (1994) explained that internally caused behaviours are those that are believed to be under the personal control of the individual. Externally caused behaviour is seen as resulting from outside causes that is, the person is seen as forced into the behaviour by the situation. Distinctiveness refers to whether an individual displays different behaviours in different situations. If everyone who is faced with a similar situation responds in the same way, we can say the behaviour shows consensus. From a attribution perspective, if consensus is high you would be expected to make an external attribution for the behaviour. Finally, an observer looks for consistency in a person's actions. Does the person respond the same way over time? The more consistent the behaviour, the more the observer is inclined to attribute it to internal causes. Figure 2.1 summarises the key elements in attribution theory.

Attribution theory is not used frequently in tourism research in the attempt to explain tourists' behaviour, however, it seems useful in the present research since this study is interested in the internal and external factors that might influence encounter reactions.

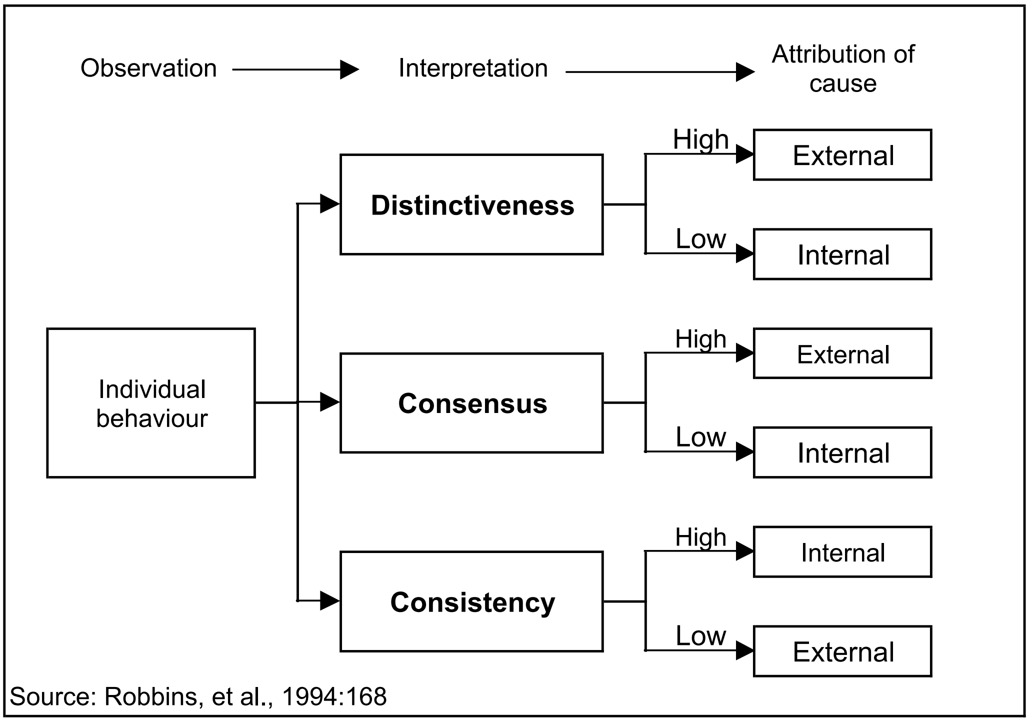

Figure 2.1 Attribution Theory

2.5.5 Use of the Internet

The Internet is "dramatically changing the way companies do business with one another, the way people research information of all kinds, the way people communicate, the way people make decisions, and the way people buy goods and services" (Smith & Jenner, 1998:62). Its popularity is indisputable and it is where one looks for information as well as being a place to express oneself (Jones, 1999; Mann & Stewart, 2000). Tourism is one of the areas that has received considerable advantages from the Internet, not only commercially, but also as a tool for providing and gathering travel information (Williams, Bascombe, Brenner & Green, 1996). As a travel and tourism resource, Wan (2002) suggested that the Internet could be used in two distinct ways: first, as a source of data by which the user accesses resources to gain information and second, as a means of marketing and facilitating business needs.

Many tourism researchers are interested in the application of the recent development of the Internet to the tourism industry and its marketing possibilities (Bonn, Furr and Susskind, 1999; Buhalis, 1998; Buhalis & Licata, 2002; Connolly, Olsen & Moore, 1998; Kasavana, Knuston & Polonowski, 1997; Law, 2000; Law & Chen, 2000; Walle, 1996; Wan, 2002). Other researchers have evaluated the Web sites of the hospitality industry (Murphy, Forrest, Wotring & Brymer 1996; Wan 2002).

Mann and Steward (2000) listed the online research possibilities including the use of:

- standardised interview in the form of email survey
- standardised interview in the form of Web-page-based survey
- non-standardised form of online one-to-one interview
- observation of virtual communities
- the collection of personal documents online

A growing number of surveys have been conducted through the Internet and the field of tourism is no exception. Private enterprises are collecting data through this modern technology and academics have started to realise its usefulness. However, academic research reports employing the approach through the Internet are not yet common. While individual studies exist (Bonn et al., 1999; Litvin & Kar, 2001; Campbell & Campbell, 1995), it seems that researchers are still not sure if the data from Internet surveys is valid: some report that their Internet survey is based on “who participated” and emphasise the sampling biases, but also acknowledge the potential usefulness of the data collection. In general, the Internet users are typically described as mature, employed, well-educated and high-spending (Smith & Jenner, 1998), therefore, not necessarily a representative sample for the survey. Despite this disadvantage, the Internet survey is considered to be potentially as efficient and effective as traditional research efforts (Schonland & Williams, 1996). Table 2.7 summarises the comparison between the Internet survey and traditional face-to-face, mail, and telephone surveys based on the discussion of Mann and Steward (2000), Smith and Jenner (1998) and Schonland and Williams (1996). In summary, an online survey has its great advantage in terms of cost-effectiveness, speed and reach over traditional survey methods.

Table 2.7 Conventional Survey and Online Survey

	conventional survey			**online survey**	
	face-to-face survey	mail survey	telephone survey	e-mail survey	Web-based survey
cost	labour intensive & expensive	cost of delivery	labour intensive & expensive	substantial saving - eliminates paper and cheap to send	initial start-up cost
time	effective	problemsome sometime	effective	faster than mail survey	can speed up responses further
reach	limited	within the address available	within the number available	collapsing boundaries of time and space	collapsing boundaries of time and space
response rate	good	low	higher than mail survey	not well established	not well established
anonymity	can be kept with care	can be kept with care	can be kept with care	email address revealed	email address revealed

Based on Mann & Steward (2000) and Smith & Jenner (1998)

Among those, Mann and Steward (2000) consider that a Web-page-based survey has great advantages in its attractive appearance utilizing text formatting, colours and graphics, which appear identical to all respondents and the ease for respondents to complete. They also argue that “the data received by the researcher are in a completely predictable and consistent format, making automated analysis possible without the editing that may be necessary with text-based e-mail” (Mann & Stewart, 2000:70). While the disadvantage of it includes the requirement of the technical knowledge to develop the survey in the Web page, Mann and Stewart (2000) foresaw that the Web-based research method will become so essential as a research tool that “it may not be long before the creation of Web survey pages is routinely taught in social science research methods courses.”

While the online questionnaire survey has started to receive much attention as a research tool, there are other forms of data that can be collected through use of the Internet. Some researchers have already examined and reported the contents of commercial and other information available in Websites related to hospitality and tourism. Collecting personal documents in personal Websites can be included among these rich sources of data. Online travelogues or reports of personal travel stories are one of the very popular items in personal Websites. Online travelogues are becoming very popular for presenting one’s travel experiences to a mass audience. For instance, Yahoo (http://www.yahoo.com), one of the leading Web search engines, has a list of over 1,000 sites for the key word “travelogues” in the English language alone (as of May 2002). The documents are there in easy reach without any need to request assistance in providing solicited documents. Also, the online travelogues have made it possible for anyone who is interested in “publishing” their personal documents and sharing it with unknown mass readers to do so and without financial constraints.

2.6 Summary of the methodological Issues

Methodological issues have been discussed in this chapter. A review of literature identified some issues related to encounter reaction studies and culture difference studies. Also selected issues in tourism research have been highlighted including the value of novel and multi-method approaches. Through those discussion, some methodological needs of this thesis have been outlined and a number of non-traditional methods and approaches have been presented and the reasons for their use in the present work.

2.7 Thesis Structure and Objectives

Figure 2.2 illustrates the structure of the thesis by chapters. The first two chapters were devoted to literature review and also for introduction for the thesis subjects and set the foundation for the following chapters. Chapters 3 through 6 are based on the original studies. Chapter 7 brings all pieces together to summarise and make the thesis conclusion.

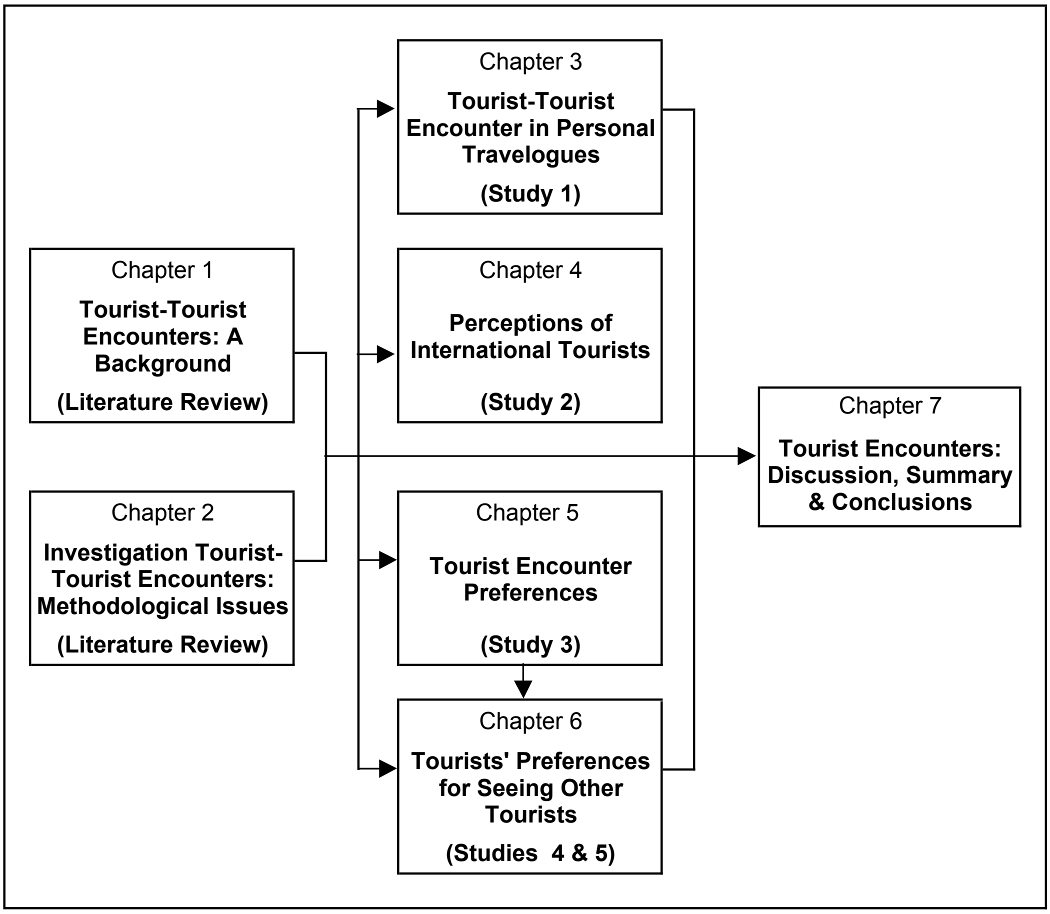

Figure 2.2 Thesis Structure by Chapters

Table 2.8 summarises the overview of each study with their topics, method employed and concepts.

Table 2.8 Study Overview

Study	Exploring	Major Objective	Methods Used	Concept Used
Study 1	Encounter Reactions Encounter Types of Japanese and American Tourists	To explore the tourist encounter phenomenon expressed by tourists themselves and to explore differences between the Japanese and American experiences	Travelogue analysis Content analysis The Internet	In-group/out-group differentiation & treatment Nationality differences (individualistic/collectivistic culture) (home/hetero) (cultural distance) Direct/indirect encounter type
Study 2	Stereotypes of Japanese and American Tourists	To investigate people's stereotypical images and encounter preferences toward Japanese and American tourists and differences between these images by the same and different nationalities	Online survey (web-based) Questionnaire survey	Stereotyping Stereotyping for in-group / out-group
Study 3	Encounter Preferences of Japanese	To examine the preferences of Japanese toward seeing other tourists at rainforest and reef settings	Online survey (web-based) Visual approach	In-group / out-group differentiation Crowding norm (comfort level)
Study 4	Encounter Preferences of Japanese & Westerners	To examine tourists' preferences towards tourist-tourist encounters in relation to some internal and external factors	On-site questionnaire visual approach	In-group / out-group differentiation Crowding norms (comfort level) International differences
Study 5	Encounter Preferences -- explanation	To explore the reasons and interpretation for the international differences in encounter preferences between two groups (Japanese and Westerners)	Focus groups	Attribution theory

It is apparent that there is a lack of understanding about how tourists see other tourists. Such information, however, should be an integral factor for understanding and managing tourist behaviour as well as investigating tourism as a social phenomenon. It is the overall objective of the thesis to examine how tourists see other tourists at international tourist sites and identify the differences in encounter preferences and reactions among tourist subgroups, and further analyse the influential factors for those differences.

In order to further clarify the structure of this thesis, the chapters dealing with individual objectives are indicated in parenthesis with the page number related to the objective.

1. To investigate how tourist-tourist encounters are reported by individuals (Chapter 3, p. 90)
2. To examine how tourists from different nationalities see tourists from their own nationalities (Chapter 3, p. 90; Chapter 6, p. 187)
3. To examine how tourists from different nationalities see tourists form nationalities other than their own (Chapter 3, p. 90; Chapter 6, p. 187)
4. To explore stereotypical nationality images associated with tourists (Chapter 4, p. 126)
5. To understand tourists overall experience of the encounter with other tourists in relation to internal and external factors (appearance and volume of encountered tourists) (Chapter 5, p. 168; Chapter 6, p. 187)
6. To explore the reasons for the differences in encounter reactions and preferences between different nationality groups, if any (Chapter 6, p. 187)

The very specific research questions for each study are listed in the introductory section of each chapter.

The fulfilment of these objectives is intended to advance, at least in a small way, the academic knowledge of tourist psychology and behaviour as well as the practical management of tourists by the tourism industry. Also, there is a methodological objective in this thesis, which is to explore alternative approaches to tourism studies.

2.8 Definitions of Key Terms

There is a need to define some of the terminology used throughout this proposed research. Although these terms are rather simple and are a part of everyday vocabulary, they are used in this research with the particular meaning as defined below.

Tourist

The term "tourist" is used throughout this study to denote a person travelling primarily for pleasure. Therefore, those who travel for business and others whose primary objective is not for fun are not included. There is no intention to distinguish between terms such as "tourist", "traveller", "tripper", "visitor" and "drifter", and the general term "tourist" will be used. In addition, the term "tourist" will imply an international traveller, unless otherwise specifically mentioned, since this study is interested in the international phenomenon.

Nationality

"Nationality" is used as the synonym of "country of origin." It is used as an indicator of cultural orientation when analysed. While this does not allow a complete coverage of cultural variation, it may be more relevant, practical and realistic to conduct the research in this manner, as demographic data is more effectively collected this way.

Americans

Throughout this study, the term “American” is used to refer to people from the United States of America as a convenient and brief expression.

Western countries & Westerner

The term “Western countries” was used to refer to European countries, as well as the USA, Australia and New Zealand. It is at a first glance, a rather stereotypical way of defining the term, however, when the demographics of the sample were scanned, this appeared to be the most appropriate way of grouping the samples who are the counterparts of those from Japan.

Cultural Contact

The meeting of individuals and groups who differ in there cultural, ethnic or linguistic background (Ward, Bochner & Furnham, 2001:4), including both direct and indirect contact.

Encounter

While it may have a slightly negative connotation in its tone, the word “encounter” in this paper is a purely neutral term to express the contact between or among people. This includes two broad encounter types: “Indirect encounter” which is a synonym for “visual contact” or “static contact” and does not involve personal interaction, while “direct encounter” refers to the encounter involving more interpersonal contact either positive or negative.

Tourist-Tourist Encounter/Contact

This does not include the interaction with/among their original travel companion(s). This study only looked at the encounters and contact between/among strangers.

Conflict

Rather than physical violence or competition over resources, "conflict" here is defined as "goal interference caused by the behaviour of another" (Jacob &

Schreyer 1980). Two types of conflicts may occur in recreation settings: “physical conflict” which occurs as a result of an encounter; “social conflict” not requiring the actual encounter yet the difference in social value and concepts are the cause of this type of the conflict.

Travelogues

While the term travelogue commonly refers to professional writing, which usually appear in Sunday newspapers or popular magazine travel sections, the broader meaning of this word also includes personal travel stories of lay people. In this thesis, travelogues are treated as the source of any tourists’ writing about their personal travel experiences.

Episodes

Forgas (1979:15) defined social episodes as “cognitive representations of stereotypical interactions of stereotypical interaction sequences, which are representative to a given cultural environment. Such interaction sequences constitute natural units in the stream of behaviour, distinguishable on the basis of symbolic, temporal, and often physical boundaries.” In this thesis, an episode is defined as a segment that has symbolic, spatial and temporal characteristics, (specifically mentioning presence or absence of other tourists).