

**Families with Adolescents:
Vacation Decision Making**

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Abstract

Families with adolescents form a significant portion of the sizeable and fast growing family tourism market. They are distinguished from other family groups because adolescent are, at this time of their lives, developing their individual identities, gaining independence and autonomy. While vacations represent a time for families to be together, for families with adolescents this occurs during a period of changing family dynamics and often low levels of family cohesion. Although some research has been completed to understand this type of family as a consumption unit with regard to vacations and tourism, there is however, limited empirical research examining their distinct vacation needs. The aim of this study is to address this knowledge gap and explore how families with adolescents make and evaluate vacation decisions, specifically focusing on the role of identity and motivations.

A Consumer Culture Theory orientation, which focuses on the interrelationship between identity and consumption, together with an interpretivist, qualitative methodology was adopted in this study. The data for this study was collected through eight in-depth family (group) interviews. All participants consisted of families with adolescent children aged between 12 and 17 years of age. The data, which was anonymised, was analyzed through a process of thematic analysis and themes were categorized using a deductive, inductive and pattern coding approach.

This led to valuable understandings about the role of vacations in the life of a family, as well as gaining knowledge of family and individual identity, motives and decision making in relation to family vacations. The importance of distinguishing between the vacation needs of families with adolescents from other family groups was an important theme identified in this study. Vacations for families with adolescents are a liminoid experience, a time when families can be together, reconnect and create family memories that ease the transition into the post-liminal phase. Family members' multiple multi-faceted identities are critical to the decision making process. Adolescents are actively involved in vacation decision making to ensure outcomes are congruent (or at least not incongruent) with their developing

individual identity. Moreover, both parents and adolescents display a high level of commitment to family identity motives such as time together. When combined with families not seeking their own time and a noticeable reduction in conflict (due to commonalities in motives), families perceive vacations as important to family identity and ‘good’ for their family. Nevertheless, despite successful evaluation, families acknowledge that vacations will soon end due to the adolescents’ growing independence. This in turn creates the motive for, and a sense of urgency to have, future vacations.

The findings of this study highlight the importance of empirical research that distinguishes between the family with adolescents and other family groups and that take a comprehensive and holistic view of the family vacation. Furthermore the findings of this study highlight the need for the tourism industry to make the same distinction between family groups and to develop and implement marketing strategies targeted at families with adolescents. As this research was exploratory, future research is needed to expand on the themes identified to allow for deeper understanding of this unique travelling group.

Declaration of Authenticity

I, Micaela Spiers, declare that the PhD thesis entitled ‘Families with Adolescents: Vacation Decision Making’ is no more than 100,000 words in length including quotes and exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, bibliography, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work.

Signature

Date

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Chapter 1. Introduction to the Study

1.1. Introduction

Marketing communication should reflect considerable children's influence in vacation decisions concerning types of activities in which to engage, selection of destination point(s) and actual date of vacation. (Jenkins, 1978, p. 7)

Tourism has been described as the creation of 'products to facilitate travel and activity for people away from their home environment' (Smith, 1994, pp. 592-593), with tourists defined as persons who travel at least 40 kilometres to stay a minimum of one night away from their home (Tourism Research Australia, Tourism Australia & Department of Industry Tourism and Resources, 2006). Tourists travel for a number of reasons, with common purposes including, leisure, business, education, health and to visit family and friends (Hall, 2003), with leisure one of the most common reasons to travel. Customarily, travelling for leisure is referred to as having a vacation or a holiday (Decrop, 2006). Given the respective derivations of vacation and holiday (*vacare* meaning being empty or doing nothing and 'holy day' a religious day of rest), the terms are used interchangeably in the literature (Decrop, 2006). Since the middle of the nineteenth century, the ability to have a vacation has been a common occurrence in many countries. Indeed, for many people, having a vacation is a regular or semi-regular occurrence (Decrop, 2006) and vacations are seen as an important contributor to their quality of life (Dolnicar, Yanamandram & Cliff, 2012).

Research on families from a tourism perspective is important as family travel is a large and fast growing tourism segment (Schänzel, Yeoman & Backer, 2012). While families can be found in numerous configurations (Commuri & Gentry, 2000), this thesis focuses on the vacations of those families with adolescents. For the purpose of this study, adolescents are defined as children aged between 12 years and up to and including 17 years of age (refer Section 2.2.1 for discussion on this classification).

Families with adolescents are specifically distinguished from other family groups as adolescents are in a process of ongoing development that is strongly influencing their individual identities, independence and autonomy (Carr, 2011; Drenten, 2013; Nurmi, Poole & Kalakoski, 1994). They are also developing their skills as consumers (Fikry & Jamil, 2010; John, 1999). This can lead to changing family roles and relationships (Nurmi et al., 1994) and motivations for and patterns of consumption (John, 1999). While vacations represent a time for family members to be together (Schänzel, 2008), for families with adolescents, family vacations occur during a period of evolving family dynamics when perhaps not all family members wish to be together. Despite these unique characteristics, there is limited empirical research specifically examining the vacation needs of these families.

Accordingly, it is the combination of the development of adolescents, evolving family dynamics, the collective experience of the vacation and the importance of the family market to the tourism industry that makes the vacation for families with adolescents important to understand. To gain insights into vacations for families with adolescents, this study aims to explore how these families make and evaluate vacation decisions, specifically focusing on the role of identity and motivations.

1.2. Background to the Study

The tourism industry provides major economic and employment benefits for many of the world's developed and developing countries (World Tourism Organization, 2015b). Globally, tourism generates revenue estimated at \$2 trillion (IBISWorld, 2016), with international tourist arrivals reaching nearly 1.2 billion visitors in 2015, a figure expected to rise by a further 4% in 2016 (World Tourism Organization, 2016). This makes the tourism industry one of the largest and fastest growing industries in the world (World Tourism Organization, 2015a). Within Australia, where this study is set, tourism contributes approximately 6% to Australia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and employs approximately 8% of the Australian workforce (Tourism Research Australia, 2014a). It is predicted that overnight visitor expenditure in Australia will reach \$115 billion by 2020 (Tourism Research Australia, 2014b). Domestic travel by

Australians has grown by 10% since 2006, whereas international travel over the same period has increased by 131% (Tourism Research Australia, 2014c). In addition, short term departures from Australia now exceed short term arrivals to Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2014). These figures demonstrate the importance of the tourism industry and the need to understand travel choices in the context of changing travel preferences.

Leisure travel represents over 50% of all international tourist arrivals (World Tourism Organization, 2015a) and family travel comprises a large part of this market (Blichfeldt, Pedersen, Johansen & Hansen, 2010; Schänzel et al., 2012). Family tourism has formed the basis for many studies (for example, Blichfeldt et al. (2010), Gram (2005), Hilbrecht, Shaw, Delamere and Havitz (2008), Lehto, Lin, Chen and Choi (2012), Schänzel (2010a), and Therkelsen (2010)), however their focus has largely been on children in general or on pre-adolescent children (aged 0-12 years). Research on a wide range of products, that have included; electronics, household appliances, automobiles, breakfast cereals and clothing, have made a distinction between pre-adolescent children and adolescents (for example, Beatty and Talpade (1994), Belch, Belch and Ceresino (1985), Shoham and Dalakas (2003), and Swinyard and Sim (1987)). These studies have clearly shown that adolescents directly influence family decision making and that their influence is different to that of pre-adolescent children. It is, therefore, the combination of the lack of empirical research specifically examining families with adolescents, the distinguishing characteristics of these families compared to other family groups, and the importance of families to the tourism industry that demonstrates the importance of this study and the need to gain insights into vacations for families with adolescents.

1.3. Study Context

Tourism products represent predominantly intangible experiences rather than tangible (physical) goods because they cannot be touched and in most cases are not seen before they are consumed (Schänzel, 2010a; Smith, 1994). Tourism products further display many of the characteristics of services (and experiences), such as being heterogeneous, perishable, inseparable, and not owned (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). They are heterogeneous due to their intangible nature and the high human input into the production process. They are perishable as they cannot be stored for future use. They are inseparable as they are consumed from the point and time of manufacture, and finally they are not owned but simply ‘rented’ for the period the service is purchased (Decrop, 2006; Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Yet tourism products are not the same as services and experiences in other industries. Vacations in the most part do not represent one transaction purchased at one point in time, rather they consist of a bundle of products purchased from multiple suppliers consumed over a number of days.

Moreover, vacations are typically emotional experiences for the participants and, as a consequence, emotions play an important role in decision making (Bokek-Cohen, 2011). This means that vacation decisions are not single independent choices but consist of complex multi-dimensional decisions (Dellaert, Ettema & Lindh, 1998; Lovelock, Patterson & Wirtz, 2011). These decisions are made from when the idea for the vacation was initiated until the family returns home from the vacation (Therkelsen, 2010). The length of time travellers spend making vacation decisions can vary considerably. For example, planning a vacation may start one or two years in advance, or in the case of destinations that have been visited before or destinations recommended by family and friends, decisions may be made over a very short period of time (Bargeman & van der Poel, 2006; Blichfeldt, 2008; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Stewart & Vogt, 1999).

Further complicating the vacation product, and the study of vacations, is that vacations are more commonly bought and consumed by groups rather than individuals (Blichfeldt et al., 2010). When decisions are made by groups of people, the groups are

often referred to as Decision Making Units (DMUs). DMUs make purchase decisions as a group with the outcome affecting the entire group, the individual concerned or a combination of both. The family is an important DMU in consumer (Commuri & Gentry, 2000) and tourism research (Decrop, 2006). Each DMU operates differently with interpersonal congruence between family members, family cohesion and the various family roles affecting the dynamics of the DMU and the influence of group members over the DMU (Decrop, 2006)

Family vacations (as with other group vacations), are highly configurable. Families can customise vacations to suit the needs of different family members, and family members are only committed to the vacation for a relatively short amount of time. Consequently, vacation decision making is unique as family members are more likely to compromise and are willing and able to configure the holiday to best suit everyone (Bronner & de Hoog, 2007). Family vacations are also unique when compared with other groups of people travelling together, as families often take many of the roles and routines from home with them on vacation and therefore the separation of 'home' and 'away' becomes difficult to achieve and less distinct (Obrador, 2012).

Families with adolescents are a subset of the broader family DMU and one type of vacationing family. What warrants the study of families with adolescents as a separate DMU is the distinct characteristics of adolescents (see Sections 1.1 and 2.2) such as their developing individual identity and their growing sense of independence and autonomy (Carr, 2011; Drenten, 2013; Nurmi et al., 1994). These adolescent characteristics mean the adolescent years for families is often a period of low family cohesion and increased family conflict (Olson, 1988). This is challenging when on vacation as families spend large amounts of time together. While vacations are configurable, changing family dynamics and individual family members' needs will impact how families make vacation decisions and evaluate the outcomes of the vacation. Families with adolescents have attracted limited attention in the literature compared with other family configurations. Accordingly, the vacation for families with adolescents requires further investigation.

The complexity of families and family vacations means family tourism still requires further attention in the literature (Carr, 2011; Lehto, Fu, Li & Zhou, 2013; Nanda, Hu & Bai, 2007; Obrador, 2012; Shaw, Havitz & Delemere, 2008; Small, 2008; So & Lehto, 2007). In addition, existing family tourism research predominantly focuses on the individual traveler or the individual within the group rather than the family as a whole (Lehto et al., 2013; Obrador, 2012), or on one aspect of the vacation (such as the choice of destination) rather than the whole vacation (Schänzel et al., 2012). This is challenging as vacation decisions are often made by and/or impact the entire family, and how families make and evaluate vacation decisions cannot be understood by only examining one aspect of the vacation. Therefore, there is a need for research that extends beyond these limitations and adopts a more comprehensive approach with regard to family members and vacation decisions.

This study addresses these theoretical ‘gaps’ through focusing on the vacation for families with adolescents and taking a whole-family and comprehensive view of the vacation. This is important as it is through this lens that this study contributes to family vacation decision making research knowledge and more specifically to the knowledge of vacations for families with adolescents. In addition, through exploring group dynamics this study contributes to knowledge of the role of identity in both how families make vacation decisions and evaluate the outcomes of those decisions. Finally, this study has important practical implications by gaining insights into how families with adolescents make and evaluate vacation decisions, tourism providers are better able to provide products to meet the needs of this substantial yet unique travelling group.

1.4. Overview of the Study

The aim of this study is to explore how families with adolescents make and evaluate vacation decisions. Specifically, the research objectives are to explore:

1. How families with adolescents make vacation decisions and the role of family members' identities in this process.
2. The motivation of family members before and throughout the vacation to influence the decision making process.
3. How families with adolescents evaluate the vacation experience and the outcomes of their vacation and the role of family members' identities in the evaluation process.

1.4.1. Theoretical Contribution

This study makes a contribution to research as it aims to address two independent, but related gaps in the literature: 1) the need to include adolescents in research on family tourism; and 2) the need to adopt a comprehensive approach when examining family tourism. First, Carr (2006, p. 138) states that there is a need for further tourism research that focuses on the 'needs and desires of adolescents, both in their own right and as part of the family unit'. This is further affirmed by Blichfeldt (2008) who states, there is a need for research that examines the adolescent's role in the family vacation. As discussed in Section 1.3, families with adolescents are an important and distinct market segment with unique characteristics that set them apart from other family groups. Moreover, studies in other industries (refer discussion Section 1.1) have demonstrated that adolescent influence in family decision making is different to that of younger children. This study will make a theoretical contribution to knowledge through its focus on the family with an adolescent, a segment that has been recognised in tourism research as requiring further investigation.

Second, family tourism (along with most tourism) studies tend to focus on one aspect of the vacation. Studies that examine family travel behaviour as a whole are rare (Lehto et al., 2012) and need further development (Kozak & Duman, 2012). There is

therefore a need for research that adopts a comprehensive approach to exploring how families make vacation decisions and evaluate vacations, as highlighted through research gaps identified by existing studies. Such as, there is a need for further research that explores; how decisions are made by family members in the planning process (Nanda et al., 2007), how decisions are made by adolescents during the vacation and evaluated post-vacation (Carr, 2006), how families make destination and activity decisions (Lehto et al., 2012; Therkelsen, 2010), the impact family members have on each other in making and evaluating vacation decisions (Kozak & Duman, 2012) and the success and satisfaction of the vacation as a result of influence strategies (Bronner & de Hoog, 2007). In addition, there is a further need for research that explores families vacation experiences (Carr, 2011; Schänzel & Smith, 2014), including the need for time away from the family on vacation (Fountain, Schänzel, Stewart & Körner, 2015; Mikkelsen & Blichfeldt, 2015) and the benefits sought by families from vacations (Lehto et al., 2013). This study makes a contribution to knowledge as it explores how families with adolescents make vacation decisions (before and throughout the vacation), how they evaluate the outcomes of those decisions and how they evaluate the vacation as a whole.

Through the adoption of a whole-family approach and examining vacation decisions before and throughout the vacation for families with adolescents this study makes a valuable contribution to research knowledge. This study addresses two independent but related gaps in the literature, the need to include adolescents in research on family tourism and the need to adopt a comprehensive approach when examining family tourism.

1.4.2. Practical Contribution

Good vacation marketing requires an understanding of the needs and motivations of the vacationer. With regard to family vacationers, good vacation marketing means understanding the dynamics of a dyadic decision (Bokek-Cohen, 2011, p. 153).

An important aspect of consumer research is understanding what it is consumers want (Fournier & Mick, 1999). It is imperative that tourism businesses understand why people are travelling, who makes the vacation choices, the factors that influence those choices and what people want and need from a vacation. Understanding what consumers want, tourism providers are better able to provide goods, services and experiences that meet their needs (Nanda et al., 2007; Obrador, 2012). In the case of families with adolescents, this involves understanding both the family as a whole and the individuals within the family.

The extant literature, for example, Carr (2011) and Nanda et al., (2007), lends support to the notion that tourism operators recognise the importance of families to their businesses. They demonstrate this through the provision of 'kids club' programs, children's airline programs (Nanda et al., 2007), school holiday events at attractions and family friendly accommodation (Carr, 2011). Carr (2011) emphasises that while this is not always done well, marketers and tourism operators do realise the importance of appealing to children. So and Lehto (2007) suggest with many of these types of services, there is an assumption that this is what families with children want from a vacation. Lehto (2009) further suggests that a shortcoming of these services is that tourism operators treat children's needs and adults' needs as separate, arguing instead that tourism operators need to provide activities that can be enjoyed by all family members. Although these marketing strategies may be relevant for families in general, they may not reflect the needs of families with adolescents. For example, adolescents are unlikely to enjoy services aimed at younger children. Similarly, as adolescents seek independence and autonomy, one may ask, are adolescents interested in activities that can be enjoyed by all family members? Blichfeldt (2007b), who included adolescents as part of a wider study on tourists' vacation experiences, suggests that adolescents need new experiences on vacation, whereas their parents want to be assured that adolescents are safe.

In addition, many other industries (such as in the food, clothing and electronics) market directly to adolescents whereas the tourism industry does not appear to adopt

this approach. Given that family vacation decision making has become more democratic (Yeoman, McMahon-Beattie, Lord & Parker-Hodds, 2012), children are no longer submissive participants to whatever choices their parents make (Nanda et al., 2007), and that adolescents influence family decision making (Beatty & Talpade, 1994; Belch et al., 1985; Shoham & Dalakas, 2005; Swinyard & Sim, 1987) there is an opportunity for the tourism industry to directly target adolescents. To do this, Lackman and Lanasa (1993) and Shoham and Dalakas (2005) recommend that marketers understand what makes parents yield to requests from their children and the level of influence children have over their parents. Although Lackman and Lanasa's and Shoham and Dalakas' recommendations were not tourism specific, understanding how families make decisions has implications when examining vacations as adolescents are unlikely to be able to purchase family vacations themselves. It is therefore through exploring how families with adolescent children make vacation decisions that marketers will be able to develop offerings and campaigns to effectively meet the unique needs of this market segment.

1.5. Methodology/Philosophical Perspective

This study uses a Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) orientation to gain insights into vacations for families with adolescents. CCT has risen swiftly in popularity in consumer research over recent years as a means to present a substantial, comprehensive and inclusive approach to consumer research (Arnould & Thompson, 2007; Askegaard & Linnet, 2011; Fitchett, Patsiaouras & Davies, 2014). CCT provides a framework to examine the interrelationship between identity and the effect of the marketplace on consumption and illustrates the contextual, symbolic and experiential aspects of consumption that individuals and groups use to both understand their environment and orient their lives (Joy & Li, 2012; Kozinets, 2001; Nairn, Griffin & Gaya Wicks, 2008). A CCT orientation provides the framework to explore *how* consumers engage in consumption and the significance of this to their broader lives. This is of particular relevance when studying families with children as noted by Martens, Southerton and Scott (2004) as relatively little is known about *how* children consume and the impact their consumption has upon how their parents consume. A CCT orientation enables a

specific consumer group, families with adolescents, to be explored within the marketplace boundaries of the vacation. Central to this orientation, and this study, is the interplay and interaction of individual, relational and family identities. Family identities affect *how* families consume (Epp & Price, 2008), that is *how* families with adolescents make vacation decisions and *how* they evaluate the outcomes of those decisions while consuming the vacation.

To examine this interrelationship, this study is guided by an interpretivist/social constructivist paradigm, a paradigm commonly used in CCT research (Arnould & Thompson, 2005). An interpretivist/social constructivist paradigm focuses on seeking an understanding of people's meaning of their worlds and through people's interactions with others, how they create meaning. This is combined with a relativist ontology (reality is specific to the individual or group to whom it applies) (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) and a subjectivist epistemology (the researcher and the subject(s) of the research are linked) (Daly, 2007).

This study is exploratory in nature therefore a qualitative methodology will allow for the exploration of ideas and will allow the researcher to pursue the emergent findings while also examining the experience of the research participants (Howitt, 2010). This methodology is aligned with the paradigmatic focus that knowledge and meaning are created (Goodson & Phillmore, 2004; Jamal & Hollinshead, 2001). The collection of data for this study were through eight in-depth family interviews using a combination of narratives and photo elicitation and 31 individual questionnaires. Transcripts were coded using a combination of deductive, inductive and pattern coding and analysed using thematic analysis. Part of understanding the participants' 'meaning' of experiences, involves the researcher understanding their role in creating and interpreting that meaning. Reflexivity and reflection are used to demonstrate the trustworthiness of findings (Finlay & Gough, 2008) and to understand the impact of the researcher on the research process (Finlay, 2002; Maso, 2008).

1.6. Delimitations

The characteristics and construction of families included in this study have been delimited. Delimitating the family characteristics means the dynamics of reality construction can be better understood (Roy, Zvonkovic, Goldberg, Sharp & LaRossa, 2015). Although unique from other family groups, all families with adolescents are not the same. Families with adolescents are made up of amongst other things different ethnicities, socioeconomic statuses and family types (for example two parent, single parent or blended families). For the purpose of this study, and as appropriate for a qualitative study (see discussion Section 4.4) where the depth of the study comes from the research approach rather than the sample size, the characteristics of the families are delimited so that they represent similar ethnicities, socioeconomic statuses and family types. Therefore, the participants in this study are all from the Eastern suburbs of Melbourne where the average income is above or equal to the national average, are of European origins and have both parents working (either both full time or one parent part time). In addition, this study examines families with only adolescents and excludes families with (in addition to adolescents) older and/or younger children. The decision to include families with *only* adolescents was made to ensure that unique needs of these families could be explored without the influence of other non-adolescent children on the family dynamic.

1.7. Thesis Structure/Chapter Outline

This thesis is organised into seven chapters. Chapter 1 has presented the background and context to the study, the study aims and objectives, the academic and practical need for the study and the methodological and philosophical perspective of this research. Chapter 2 presents a review of the extant literature on families with adolescents by first examining what makes families with adolescents unique compared with other travelling groups and the role of identity and family dynamics on family vacations. This is followed by a review of existing motivation frameworks, common vacation motives and the use of influence strategies by family members. Finally, existing decision making frameworks are reviewed with a focus on decisions that are

made pre-vacation, during vacation and the evaluation of those decisions in the post vacation phase. Chapter 3 brings the literature review together into the conceptual framework and presents the study's propositions. Chapter 4 outlines and justifies the methodology for this study, and provides the details of the data collection and analysis. Chapters 5 and 6 present the findings and resulting discussion. Specifically, Chapter 5 focuses on the findings and discussion on identity, motives and influence strategies; while Chapter 6 presents the discussion on the findings relating to pre-vacation, during vacation, and post-vacation decision making. The final chapter, Chapter 7, provides the summation and concluding remarks for this study, including how the research objectives have been met, the research reflection, the methodological, theoretical and practical contributions of this study, as well as the study's limitations and suggested directions for future research.

1.8. Chapter Summary

Worldwide, the tourism industry makes significant economic and employment contributions to country's economies (World Tourism Organization, 2015b) and the family vacation is a large contributor to this (Blichfeldt et al., 2010; Schänzel et al., 2012). Family tourism is an area requiring further empirical research. In particular, there is limited research examining the specific vacation needs of families with adolescents. This is an oversight as it cannot be assumed that the vacation requirements of various family groups are generic. This study is therefore important as it contributes to both research and practical knowledge through its focus on how families with adolescents make vacation decisions, how they evaluate those decisions and how they evaluate the vacation as a whole. Through this understanding, the tourism industry can better cater for the vacation needs of families with adolescents.

Chapter 2. Vacations for Families with Adolescents

2.1. Introduction

In the preceding chapter, the study was introduced, the research objectives stated and the gaps in research knowledge (both theoretical and practical) were identified. The objective of this chapter is to review the literature on vacations for families with adolescents. This chapter first examines what makes families with adolescents unique compared with other travelling groups and the role of identity and family dynamics on the family vacation. It then examines existing motivational frameworks and common vacation motives with a specific focus on identity. It further reviews the literature on the use of influence strategies used by family members to affect family decision making. Finally, a review of existing decision making frameworks within the context of vacation decision making and the evaluation of the vacation is undertaken. This chapter provides the basis for discussing the conceptual framework, presented in Chapter 3.

2.2. Families with Adolescents and Vacations

Families are recognised as a prominent decision making and consumption unit in marketing, consumer behaviour and tourism literature (Assael, 1987; Blichfeldt, 2008; Commuri & Gentry, 2000; Lehto et al., 2012; Nanda et al., 2007). Families are an integral part of life and the majority of the world's population are able to identify the family to which they belong (Nanda et al., 2007). Families are distinguished from other groups (such as a group of friends) because of the feelings they have for each other, such as love, dependence and responsibility, which are different from feelings between non-family members (Bokek-Cohen, 2011). Despite this, the focus of tourism studies is more often on the individual (either travelling alone or the individual within a family) rather than the family group (Carr, 2011; Lehto et al., 2013; Lehto et al., 2012; Obrador, 2012; Schänzel et al., 2012; Small, 2008). The reasons that are suggested for the under representation of the family as the unit of analysis include the difficulty of classifying and defining the family as a decision making unit due to the diversity of families, and

the transformation over recent years of what actually constitutes a family (Commuri & Gentry, 2000; Lehto et al., 2012; Schänzel, 2010a).

In Australia, the diversity of families is, in part, due to Australia's history of immigration, its vast landscape, geographic position, relatively concentrated population and changing rural fortunes (Geggie, Weston, Hayes & Silberberg, 2007). Families (as in much of the world) are also diverse in their structure. The 'traditional' family is commonly defined as two or more people related by blood, marriage or adoption, living in the same household (Schiffman, O'Cass, Paladino & Carlson, 2014). This, while a broad definition, does not encompass the diversity of modern day families, such as including step or blended families (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003; Flurry, 2007; Lackman & Lanasa, 1993).

The recognition and acknowledgement in the extant literature of the diversity of families together with the transformation of families over recent years have given rise to the coexisting and often overlapping 'modern nuclear' family and the 'postmodern permeable' family (Johns & Gyimóthy, 2003). The modern family is characterised by two parents in traditional family roles, 'doing things together' and providing a secure, nurturing environment for children that benefit children at the expense of their parents. Whereas the postmodern family emphasises individual expression that may cause instability for children, but benefits parents by allowing them a wider range of lifestyle options and freedoms (Johns & Gyimóthy, 2003).

The transformation of families in Western societies stems from, amongst other things, traditional family roles changing, an increase in families with both parents working, adults becoming parents later in life, higher divorce rates and more single parents and smaller families (Johns & Gyimóthy, 2003; Kang & Hsu, 2004, 2005; Tinson, Nancarrow & Brace, 2008; Yeoman et al., 2012). This has led to families having greater relative wealth compared with previous generations, children having greater exposure to influences outside the home due to technology and non-parental care, and higher consumer socialisation of children at a younger age (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003; Flurry, 2007; Lackman & Lanasa, 1993). These changes have also

resulted in family decision making becoming more democratic, children taking on a greater role in family decisions and children having more autonomy in personal consumption decisions (Yeoman et al., 2012). Moreover, an increase in democratic decision making within families leads to more complex decision making (compared with individual decision making), due to the number of people involved and their varying levels of influence on the decision making process (Kang & Hsu, 2005; Nanda et al., 2007).

For the tourism industry, these changes have important implications. Busy families value time together, and vacations facilitate this time (Yeoman et al., 2012). It is therefore a combination of the diversity and changing structure of families and the importance of vacations to family functioning that warrant both the study of the family as a decision making unit (Kang & Hsu, 2004; Schänzel et al., 2012; Yeoman et al., 2012) and the adoption of a whole-family approach to the research process to investigate the complexities of vacation decision making (Schänzel, 2012; Yeoman et al., 2012)

A common multi-disciplinary approach used to classify diverse families is the Family Life Cycle (FLC) concept. The basic premise of any life cycle concept is that everything, be it a product, destination, or human, moves through a number of stages throughout its lifetime. These stages may vary in number and length of time but all begin with inception (birth) and end in decline (death) (Glick, 1977; Oppermann, 1995b; Wells & Gubar, 1966; Zimmerman, 1982). Benjamin Seeborn Rowntree in 1910 first proposed the FLC and it was introduced into the marketing field in the 1960s (Bauer & Auer-Srnka, 2012). Since then it has been used or empirically validated in a large body of marketing research (Bauer & Auer-Srnka, 2012; Wells & Gubar, 1966). The purpose of the FLC is to understand family behaviour at the different stages in family life by classifying families into relatively homogenous groups (Oppermann, 1995b). It is widely used as a basis for market segmentation and to help understand consumer behaviour, as families within each group are relatively similar in both their attitudes and purchasing behaviour (Bauer & Auer-Srnka, 2012; Du & Kamakura, 2006;

Fodness, 1992; Wells & Gubar, 1966). Although FLC models vary, the focus of these models and the cause of movement through them is largely the arrival and then leaving of children (Lawson, 1991). A typical traditional FLC model is depicted in Table 2.1, and the stages that involve children include Full Nest I, Ib and II.

Table 2.1. Family Life Cycle

FLC Stage	Description
Young Single	Young single adults not married.
Young Married	Newly married couples, young.
Full Nest I	Youngest child < 6 years
Full Nest Ib	Youngest child > 6 years
Full Nest II	Older couple with dependent children
Empty Nest I	No dependent children, still working
Empty Nest II	No dependent children, retired
Sole Survivor	May be still working or retired

Adapted from Wells and Gubar (1966)

Despite the wide use of the FLC in marketing, there are criticisms of this approach. The most significant criticism is whether the diversity and transformation of the modern family can be classified into a single model (Bauer & Auer-Srnka, 2012; Du & Kamakura, 2006; Oppermann, 1995b; Wagner & Hanna, 1983) and with the variation of models whether the findings of the FLC studies can be compared (Fodness, 1992).

Notwithstanding these criticisms, tourism studies that have used a FLC model have found that family travel patterns are related to the stage in the family life cycle (Backer, 2012; Blichfeldt, 2007b; Choi, Lehto & Brey, 2010; Collins & Tisdell, 2002; Kang & Hsu, 2004). For example, studies have found, amongst other things, that travel

in the most part increases through each of the child rearing stages (Zimmerman, 1982). In the two school aged phases (Full Nest I and Ib), camping and hiring apartments become more popular; the family is largely constricted to school holidays for travel time; and financial reasons appear to be an influencing factor in both destination, accommodation and transportation choices (Oppermann, 1995a). Children in the Full Nest II stage, are not considered by parents as important in vacation planning because they can be left at home or taken on 'just about any type of vacation' (Bojanic, 1992, p. 74). It is, therefore, the parallel of travel behaviour with life stage that, notwithstanding its limitations, makes the FLC model a useful tool to help researchers classify families.

A further limitation of the FLC model, which is reflected in the depreciation of families with adolescents in the tourism literature, is the classification of children into broad life cycle categories that do not consider the different needs, abilities and consumption habits of younger versus older children. Child development from birth through adolescence is dramatic. In addition to a child's physical development they experience rapid cognitive and social skills growth to the point where as they approach adulthood they have developed adult-like thought patterns and abilities (John, 1999). It was the recognition by sociologists of this development and subsequent differences in older versus younger children that led to 'adolescence' being developed as a term to characterise this unique period in a child's life (Bessant & Watts, 2007). Despite this recognition, and as discussed in Section 1.3, adolescents and their families are rarely identified as a unique market segment in tourism research. This is a significant oversight that needs to be investigated as researchers should not assume that the findings of previous studies involving families with younger children apply to this unique market segment.

2.2.1. Adolescents and Family Vacations

Families with adolescents are one type of travelling family. The term adolescent was 'discovered' in the early twentieth century, as childhood became extended into what became known as the teen years (Bessant & Watts, 2007). Adolescents are by definition children, as children are classified as those aged between zero and 18 years

of age. However, it is important to differentiate adolescents from the broader child classification, as adolescents have different characteristics and needs to younger children (Carr, 2006). For example, adolescents demonstrate better consumer skills, understanding of economic concepts and are more rational than younger children (Fikry & Jamil, 2010; John, 1999).

Despite adolescence being recognised as a unique life stage (Johnson, Crosnoe & Elder, 2011), there are difficulties in defining and classifying adolescents. The boundaries of psychological, anatomical requirements, legal status and sociocultural characteristics differ between person and country (Carr, 2006). In saying this, the core adolescent years are typically defined as between 12 and 17 years old (Carr, 2006), those years between childhood and adulthood (Bessant & Watts, 2007; Nurmi et al., 1994). For the purpose of this study, an adolescent is defined as a child aged between 12 and up to and including 17 years of age, which corresponds with the average age of secondary school (high school) students in Australia (Department of Education Victoria, 2009). This corresponds to classifications of adolescents as high school aged children (age range between 11 and 19 years) in other international studies (for example, Chavda, Haley and Dunn (2005) Foxman, Tansuhaj, and Ekstrom (1989); Martin and Bush (2000), and Shoham and Dalakas (2003)), and further corresponds with the Society for Research on Adolescence, which refers to adolescents as being in 'the second decade of life' (Johnson et al., 2011).

Granville Stanley Hall, in 1904, identified adolescence in what is considered the original study of the psychology of adolescents, as a period of 'storm and stress' (increased family conflict, mood disruptions and risk behaviour). Further studies have identified that while not all adolescents experience 'storm and stress', it is more likely during this period than in any other life stage (Arnett, 1999). It is during adolescence that family roles, expectations and relationships start to change (Nurmi et al., 1994), as an adolescent's individual identity both develops and is established (Drenten, 2013; Kwak, 2003). Adolescents test limits, break rules and enjoy freedoms while being dependent upon their parents for stability (both emotional and financial) and structure in their lives (Drenten, 2013). Blichfeldt (2007b) argues that it is the 'role' of

adolescents to detach from being a child and undertake the process of becoming an independent person, and it is the expression of independence and autonomy by adolescents that can cause tension within families.

Consumer skills advance during adolescence and adolescents' consumption preferences change. For example, Blichfeldt (2007b, p. 153) describes caravan parks as 'paradise on earth' to most young children and 'hell on earth' to teenagers. Parents (for the most part) recognise that adolescents have greater consumer skills and capabilities than younger children. Jean Piaget's 1970 Theory of Cognitive Development explains this development. She theorised that adolescents (children aged 12 and above), through cognitive growth, have more adult-like thought patterns and are capable of complex thoughts about both real and possible situations than younger children. As a result, adolescents are able to predict the effect of negotiations and reciprocity on actual events (Brown & Desforjes, 2013; John, 1999), which enables adolescents to situationally adapt their behaviour, influence family decisions and results in greater consumer skills than found among younger children (Fikry & Jamil, 2010).

Adolescence is often described as a transition period by virtue of children developing into adults at the end of adolescence (Carr, 2011; Drenten, 2013; Nurmi et al., 1994). Transition (liminal) periods are recognised in CCT as important areas of research. Individuals and groups use consumption to aid transition and consumption habits change through and after a transitional period (Cody & Lawlor, 2011). Although liminal theory is attributed principally to Turner, Van Gennep's (1960) work 'rites of passage' first identified that life is made up of a succession of stages and the movement between stages represents a period of transition or liminality. The concept of liminality was expanded by Turner (1969), who identified the importance of liminality as a distinct stage that exists midway 'betwixt and between' two identifiable states. A state in which the characteristics of the subject are ambiguous, as they are neither fully the previous or future state, instead they represent a 'limbo of statelessness' (Turner, 1969, p. 97). A state of instability, ambiguity and suspended identity, a disruptive time period in a person's life (Noble & Walker, 1997; Thomassen, 2014).

Liminality is important when studying adolescents, as adolescents exist on a threshold, a period 'betwixt and between' two states, where they are neither completely child nor completely adult (Weller, 2006; Wood, 2012). The term 'adolescent' itself infers liminality, that is adolescents are becoming (adults) rather than being (children) (Valentine, Skelton & Chambers, 1998). Despite this, there is ambiguity in the literature as to whether adolescence itself is a liminal phase, as proposed by, amongst others, Wood (2012) who studied the political subjectivities of high school students and Weller (2006), who studied adolescents from lower socio-economic groups. Alternately adolescence has been viewed as a distinct life stage, and liminality has been applied to the transition from adolescence to adulthood, for example Noble and Walker (1997) who studied students transitioning from high school to college, or liminality has been applied to the transition from childhood to adolescence, for example, Cody and Lawlor (2011) who examined the consumption habits of tweens. Irrespective of whether adolescence is a liminal phase or a distinct life stage, what is recognised is the importance to consumer research of studying groups in transition (Cody & Lawlor, 2011; Noble & Walker, 1997; Weller, 2006; Wood, 2012). Adolescents are recognised as a group in transition, they have unique needs and characteristics when compared with other life stages, which stem from at least in part their developing individual identity (discussed in the following section), and growing independence and autonomy, characteristics that affect the family vacation.

In addition to liminality, Turner's (1974) later work emphasised the liminoid experience. A liminoid experience represents a temporary change or transformation from the original state (Belk, 1988; Turner, 1969). Although adolescence is not a liminoid experience, as adolescents cannot transition back to the original state (childhood) (Cody & Lawlor, 2011), vacations can be described as such. That is, liminoid experiences are characterised by voluntary choice and vacations represent a temporary transformation for the traveller as they forgo their day-to-day routines, rituals and often identity while on vacation (Selännemi, 2005). It is the combination of adolescents as a group in a liminal phase, the vacation as a liminoid experience, the family with adolescents representing a large market segment and the limited extant

research examining this group that warrants further study to explore the unique vacation needs and characteristics of these families.

2.3. Identity and Family Dynamics

Critical to individuals or groups in a liminal phase is identity transformation (Cody & Lawlor, 2011). Moreover, recent research has emphasised the importance of identity in understanding the tourist experience (Bond & Falk, 2013). As proposed by Bond and Falk, it is through identity that researchers can understand *why* people travel, the decisions they make, and what benefits they gain from it.

2.3.1. Identity, Self and Congruity

Individual identity is multi-faceted. We have an identity when we perform a role in society (such as the role of a daughter or a sister), when we are the member of a particular group (such as a family, or work group) or through the characteristics we display that make us unique (such as being shy or bossy). Each of these roles, groups and personality characteristics represent multiple identities that interact and affect our behaviour. For example, our identity as a daughter may be quite different to our identity as a sister, or mother (Burke, 2009; Hung & Petrick, 2010). Moreover, if we identify as being adventurous we are likely to behave in a way that is considered to be adventurous (Reed II, Forehand, Puntoni & Warlop, 2012). Having multiple identities means, our identity represents a temporary point of attachment, so while it is stable it is also fluid and dynamic (Bond & Falk, 2013; Cohen, 2010; Jenkins, 2014).

The concept of a multi-faceted (multiple selves) identity was first put forward by William James in 1890 (Belk, 1988). He stated that we are comprised of multiple selves that come together to form our overall self or identity (Bond & Falk, 2013; Burke, 2009). These different selves motivate different behaviours depending on the role we adopt, the group we belong to, or our individual characteristics (Bond & Falk, 2013). There are four common self-views that make up an individual's identity and these views include both how we express ourselves publically and how we privately perceive

ourselves (Hung & Petrick, 2010; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987; Reed II et al., 2012; Sirgy & Su, 2000). Table 2.2 highlights the four most common self-views.

Table 2.2. Self-Views Multi-faceted Selves.

	Actual Self	Ideal Self	Social Self	Ideal Social Self
View of self	How I see myself	How I would like to see myself	How I believe I am seen	How I would like to be seen
Private Public	Private	Private	Public	Public

Developed from Sirgy and Su (2000), Todd (2001), and Mittal (2006)

Identity is the term used by theorists to refer to the multiple selves, the different roles people play and the positions they hold (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Central to understanding identity is perception, the judgments we make of our selves. Perceptions are the inputs into the identity process. They are what we try to control and reflect how we respond to stimuli (Burke, 2009; Collinson & Hockey, 2007). Without the ability to have a perceptive or reflexive sense of our self, we would not be able to identify our self and therefore would not know how to act (Jenkins, 2014). The self-concept or the creation of individual identity is the core to understanding a consumer's behaviour and motivation (Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987).

Possessions are used to maintain and enhance an individual's self-image, become part of our extended self and are critical to understanding consumer behaviour. Belk (1988) in his seminal paper 'Possessions and the Extended Self' theorised how individuals use possessions to extend their identity. Possessions are defined by Belk as anything we call ours, and include products, experiences, places, memories, people and body parts. It is often suggested, and widely recognised in the extant literature, that people resent being considered as homogenous beings and, therefore, in an effort to stress their personality, they use possessions to express their individuality and manage

their identity (Belk, 1988; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987; Todd, 2001). Of course, individuals do not all view possessions and the image those possessions portray in the same way, therefore to understand consumer behaviour we need to understand first the meaning consumers place on possessions and how they use them (Belk, 1988; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987). Moreover, the role of each possession to our self-concept can change over a lifetime, with some possessions at any point in our life being more central to our self-concept than others possessions (Belk, 1988). This is of importance when studying adolescents, as adolescents use possessions to build identity and create acceptance amongst their peers (Daters, 1990) and possessions can take a key role in periods of liminality.

In liminal periods, the differences between actual self and ideal self are the widest (Noble & Walker, 1997) and possessions can be used as ways of easing the psychological difficulties in this transition by preserving the past and constructing the new state (Belk, 1992; Mehta & Belk, 1991). Possessions that form part of our identity are not always owned, as identified by Belk (1988), they simply have to be considered 'ours'. Tourism products and services are a good example of this as they are mostly experienced but not owned, they instead can be used to enhance our identity and help create memories that are 'ours'. In saying this, some elements from a vacation, such as souvenirs and photographs are owned. These possessions can become a vehicle for storing memories from that vacation, to make otherwise intangible experience more tangible and together with other vacation experiences can enhance and reinforce our sense of identity (Belk, 1988). Notably, photographs have a significant role in liminal phases as they enable the creation of memories that provide support in transitioning to the post-liminal state (Noble & Walker, 1997) (discussed further in Section 4.5.2).

Self-congruity is the match between an individual's self-concept and the perceived image of products and services (Litvin & Kar, 2004; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987). Congruence leads to preferences for particular products or services (Hung & Petrick, 2010; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987). Existing research has, for the most part, demonstrated that there is a positive relationship between self-congruity, motivation and satisfaction. That is, the greater the correlation between the product and the individual's identity, the

greater the motivation to purchase that product and the greater the satisfaction with the purchase (Litvin & Kar, 2004; Sirgy, 1982). This correlation has been somewhat disputed by Jenkins (2014) who questions whether identity and behaviour can be clearly linked given the multi-faceted nature of identity. That is, a product may be congruent with identity in one identity role but not in another. Stryker and Burke (2000) suggest that whether identity will lead to behaviour is dependent both upon the salience of the role to the individual and the commitment of the individual to that role. That is, the higher the salience attached to an identity role (compared with other identity roles), the greater the likelihood the individual will make behavioural choices that reinforce that role. Moreover, a strong commitment to an identity role helps create identity salience, which leads to behaviour.

The relationship between identity (the self-concept) and congruity has received some attention in the tourism consumer behaviour literature, as congruence is likely to be higher for socially and visibly consumed products such as vacations (Carden, 2006; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987; Sirgy, 1982; Sirgy & Su, 2000; Todd, 2001). Chon (1992) was the first researcher to apply the identity and congruity to tourism research. Chon's empirical study examined post-visit satisfaction of a destination and the correlation between self-image and destination image. Subsequent studies, such as Sirgy and Su (2000), Kastenholz (2004), Beerli, Meneses and Gil (2007), Murphy, Benckendorff and Moscardo (2007), and Hung and Petrick (2010), have taken a similar approach. Refer Table 2.3 for an overview of these studies.

Table 2.3. Overview of Tourism Self Congruency Studies

Authors	Study	Key Findings
Chon (1992)	Empirical, survey, 225 visitors to Norfolk, USA.	Found a correlation between self-image, destination image and satisfaction with the destination
Sirgy and Su (2000)	Conceptual	Propose there is a relationship between destination environment, visitor image, self-concept and travel behaviour
Kastenholz (2004)	Empirical, survey, 2280 visitors to Northern Portugal	Found destination congruity on behavioural intention was confirmed only for the probability to return to the destination
Beerli et al. (2007)	Empirical, survey 464 Spanish participants.	Found destination congruity applies only to the first time an individual visits a destination, self-congruity loses its determining power for repeat visits.
Murphy et al. (2007)	Empirical, survey 277 visitors to Whitsunday Islands, Australia	Found a high level of congruity between self-image and destination perception (includes brand personality of destination, and the individuals desired holiday experience), that is, congruity applies to the benefits of the destination.
Hung and Petrick (2010)	Empirical, panel survey 990 cruisers and non-cruisers, USA	Found self-congruity has a positive influence on cruising intentions and therefore travel behaviour.

As shown in Table 2.3, these studies found there is a relationship between self-image and satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the chosen destination. That is, the greater the congruity between an individual's perception of themselves and their perception of the destination, the greater the satisfaction with the destination and the greater the motivation to visit. There is some dispute to when this applies. According to Beerli et al. (2007), it only applies to the first time an individual visits a destination. They found that self-congruity loses the determining power for repeat visits, whereas according to Kastenholz (2004), destination self-congruity only applies to the probability to return to a destination. Despite this ambiguity what is known is that congruity applies to all

parts of an individual's multi-faceted identity and individuals will visit a destination to maintain and enhance their view of self and enhance and maintain how others view them (Litvin & Kar, 2004; Sirgy & Su, 2000). Moreover what does not appear to have been explored in the extant literature, and therefore is unknown, is how (and if) destination congruity applies in families who are comprised of multiple individuals each with their own identity, and whether congruity applies to vacation activities, and how this affects destination (in)congruence.

As discussed previously in this chapter, existing tourism and family research has mostly, had an individualistic perspective (Epp & Price, 2008; Obrador, 2012; Small, 2008), focusing on the individual within the family rather than the collective family group (Epp & Price, 2008). Family travel by its very definition occurs in a group setting and family groups are more than just the sum of the individuals that comprise them (Jenkins, 2014). It is therefore unlikely that researchers can fully understand family consumption by considering only individual family members (Cappallini & Parsons, 2012; Epp & Price, 2008). To understand family travel, any discussion on identity and congruence must include a discussion on the dynamics of the family and the effect of different relationships within the family group.

2.3.2. Family Identity and Dynamics.

Family life in contemporary Western society is characterised by anxiety and uncertainty about what it means to 'be family' and indeed what the functions of families are. (Schänzel, 2010a, p. 21)

Individual identity emphasises differentiation from others, whereas group identification emphasises commonalities between individuals, commonalities that are recognised by both the group members and wider society (Jenkins, 2014). Nowhere is that more apparent than in the family group. Families represent a social system that all members contribute to and as with any social system, different personalities, intentions, experiences and motives are involved (Shaw et al., 2008; Thornton, Shaw & Williams, 1997).

Family identity is defined by Bennett, Wolin, and McAvity (1988, p. 212) as the: *subjective sense of its own continuity over time, its present situation and its character. It is the gestalt of qualities and attributes that make it a particular family and that differentiate it from other families.*

Family identity is complex. Families are comprised of a collective family identity, smaller relational identities (such as siblings or parents) and individual identities (Epp & Price, 2008). When a family interacts, they do so in terms of the identity role(s) they are fulfilling. Each role only exists in relation to the roles others fulfill, and these roles only exist within the family setting (Burke, 2009). Sometimes individual and relational identities compromise to favour collective identity and sometimes they oppose the collective identity. As such, individual, relational and collective identities can form competing interests, demands and fluid relationships (Epp & Price, 2008).

Kerrane and Hogg (2013), who interviewed six families in their qualitative study refer to micro-environments within families, such as the parent micro-environment and the sibling micro-environment. They state that despite an assumption in consumer research that families are homogenous and siblings within the family equal, children's socialisation and involvement in consumption varies between families and children within the family. In a further study Kerrane, Bettany and Kerrane (2015) found within the sibling micro-environment siblings socialise other siblings (both in a positive and negative way). This, in addition to the parent's role in the socialisation of their children, contributes to the internal consumer development and identity development of children within a family.

The interaction of identity roles and the commitment and salience to those roles can lead to interpersonal incongruence between family members. Interpersonal incongruence is of particular relevance when discussing families with adolescents who are in a state of transition (liminal period). As children become adolescents, their self-concept and multiple self-representations grow as does their sense of independence and autonomy (Kwak, 2003). Adolescents create and develop their own motives, and become less compliant with their parent's expectations (Decrop, 2005; Kwak, 2003).

The role of peers becomes more important as adolescents view peer reactions as important to their feelings of worth (both social and personal), and peer rejection as an indication of unworthiness (John, 1999; O'Brien & Bierman, 1988).

The complexity and interplay of external factors on family identity is demonstrated by the framework developed by Epp and Price (2008), as shown in Figure 2.1. Epp and Price, who use a consumer culture theory orientation, describe this framework as a 'sensitizing theory' (p. 51) aimed to orientate researchers rather than to hypothesise outcomes. The framework demonstrates how consumption is used to manage identity and how interacting communication forms create and reinforce family identity. Epp and Price identify five communications forms, which are: (1) narratives, which create family identity through the telling of family stories; (2) rituals, the inclusion in which symbolises family membership and creates a continuity of family identity; (3) social dramas, which often challenge family identity, such as adolescents pushing family boundaries; (4) everyday interactions that create and reinforce family identity through day-to-day family routines; and (5) intergenerational transfers, such as the influence of parents and siblings on other family members.

Epp and Price (2008) further propose that a number of elements, including the level of commitment and salience to family, relational and individual identities, the different levels of attachment to family rituals and symbols, and different levels of interpersonal congruence/incongruence between family members, moderate family identity. Finally, Epp and Price (2008) propose that family identity is complex because it is both internally (by family members) and externally (by outsiders' perceptions) constructed and perceived differently by individuals through the descriptors used and the meaning attached to those descriptors. As a result, family members may vary in their commitment to maintaining certain aspects of their collective family identity. What is less well explained in Epp and Price's model is the salience and commitment family members have to identity roles in different decision making situations and the fluidity and interaction between those identity roles.

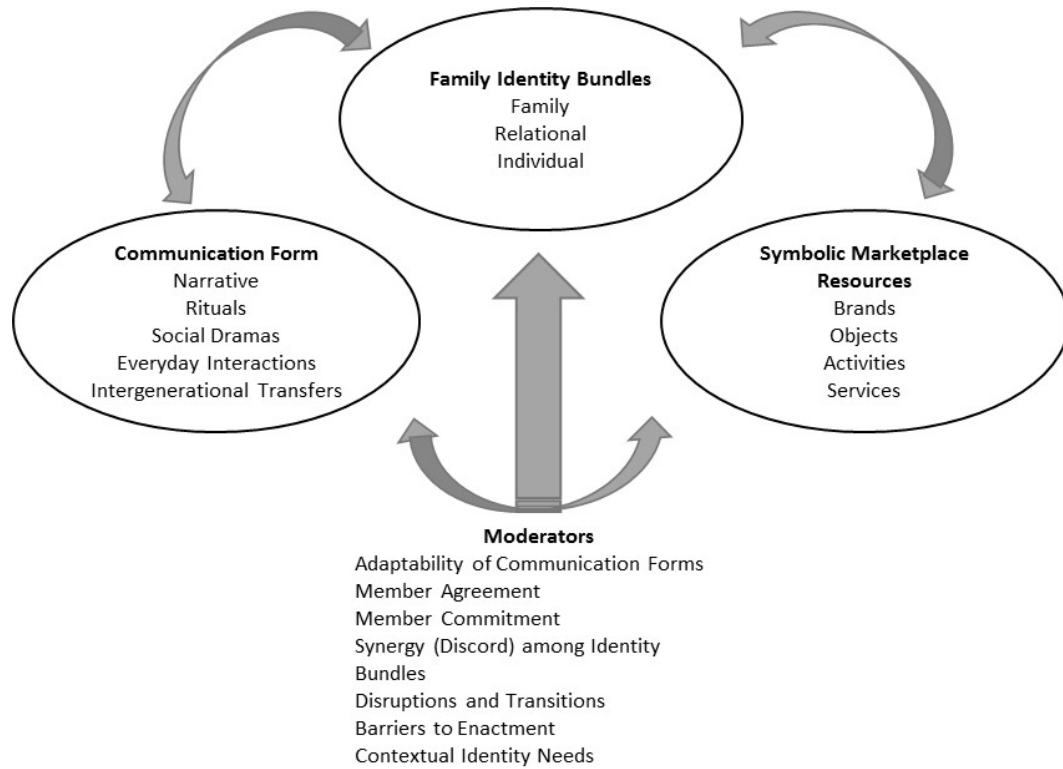


Figure 2.1. Family Identity and Interplay. Source: Epp and Price (2008, p. 52)

One way of observing the interaction of individual identity roles and the commitment and salience family members attach to these roles is through person referencing or identity statements. For example, a family may demonstrate their collective identity through the use of the term ‘we’ (Burr, 1990; Koenig Kellas, 2005; Tracy, 2012). ‘We’ statements identify tendencies, feelings, thoughts and problems within a relationship of people. Whereas ‘I’ statements demonstrate how a person views themselves individually and demonstrate feelings and thoughts within an individual (Bond & Falk, 2013; Burr, 1990). ‘You’ statements reflect how others see a person (Bond & Falk, 2013) and are often used to apportion blame (Burr, 1990).

Family identity is salient to families. As stated by Epp and Price (2008, p. 59), ‘families are constantly being pulled apart by the circumstance of daily life, creating a need in some families to maintain or reassert collective identity’. Higgins and Hamilton (2014, p. 1591) in their empirical study termed this ‘familying’, families strengthening their ‘intimate familial social world’. They argue that ‘familying’ is about creating a sense of united family, a love of family, for the future. Family identity and the interaction of identity roles in families is important when studying vacations as it may both create the motive for the vacation, create different vacation motives between family members (Carr, 2006; Decrop, 2006) and in families with adolescents who are transitioning through a liminal phase, may create conflict. For families with adolescents, growing independence, autonomy and the influence of peers can result in adolescents not wanting to go on vacations with their families. It can also lead to conflict and tension both between the parents and the adolescent, and between the adolescent and their siblings (Carr, 2006). Moreover, as part of their growing self-awareness, older children understand that just as they need time away from their parents, their parents need time away from them (Schänzel, 2010a). Eventually, these factors lead to a point at which it can become difficult to convince adolescents to come on vacations and family vacations come to an end (Carr, 2011; Decrop & Snelders, 2005).

The combination of an adolescent’s developing individual identity, changing family dynamics (including different levels of commitment and salience to identity

roles) and the consumption of the vacation (as a product) to strengthen and reinforce identity, highlights the importance of studying the vacations of families with adolescents. Emanating from these elements (although not in entirety) are vacation motives, and the importance of motives to understanding how and why families make vacation decisions.

2.4. Vacation Motives

To understand how families with adolescents make vacation decisions it is first necessary to explore *why* families travel and *why* they make the choices they do in respect to their vacation. Furthermore, it is important to understand what motivates members of a family to influence other family members. Understanding motives behind travel decisions are important for the tourism industry because it is pivotal to understanding the consumer decision making process and because of the close relationship between motives and satisfaction (Crompton & McKay, 1997). It is by understanding travellers' motives that market segments can be effectively defined and targeted, and appropriate advertising promotional appeals designed (Todd, 2001).

Motivation is defined as a person's need to adopt certain behaviour, or initiate a sequence of events, in order to satisfy a condition (Correia & Pimpão, 2008; Decrop, 2006; Hsu, Cai & Li, 2010; Mowen & Minor, 1998). That is, when a consumer has a need (or motivation) for a product or service, a state of tension exists until that desire can be satisfied (Crompton & McKay, 1997). The need may be utilitarian, with the product required for a practical reason (such as hunger), or it may be hedonic, with the product required as a result of an emotional response or fantasy (Solomon, Dann, Dann & Russell-Bennett, 2007). Tourism and vacations often fill a hedonic requirement (Decrop & Snelders, 2004).

Since the 1970s, tourism motivation has been the subject of a number of studies across a number of disciplinary areas (Harrill & Potts, 2002; Moscardo, Dann & McKercher, 2014). What motivates travellers is a complex area of research, with no one theory fully explaining behaviour (Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994; Gnoth, 1997;

Harrill & Potts, 2002; Jamal & Lee, 2003; Kay, 2009; Kay & Meyer, 2013; Moscardo et al., 2014; Pearce, 1982; Ryan, 1998). A number of frameworks have been developed in an attempt to understand motivation. Three of the more widely used frameworks are Plog's (1974) Travel Personality, Pearce's (1982) Travel Career Ladder (TCL) and the push-pull frameworks that are used in (amongst others) the foundational studies of Dann (1977), Crompton (1979), and (Iso-Ahola, 1982). An overview of each of these frameworks and the main criticisms are shown in Table 2.4.

To overcome some of the shortcomings of each of these motivational framework and in acknowledgement that one framework alone is unlikely to explain motivation (Bakir & Baxter, 2011; Chen, Mak & McKercher, 2011; Harrill & Potts, 2002; Jamal & Lee, 2003), researchers have attempted to combine the frameworks in an attempt to explain vacation motivators. That is, as stated by Chen et al. (2011), by presenting motivation from one perspective, authors have to control for the other perspectives whereas if studies combine the multiple frameworks the interplay of the different paradigms can be examined simultaneously. Examples of studies that have combined frameworks include, Bakir and Baxter (2011) combine the push-pull framework with the TCL. Chen et al. (2011) combine the Travel Personality, TCL and Cohen's (1972) concept of strangeness-familiarity (tourist motivations are presented on a continuum of combinations of strangeness to the destination and familiarity with their own environment) frameworks. Jamal and Lee (2003) created a framework using a macro (social structures) and micro (individual) approach, using elements of the TCL, push-pull and the strangeness-familiarity approaches.

Table 2.4. Overview of widely used Motivational Frameworks

Framework	Description and Premise	Criticisms
Plog (1974, 2001) Travel Personality Framework	<p>Framework examines the link between a tourist's personality traits and the destination's personality.</p> <p><i>Premise:</i> To understand the popularity and lifecycle of a destination the psychology of people who travel needs to be understood.</p>	<p>Has been criticised on methodological grounds (Harrill & Potts, 2002).</p> <p>Emphasis is on how individuals express their personality through travel, but this offers limited explanation as to <i>why</i> people travel (Chen et al., 2011; Moscardo et al., 2014)</p>
Pearce (1993, 2005) Travel Career Ladder (TCL) and Travel Career Pattern (TCP)	<p>The TCL was developed using Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, travellers move up the ladder as they satisfy lower level needs.</p> <p>The TCL has been adapted over time to de-emphasise the hierarchical focus, and renamed the TCP reflecting; motivation follows a pattern rather than steps, and travellers may have more than one motivation and there is often a dominant motivator (Pearce & Lee, 2005)</p> <p><i>Premise:</i> Motives change over time depending on the life stage and previous travel experience.</p>	<p>TCL: Considered simplistic (Ryan, 1998).</p> <p>TCL: The ability of tourism to satisfy lower level needs has been questioned. The satisfaction of lower level needs may drive behaviour while travelling however the satisfaction of those needs is unlikely to be the reason <i>why</i> people travel (Moscardo et al., 2014).</p> <p>Does not explain how motives are interconnected (Bond & Falk, 2013; Cohen, 2010)</p>
Push-Pull Framework. Used in (amongst others) the foundational studies of: Dann (1977), Crompton (1979) and Iso-Ahola (1982)	<p>Examines the internal factors that 'push'(motivate an individual to do something) and the external factors that 'pull' an individual to a destination (Dann, 1977; Decrop, 2006).</p> <p>Using the Push-Pull framework: Dann (1977), focused on anomie and ego enhancement factors affecting tourist motivations. Crompton (1979), identified 9 motivations including seven socio-psychological push motives and two cultural pull motives. Iso-Ahola (1982) proposed that intrinsic factors that provide the best framework and from this developed an optimal arousal model.</p>	<p>The inability of these models to explain changing motivations (Pearce, 1982) and all travel motivations (Chen et al., 2011; Crompton & McKay, 1997).</p> <p>Unable to provide a comprehensive explanation of the role of intrinsic push motivators (Mansfeld, 1992)</p>

While combining frameworks does overcome some of the limitations and criticisms of using an individual framework, this does not overcome the broader criticism that the frameworks do not focus on *why* people travel or make travel decisions. The focus of most of the frameworks discussed above is on *how* travel meets needs rather than *why* people travel. There has been little research examining how people perceive themselves as a tourist, or of the implications of this (Crouch, 2011; Todd, 2001). As argued by Moscardo et al. (2014), people travel because they feel ‘pushed’ to do so. Travel has become ‘the norm’ and an expected part of our lifestyle, as a result, we are ‘pulled’ to destinations that are congruent with our needs and identity. More recently, research has highlighted the importance of identity to travel motivations (Bond & Falk, 2013; Moscardo et al., 2014). That is, researchers have demonstrated that the greater the congruence of a product to an individual’s identity, the greater the motivation to purchase that product. In addition, the greater the salience and commitment to an identity role, the more likely the individual will make behavioural choices that reinforce that role (Stryker & Burke, 2000).

A tourism based framework that attempts to combine identity based motivations is the framework proposed by Bond and Falk (2013). Bond and Falk propose that individuals are comprised of multiple identities and these identities create motives that lead to behaviour. They suggest that tourism motives are strongly influenced (although not always in entirety) by identity and it is the individual’s perception of a destination or experience with that destination and the correlation it has with their identity that allows them to satisfy their needs. They further argue that tourists may have multiple tourism goals that stem from their multi-faceted identities. For example, an individual may be motivated to relax, to visit historic sites, and to undertake sporting activities. Which motive is dominant is dependent upon the salience and commitment of the individual to the identity role they are fulfilling.

The framework developed by Bond and Falk (2013) is depicted in Figure 2.2. Using this model, Bond and Falk propose that tourists are motivated to travel and undertake activities that develop, maintain and moderate or reconstruct their identity(s). Identity development focuses on the individual's motivation to undertake a course of action to enhance their identity. Identity maintenance focuses on an individual performing an activity to reinforce or enhance their identity role. Whereas identity moderation or reconstruction, centres on the emergence of new identity roles. This may result in individuals being motivated to seek out alternative or new experiences, which stem from previous experiences or are due to the individual entering a new life phase.

What is not explored in Bond and Falk's (2013) model is the interaction of each individual's multiple identities in a family context. Bond and Falk identify in their study that family members may have different motivations but do not elaborate further. By using Bond and Falk's model and applying it to families it is probable that for each decision making situation (including both the motivation to travel and all the vacation activities), multiple family members and multiple identities are interacting and at times conflicting. Bond and Falk suggest that when an individual has conflicting individual motives the dominant motive is dependent on the individuals' commitment and salience to an identity role. What is not identified is how, in a family situation, this applies. For example, a family member may have a dominant motive stemming from an identity role, but this motive may not be fulfilled if it is incongruent with the motives of the majority of the family.

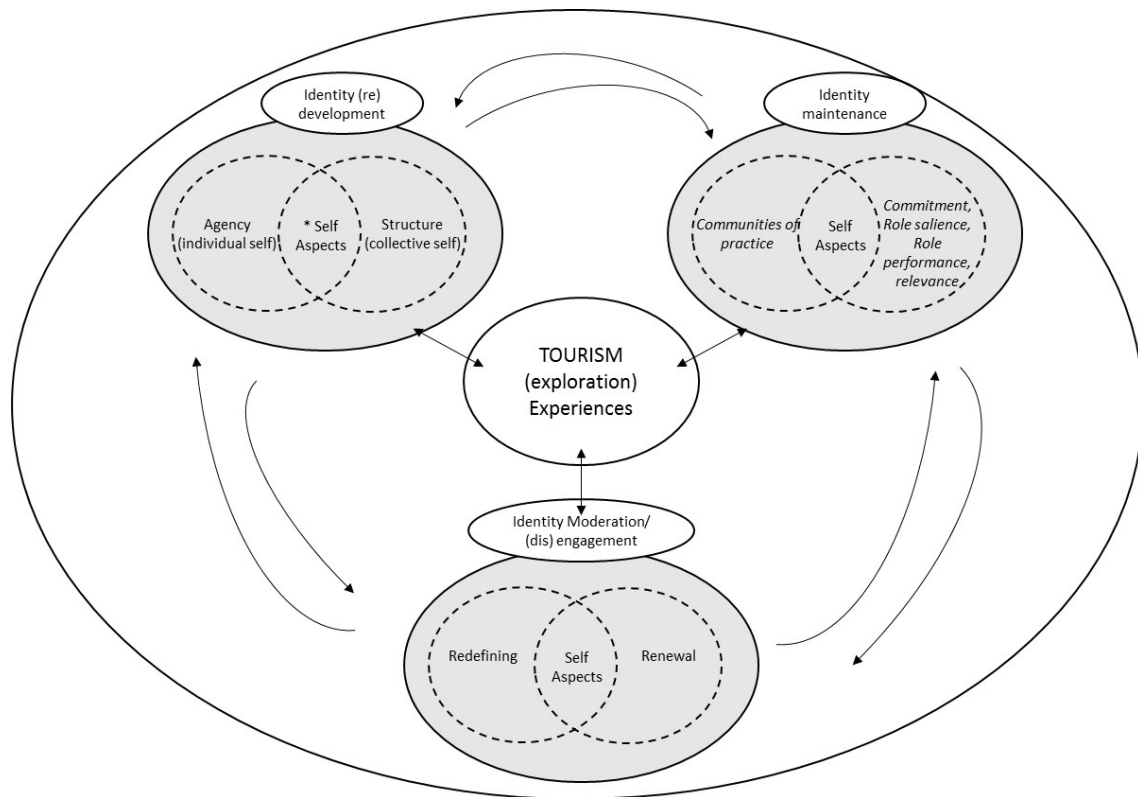


Figure 2.2. Theoretical model of identity-related tourism motivation. Source: Bond and Falk (2013, p. 437)

2.4.1. Commonalities in Motivational Frameworks.

Despite the different approaches and frameworks used to understand motives, what the frameworks do have in common is the identification of a number of similar motivation typologies. These typologies can be divided into two categories: temporal motives and goal orientated motives. Temporal motives include the motive to get away, to escape, to explore self, and to improve self-esteem. The motive to escape or 'get away' has been identified in many of the earlier studies, such as Dann (1977), Crompton (1979), Iso-Ahola (1982), Pearce (1982) Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987), and Fodness (1994). This desire includes both the need to escape the mundane (anomie), as well as the need to seek new experiences and relax. In addition, a number of family based tourism studies identify the need to escape (for example, Decrop (2006), Carr (2006), Obrador (2012)). Decrop further divides the desire to 'get away' into two temporal motives: to escape in time (break from everyday life) and to escape in space. He found that individuals not only need to get away physically but also need to get away from everyday roles and routines, such as not going to work, not cooking and not doing housework (escape in space). In his conceptual paper, Obrador (2012) explored the place of family in tourism research suggesting that the issue of 'escape' can take on different meanings for a family. Discussions on 'family' often centre on the home, whereas a common tourism motive is escaping 'the home'. When families travel they take the 'home' with them in terms of many of the day-to-day roles and rituals. As a result, it is often not easy for family members to escape the daily routines and roles that come with being part of a family while on holiday (Obrador, 2012). Consequently, family vacations often are not an escape from family roles and routines but rather an escape from outside distractions. The existing literature identifies commonalities in goal orientated motives. These motives include: cultural exploration/education, have fun and do exciting things (novelty), to experience new places, socialise with family and friends, and socialise with new people/be around people (Bakir & Baxter, 2011;

Carr, 2006; Crompton, 1979; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Decrop, 2006; Fodness, 1994; Lehto et al., 2012).

2.4.2. Family Vacation Motives

As identified when evaluating Bond and Falk's (2013) identity based motivational framework, family vacation motives have an added complexity when compared with individual vacation motives. This complexity stems from the multiple multi-faceted identities within a family and the collective nature of family vacations. This complexity results in both conflicting motives between family members and motives that are unique to families.

Conflicting motives between family members stem in part from varying individual identity related needs among family members (Bond & Falk, 2013). Despite this, Schänzel (2010a), in her New Zealand based study of families vacations (at least one child aged 7-11 years old), found that existing research tends not to look at different motives between family members. Markedly she found that no studies examine the personal motives of children. This is significant because, as Schänzel (2010a) points out, the motives between adults and children can be quite different. For example, she found that children see having fun as essential to the vacation but only 6% of adults see it as fundamental. A similar conclusion was drawn by Hilbrecht et al. (2008), and Bakir and Baker (2011), who found the primary motive of children is to have fun whereas for parents their primary motives include: to relax, to get away, and to experience new things. Hilbrecht et al. (2008) conducted individual interviews on family members (group interviews were not conducted) with at least one child aged between 10-12 years old. Whereas Bakir and Baxter (2011) used a combination of non-participant observation, and in-situ interviews with families visiting Legoland, with no mention of the ages of the children. These differences in primary motives potentially lead to family conflict, as Larsen (2013) suggests, for children, long periods of relaxation lead to boredom.

Only a small number of studies have included, and acknowledged as distinct, the vacation motives of families with adolescents, as a result the vacation motives of these families are largely unknown. Those studies that have included and acknowledged adolescents demonstrate differences in vacation motives to families with younger children. Carr (2006) found that the primary motives of parents and adolescents are similar on vacation and include relaxing, getting away, being with friends and experiencing new things. Notwithstanding, Carr also found that, on average, adolescents ranked making new friends, shopping and partying as more important to their vacation than did their parents. From these findings, Carr concluded that differences in motives, combined with differences between the generations in their 'ideal' vacation can lead to conflict in families when deciding on the vacation destination. He further states that as parents have the most influence in determining the destination and nature of the vacation, it is 'the adolescents who are likely to have to compromise their holiday expectations the most' (Carr, 2006, p. 138). Hilbrecht et al. (2008) recognised adolescents in their study, although they were not the focus of the study, through their inclusion they concluded that adolescents are less motivated to be engaged in family vacation experiences, but more motivated to be engaged in vacation decision making. These findings suggest that adolescent motives do differ from those of pre-adolescent children, however what is not known is *why* adolescents have different motives (outside of cognitive development), and *how* these motives impact on vacation decisions for families with adolescents.

Notwithstanding that the extant literature identifies discordant motives between generations, family members are also motivated to please others in the family. This motive stems from the love and bonds family members have for each other. For example, Carr (2011), Gram (2007), and Bakir and Baxter (2011) identify both the desire to have a happy family and the parent's desire to have happy children as common vacation motives. Other concordant vacation motives of families include: to create memorable experiences (Haldrup & Larsen, 2003) and improve family functioning,

family communication and family bonding (Epp & Price, 2008; Lehto et al., 2009; Obrador, 2012). Fulfillment of these motives can lead to increased family cohesion (Obrador, 2012). Family cohesion is the level of connectedness between family members or how close they feel to each other (Olson, 1988). Improving family cohesion is an important construct to consider when investigating families with adolescents, as the adolescent years have been identified as the years when family cohesion is at its lowest (Olson, 1988). From these findings the questions still remain, how do families make vacation decisions when families are comprised of multiple members with multiple individual identities?

In a family environment, individual motives are not always directly fulfilled due to other family members having disparate motives or that family member not having the authority to make a decision independently. In these situations, family members may use influence strategies to leverage decision outcomes.

2.5. Influence and Influence Strategies

Influence is defined as the ability of one family member, through their actions, to alter or sway the behaviour of other family members, in order to change decision making outcomes (Beatty & Talpade, 1994; Lee & Beatty, 2002; Wang, Holloway, Beatty & Hill, 2007). Influence in family decision making is relative to the influence of other family members (Beatty & Talpade, 1994). Influence can be direct, when a family member actively attempts to influence the decision making process through the use of influence strategies, or indirect when a family member's perception of another family member's preferences influences decision making (Nadeau & Bradley, 2012; Williams & Burns, 2000). Influence and influence strategies are a complex area in family decision making. To unpack this complexity, this section (Section 2.5) will examine influence strategies and the following section (Section 2.6) will focus on how family decisions are made.

As discussed in Section 2.2 changes in family structures and changing parenting styles over recent years have led to children being a more active participant in family decision making (Belch & Willis, 2002; Therkelsen, 2010; Yeoman et al., 2012). This involvement also means that family decision making is seldom the result of one person acting alone (Therkelsen, 2010) (discussed further in Section 2.6). Parental communication patterns have traditionally been identified in the literature as important when exploring the use of influence strategies and the level of influence children have in family decision making (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003; Moschis, 1985; Therkelsen, 2010). Parental communication patterns can be seen as operating on a scale, with socio-orientated communication patterns (deference to parents, social conformity) at one end and concept-orientated communication patterns (development of child consumer skills, children's opinions valued and discussion of consumption issues) at the other (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003; Moschis, 1985). Recent research suggests the use of parental communication patterns to determine influence is diminishing, as a result of socio-orientated communication pattern's being less prevalent in family communication and concept-orientated communication patterns growing in importance (Therkelsen, 2010). This is also reflected through children increasingly being identified as active participants in consumption decisions (Therkelsen, 2010; Yeoman et al., 2012).

The prevalence of concept-orientated communication patterns and the increasing involvement of children in family decision making has resulted in family members using influence strategies to affect family decisions. Influence strategies in families include individuals or family relationship groups (such as the parents), influencing other family members (Cotte & Wood, 2004; Epp & Price, 2008). With the extent of influence family members have over each other varying between families and family members (Blichfeldt et al., 2010; Tinson & Nancarrow, 2005). Non-tourism based studies that have specifically examined adolescent influence have found that adolescents use influence strategies in seemingly rational and flexible ways to suit the situation (John, 1999) and the successful use of influence strategies leads the adolescent

to feel more empowered in family decision making (Palan & Wilkes, 1997). Moreover, as children grow into adolescents, the number of influence attempts they make decreases but their success rate increases as they learn which attempts will not be successful and which influence strategies are likely to work (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003).

Lee and Collins (2000), examined the use of influence strategies in families with adolescents and developed a framework of five strategies from an extensive literature review (that included, Davis (1976), Jaffe (1992), Sheth (1974), Spiro (1983)). The five influence strategies are: Experience, legitimate, emotion, bargaining and coalition. With the exception of legitimate these strategies reflect the concept-orientated parenting communication style (Therkelsen, 2010) discussed above. Although the framework developed by Lee and Collins (2000) was from an extensive literature review, there are a number of limitations in the approach used to test this framework. The framework was tested on 89 two parent families with two adolescents aged between 12 and 19 years old, who were observed in a simulated decision making process. Observation has been identified in the literature as not being able to capture the complexity and subtlety of influence, such as the emotions and strategies that are enacted within a family through non-verbal cues, such as 'a look' (Tinson & Nancarrow, 2005). Moreover, the decision making situation evaluated by Lee and Collins was not 'real' and therefore may not reflect a family's 'true' approach to decision making and influence. Nevertheless, despite the limitations of Lee and Collins (2000) approach, the framework is a useful platform to review the extant influence strategy literature. Using the framework developed by Lee and Collins, each strategy is discussed and evaluated below.

Experience is where an individual uses their own experience/knowledge as a source of information to influence a decision (Lee & Collins, 2000). That is, in the role of expert, a family member can 'prove' why one alternative is better than another (Davis, 1976). Experience in a tourism setting may stem from factors such as an

individual's prior knowledge of a specific destination or, more simply, knowledge from previous vacations in general. Experience can include problem solving strategies, such as conflict resolution (Lee & Collins, 2000; Sheth, 1974). This influence strategy is important in a family situation. Experience in a vacation situation could come from, in addition to knowledge of the destination, websites, brochures and the experiences of friends, all tools available to all family members to enable them to gain experience to use in a decision making situation.

Legitimate has many similarities with experience and is when an individual emphasises a role stereotype in order to influence a decision (Lee & Collins, 2000). Legitimate is a common influence strategy used by parents (Therkelsen, 2010). For example, a mother may point out that if she cooks the food she should dominate the food purchase decision making. This influence strategy involves a controller or specialist taking charge. For parents, this may be as educators in their child's development (Lee & Collins, 2000; Therkelsen, 2010). Alternatively, the parent may be the controller as they control the budget for the purchase. While this influence strategy may reduce conflict in decision making through a family member using their legitimate power to make the decision on behalf of the family, it can also reduce the quality of the decision as the experience of other family members is not taken into consideration (Davis, 1976). This is the only strategy identified by Lee and Collins that is placed with the socio-orientated parenting communication style (Therkelsen, 2010), and therefore is less likely to be used by the adolescents in a decision making situation.

Coalition involves two or more family members joining forces to influence a decision and therefore is the only strategy that is not an individual strategy (Davis, 1976; Lee & Collins, 2000). This may be a child acting in coalition with a sibling or parent to influence other family members. Family relationships and the situational context are important in this influence strategy as they will affect who the individual forms a coalition with (Nadeau & Bradley, 2012). Moreover, while coalition involves joining

forces with others in the family, it also involves isolating the group member(s) with whom they disagree (Sheth, 1974; Therkelsen, 2010). Coalition formation was found by Tinson and Nuttall (2014) to be an important influence strategy used by adolescents in social situations, where they were found to form coalitions both with those within (inter) and outside (intra) the adolescent's social group.

Emotion is when a family member tries to influence a decision through emotional means such as, crying, pouting and nagging. While there is interaction in this influence strategy, there is no attempt to seek more information (Lee & Collins, 2000; Sheth, 1974). The most extreme form of an emotion/persuasion strategy is coercion, which leads to an unwilling agreement (Davis, 1976). Capitulation (giving in to the other party) is a likely outcome of an emotional strategy and is often the result of family conflict (Lee & Collins, 2000; Qualls & Jaffe, 1992). Children are more likely to practice emotion/persuasion as an influence strategy (Therkelsen, 2010); in marketing, this is often referred to as 'pester power'. Pester power involves the child repeatedly requesting something (not necessarily arguing) and is the most direct form of influence (Gram, 2007). Adolescents are less likely to pester than younger children (Lawlor & Prothero, 2011), instead they may 'persuade' their family to influence decision making. Palan and Wilks (1997), who interviewed family members separately and included adolescents aged 12-15, identified 'persuading' as a common adolescent influence strategy. Persuading, includes 'opinionates' (the expression of likes and dislikes), persistence, begging and whining, telling parents 'everyone else has it', and manipulation (Palan & Wilkes, 1997). Persuading can therefore be seen as a combination of emotion and bargaining.

Bargaining is when a family member gives in on one occasion in order to achieve their outcome in another decision (Lee & Collins, 2000). This is often referred to as a tradeoff or deal. Bargaining and emotion/persuasion are similar strategies. The difference between them is that persuasion typically results in the other family members

being ‘forced’ into a decision outcome they would not ordinarily make, whereas bargaining results in a willing agreement with all participants in the decision gaining something in the outcome (Davis, 1976). That is, bargaining results in a sense of distributive justice or fairness (Sheth, 1974; Therkelsen, 2010). Qualls and Jaffe (1992) found that the more important the decision to the household, the more likely bargaining will be used as an influence strategy.

Bargaining is a strategy used by adolescents (Shoham & Dalakas, 2003) and a likely strategy on vacation where many decisions are group decisions. Similar to bargaining, but not identified by Lee and Collins is negotiation as an influence strategy. Shoham and Dalakas (2006) and Lawlor and Prothero (2011) both identify negotiation as an influence strategy used in families, however Shoham and Dakas refer to it as an adolescent influence strategy and Lawlor and Prothero refer to it as a parent influence strategy. . The difference in who uses this strategy, while not explored in the extant literature, is likely to stem from the studies participants, Shoham and Dakas surveyed parents of adolescents (aged 10-18) while Lawlor and Prothero interviewed 7-9 year olds, and reflects adolescents’ greater consumer skills and cognitive ability (when compared to a young children) that enables them to use a more complex ‘adult’ strategy.

Negotiation as an influence strategy appears more complex than ‘just asking’ (e.g. Williams and Burns (2000)), as it involves creating an argument. It therefore appears to be closely related to ‘experience’ (identified by Lee and Collins (2000)). That is, to create an argument, an individual needs to have experience/knowledge of that product/situation. Finally, while elements of the persuasion influence strategy, identified by Palan and Wilkes (1997), are similar to negotiation, persuasion also includes non-rational elements, such as begging and whining are not present in negotiation.

It is clear that extant research has identified a number of influence strategies that are used in families, and specifically in families with adolescents. What is less clear from these studies is *when* family members choose to attempt to influence decision making, and *why* they influence some decision making situations and not others. Therkelsen (2010) recognised that the extant studies, including Lee and Collins' (2000), did not take into account the relationship between family roles and influence strategies, or the context within which the influence strategies are being used. That is, a family member may choose to use an influence strategy that is in direct response to another family member's strategy. For example, one family member may use the same influence strategy as another family member, or the family member adjusts their influence strategy in anticipation of another family member's response (Fikry & Jamil, 2010; Nanda et al., 2007). To address these limitations, Therkelsen (2010) developed an influence strategy framework that takes family roles into account based on data collected through 26 interviews of families with children aged between 0-11 years. Therkelsen proposes that family roles affect which influence strategy is used and by who it is used, and the decision making process affects the roles that family members perform. Through this, Therkelsen found that influence strategies become more complex and advanced as children get older. However, as she did not include adolescents in her study, it can only be supposed that this complexity increases through adolescents. Moreover, she did not examine when family members may not influence decision making, or the effect of unsuccessful influence on both the decision making process or the evaluation of the decision and/or the vacation.

Unsuccessful or partially successful influence strategies are important to investigate as they may lead to conflict or compromise in a family situation, they also may result in dissonance for the affected party, or if family members cannot agree on a decision, it may mean that no decision is made (Davis, 1976; Sheth, 1974). This impact is important to explore in this study as families with adolescents are characterised by low family cohesion (see Section 2.2) and vacation decisions are, in the most part, likely

to affect all family members, therefore unsuccessful or partially successful influence strategies may have a negative effect on the evaluation of the vacation.

When, why and how family members use influence strategies is important in vacation decision making. Family vacation decisions are rarely individual decisions, children have an active role in family decision making and family members often have different vacation motives. The combination of these factors means influence and influence strategies are both central to understanding how families with adolescents make vacation decisions.

2.6. Decision Making – Family Vacations

Family vacations involve a complex decision making process that stems from both the complexity of the vacation as a product and the number of participants involved in the decision making process (Dellaert et al., 1998; Kang & Hsu, 2005; Lovelock et al., 2011; Martin & Woodside, 2012). Vacations are complex because they are comprised of a number of interrelated decisions that are made before, during and beyond the holiday (Smallman & Moore, 2010). Added to this is the complexity of decision making as a family. Family members have different identities, motives, levels of influence over other family members (due to amongst other things economic power), and play a variety of roles in the decision making process (Kang & Hsu, 2004; Lackman & Lanasa, 1993). As a result, family vacation decision making encompasses multiple decisions that rarely stem from individual choice but instead represent outcomes affected by multiple perspectives (Lackman & Lanasa, 1993; Martin & Woodside, 2012)

Family vacation decision making comes under the broader heading of consumer behaviour. Consumer behaviour is the way consumers obtain and organise information in order to make a purchase decision (Moutinho, 1987). Family consumer behaviour studies are not new, they have been around in various forms since the 1970s and have

received considerable attention in the marketing and consumer behaviour literature (Bronner, 2006; Correia & Pimpão, 2008; So & Lehto, 2007; Wang, Hsieh, Yeh & Tsai, 2004). When family consumer behaviour studies first appeared, the main interest was in who made the decision (Bronner, 2006). This of course does not take into account the complexity of the decision making process. That is, it is more important to understand *how* the decision was made rather than just exploring *who* made the decision and the outcomes of that decision (Davis, 1976). Shifting the focus from *who* to *how* recognises that: 1) consumers do not always act rationally and follow a rational decision making process (Bettman, Luce & Payne, 1998); 2) consumer decision making often requires a tradeoff (Crouch et al., 2007); and 3) that motives, external stimuli and satisfaction have an effect on the decision making process (Correia & Pimpão, 2008).

There have been a number of consumer behaviour studies investigating the adolescent's role and involvement in family decision making. Although a large proportion of these studies have not specifically focused on the tourism industry, they have found that adolescents are involved in making decisions about items that involve them, such as their clothes, electronics and food. In all of these studies, vacations rate highly as an area in which adolescents attempt to influence and are involved in family decision making (for example, Beatty and Talpade (1994), Belch et al. (1985), Shoham and Dalakas (2003) and Swinyard and Sim (1987)).

In terms of tourism based decision making studies, a large proportion of existing studies have examined individual decision making (for example, Bargemen and van der Poel (2006), Blichfeldt, Perdersen, Johansen and Hansen (2010), Correia and Crouch (2004), Correia and Pimpão (2008), and Woodside, Macdonald and Burford (2004)). Of the studies that have examined families, a large proportion of these have been concerned with the husband/wife dyadic (for example, Bronner and de Hoog (2007), Jenkins (1978), Nichols and Snepenger (1988) Wang et al., (2004), and Zalatan (1998)). The role of children in these studies is either ignored or examined from the parents' perspective. This can be seen in the study by Jenkins (1978), who is accredited with

developing the original tourism family decision making study. Jenkins interviewed husband-wife groups to understand how they made vacation decisions. One of his major findings was that parents perceive their children as influencing vacation decision making. He found that this influence varied from very little (such as choosing the mode of transport, the amount of money to spend and the information collection process), to a much higher influence (such as determining family activities, the destination, the timing of the holiday and whether the family had a holiday at all).

To understand the complexity of how families make vacation decisions it is important to include children in the research process. It is only by including children and understanding each family member's perspective of their role in the decision making process that family decision making can be fully understood (Gram, 2007; Lee & Beatty, 2002; Tinson & Nancarrow, 2005). Both Gram and Lee and Beatty found that influence levels cited by family members differed when surveying family members separately and together. They conclude that the differences lie in the perception of family members over their ability to influence and their role in the decision making process. That is, in the most part, individually family members attribute a higher level of influence in family decision making to themselves. For this reason, they conclude it is important to include all family members in the research process to develop a group perspective of influence. Yet, of the tourism studies that have included children, very few have specifically examined adolescents.

The lack of empirical tourism studies including families with adolescents is an oversight as evidenced by the studies of Seaton and Tagg (1995) and Carr (2006). Seaton and Tagg (1995) surveyed European adolescents and one of their parents. They found in their study that adolescents are involved in vacation decision making and are more likely to be satisfied with the vacation when involved. This study focused on the destination decision and satisfaction with the vacation as a result of involvement in this decision. Seaton and Tagg did not study the many decisions that are made throughout

the vacation, for example pre vacation decisions, not related to the destination, or *how* families made vacation decisions. Carr (2006) surveyed Australian adolescents and one parent. The focus of Carr's study was on vacation motives and perception of influence but he did not ask about *how* vacation decisions are made. He concluded that there is a need for more research that both includes the views of all family members and that specifically examines the vacation for families with adolescents.

The underrepresentation of families with adolescents in the research process means in the extant literature there are limited insights into *how* families with adolescents make vacation decisions. As some research (Nadeau & Bradley, 2012) indicates the level of influence family members have over their family is dependent upon their age and affective state, and that children are becoming more successful at influencing family decisions as they become older (Belch, Krentler & Willis-Flurry, 2005; John, 1999), this 'gap' needs to be addressed.

Resource theory and relative investment theory can help explain influence in a family situation (Beatty & Talpade, 1994; Davis, 1976). Resource theory, as described by Beatty and Talpade (1994), states that family members evaluate their resources in relation to other family members and from this they ascertain their power in the family based on the perceived value of these resources. Relative investment theory states that whether a family member is likely to influence a decision and their subsequent level of involvement in that decision is determined (in part) by how affected they are by the outcomes of that decision (Davis, 1976). Using these theories, Beatty and Talpade (1994) examined two adolescent resources – financial and product knowledge – in conjunction with two motivational variables – product importance and usage – across a number of product categories. They found that adolescents' motivational aspects, derived from relative investment theory, provided the strongest indicator of adolescent perceived influence in family decision making. It is unknown if these findings apply to vacations as vacations were not included as a product category in this study. However,

family vacations are collective experiences and therefore vacation decisions affect all family members. This means that relative investment is likely to be high for all family members. However, given the cost and complexity of vacations as a product, it is likely that adolescent resources may be low when compared with their parents.

These findings together with the limited extant literature examining vacations for families with adolescents highlight the need to explore the vacation needs and decision making process of this market segment as distinct from other travelling families. To understand family vacation decision making, the roles of family members and the decision making process of the vacation need to be explored.

2.6.1. Decision Making Roles

The decision making process (both for individuals and families) is commonly depicted as individuals/family members fulfilling a number of decision making roles across a number of decision making stages. Decision making roles are distinct from the identity roles family members fulfill (as discussed in Section 2.3). However, there are similarities in their characteristics. Decision making roles like identity roles are situational, dependent on the roles played by others and may change at different stages in the decision making process (Nanda et al., 2007). Decision making roles are rarely characterised by one person acting and deciding on their own. Instead, they are decision dependent and represent several people deciding together (Seaton & Tagg, 1995; Therkelsen, 2010; Wang et al., 2004). For families with children, the decision making roles children fulfil may be a result of the way their parents perceive them (Therkelsen, 2010).

Decision making roles are classified in the literature into a number of groups, and while they can vary between studies, they commonly include the following roles: initiator, gatekeeper, influencer, information gatherer, decision maker, purchaser and user (Lawson, Tidwell, Rainbird, Loudon & Bitta, 1996; Nanda et al., 2007). The

initiator is the person(s) who recognises that there is a need for a product or service. The gatekeeper controls the access of other family members to information and therefore is typically the most influential in the decision making process. The influencer is the person who persuades others to purchase. The information gatherer will obtain the information necessary to be able to make a decision. The decision maker has the authority to make the decision to purchase. The purchaser physically purchases the product and, finally, the user is the person who consumes the product (Lawson et al., 1996; Nanda et al., 2007; Solomon et al., 2007).

A number of tourism studies have attempted to classify the decision making roles of family members, their findings have both commonalities and differences, reflecting the change in traditional family roles over time. For example, early family tourism studies such as Jenkins (1978) suggest that the husband dominates the information gathering, whereas more recent studies attribute this role (for example, Fodness (1992), Mottiar & Quinn (2004), Therkelsen (2010), Wang et al., (2004) and Zalatan (1998)) and the role of initiator (for example, Mottiar & Quinn (2004) and Therkelsen (2010)) to the mother. Moreover current studies, again reflecting the more democratic decision making in families in recent times (see Section 2.2) present the mother as fulfilling other decision making roles, such as the role of gatekeeper and purchaser (Mottiar & Quinn, 2004). Not all decision making roles are fulfilled by individuals; the parents, in particular, were found to fulfil joint roles and make joint decisions (Fodness, 1992; Mottiar & Quinn, 2004; Wang et al., 2007), particularly in the planning stage (Nichols & Snepenger, 1988; van Raaij & Francken, 1984). This contrasts with the findings of Fodness (1992), which indicated that wives are more likely to make individual decisions within families, as well as the findings of Filiatrault and Ritchie (1980), which suggested that husbands with children dominate decision making and that joint decisions are more common when there are no children.

2.6.2. Decision Making Process

Each decision making role exists at different stages in the decision making process. A number of integrative decision making models proposed in the literature attempt to understand the process consumers go through in making a decision. Decision making process models 'describe how information is acquired and related in order to make a decision' (Moutinho, 1987, p. 27).

The original decision making models developed to depict the decision making process examined a wide range of consumer goods and services, and were not specifically developed for the tourism decision making process. This creates limitations when applying them to tourism studies due to the tangible nature of most products and the largely intangible nature of tourism services (Smallman & Moore, 2010). As a result, there have been a number of attempts to adapt these frameworks and apply them to vacation decision making (for example Decrop (2006), Decrop and Snelders (2004), Moutinho (1987), Smallman and Moore (2010), and van Raaij and Francken (1984)).

Both the earlier and some of the more recent tourism decision making studies have focused on a 'causal' approach to decision making by examining independent variables and explaining tourists' mostly rational choices. The 'grand' theories of consumer behaviour ground these frameworks (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Smallman & Moore, 2010). These cognitively based studies depict decision making as a series of 'sequential' steps or stages. In both the tourism and non-tourism literature there are many variations to, and little consensus between, studies as to the number of stages a consumer goes through before making a final decision (Levy & Lee, 2004). Typically, these models vary from three to five stages (Correia & Pimpão, 2008), namely problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and post-purchase evaluation (Assael, 1987; Decrop, 2010; Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 1986).

These models, however, have limitations when applied to family vacations as they assume a linear decision making process. They do not take into account that each stage may be repeated a number of times both before and throughout the vacation, they assume that all decisions are rational and lead to behaviour (Decrop, 2006; Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999; Therkelsen, 2010) and they treat the evaluation of the vacation as a single evaluation without recognition of the evaluation of the many vacation decisions made throughout the vacation.

To overcome some of the limitations of these frameworks which were originally developed for non-tourism based products, other researchers have developed models specifically for vacations. For example, Moutinho (1987) developed a comprehensive and complex model that examines tourism decision making using three parts: pre-decision and decision process, post-purchase evaluation, and future decision making. The pre-decision and decision process stage covers the events until the destination decision is made and includes the elements that affect the preference for a destination it is through this evaluation that an evoked choice set of destinations is developed. According to the model, a decision is then made and the vacation purchased from this set based on factors including awareness of the destination, promotional information and previous experiences. This then leads to the post-purchase evaluation stage, during which the traveller assesses whether the vacation met their expectations and therefore whether they are satisfied or dissatisfied with the vacation. It is this evaluation, according to Moutinho, that will then affect future vacation decision making.

The use of an evoked set, also known as a choice set or consideration set (as used by Moutinho), has been the basis of a number of other tourism studies. It was first applied to tourism by Crompton (1977) and was based on the work of Nicosia (1966), Howard (1963), and Howard and Sheth (1969) (Crompton, 1992). This approach still uses sequential steps, as in other decision making models, but the focus is on the evaluation of alternatives from consideration sets (Decrop & Snelders, 2004). Although

there are variations in the studies using this framework, they follow a similar approach. The first step is pre-decision making and involves consideration of all the locations that are potential destinations (Crompton, 1992). Woodside and Lyonski (1989) identify that not every destination is considered as some are excluded because the traveler is unaware of them. The second step commences with the decision to have a vacation. At this point a further search is undertaken to reduce the consideration set to a small number of alternatives. The final stage involves a more thorough search to determine the destination (Crompton, 1992). Throughout this process, attitudes and brand awareness are influential in determining if a destination is included in the evoked set (Um & Crompton, 1990). Decrop (2010) further develops the framework to include a dream set (destinations that are considered ideal but are permanently unavailable) for consideration. A criticism of this approach is that the literature does not explain how consumers form a consideration set (Decrop, 2010). Moreover, as with process models evoked set models assume decisions are rational (or bounded in rationality), intentions lead to behaviour and for the most part only focus on the destination decision with little consideration to the often impulsive decision making that happens during the vacation (Decrop, 2006; Kang & Hsu, 2004; Moore, Smallman, Wilson & Simmons, 2012; Smallman & Moore, 2010).

A further limitation of decision making models when applied to family vacations is the individualistic focus of these models. Family vacation decision making, by definition, is not an individualistic process although the level of family member involvement varies at different stages in the decision making process and between families (Davis, 1976). Family vacation decision making differs from other day-to-day family decision making because the decision outcomes affect the entire group. For example, in day-to-day family life, family members make many individual decisions that affect only themselves, such as a parent deciding what to buy and eat for lunch (Sheth, 1974). On vacation, however, there are fewer individual decisions due to the family spending large amounts of time together.

To overcome the limitations caused by the individualistic focus and linear process of other decision making models, Decrop and Kozak (2014) created a model that added both a vertical and transversal axis to their framework (see Figure 2.3). Decrop and Kozak claim this is a more realistic decision making framework as, in addition to the horizontal decision making process perspective, the vertical perspective demonstrates how decisions are made at multiple levels and the transversal perspective demonstrates that decision making is often made by groups. The vertical perspective of the model proposes that decisions can range from generic to specific. That is, there is the generic decision between non-comparable alternatives (for example the decision to purchase a vacation or a car) and the specific decision between comparable alternatives, such as the choice between hotels based on their attributes. Decrop and Kozak propose that this axis is important as some decisions are applicable to any product alternative, whereas others are only applicable to one alternative. The third axis is the transversal axis, added to demonstrate that decision making may be made by individuals, groups (non-family) or households (family). The advantage of this model is it encompasses complexity in decision making. However, the model still focuses on a single decision. That is, it does not consider that many vacation decisions are made simultaneously and/or are reliant on other independently made vacation decisions, such as how the evaluation of each decision will affect how future decisions are made. Moreover, it still assumes that decisions are rationale and does not take into consideration the impulsiveness that characterises many decisions that are made on vacation.

While the approach of Decrop and Kozak (2014) does overcome some of the limitations of earlier vacation decision making models, as mentioned, limitations remain. It is the result of the limitations of process decision making models that have led researchers to question whether an ordered and structured framework in any form reflects reality (Therkelsen, 2010). Instead, these researchers propose that vacation decision making is best viewed as ongoing, and is based on the premise that vacation decision making is not just about solving problems but also about creating enjoyable

experiences, feelings and emotions (Decrop, 2006; Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Smallman & Moore, 2010; Woodside et al., 2004). By viewing decision making as ongoing, the many decisions that are made before, during and after the vacation both planned and spontaneous are considered (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Moore et al., 2012; Therkelsen, 2010). However, as noted by Smallman and Moore (2010), a balance is needed between understanding the process and the components of the process while allowing for the context in which decisions are made. A benefit of using any of the aforementioned decision making frameworks is the ability to review and connect the major decision making components of what are sometimes quite different purchases. Therefore, to overcome some of the limitations of a structured model, while at the same time ensuring the process is understood. Vacation decision making, consistent with current research (e.g. Smallman and Moore (2010) & Therkelsen (2010)) will be viewed as an ongoing family process, this allows for irrational, unsuccessful influence attempts, spontaneous and interrelated decisions to be considered, while at the same time recognising that decision making follows a process and family members hold decision making roles.

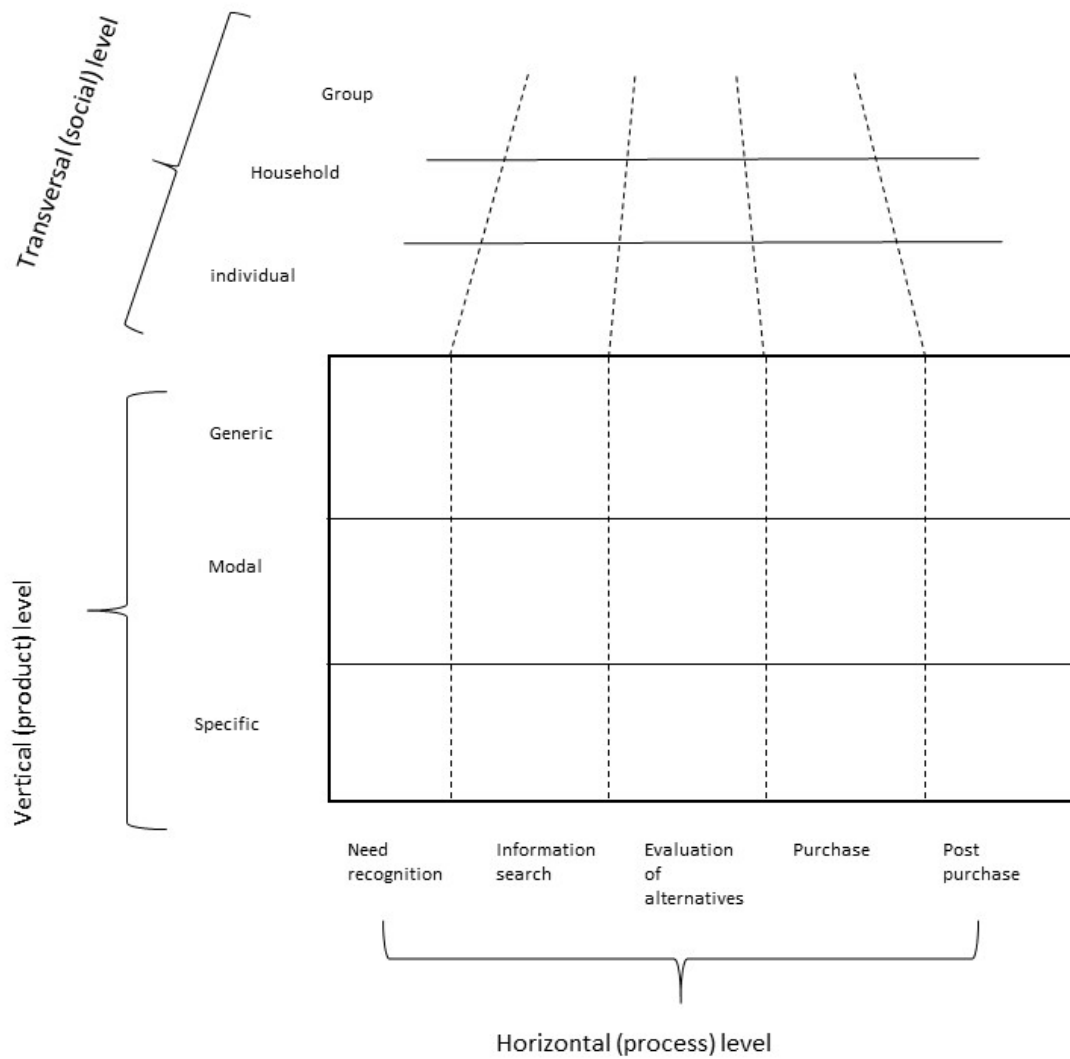


Figure 2.3. *Decision Levels in Consumer Decision Making.* Source: Decrop and Kozak (2014, p. 74)

2.7. Vacation Phases

Most decision making models and approaches used to understand tourism decision making focus on the destination decision. Yet, vacation decisions are made throughout the vacation (Blichfeldt, 2008). To explore how families with adolescents make vacation decisions, what motivates them, and how they evaluate the outcomes of those decisions, this study has divided the family vacation into three vacation phases. The three phases are the pre-vacation phase, the during vacation phase and the post-vacation phase. Each vacation phase represents a unique time period (see Figure 2.4). By dividing the study into three phases different family vacations for different families with adolescents can be explored and compared. The following sections review each phase and the literature relevant to that phase.

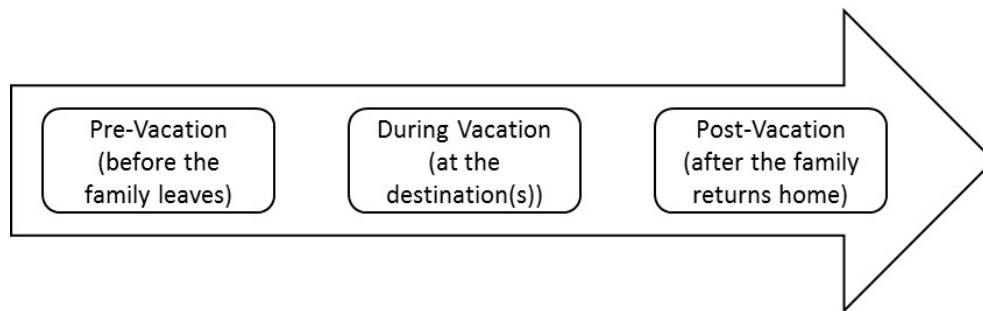


Figure 2.4. Family Vacation Phases

2.7.1. Pre-vacation Phase

The pre-vacation phase covers all aspects of vacation decision making that occur before the family leaves their home for the destination(s). The pre-vacation phase involves many complex decisions that take time and energy (Crouch & Louviere, 2004). Vacation planning starts with the intention to have a vacation as opposed to the family spending their time and money on other products or on nothing at all (Assael, 1987; Decrop & Snelders, 2004; van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Woodside & King, 2001). When the decision is made to have a vacation, the pre-vacation phase can vary in

complexity from simple to complex problem solving (van Raaij & Francken, 1984). Simple, or low involvement problem solving, occurs in routine, habitual or spontaneous vacations. At the other end of the spectrum, a ‘once in a life time’ family vacation may require high involvement, complex decision making and take place over an extended period of time. In these instances families may even consider more than one vacation plan at the same time (Decrop & Snelders, 2004). As discussed in Section 2.4, for many Western societies vacations are considered the norm and therefore the typical family vacation is placed somewhere between the ‘everyday’ and the once in a lifetime vacation. As a result it can be construed that vacation decision making has aspects of low and high involvement decision making.

The decision making process in the pre-vacation phase is influenced by internal and external variables that create a perception of a destination and preference for a destination (Correia & Crouch, 2004; Correia & Pimpão, 2008; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). These perceptions and preferences serve to build up the motivation to travel to a destination and to influence the decision making process. Focusing on only the destination decision simplifies the complexity of the decision making process in pre-vacation planning (Jeng & Fesenmaier, 2002). In this phase of the vacation, in addition to the destination decision, many other decisions such as, the type of vacation, duration, accommodation, transport and budget are made (Correia & Crouch, 2004; Correia & Pimpão, 2008; van Raaij & Francken, 1984). Pre-vacation decisions both constrain and channel decisions that are made during the vacation and affect the post-vacation outcomes (Moore et al., 2012). In addition, once the vacation is booked, planning does not stop until the family is at the destination. Travellers often continue to seek out information both to reduce cognitive dissonance and in order to daydream in anticipation of the vacation (Decrop & Snelders, 2004).

2.7.2. During Vacation Phase

The during vacation phase commences when the family leaves home and finishes when they return. It is this phase that sets tourism decision making apart from decision making for most other products. Many vacation decisions are not preplanned or even thought of before the vacation (Woodside & King, 2001). Examples of during vacation decisions include those that relate to meals, souvenirs and activities. Despite the importance of these during vacation decisions, they are not a focus for most tourism studies (Blichfeldt, 2008). It is as a result of only focusing on the pre-vacation planning phase that many studies argue that parents are the main decision makers in family vacation decisions. This is misleading as the literature that does investigate during vacation decision making demonstrates that it is in this phase that children dominate family decision making (Decrop, 2005).

Activities and attractions are a major part of during vacation decision making. Studies that have examined during vacation decisions have found, amongst other things, that children are often the reason parents visit attractions (such as theme parks) and undertake many specific activities (Therkelsen, 2010). This idea of parental sacrifice was discussed by Johns and Gyimóthy (2003) who interviewed families visiting Legoland in Denmark and found that parents may see visiting attractions and the cost of those attractions as a 'sacrifice' they make as 'good' parents. The age and number of child(ren) can affect the activities that the family may be interested in, and the more popular the activity to family members, the more the inclination for all of the family to participate in the activity (Lehto et al., 2012). However, existing findings suggest that family members often have preferences for different activities while on vacation. For example, Therkelsen (2010) found that fathers prefer physical activities and mothers prefer 'wellness' activities (sunbathing, body maintenance), mental activities (reading) and shopping. Schänzel (2010a) and Johns and Gyimóthy (2003) found that children have a preference for 'having fun', while Hilbrecht et al. (2008) suggest that children

are less concerned with the destination choice and more concerned with whether there is an activity they enjoy and in which the family could participate together. Moreover, the findings of a number of studies such as Johns and Gyimóthy (2003), Nickerson and Jurowski (2001) and Rhoden, Hunter-Jones and Miller (2016) all found that children prefer active rather than passive activities while on vacation.

Although the findings of extant studies appear to highlight the potential for conflict on vacation and different vacation preferences can lead to conflict on the vacation and test the quality of family relationships (van Raaij & Francken, 1984). Vacation activities can be a valuable contributor to family bonding, with parents citing relaxing and being together as a family as important during the vacation (Lehto et al., 2009). Moreover, Gram (2005) notes that children's view of 'togetherness' does not involve the entire family participating in the same activity rather that they are together. Rhoden et al. (2016) suggest that togetherness from the child's perspective does not mean that the family physically has to even be in the same place only that they are on vacation together. It is a result of this sense of togetherness that communication within the family often increases during the vacation. Decisions become more democratic as children's requests and desires are taken into account with parents often sacrificing the realisation of their own desires and interests for those of their children (Decrop, 2005; Lehto et al., 2009).

A number of more recent studies have identified the importance of 'own time' to families on vacation. That is, while families value time together on a vacation, they also value time apart (Fountain et al., 2015; Mikkelsen & Blichfeldt, 2015; Schänzel & Smith, 2014). The importance of 'own time' stems from the often conflicting motives of parents (relaxing) and children (having fun). As suggested by Mikkelsen and Blichfeldt (2015, p. 260), too much family togetherness neither 'satisfies the needs of the parents nor the children'. The need for 'own time' and conflicting family motives, makes activities in which parents can watch their children having fun while having time

to themselves important to a successful family vacation (Fountain et al., 2015). In a similar way, Mikkelsen and Blichfeldt (2015) suggest that parents see it as important to have 'spouse time' and separate time with one or more children.

2.7.3. Post-Vacation Phase

The final vacation phase is post-vacation. This phase commences when the family returns from their vacation. The post-vacation phase can overlap with the pre-vacation phase as families sometimes start planning their next vacation at the end of the previous vacation (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Therkelsen, 2010). This phase further ties into the pre-vacation phase as it is in the post-vacation phase that the family evaluates the success, satisfaction and benefits gained from the vacation, which are largely based on the original motives and benefits sought for the vacation (Correia & Pimpão, 2008; Kay & Meyer, 2013; Stimson, Daly, Jenkins, Roberts & Ross, 1996). The post-vacation phase is also important in estimating the probability of revisiting the destination or the intention to recommend visiting the destination to others (Correia & Pimpão, 2008). The unique nature of vacations means that despite satisfaction with the vacation destination, travellers often do not revisit the same destination because of their desire to experience somewhere new (Correia & Crouch, 2004).

Families, like all travellers, evaluate the success of the vacation. However, families differ in their evaluation processing when compared with individual travellers as it is unlikely that all family members experience the same level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the vacation (Decrop, 2006). When family members experience dissatisfaction with the vacation they often search for supportive evidence that the right or wrong choice has been made in the post-vacation phase (Decrop & Snelders, 2004). This evaluation takes into account other family members' levels of satisfaction with the vacation. Two common frameworks used to understand satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a vacation are equity theory and disconfirmation theory (Decrop, 2006).

Equity theory stems from the social psychology literature and examines the balance between inputs (cost, effort) and outputs (utility, pleasure) in exchange relationships between individuals (Kozak & Duman, 2012; van Raaij & Francken, 1984). In a social setting, such as in a family, an individual maximising their own outputs alone does not lead to satisfaction. This is because individuals measure satisfaction in parallel to others; that is, they seek fairness (equity) (Kozak & Duman, 2012). As such, perceived inequalities in input and outputs between individuals are seen to be inequitable and result in dissatisfaction (van Raaij & Francken, 1984).

Disconfirmation theory focuses on the cognitive process of determining satisfaction based on an individual's experience versus their prior expectation (Decrop, 2006). The confirmation or disconfirmation of expectations is sometimes referred to as the 'goodness of fit' (Chon, 1989). Chon (1989) proposes that there are four possible combinations of expectations and evaluation of the destination. Two result in satisfaction - high expectation and positive evaluation and low expectation and positive evaluation. While two lead to dissatisfaction - low expectation and negative evaluation and high expectation and negative evaluation. The disconfirmation framework is widely used in the literature, however, it has been criticised for being overly simplistic, failing to take into consideration factors such as past experience (Decrop, 2006). Moreover, as identified in the discussion on equity theory, for families, satisfaction is often dependent on others in the family, something not taken into account in this approach (Fournier & Mick, 1999; Kozak & Duman, 2012).

When there is dissatisfaction resulting from inequity or disconfirmation of expectations, individuals often attribute blame. Attribution is used to understand the cause of the event (van Raaij & Francken, 1984). It can be both external (for example attributed to the travel agent, hotel) or internal, when the individual attributes the blame to themselves (van Raaij & Francken, 1984). Family members may also be the external

cause of satisfaction or dissatisfaction for other family members (Decrop, 2006; Kozak & Duman, 2012).

While these theories are a useful base to explore satisfaction, researchers have argued that using one paradigm to understand satisfaction is limiting and does not provide enough depth. As such there have been calls for a more holistic approach (Decrop, 2006; Fournier & Mick, 1999). To address this, Kozak and Duman (2012) developed a family vacation satisfaction framework that takes into account the satisfaction level of other family members. They found (similar to van Raaij and Francken (1984)) that husband and wife vacation satisfaction can be explained by both spouse and child(ren) vacation satisfaction evaluations. Moreover, they further stated that parents rely on their own and their spouse's vacation evaluation when deciding to return to a destination, but rely on children's evaluations when they recommend destinations to others.

Just as most tourism studies focus on the destination choice, those that focus on post-vacation outcomes generally focus on satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the destination (Blichfeldt, 2007a). As discussed by Blichfeldt (2007a, p. 251), non-destination focused tourism studies 'have a unique advantage of offering insights into the ways in which holidays relate to peoples everyday lives'. That is, they allow researchers to explore whether the benefits sought and expectations of the vacation have been met. Expectations are the belief that an outcome will be achieved and benefits sought can include both the tangible and intangible benefits expected from the vacation (Hsu et al., 2010; Lehto et al., 2012). Tangible elements can include such things as amenities and activities at the destination; intangible elements include factors such as the psychological benefits of the vacation (Lehto et al., 2012). Benefits sought and expectations are an important factor in both marketing and market segmentation as they affect behaviour (Kay & Meyer, 2013). While some research has examined the benefits sought for individuals, it is unclear as to whether benefits sought for family vacations

are similar (Lehto et al., 2012). Family bonding and togetherness are important outcomes (benefits) of the family vacation (Lehto et al., 2012; Zabriskie & McCormick, 2001). These outcomes stem from families both feeling like they do not spend enough time together and actually spending less time together, due to busy and hurried lives (Easterling, Miller & Weinberger, 1995; Lehto et al., 2012). Family bonding as a vacation benefit/outcome is not dependent on the satisfaction with the destination, amenities and/or activities. As such, family bonding and cohesion are important family vacation outcomes distinct from satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the vacation.

Bragging is a vacation outcome closely linked to identity and the motivation to have the vacation. Bragging rights are defined as ‘a perceived entitlement to communicate about one’s accomplishments’ (Kerr, Lewis & Burgess, 2012, p. 1). Kerr et al. studied young travellers (18-25 years old) and while they do not specifically examine the relationship between bragging and identity, they do discuss a number of constructs that suggest that young travellers brag about vacations to strengthen identity. For example, they highlight that young travellers will consider ‘who the bragging might be directed to’ (p. 5), which is often the traveler’s social group, and they will focus on the characteristics of the destination that project the right image to this group. Similarly, Lewis, Kerr and Pomering (2010) indicate that young Australian travellers (also 18-25 year olds) prefer overseas travel to domestic travel because of prestige, social acceptance, and the ability to brag about the holiday. Moreover, they found that bragging was an activity travellers indulged in post-vacation and that some destinations ‘help’ individuals achieve a desired (or perhaps perceived) social status. These findings reflect those of Sirgy and Su (2000) and Todd (2001) (see Section 2.3.1), who suggest that individuals are motivated to do things that enhance their ideal social self, by causing others to think highly of them.

The ability to brag about a vacation, the strengthening of family bonds and other benefits of the vacation are ongoing. They can be relived in the future through stories

and photographs, creating family traditions and further reinforcing family bonds and identities (Epp & Price, 2008). In particular, Haldrup and Larsen (2003) found that family vacation photographs are not just about ‘capturing the moment’ and creating a memory, but represent an attempt to keep family experiences alive and celebrate family life as they create a powerful image of togetherness. Photographs create an image and memory of a good holiday regardless of whether the actual experience was satisfactory (Haldrup & Larsen, 2003). This is supported by Schänzel (2010a), who found that remembered experiences are generally positive.

2.8. Chapter Summary

Family vacations are increasingly considered the ‘norm’ in western societies, and the family in the broader consumer behaviour literature is recognised as a predominant decision making unit. Despite this, family vacations are identified as an area requiring further research and within the family segment, families with adolescents are either rarely considered or considered with no distinction, from the broader ‘family with children’ market segment. This is an oversight as the extant literature highlights, families with adolescents have many different characteristics and, as a result, needs when compared with other family groups.

The unique needs of families with adolescents stem predominantly from the adolescents developing individual identity and growing independence and autonomy. It is this development that transition the family into a liminal phase, recognised in the extant literature as being characterised by ‘storm and stress’ and low family cohesion. Family vacations can be seen as a liminoid experience (temporary change from the liminal state), as families spend time together away from their daily routines. It is, therefore, the combination of the vacation as an experience distinct from the family routine, the transformation of the adolescent’s identity, the family as a group comprised

of multiple members with multiple identities, that create a unique family decision making environment.

How families with adolescents make vacation decisions, their motives, levels of influence and evaluation of the outcomes of those decisions is largely unknown. Extant research has examined more broadly the relationship between destination choice and individual identity and suggests that individuals will choose destinations that they see as congruent with their identity. However what does not appear to have been explored, is how (and if) destination congruity applies in families with adolescents who are comprised of multiple individuals each with their own identity, and whether congruity applies to vacation activities, and how this affects destination (in)congruence

Moreover, Bond and Falk (2013) suggests that when an individual has conflicting individual vacation motives the dominant motive is dependent on the individuals' commitment and salience to an identity role. What is not identified is how in families with adolescents this would apply. Such as if the motive stemming from the identity role an individual family members has the most commitment towards is incongruent with the motive of the majority of the family. What is also unknown is *how* do family members make decisions in these situations, *why* do they influence some decision making situations and not others and *how* do they evaluate the outcomes of the vacation if they are unsuccessful or if other family members are not satisfied.

It is therefore the combination of adolescents and their families, as a group in a liminal phase, the vacation as a liminoid experience, the family with adolescents representing a large market segment and the limited extant research examining how families with adolescents make vacation decisions and evaluate the outcomes of those decisions that warrants further study of the unique vacation needs and characteristics of these families. How this study proposes to explore these areas, and address these gaps, is explained in Chapter 3, the conceptual framework.

Chapter 3. Conceptual Framework

3.1. Introduction

In the preceding chapter, through examining the literature, the pivotal role of identity in family consumer behaviour was recognised. To date, tourism research tends to focus on families with young children, with limited attention given to vacations for families with adolescents. This chapter presents the conceptual framework for this study. This is an integrated framework orientated in CCT and developed from the prevailing ideas on identities, motives, influence strategies and decision making research with a specific focus on vacations for families with adolescents. The conceptual framework has informed the approach and methodology for this study, which is discussed in Chapter 4.

3.2. Conceptual Framework Overview

The conceptual framework presents the propositions for this study (shown in Figure 3.1. and discussed in detail in Section 3.4 -3.6). The conceptual framework recognises the dynamics and complexities of the vacation for families with adolescents. It depicts the family vacation, vacation decision making and the outcomes from the vacation, across three vacation time periods (pre-vacation, during vacation and post-vacation). The 'pre-vacation' period commences when the idea for the vacation is raised, ending when the family leaves for the destination. The 'during vacation' period represents the actual vacation and finishes when the family returns home. Finally, the 'post-vacation' period commences after the family leaves the vacation destination to return home and ends only after the family's vacation memories disappear.

The process through which purchase decisions are made has received substantial coverage in the literature. Studies that have examined vacation decision making have largely focused on the destination decision, and/or families with young children (pre

adolescents). There has been very limited research examining the vacation for families with adolescents. In addition, the literature does not extensively cover the characteristics and psychology of an individual within a family unit and the group dynamic as the unit of analysis in the extant literature is predominantly an individual family member (see discussion Section 4.3). Yet vacations for families with adolescents are rarely comprised of individual decisions made and evaluated without the influence of often conflicting motives and identities. It is proposed that the psychological aspects of identity and motives are largely interrelated and affect how vacation decisions are made and the experiences (decision outcomes) of the vacation. This includes the interaction between individual family members, family relationship groups (such as the parents or the adolescents), and the collective family as a whole. As depicted in the conceptual framework for this study, a CCT orientation enables the exploration of the interrelationship between identities, motives and the vacation for families with adolescents.

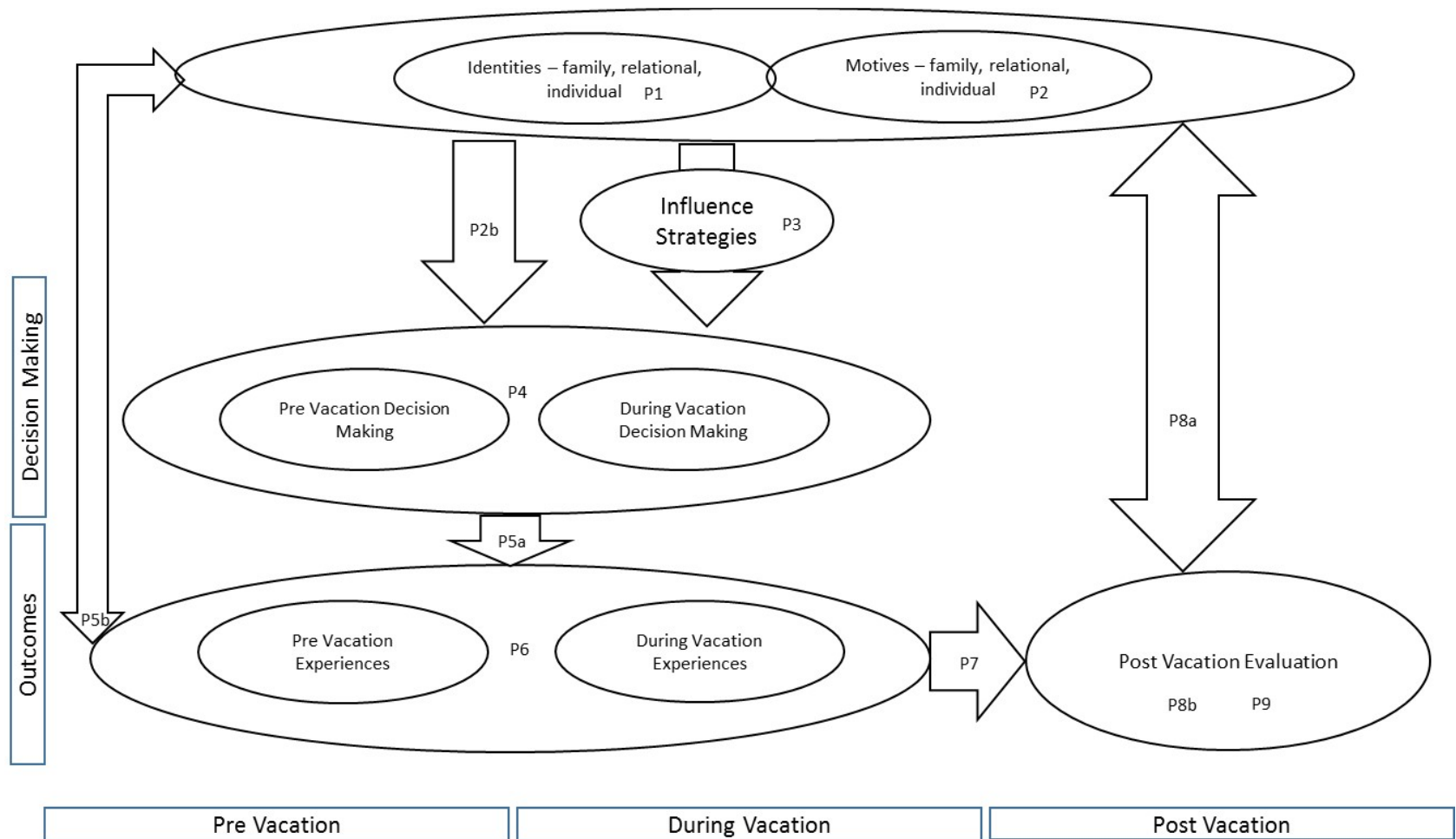


Figure 3.1. Conceptual Framework – the Vacation for Families with Adolescents

P denotes each of the propositions for this study, for example, P1 is Proposition 1.

3.3 Consumer Culture Theory (CCT)

This study is orientated using CCT. Despite its name, CCT does not represent 'a theory' as such. Instead it represents a 'family of theoretical perspectives that address the dynamic relationships between consumer actions, the market place and cultural meanings' (Arnould & Thompson, 2005, p. 868).

Traditionally, consumption has been viewed from sociological, economic (maximising utility) or business (process of acquisition) perspectives (Askegaard & Linnet, 2011). During the 1980s and 1990s there were significant advances in cultural, interpretivist and positivist research as these approaches became legitimate marketing and consumer research fields (Tadajewski, 2010; Thompson, Arnould & Giesler, 2013). These advances have continued, so that research examining consumption now considers areas such as identity creation, rituals, the search for self-fulfillment, communication patterns, social classifications and market place cultures (Arnould & Thompson, 2005; Askegaard & Linnet, 2011). Arnould and Thompson (2005) labelled these approaches as CCT and through this, they defined and developed a mainstream approach to consumer research (Tadajewski, 2010; Thompson et al., 2013). As stated by Fitchett et al. (2014, p. 500), CCT is not a 'response to broader social and cultural changes but a product of them'. CCT has become an often used perspective for undertaking research and has risen swiftly in popularity so that it is now widely recognised as one of the most successful attempts to present a substantial, comprehensive and inclusive approach to consumer research (Arnould & Thompson, 2007; Askegaard & Linnet, 2011; Fitchett et al., 2014).

CCT specifically provides a framework for the interrelationship between identity, consumption and the effect of the marketplace on a specific consumer group (Joy & Li, 2012; Nairn et al., 2008). The effect of the marketplace includes: market place culture, the socio-historic pattern of consumption, mass mediated marketplace ideologies and consumer interpretive strategies (Arnould & Thompson, 2005; Askegaard & Linnet, 2011; Harrison III & Thomas, 2013; Thompson et al., 2013). CCT research has demonstrated that consumers' lives are often multi-faceted and constructed around multiple realities, often linked to fantasies and desires, and

are relative to the context within which they are set (Arnould & Thompson, 2005; Askegaard & Linnet, 2011). That is, CCT research illustrates the contextual, symbolic and experiential aspects of consumption that individuals and groups use to both understand their environment and orient their lives (Joy & Li, 2012; Kozinets, 2001; Nairn et al., 2008).

One of the stated limitations of CCT research has been the focus on the individual (Fitchett et al., 2014). Consumption often occurs in group situations and even when individuals consume a product, a product's consumption is affected by others (Askegaard & Linnet, 2011; Epp & Price, 2008). In particular, critics state that children's voices have rarely been heard in CCT research, and rather than focusing on the child's identity and the effect of the greater social context, the focus has been on whether the child is an active or passive participant in the decision making process (Cody, 2013). This criticism has been addressed by Thompson et al. (2013) who state that the focus on the individual is a result of institutional and pragmatic reasons rather than the CCT framework itself.

CCT research has the ability to make important contributions to understanding a child's development as a consumer and the socialisation process more generally (Martens et al., 2004; Nairn et al., 2008). Martens et al., (2004) in their conceptual paper calling for more attention to the sociology of consumption in children, noted that relatively little is known about *how* children engage in consumption and the significance of this to their broader lives. Moreover, they state that children play a role in their parents' identity, impact upon how their parents consume and the autonomy their parents have in consumption choices, and note that parents often sacrifice their own desires to consume on behalf of their children.

The CCT orientation of this study enables a specific consumer group, families with adolescents, to be explored within the marketplace boundaries of the vacation. It further develops our understanding of how families with adolescents make vacation decisions and evaluate the outcomes of those decisions while and after consuming the vacation. Central to this orientation is the interplay and interaction of individual, relational and family identities on this process. Through having a

CCT orientation this study contributes to the small body of CCT research that focuses on families and includes the voice of the child. Moreover, adolescence is recognised as a period of liminality through which an adolescent's individual identity is both maturing and developing. CCT research recognises the importance, but underrepresentation, of studying the consumption habits and experiences of individuals and groups in transitional periods (Cody & Lawlor, 2011). This study, therefore, makes an important contribution to CCT research, not only by including the voice of the child, but also by including the child in a transformative part of their life.

The interrelationships between identities, motives, influence strategies, decision making and decision outcomes within the context of the vacation for families with adolescents, as depicted in the conceptual framework, are discussed in the following sections.

3.4. Identities, Motives and Influence Strategies

A central facet of CCT research is the role of identity in shaping consumption (Bardhi, Eckhardt & Arnould, 2012; Joy & Li, 2012). Identities and motives are largely interrelated and affect all aspects of the family vacation. Both identities and motives are multi-faceted and situational. As depicted in Figure 3.1, when a family member is in a position to do so, motives directly affect family decision making. If they are unable to directly affect family decision making they may be motivated to use influence strategies to influence decision making. Motives lead family members to make and/or influence by using influence strategies, in family decision making. As further illustrated in Figure 3.1, identities and motives both affect (and are affected by) the vacation experiences and the post-vacation evaluation. The following sections discuss each of these elements in detail.

3.4.1. Identity in Families

The starting point for understanding the vacation for families with adolescents is understanding identity. For families this is complex because, as argued by Epp

and Price (2008), identity within a family exists at three levels: the collective family level, the relational level (more than one family member, fewer than the whole family), and at the individual level. All three levels impact how families make consumption choices and interact with the marketplace and conversely consumption is a means for individuals to construct and develop their identities (Cova & Cova, 2014).

At the individual level, identity is multi-faceted as individuals have different identities depending on the situation they are in and the roles they are fulfilling. In addition, identity roles may have different levels of salience and there may be different levels of commitment to each role. This can lead to some degree of conflict between each identity role. Referencing practices such as the use of 'I' statements can assist in identifying individual identity. The issues associated with individual identity extend to both relational and family level identities. With referencing statements such as 'we' being used to assist in identification at these levels. In addition, at the relational and family identity levels there may be differences in how individual family members perceive their collective identity (Epp & Price, 2008). These factors are compounded in families with adolescents, as not only do the different levels of identity and their associated complexities exist, but adolescent identity is developing and maturing, which may result in changing family dynamics (Decrop, 2005; Kwak, 2003). This, together with the family vacation representing a period of time in which the family spends large amounts of time together, means that changing family dynamics and different identity roles and levels influence vacation decision making and the outcomes of these decisions.

Identity is central to consumer culture research because of the effect identity has on the consumption of products, services and experiences (Bond & Falk, 2013). When consumers make consumption decisions they mostly choose products and services that reinforce and/or enhance their identity. This is particularly so for non-essential products, services and experiences, such as vacations. That is, the higher the congruence the greater the motivation to consume a product/service and the greater the likely satisfaction with the outcome (Hung & Petrick, 2010; Litvin & Kar, 2004; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987). A large proportion of studies examining

congruence and vacations focus on destination congruence. Yet it is proposed, due to the multiple levels of identity within a family and the multiple decision making points throughout the family vacation, that congruence applies as much to each of the vacation decisions and experiences as it does to the destination. For families with adolescents, this is of particular relevance due to the different, changing and developing identities within the family. These differing identities can lead to different motives, levels of satisfaction and levels of congruence both between family members and at different points throughout the vacation. As depicted in Figure 3.1, it is proposed that identity is critical to understanding the consumption of the vacation. Moreover, a central facet of consumer culture research is that the consumption object is meaningful to the consumers (Arnould & Thompson, 2005; Nairn et al., 2008). Vacations are consumed by all family members on vacation and therefore it is proposed:

Proposition 1 (P1): Identity, for the family with adolescents, exists at three levels, is dynamic, and critical to understanding family vacation decision making.

3.4.2. Vacation Motives

Interrelated with identity are motives. Motives, in the most part, lead to behaviour (Crompton, 1992; Ryan, 1998). As illustrated in Figure 3.1, family motives may directly affect decision making if the decision is an individual decision, or if everyone involved in the decision (whole family or relationship group) has the same motivation. Alternatively, when this is not the case, motives indirectly affect decision making through the use of influence strategies.

Despite the development of a number of motivational frameworks to understand tourism motivations, each framework has limitations. The conceptual framework proposed in this study through its CCT orientation focuses on the interaction of motives and identity. While identity may not explain motivation in its entirety, identity related motivations have become increasingly recognised as fundamental to the tourist experience (Bond & Falk, 2013; Moscardo et al., 2014). Moreover, the relationship between motivation and identity is demonstrated both

through the framework proposed by Bond and Falk (2013) (see Section 2.4) and through the correlations between the non-identity based motivational frameworks and the discussion on identity in Section 2.3. For example, the highest level on the Travel Career Ladder proposed by Pearce (1982) relates to self-actualisation needs, which is related to a mature identity (self-concept) (Ryan, 1998). Similarly, the temporal motive to improve self-esteem or explore self are directly related to individuals seeking experiences that enhance their identity.

Motives, like identity, can be at an individual, relational and/or family level and are both situation and role dependent. Family members have different degrees of salience and commitment to motives based on identity roles. Vacation motives are many and varied. They can, however, be classified into two typologies - temporal or goal orientated motives (Decrop, 2006). Temporal motives include to escape, to improve self-esteem and to get away. Goal orientated motives include to do new things, and to have fun. Due to the number of people in a family and the multi-faceted nature of identities, family members do not always have the same motives. This can result in family members experiencing both different levels of congruence with vacation experiences and the vacation as a whole, as well as interpersonal incongruence between family members (Bond & Falk, 2013; Decrop, 2006; Schänzel, 2010b).

Previous research has demonstrated that for families with young children, there are often disparities in motives between generations. For example, young children are more likely to be motivated to 'have fun' on vacations whereas their parents are more likely to be motivated to relax or escape (Bakir & Baxter, 2011; Carr, 2006; Schänzel, 2010b). When discussing adolescents, the differences in motives between generations are not as clear, due to the adolescent's developing identity, and the adolescent transitioning from child to adult (Carr, 2011; Drenten, 2013; Kwak, 2003; Nurmi et al., 1994). This may result in adolescents developing motives that they previously did not have and adolescents being motivated to experience and consume products and services that craft their developing individual identity. The increased involvement of adolescents in family decision making (when compared with younger children) can lead to an increase in interpersonal

incongruence and the increased use of influence strategies to affect family decision making. This may result in both increasing levels of family conflict and/or the need for family members to compromise to keep harmonious relationships (Bakir & Baxter, 2011; Carr, 2011; Gram, 2007).

Compromise and sacrifice are important to family vacations because of the number of people with different identities and motives involved in decision making, as well as the motive of families to strengthen family bonds and relationships while on vacation. Due to the love and dependence family members have for each other, family motives differ from the motives of other groups on vacation. To strengthen family relationships and bonds, family members may be motivated to both compromise, make sacrifices and/or agree to a decision that does not enhance their own identity but enhances another family member's identity or the collective family identity (Martens et al., 2004; Therkelsen, 2010). It is therefore proposed that:

Proposition 2a (P2a): The multi-faceted nature of identity leads to different motives within and between family members, and differing degrees of salience and commitment to those motives.

Proposition 2b (P2b): Motives directly affect vacation decision making when the family or family members have the power or ability to do so.

3.4.3. Influence Strategies

In a family group, influence strategies are commonly used to affect family decision making. On family vacations, influence strategies may be regularly used throughout the vacation due to the number of individuals involved in decision making and the number of decisions that affect the family group. As illustrated in Figure 3.1, influence strategies are directly affected by identities and motives and directly affect vacation decision making.

Influence strategies are of clear relevance when studying family vacations for families with adolescents, for the following reasons. First, adolescents are unlikely to be able to purchase either the vacation or many of the associated activities

themselves, yet they are affected by associated decisions. Second, family decision making has become more democratic over the last generation and therefore adolescents are having an increasingly active role in family decisions (Yeoman et al., 2012). Third, adolescent identity is developing and, as a result, adolescents are motivated to influence family decisions (Kang & Hsu, 2004, 2005). Finally, a common family vacation motive is to strengthen family bonds (Obrador, 2012), so parents, in particular, are invested in engaging the adolescent in the family vacation and may use influence strategies to achieve this.

Common influence strategies used by families range from rational strategies, such as asking nicely or negotiating, to emotional strategies, such as pleading and begging. Through experience, families learn which strategies are more successful and effective on other family members (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003; Lawson et al., 1996; Nanda et al., 2007; Palan & Wilkes, 1997). This may relate to adolescents learning which influence strategies are more effective with their parents, or the parents learning which influence strategies are more effective with the adolescents. Moreover, influence strategies are closely related to family roles and power structures within families (Flurry & Burns, 2005; Therkelsen, 2010; Williams & Burns, 2000). Family roles will influence which influence strategy is used and by whom it is used, while power structures will influence the effect of the influence strategy.

Influence strategies may also include the decision not to influence decision making. For example, if a family member is motivated to maintain harmonious relationships they may choose not to influence the decision making process. In addition, when influence strategies are used they are not always successful. Strategies that are unsuccessful in influencing decision making may lead to a state of incongruity for the influencer and affect their satisfaction with both the vacation experiences and the vacation outcomes. It is therefore proposed that:

Proposition 3 (P3): The decision of family members to use/not use influence strategies and which influence strategy to use, is a deliberate decision based on their identity, motives and previous experiences.

Identities, motives and influence strategies affect how families make decisions in the marketplace of the vacation and how they evaluate the outcomes of those decisions both when and after consuming the vacation.

3.5. Vacation Decision Making

Decision making for the family vacation consists of any number of decisions that are made both before the family leaves home (pre-vacation) and throughout the vacation (during vacation), as illustrated in Figure 3.1. The decision making process and the involvement of family members is both identity and situation dependent. Each decision leads to an outcome (experience) for that decision and forms part of the overall outcome of the family vacation (post-vacation evaluation).

The pre-vacation phase commences when the idea to have a vacation is first raised and finishes when the family leaves home for the vacation destination. The length of time for the pre-vacation phase varies. It may be short, in the case of a spontaneous vacations, or it may represent a long period of time, with planning for the next vacation starting during, or as soon as, the current vacation finishes (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Therkelsen, 2010). It is in the pre-vacation phase that initial decisions that frame the vacation are made, such as the length of vacation time and budget. The destination decision, transport decision and, customarily, the accommodation choices typically stem from these decisions within this phase.

The during vacation phase commences when the family leaves for the vacation and finishes when the family returns home. This represents the actual vacation. The during vacation phase is when children are widely recognised in the literature as having the most influence (Decrop, 2005). As a result, it is in this phase that family disagreements and compromise are more likely to occur. This is a result of children having more influence in decision making and of family members having different motives regarding how they want to spend their vacation. Decisions, perceived as satisfactory, during the vacation phase will affect family identities and motives and, as a result, future decisions (both on this vacation and other vacations). See Figure 3.1.

The decision making process is commonly depicted in the literature as a model comprising between three and five sequential stages (Correia & Pimpão, 2008). While common to many studies, decision making process models are generally applied to goods and services that consist of a single transaction. Even in tourism studies the decision making process models are most often applied to the destination choice, which is also considered a single transaction process. Vacations, however, are comprised of more than the destination choice and decision making does not represent a single transaction (Smallman & Moore, 2010). More recently, tourism researchers have recommended a more naturalistic approach to understanding the decision making process. That is, they recognise that decision making is best viewed as an ongoing process that occurs from when the idea for the vacation is raised until the end of the vacation (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Therkelsen, 2010). While ongoing, families do not necessarily go through an extended decision making process every time they make a vacation decision. The scale of the decision making process is dependent upon the context within which it occurs. For example, it may be extensive when choosing the destination but limited when choosing where to eat lunch. Alternatively, it may be extensive for a 'once in a lifetime' vacation and limited for a habitual vacation. As a result, it is not the number of stages a family goes through that is important, instead it is the recognition that decision making processes exist, are situation dependent and ongoing throughout the vacation.

Just as the vacation decision making process for family vacations is not a single transaction, neither are decisions necessarily made by one person. The decision type refers to the number of people involved in the decision. Vacation decisions may be individual, joint (made by more than one family member but fewer than the whole family) or whole family decisions. Linked closely to the decision type are identity and motives. For example, when a decision is congruent to family identity, the whole family will be motivated to participate in that decision. Moreover, vacation decision making also involves family members fulfilling decision roles. Decision roles are separate to, and in addition to, the identity based roles family members fulfil. Like identity roles, decision roles are situational and dependent on the roles played by others family members. Decision roles are

commonly referred to in the literature as consisting of between seven and nine categories (Lawson et al., 1996; Nanda et al., 2007). In any decision, family members may fulfil an active role or they may have a passive role and influence decision making simply by their presence. As such, similar to the decision making process, what is important to understand for family vacations is not the number of roles that exist and who fills each role for each decision, rather the recognition that roles exist and vary dependent on the decision making situation. It is therefore proposed:

Proposition 4 (P4): Family vacation decision making is ongoing, with the decision making process, type and roles dependent on the context within which they occur.

3.6. Vacation Outcomes

For every vacation decision there is an outcome. As shown in Figure 3.1, vacation outcomes are comprised of vacation experiences and the post-vacation evaluation. An ‘outcome’ phase is recognised in many decision making process models and typically reflects the outcome of a single transaction. This framework developed for this study recognises that in addition to the overall outcome (evaluation of the vacation) there are outcomes (experiences) for each vacation decision.

3.6.1. The Vacation Experience

Vacation experiences represent the outcome of each vacation decision. Vacation experiences occur in both the pre-vacation and during vacation phases. Pre-vacation decisions may result in vacation experiences in the pre-vacation phase and/or in the during vacation phase. For example, the destination decision is made in the pre-vacation phase, with initial feelings from this choice experienced in this phase. These feelings result from family members perceiving the destination to be congruent (or incongruent) with their identity and may be revised in the during vacation phase.

As discussed in Section 3.5, tourism studies tend to focus on the destination decision and outcomes from that decision. Generally, they do not take into account other vacation decisions and the experience resulting from them. This is an oversight as different identity roles and levels of identity can lead to disparate motives, levels of satisfaction and congruence at varying points throughout the vacation and these experiences reinforce identities, and alter or reconfirm motives and future decision making and experiences. Figure 3.1, illustrates the impact vacation experiences have on identities and motives and the impact of identities and motives on vacation experiences. Furthermore, it is the sum of all the vacation experiences that enables the family to evaluate the vacation as a whole in the post-vacation phase. It is therefore proposed:

Proposition 5:

(P5a): The outcome of each vacation decision leads to a vacation experience.

(P5b): The evaluation of each vacation experience is both influenced by and influences identity and motives.

Proposition 6 (P6): Vacation experiences may vary between when the decision is made and when the product is consumed.

3.6.2. The Post-Vacation Evaluation

The post-vacation phase commences when the family returns home. The post-vacation evaluation represents the sum of all the vacation experiences and therefore the overall evaluation of the vacation.

The post-vacation evaluation, as with the vacation experiences, is influenced by and influences identity and motives (as illustrated in Figure 3.1). It is during the post-vacation phase that family members evaluate whether the original goals and motives (benefits sought) for the vacation were achieved. It is the achievement (or otherwise) of the original vacation goals that both reinforce/enhance identity and create new motives that affect future family and individual decisions.

While the post-vacation evaluation represents the sum of each of the vacation experiences, each vacation experience does not contribute equally to the overall vacation evaluation. When family members are dissatisfied either with the vacation as a whole or with an individual vacation experience this often leads to blame. Attribution of blame can be both external or internal (van Raaij & Francken, 1984). For a family, this may be directed towards one or more aspects of the vacation, such as a poor experience, or it may be directed towards one or more family members. The evaluation of a vacation for a family is also more complex than individual vacation evaluation as families do not measure vacation satisfaction in isolation from other family members. When family members measure the success of the vacation they measure it in parallel with others in the family (equity theory). This means that an individual maximising their own desires/pleasures may not be satisfied overall if they perceive inequalities between themselves and other family members (Kozak & Duman, 2012; van Raaij & Francken, 1984).

The post-vacation evaluation also directly affects the likelihood and structure of future family vacations. However, for families with adolescents, a positive post vacation evaluation does not always result in future family vacations. The adolescent years represent a time when children start to demonstrate autonomy and independence and transition into adults. As such, the 'family with adolescents' stage of the family life cycle represents the end of the stage in which families have dependent children. This results in families moving into the next and separate stages of the family life cycle (young singles and empty nesters) and the end of family vacations in their existing format. Notwithstanding that families may choose to continue to travel together as families with adult children, or even as multigenerational families. The end of family vacations for families with adolescents (dependent/minor children) may both affect the motivation for the current vacation and future vacations. Furthermore, the end of family vacations in the existing format may also lead to a modification in the identity roles of family members that will, in turn, affect the format of future vacations in the next stage of the family life cycle (Bond & Falk, 2013). It is therefore proposed:

Proposition 7 (P7): The sum of the vacation experiences contributes (although not equally) to the overall evaluation of the vacation.

Proposition 8 (P8): The post-vacation evaluation of the vacation is influenced by and influences identities and motives.

Proposition 9 (P9): Family vacations in their existing form eventually come to an end as families move into the next stage of the family life cycle.

3.7. Chapter Summary

The conceptual framework and propositions presented in this chapter were developed using the prevailing ideas in the literature. This study is orientated using CCT which allows for the exploration of how families with adolescents (as a consumption group), within the marketplace boundaries of the vacation make decisions and through the consumption of the vacation evaluate the outcomes of those decisions. Central to this orientation is the interaction and interplay of individual, relational and family identity on this process and the family with adolescents.

Identified through exploring the existing literature, families are comprised of multiple family members with multi-faceted identities constructed around multiple realities. At the same time, the adolescent years are a period when a child's identity develops, family cohesion is at its lowest and family dynamics are changing as adolescents seek independence and autonomy. This makes the vacation for families with adolescents a unique consumer culture environment, particularly as the vacation is a collective experience with multiple decisions typically made over a number of days and weeks, and the outcomes predominantly affect all family members. The conceptual framework developed for this study considers these unique characteristics. The framework depicts vacation decision making and the outcomes from vacation decisions across three vacation time periods and demonstrates how those decisions and outcomes are influenced by and influence the psychological aspects of identity and motives. The framework developed for this

study is unique as it creates a holistic view of the vacation for families with adolescents, an underrepresented area in the literature.

The following chapter presents the approach and methodology employed in this study. It discusses how the conceptual framework was deployed, propositions investigated and findings interpreted.

Chapter 4. Approach and Methodology

4.1. Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to present the approach and methodology for this study and through this explain how the conceptual framework (see Figure 3.1) is deployed and the propositions for this study investigated. This chapter is comprised of five sections: the theoretical paradigm and perspective, the methodological framework, the selection of participants, the data collection method, and the plan of the data analysis. These sections provide the rationale for decisions made in the approach to this study and the operationalized constructs identified in the previous chapter. The following chapters discuss the findings.

4.2. Theoretical Paradigm and Perspective

To gain insights into the vacation for families with adolescents, the research paradigm and associated ontology and epistemology that frame this study are examined. The research paradigm (or worldview) that frames any research is shaped by the nature of the research (Creswell, 2009; Hollinshead, 2006). There are four major research paradigms – positivist, post-positivist, critical and interpretive (Goodson & Phillmore, 2004). Positivist and post-positivist research, while common in tourism research, are not appropriate for this study due to their scientific approaches. The critical and interpretive paradigms are more appropriate as they recognise the role the researcher and everyday life plays in the research process (Goodson & Phillmore, 2004). However, the critical paradigm focuses on the effect of the outside world (social, political and historical forces) on an individual's view of themselves (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2003). Although the outside world is partially relevant to understanding the vacation for families with adolescents, it is not central to this understanding. The final paradigm, the interpretive paradigm, recognises that the social world can only be understood by those who live within it (Goodson & Phillmore, 2004; Szmigin & Foxall, 2000). Consequently, the interpretive paradigm is the most appropriate paradigm for this study with its

objective of exploring how families with adolescents make and evaluate vacation decisions.

The interpretive paradigm has grown in strength in social sciences (Hollinshead, 2006) and marketing, particularly in relation to consumer behaviour (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003b; Goulding, 1999). Moreover, an interpretive paradigm addresses the conventions of CCT research. Interpretive models take into account personal, social and cultural considerations when making a decision and look at understanding and interpretation (Daymon & Holloway, 2010; Decrop, 2006). An interpretive approach acknowledges that people contribute to the building of knowledge (Jamal & Hollinshead, 2001), as the researched and the researcher are seen as producing this knowledge together (Goodson & Phillmore, 2004). It is through an interpretive paradigm that the complexities of family dynamics and the culture considerations of family consumption can be explored.

Constructivism is often combined with an interpretive paradigm (Creswell, 2009). Some researchers, including Guba and Lincoln (1994), Denzil and Lincoln (2003), and Creswell (2009), recognise constructivism as a paradigm in its own right. While most studies and researchers combine constructivism and interpretivism, the approaches do differ slightly. Constructivists argue that we 'build/make' the world we live in through social construction, whereas interpretivists focus on interpreting meaning from existing action (Hollinshead, 2006).

Constructivism has evolved from researchers' dissatisfaction with the objectivist view of objective truth and meaning inherent in objects (Crotty, 1998; Fosnot & Perry, 1996; Yilmaz, 2008). The constructivist paradigm focuses on individuals seeking understanding and meaning of the world, while recognising that meanings are varied and multiple and that truth is not absolute (Fosnot & Perry, 1996; Yilmaz, 2008). That is, constructivism is based on the premise that each individual is born into a world with meaning based on that individual's culture (Crotty, 1998). Individuals then assign meaning and understanding to this world. They do this by building on existing knowledge and through new knowledge and

experiences (Kukla, 2013; Yilmaz, 2008). As a result and central to constructivism is that all reality is constructed reality (Daly, 2007).

Constructivism requires researchers to interpret meaning rather than start with a theory, thus encouraging complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into categories (Creswell, 2009; Hollinshead, 2006). That is, explanations or descriptions about experiences are more important than the number of times an experience has occurred (Daly, 2007). Constructivism suits qualitative research (see discussion in Section 4.3) (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006), as the goal is to explore in depth the participants view of the world (Gergen, 1985). To achieve this, the setting and the context through which the individual sees the world is important, information needs to be gathered personally (Crotty, 1998) and questions need to be broad and general to encourage participants to construct their view of the world (Creswell, 2009).

A subset of constructivism is social constructivism. Where constructivism focuses on meaning making to the individual, social constructivism focuses on the interactive process of meaning making. It is based on the premise that behaviour, interests and relationships are socially constructed (Newman, 2001). That is, we create meaning through our interaction with others, whether that be through informal conversation at the dinner table or the formal conversations through the research process (Daly, 2007; Schwandt, 2007). Through the social constructivism process of meaning making beliefs, attitudes, ideas and knowledge (really anything!) can be constructed (Schwandt, 2007). Social constructivism research is appropriate when researching multiple participants together (such as a family) as it allows participants to interact and share their views, as meaning is generated from interaction with others (Creswell, 2009; Crotty, 1998). Through a social constructivist paradigm reality is negotiated and negotiated understandings are of critical significance in life (Gergen, 1985).

Denzin and Lincoln (2003b) suggest research is difficult. They refer to the researcher as a 'bricoleur' – a maker of quilts, or someone who puts pieces together to create a solution (pp. 6-8). They also refer to interpretive research as a 'montage'

– the editing of cinematic images, or putting the pieces together to create a representation. Denzin and Lincoln further outline the many ways to construct interpretations in interpretive research. Many interpretive paradigms can address a problem and each builds on the others until a complete picture is formed; each with its limitations and framed within the traditions of that paradigm. While there are many ways to construct interpretations, Denzin and Lincoln (2003), and Goodson and Phillmore (2004) argue that the aim of the researcher is to establish the best approach for the research problem at hand, an approach that will maximise understanding, while taking into account elements such as researcher subjectivity, ethics and values. This study employs a combined interpretivist/constructivist paradigm to gain insights about the vacation for families with adolescents.

In addition to the paradigm, the researcher also needs to consider their ontology (what is the form and nature of reality?), epistemology (how do we know something and what can be known?) and methodological framework (how do we gain the knowledge and how do we find out what we believe can be known?) (Daly, 2007; Goodson & Phillmore, 2004; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Small, 1999). It is through this process of determining the ontology, epistemology and methodological framework that we can create our bricolage and maximise our understanding of the research problem (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003b). Albeit it is also through choosing our paradigm that our ontology, epistemology and methodological framework are both framed and, to an extent, constrained by the worldview we have taken (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). As a result, it is through determining that an interpretivist/constructivist paradigm is the best approach for this study that we then employ a relativist ontology and a transactional and subjectivist epistemology (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003b; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

A relativist ontology suggests that reality is specific to the individual or group to whom it applies. Reality is constructed based on social and experiential phenomenon, and although it is specific to the individual or group, elements are often shared across many individuals and/or cultures (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Transactional and subjectivist epistemology suggest that there is no separation between the creator of the knowledge and the known and, all findings are created

through the research process (Daly, 2007; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In this approach, bias has no meaning, as all findings by definition include the values, understandings and interpretation of the researcher (Daly, 2007). This does not mean that it is impossible to know, it just means that knowledge is affected by different viewpoints and explanations (Daly, 2007).

4.3. Methodological Framework

The final piece in Denzin and Lincoln's (2003) bricolage is the methodological framework for the study. The methodological framework provides direction for the research design and creates a structure both to gain knowledge for gaining knowledge and to answer the research question (Creswell, 2009; Goodson & Phillmore, 2004; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). As with the ontology and epistemology, it is framed by the choices that were made beforehand (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Two main methodological frameworks, quantitative or qualitative, might be employed to investigate a research problem. Quantitative research is often seen as the scientific approach, it examines relationships among variables and is used with the aim of testing for confirmation or disconfirmation of a theory (hypothesis) (Creswell, 2009; Newman & Benz, 1998). Qualitative research aims to explore understanding, and observing and interpreting reality. Generally, qualitative research does not test a theory; instead it is often used to develop a theory that will explain what happened (Creswell, 2009; Daly, 2007; Newman & Benz, 1998). So, while quantitative research focuses on rules, prescriptions and answers, qualitative research is centered around guidelines, reflections and anecdotes (Daly, 2007). A qualitative research methodology is most appropriate for this study as it adopts the conventions of an interpretivist/constructivist paradigm, and this study's objective of allows the conceptual framework, depicted in Figure 3.1, to be deployed and the propositions to be investigated.

Qualitative family research allows researchers to understand families and family members within the context in which they live their lives (Gilgun, 2012),

how families create, sustain, and discuss their own family experiences (Daly, 1992; Matthews, 2012), and how families interact and negotiate family roles and relationships (Daly, 1992; Nanda et al., 2007). In addition, as there has been little research comprehensively examining the vacation for families with adolescents, a qualitative approach is appropriate as it allows for the exploration of ideas and the pursuit of the various paths the subject takes (Howitt, 2010).

There has been a rise in the number of qualitative studies in tourism research. For example, Kerrane, Hogg and Bettany (2012), Martin and Woodside (2012), Mikkelsen and Blichfeldt (2015), Schänzel (2010a), and (Therkelsen, 2010) have used qualitative or mixed methodologies. However, traditionally the emphasis has been on quantitative methodologies (Pernecky & Jamal, 2010; Walle, 1997). The predominance of quantitative approaches to the collection of tourism data means that the data collection often focuses on the individual rather than the whole family (Decrop, 2005; Schänzel, 2010b; Thornton et al., 1997), meaning the multiple (and often differing) perspectives of the family group are not considered (Carr, 2006; Starkweather, 2012) or are underexplored (Schänzel & Smith, 2014). That is quantitative approaches do not consider *how* family decisions are made (Tinson & Nuttall, 2014). Moreover focusing on the individual (predominantly the parent(s)) means the voice of the child is underrepresented in the tourism literature (Blichfeldt, Pedersen, Johansen & Hansen, 2011; Schänzel, 2010b). This is an oversight as the importance of including children, and treating children as subjects rather than objects (Farrell, 2005) is increasingly recognised as important to understanding family group dynamics. This study will include adolescents in the research process and focus on the different relationships within the family which is consistent with a number of recent family tourism studies, such as Larsen (2013), Mikkelsen and Blichfeldt (2015) and Schänzel and Smith (2014).

Within the qualitative methodological framework and in part through the inclusion of adolescents and their parents in the research process, this study takes a whole-family approach. A whole-family approach differs from an individual approach as it looks at relationships between individuals rather than only examining an individual's account of events. A whole-family approach recognises that families

consist of a number of dyadic relationships such as between siblings, between parents and between parents and their children and triadic relationships such as between mother-father-child. The importance and development of the whole-family approach was identified in the seminal work of Robert D. Hess and Gerald Handel's (1959) 'Family Worlds'. Hess and Handel proposed that to understand a family the perspectives of all family members needs to be taken into account. As further elaborated by Handel (1997, p. 346) 'No member of any family is a sufficient source of information for that family'. He states, it is not possible to understand these multiple perspectives through quantitative research. That is, a whole-family approach acknowledges that individual responses are interrelated, as family members are both connected to other family members ('we' perspective) and separated from other family members ('I' perspective). How the data were collected using this approach is further elaborated in Section 4.5.

Qualitative research is about understanding the participant's reality, about understanding meaning and the creation of knowledge. As stated by Denzin and Lincoln (2003b, p. 4), 'Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world'. Yet this very definition of qualitative research hones in on an often cited criticism, which is the subjectivity of the research process (Goodson & Phillmore, 2004). As such, core to qualitative research is the understanding, incorporation and accounting for the researcher's role in the research process (Crabtree & Miller, 1999a).

4.3.1. Role of the Researcher – Reflexivity/Reflection

The role of the researcher in the research process is central to both a qualitative methodology, interpretivist/constructivist paradigm and subjectivist epistemology. However, as indicated earlier, this central role and the researcher's interpretation of the study findings (their subjectivity) is a criticism of qualitative research. This is because it is nearly impossible to apply the rules of a method to every question in every research situation (Maso, 2008). In addition, the presence of the researcher opens the research up to the effect of the interpersonal dynamics between the researcher and respondent(s) as well as the motivations (both conscious and unconscious) and biases of the researcher's approach (Ezzy, 2010; Finlay, 2002,

2008a; Hertz, 1997; Starkweather, 2012). The result is that the validity and reliability of the research is sometimes questioned (Maso, 2008). Reflection and reflexivity are two well-known tools used to address these issues.

Reflection and reflexivity are used to: demonstrate the trustworthiness of findings (Finlay & Gough, 2008); enable researchers to 'come clean' about how subjective elements have impacted the research process (Finlay, 2002; Maso, 2008); facilitate learning about research (Lamb, 2013); and to understand the researcher's emotional and psychological states throughout the research process (Lincoln, 1995). That is, while an interpretive paradigm recognises that meanings are made, a reflexive approach recognises the researcher's position in the making of meaning and makes the reader aware of the complex nature of interviewing people (Fontana & Frey, 2003; Fook, 2012).

Reflection and reflexivity are two clearly distinct approaches, but they are not mutually exclusive (Fook, 2012). It is possible to have both a reflexive and reflective journey at the same time without analysing which one is present (Bolton, 2009; Fook, 2012). That is, a reflective process can be understood by a reflexive stance (Fook, 2012). This connection between reflexivity and reflection can be further understood by examining what each approach is trying to achieve.

Reflection involves how we understand things to be, that is the ability to reflect. It is an in-depth consideration of events and situations with a focus on the experience rather than the research outcomes (Lamb, 2013). Reflection aids the transfer of learning from theory to practice and enables the researcher to make connections between different aspects of the research (Lamb, 2013). Reflective practice involves a higher order thinking process and allows researchers to learn from experience through challenging assumptions, ideologies, cultural biases, inequalities and personal behaviour (Bolton, 2009; Lamb, 2013). The process of reflection involves the researcher attempting to work out what happened, how they felt, who was involved and what others might have experienced and felt (Bolton, 2009). It is not self-indulgently thinking about ourselves (Bolton, 2009). Rather,

the process of reflection brings unconscious thoughts into the conscious mind enabling the researcher to view their work more critically (Lamb, 2013).

Although reflection enables more critical evaluation of an approach what it does not do is evaluate how one's self influences the research act (Bolton, 2009; Finlay, 2008a; Fook, 2012; Hertz, 1997). For this reason, reflexivity is seen as more complex than reflection. Reflexivity has been an important part in the evolution of qualitative research and has a history spanning over a century (Finlay, 2002; Gilgun, 2012). Reflexivity involves the researcher coming as close as possible to an awareness of the way they are perceived by others (Bolton, 2009). It is more than understanding personal biases (Willig, 2013). It is based on the idea that we can only understand others if we understand ourselves (Gilgun, 2012; Miller & Crabtree, 1999), while at the same time recognising that we will never understand another perfectly, as we have not experienced what they have experienced (Seidman, 2013). What reflexivity therefore achieves is a recognition of how researchers together with the respondents co-construct their research findings (Finlay & Gough, 2008; Willig, 2013).

Reflexivity is central to a social constructivist paradigm as reality is negotiated and therefore an awareness is needed of the researcher's role in the research process. For this reason, reflexivity is challenging as it involves the researcher examining their own role in the research process and identifying how their behaviour affects the research outcomes (Cunliffe, 2009; Finlay & Gough, 2008; Hertz, 1997). The researcher must find strategies to question their own attitudes and assumptions so that the he/she does not impose those attitudes and assumptions onto others (Bolton, 2009; Gilgun, 2012). This process can improve the quality of the research and should ideally occur throughout the research process (Maso, 2008; Miller & Crabtree, 1999).

This study adopts a reflective process and a reflexive stance. By taking this approach, and consistent with a qualitative interpretivist research, the researcher's role in the research process and the creation of meaning can be better understood. This occurred on two levels in this study: first by reflecting on the effect of the

researcher's (my) development, as a researcher on the study; and second by reflecting on the effect of the researcher's (my) presence on the research process. As a basis to reflect on my development as a researcher and my role in the research process, email correspondence with my supervisors and the interview recordings and transcripts were analysed. The emails I sent (some 80 pages) are a form of electronic 'diary' where I recorded my thoughts, questions and concerns. This process, in addition to contributing to rigour in the findings, also contributes to an understanding of the role and effect of a new and developing researcher on the findings. The findings from this reflection are included in Chapters 5 and 6.

4.4. Selection of Participants

The selection of participants is an important yet difficult part of the research process (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Roy et al., 2015). The choice of who is included in the study affects the data collection and the ability to draw conclusions (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Miller & Crabtree, 1999). Yet there appears to be no 'contemporary extended discussions of sampling for qualitative family research' (Roy et al., 2015, p. 244).

Qualitative research is typically comprised of small samples that are studied in depth (Creswell, 2009; Luborsky & Rubinstein, 1995; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Trotter, 2012). Qualitative research samples are either selective, theoretical or purposive. Selective sampling is where the researcher specifically designs the sample prior to data collection (Roy et al., 2015). Purposive sampling is the process of selecting participants with a particular purpose in mind and based on a set of criteria (Creswell, 2009; Daly, 2007; Howitt, 2010; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Theoretical sampling means that decisions on where to look for information develop through the research process (Daly, 2007), so that the selection of the sample is shaped by the data collection process (Roy et al., 2015). While these are different approaches, it can be argued that they overlap as most research starts with some theoretical justification of how the sample is going to be obtained and what criteria is used for inclusion (Daly, 2007; Roy et al., 2015). The most common approach in qualitative research is purposive sampling (Daly, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

This approach is useful when undertaking small exploratory studies (Miller and Crabtree (1999). This study uses a purposive sampling technique, with specific criteria. The participants in this study were families with adolescents (aged from 12 to 17 years) who had taken a family vacation within the previous twelve months. Families with children outside the adolescent age range were excluded from the study to ensure that all families were similar in terms of the family life cycle and the responses were not influenced by non-adolescents.

One of the difficulties when selecting participants in qualitative research is determining the correct sample size. Some researchers have attempted to quantify what is considered 'enough' (Roy et al., 2015). However, creating a recommendation for sample size does not take into consideration the quality of data being collected. While a predetermined sample size may be appropriate if the study is confirmatory (applying specific culture theory), if the study is exploratory (emergent theory), it can contradict the goals of the research (Roy et al., 2015; Small, 2009; Trotter, 2012). In exploratory research, factors other than the number of participants are more important in determining the sample size. In particular, 'if the goal is to understand the intricate dynamics of reality construction in certain family groups, a small homogeneous sample may be a better choice' (Roy et al., 2015, p. 247). The depth of the study comes from the questions that are asked and the different ways the research is approached rather than the size of the sample (Roy et al., 2015).

When the study is exploratory the most common approach to determine sample size is theoretical saturation (Trotter, 2012), which was used in this study. Saturation is the point at which all questions have been examined in depth and no new concepts or themes emerge with the addition of new subjects (Roy et al., 2015; Trotter, 2012). Using a saturation approach, the sample size cannot be predetermined as the researcher is exploring an unknown area of study (Trotter, 2012). Following the recommendation of Roy et al. (2015), saturation was reached when all elements of the family vacation had been examined in-depth and no new themes were identified, for this study this was at the conclusion of eight whole family interviews. The coding frame for this study, discussed further in Section 4.6,

is included in Appendix H. The data from the later interviews did not develop further themes from those previously derived.

To enable the collection of data for this research project human ethics committee approval was obtained (reference HRETH 11/220, see Appendix A). As a process of purposive sampling information leaflets (flyers) were distributed in two Victoria University campuses and in a number of public locations across Melbourne. A copy of the flyer is provided in Appendix B. When the initial contact with potential participants was made, information regarding the project (see Appendix C) was sent to each family via email. An interview time was arranged once the family had read the information and agreed to participate in the study. The interviews for the families in this study occurred between January and September 2012. Each family agreed to participate in a group family interview and provide photographs of their vacation (see Section 4.5 for detailed discussion). As a thank you for participation, each family member was given a movie ticket, this was advised in the initial flyer and information sheet.

The decision to offer an incentive for research participation is complex. While it is agreed that offering incentives increases responses rates, existing research has argued that offering payment is either a sign of ethically sound research or alternatively that it is potentially exploitative and/or that participants may give false information to ensure that they receive the incentive (Head, 2009). In this study, the decision to offer an incentive was to encourage participation. To minimise any potential negative effects that the incentive might have on participation, the Australian Research Council Guidelines, as set out in the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007), were followed. These guidelines state that any incentive should not be disproportionate to the time spent participating in the research and/or encourage the participants to take any risks. As the interview process took between one and two hours per family, movie tickets were deemed proportional to the time spent with the family. In addition, it was stressed both verbally and in the information sheets provided to participants that the incentives were not dependent on the participants answering any questions and they could end the interview at any stage and still receive the incentive.

The participants in this study were eight families, consisting of seven two-parent families and one single-parent family, a total of 31 people participated (16 adolescents and 15 parents). Two further families had initially agreed to participate but had, due to a variety of time commitments within their respective family, to decline. Following the suggestion of Roy et al. (2015) and the practice of Kerrane, Hogg & Bettany (2012), a relatively homogenous group was selected for this study. As a relatively homogenous group, this group is not representative of all Australian families. Table 2.1, shows a profile of the families interviewed. All families lived in the Eastern Suburbs of Melbourne and had Australian European origins. Based on the Australian Bureau of Statistics Census Data (2011b), seven of the families lived in Melbourne suburbs where the average weekly family income was above the national average, and one family lived in a Melbourne suburb where the average weekly income was marginally below the national average. In all families analysed both parents worked, either full-time (three families) or the father worked full-time and the mother worked part-time (five families). This is in contrast to the national average in which only 51% of Australian dependent children live in families where both parents are employed (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015). On average, the families in this sample had 2 children each, which is similar to the Australian national average of 1.9 children (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011a). A requirement of participating in this study was all families had taken a vacation within the previous 12 months (see Appendix B). For the families in this study, all families had taken a vacation within six months of the interview being conducted.

Pseudonyms enable the families to remain anonymous. Each family's pseudonym surname and first name begin with the same letter of the alphabet. For example, parents Andrew and Anna and their children Alice and Abby (See Table 2.1) form the Adams family. Keeping the first letter the same for each family helped with ease of identification of related family members. None of the pseudonyms corresponds with the original names of any of the participants in this study. The adolescents age was recorded and included in the findings to differentiate between older adolescent's (approaching adulthood) and younger adolescents (leaving childhood), as this was deemed important to the research. The parental role (mother,

father) was included in the findings. The age of the parents was not included as a significant factor for the purpose of the research study and so was not recorded.

Using this approach to participant selection, the following section discusses how the data were collected for this study.

Table 4.1. Study Participants

Family name	Parents	Adolescents (Age)	Family size	Destination	Holiday length	Location of meeting
Adams	Andrew & Anna	Alice (16 years), Abby (15 years)	4	Noosa Heads, Australia	2 weeks	Family home – lounge room
Brown	Barry & Barbara	Bella (17 years), Ben (15 years), Bailey (12 years)	5	East and West Coast, USA	4 weeks	Family home – dining table
Carter	Cameron & Catherine	Campbell (17 years), Caitlyn (14 years)	4	West Coast, USA	2 weeks	Family home – dining table
Dunn	Doug & Donna	Dylan (17 years), Daisy (14 years), Danielle (12 years)	5	Gold Coast, Australia	10 days	Family home – dining table
Evans	Edward & Eve	Ella (13 years)	3	Hamilton Island, Australia	1 week	Family home – dining table
Fisher	Fiona	Freya (12 years)	2	Far North Queensland, Australia	2 weeks	Family home – dining table
Graham	Gary & Grace	Georgia (15 years), Gaby (12 years)	4	Singapore, Singapore	12 days	Family home – dining table
Holt	Henry & Heather	Harry (15 years), Hannah (12 years)	4	Gold Coast, Australia	5 days	University – conference room table

4.5. Data Collection Method

The data collection methods of this study combine narratives and photo elicitation in the context of eight group interviews. These data collection methods are forms of depth analysis and emergent social theory that enable researchers to understand what subjects think of a particular object or situation (Penz, 2006). In this study, they enabled the researcher to gain insights into the vacation for families with adolescents and the propositions for this study (see the conceptual framework, Figure 3.1) to be investigated.

The group interviews took place at the convenience of the participants, as all family members needed to be present for the interview. This created some difficulties in arranging a time that suited everyone in the family, a difficulty common to other family based studies, such as Boyd (1996) and Schänzel (2010a). The difficulties in finding a mutually suitable time for participants in this study were caused, respectively, by work commitments, visiting relatives and/or by adolescent sporting, study and theatrical commitments. To minimise the effect of this, the meetings took place at a time and in a location that best suited each family. With the exception of one family (the Holt Family), all families chose to have the interviews take place in their home. As previous research has found, subjects are often more willing to participate when they can do so in their own home and rapport is easier to achieve when the interview location is of the respondent's choosing (Åstedt-Kurki, Paavilainen & Lehti, 2001; Boyd, 1996; Smith & Hughes, 1999). Five meetings took place on individual weekday evenings and three meetings took place during the day on different weekends. All interviews were recorded with a digital audio recorder. Obtained as part of the consent process using appropriate forms (see Appendices D & E) was consent for recording the interview. As the research involved participants under the age of 18, high risk human ethics approval was sought and obtained (see Appendix A). In accordance with this approval, each family member was given an individual consent form, with the composition of the

consent form differing between the adults and the adolescents. See Appendix D for the adult consent form and Appendix E for the adolescent consent form.

Using a whole-family approach the data were collected through whole-family (group) interviews and individual questionnaires. The combination of these data collection approaches enabled the 'I' perspective and group 'we' perspective to be considered (Schänzel, 2010b). Due to the presence of other family members and to ensure that the 'I' perspective was not influenced by other family members the questionnaires were completed before the group interview. Participants were advised that their answers would not be seen by other family members nor referred to during the interview process. Once all family members had completed the questionnaire and they had been collected the interviews commenced. The whole-family approach, which brings together the 'I' and 'we' perspective, is both suited to a CCT orientation and to the investigation of the propositions in the conceptual framework (see Figure 3.1) of this study. This approach allows for family members' multi-faceted identities to be explored within the marketplace of the vacation.

Interviews are one of the most common ways researchers seek to understand others (Fontana & Frey, 2003). An interview is effectively a conversation with an agenda, typically with a minimum of two people that creates the data that are to be analysed (Daly, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003a; Fontana & Frey, 2003; Willig, 2013). The role of the interviewer is to initiate and shape the conversation for the purpose of constructing meaning about the topic(s) under discussion (Daly, 2007; Fontana & Frey, 2003). Increasingly, interviews are seen as negotiated outcomes, with both the interviewer and the respondent(s) shaping the context and situation in which they occur (Fontana & Frey, 2003). While interviews typically involve one participant and one interviewer, the group interview is also a well-known interviewing tool (Fontana & Frey, 2003). The advantage of group interviews is that they allow respondents to recall events or experiences shared by the members of that group. For families, focusing on one family member can create reliability issues with research data as interviewing one

family member only gives that person's perspective (Åstedt-Kurki et al., 2001; Carr, 2006; Commuri & Gentry, 2000). Group interviews allow for all family member perspectives to be included.

Interviews can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured (Daly, 1992; Fontana & Frey, 2003). At one end of the spectrum are structured interviews. Structured interviews follow a rigid format with little room for variance in responses and are the most likely to be used for quantitative analysis (Daly, 2007; Fontana & Frey, 2003). Structured interviews are often undertaken on a large scale and are useful for the comparison of direct responses between participants. At the other end of the spectrum are unstructured interviews. Unstructured interviews are often referred to as in-depth (ethnographic) interviews and/or participant observation (Fontana & Frey, 2003). Unstructured interviews are often focused on conversation and they can take a narrative approach with participants asked to tell their stories (Daly, 2007). Their purpose is to understand the experience of the respondent(s) and the meaning they attach to that experience (Seidman, 2013). The third interview type is semi-structured. As the name suggests, these interviews have elements of both the structured and unstructured interview. Semi-structured interviews commonly involve the interviewer following an interview schedule or set of guidelines. This gives the interview a degree of organisation without a structured set of questions (as used in a structured interview) (Daly, 2007; Willig, 2013). Interview schedules can be used to ask broad questions (typically derived from the literature and pre-existing theories), which encourage participants to tell stories (a form of narrative analysis) about their experiences (Daly, 2007; Willig, 2013). Through this process the researcher and the respondent(s) co-construct the interview, allowing valuable insights to be gained through a process of reflection (by both parties) (Finlay, 2008b; Gough, 2008).

This study used semi-structured interviews, an approach that works well with group interviews (Fontana & Frey, 2003). An interview schedule was developed from the literature and pre-existing theory. This schedule was referred to throughout the

interview (see Appendix F). The purpose of the schedule was as a reference to ensure coverage of all of the constructs identified in the conceptual framework (see Chapter 3). As such, the interview questions became the vehicle for conversation, with the questions permitting flexibility and adaptability, enabling the answers to be spontaneous and unexpected and to paint an accurate picture of the topic under discussion (Jorgenson, 1991; Smith & Hughes, 1999). This approach allows the researcher to be attentive to the verbal and non-verbal cues of the participants, to understand and be aware of the many themes of the discussion, and to summarise those themes as the interview progresses (Åstedt-Kurki et al., 2001).

The verbal and non-verbal cues of participants are of particular importance when interviewing children/adolescents, helping to determine when to stop pushing for more information when participants are not interested in the discussion (Åstedt-Kurki et al., 2001). This was observed in this study, as there were times during the interviews when the adolescents were losing interest. For example, when the Dunn daughters started playing with their dog, when the younger son of the Brown family started playing with his pencils or when the Holt daughter was not listening, as illustrated when she comments, '*umm, what was the question again?*' Hannah (12 years). Rather than probe more deeply, a new question was asked to re-engage the adolescents and allow the conversation to move on.

A criticism of group interviews is that one person may dominate the conversation and override the opinions of others (Fontana & Frey, 2003). To overcome this, Bolton (2009) and Schänzel and Smith (2010) suggest that the individual should not be forgotten in a group interview. They suggest that it is through allowing and understanding the perspectives of all family members that the role of each family member and the family group can be better understood. That is, allowing all family members to discuss an event can change individual perspectives, remind individuals of situations (aid recall) and allow the family to clarify how an event took place. This

benefit of group family interviews is illustrated in the following dialogue during which the Dunn family discussed whose idea the vacation destination was:

Doug (father): *That would be Donna's.*

Donna (mother): *It wasn't mine.*

Doug: *It was your idea, you thought it would be a good idea,
you can live with it.*

Danielle (12 years): *It was my idea, I begged mum and she said yes.*

Group family interviews allow the telling of family stories. Family stories are in the most part relational rather than individualistic and it is through their telling that an understanding of family identity can be gained (Jorgenson, 1991; Koenig Kellas, 2005; Mason, 2004; Starkweather, 2012). As stated by Handel (1997, p. 346):

*No member of any family is a sufficient source of information for that family.
A family constructs its life from the multiple perspectives of its members,
and an adequate understanding requires that those perspectives be obtained
from their multiple sources.*

4.5.1. Group Narratives and Stories

Humans by nature are storytellers. Narratives and stories are perspectives, they reflect our viewpoint, how we talk and our identities, both as an individual and as part of a family (Bolton, 2009; Bruner, 1991). We use stories to help us understand our own and other's experiences, to give more meaning to those experiences and to draw on shared meanings (Burman & Parker, 1993). It is the process of selecting details of an experience, reflecting on those details and making sense of them that makes telling stories a meaning-making experience (Seidman, 2013).

Narratives are a form of storytelling. Narratives convey the storyteller's view point, either explicitly or as part of the story, through language and details that are included or excluded in the storytelling (Tracy, 2012). Yet a narrative is more than a

story, it is an individual's version of reality affected by their perspective (Bolton, 2009), a perspective that may change in time or place (Fook, 2012). They are ways that people make sense of their world, relive experiences with others (Fook, 2012; Seidman, 2013; Woodside et al., 2004), link individual human actions and events (Guthrie & Anderson, 2010) and construct identity (Noy, 2004). Thus narratives are an important qualitative research tool for those interested in people and their experiences (Mackey, Arnold & Pratt, 2001; Smith & Weed, 2007). In tourism research, narratives are an important way of capturing what was significant to travellers (Guthrie & Anderson, 2010). Narratives do not always finish in the present but can project into the future as a personal predictor of future behaviour (Noy, 2004).

Narratives are also an important tool in family research. Previous research has demonstrated that it is through narratives that family members are able to remember, make sense of family events, create a sense of individual and group identity, connect generations and establish guidelines for family behaviour (Koenig Kellas, 2010; Starkweather, 2012). That is, family reality is socially created through interactions and social exchanges (Jorgenson, 1991). When families recall memories and stories they may add details and disagree, correct and/or affirm other family members' perspectives (Koenig Kellas, 2005). As stated by Chamberlain and Leydesdorff (2004, p. 229), memories are 'not only mediated but are also censored, publically and privately, officially and unofficially'. As a result, one-on-one interviews cannot capture 'the relational nature of family stories' (Starkweather, 2012, p. 289).

To understand how families create identity through stories and how they make consumer decisions, the dynamics of families and their interactions need to be considered (Commuri & Gentry, 2000; Simpson, Griskevicius & Rothman, 2012; Starkweather, 2012). Starkweather (2012, p. 291) notes, 'there has been little discussion about how to conduct family group interviews and draw out relational co-constituted family stories'. Starkweather (2012) suggests three modes of storytelling as a starting point for how families tell stories: collaborative storytelling, taking precedence, and giving precedence. The basis for these categories is not on what

subjects say but on how they say things and how they interact when telling their family stories. The following sections discuss all three modes of storytelling that were present in this study. It is through the telling of stories that the vacation experience for families with adolescents can be explored, and through this the propositions identified in the conceptual framework (see Figure 3.1) investigated.

4.5.1.1. Collaborative Storytelling

Collaborative storytelling, as proposed by Starkweather (2012), involves family members contributing parts to a larger story. Each corrects, clarifies and adds (often at the same time) to the story. Collaborative storytelling often means that the interviewer does not have sole responsibility for probing and clarifying in the interview process, as family members who know the story or were involved in creating the story often adopt this role. Koenig Kellas (2005) suggest that the more often families use ‘we’ statements and family identity statements, the more prevalent collaborative storytelling is and the more engaged family members are in the interview process. Collaborative storytelling was observed in the family interviews and is demonstrated in the following dialogue with the Brown family. In this example, as found by Starkweather (2012), there was very little input by the interviewer:

- Bella (17 years): *Yeah Hawthorn, that was a bit creepy.*
 (all adolescents talking at once)
- Bailey (12 years): *It wasn't that bad.*
- Bella: *It was bad there was like nothing there.*
- Barbara (mother): *Oh hang on we had two rooms.*
- Ben (15 years): *Yeah but it did stink there.*
- Bella: *Yeah it was scary, I thought someone was going to kill*
 me.
- Bailey: *There was only one restaurant in the whole town.*
- Ben: *I thought the bombs would go off.*
- Bella: *Yeah I thought the bombs would go off too.*

Barry (father): *It was a very small rural location and the hotel was a bit old and run down, I now need to try and put some words around it (everyone laughing). The hotel was a bit out of town and a bit run down and the town itself was a bit run down.*

Barbara: *It was a storage facility.*

4.5.1.2. Taking Precedence

According to Starkweather (2012), taking precedence is when a family member dominates the conversation. This can result from unequal power relationships, differing personalities and some subjects having more investment in the research process. Unequal power relationships can often be identified by the use of more 'I' rather than 'we' statements (Burr, 1990). As a result, some family voices can be under represented in the narrative process. In all of the families participating in this study there was an imbalance in the number of times a family member answered questions. In some families, such as the Graham and Carter families, the mother dominated the discussion. Whereas in each of the Holt, Brown and Fisher families, an adolescent dominated the discussion. Furthermore, it was observed that family members sometimes 'took over' the question, as demonstrated in the following dialogue in which Eve Evans provides 'the answer' to the question asked of her daughter:

Ella (13 years): *Mmm there was a boy who came up and started talking to me but I don't like talking to random people. So I really spent time on my own, but I just like swimming, moving around in the water. I really enjoyed that.*

Eve (mother): *She's happy on her own.*

Ella: *Yeah.*

Eve: *Only kids spend more time on their own.*

Ella: *More time on my own yeah.*

4.5.1.3. Giving Precedence

The final storytelling technique identified by Starkweather (2012) is giving precedence. This occurs when a family member urges others to speak, often limiting their own participation in the narrative process as a result (Starkweather, 2012). It was observed that the parents in this study often gave precedence to the adolescents in the interviews. They did this by prompting them, by asking them questions or by encouraging them to answer. This is illustrated in the following dialogue:

Barry (father): *Who's the best at convincing the other two that we need to work together?*

Ben (15 years): *If I want something then I convince Bailey and then he'll convince Bella.*

Bailey (12 years): *(laughing) Yeah.*

Barry: *is he the best at strategy?*

Bella (17 years): *Yeah Bailey's probably, I dunno I'm just pretty bossy. (all laugh)*

The parents interviewed in this study also appeared to give precedence to reconfirm that they made the right decision and to highlight the time spent together as a family. This is evident in the statement: *it makes it more fun to have other kids around doesn't it?* Fiona (mother)

Through group family interviews and the use of narratives and stories, the dynamics of the family were observed and the perspectives of all family members considered. The inclusion of the vacation photographs and the photo elicitation approach in the interview process complemented this.

4.5.2. Photo Elicitation

Families partly travel in order to make photographs that can help them to construct pleasing family narratives; tourists reflexively stage and perform sights, objects and social relations for the camera to produce narratives and lasting memories of blissful family- life. (Haldrup & Larsen, 2003, p. 26)

As part of the group family interview and to contribute towards the investigation of the propositions for this study (see Figure 3.1), questions were asked about photographs taken on the family's vacation, that is photographs were used to elicit responses. Photo elicitation is a form of in-depth qualitative interviewing (Smith, 2008). It uses photographs (or other visual aids) to explore views and perspectives of a subject that is being studied (Banks, 2001; Zainuddin, 2009). More simply it is including photographs in a research interview (Harper, 2002).

Photographs elicit stories about a situation (Heisley & Levy, 1991). They evoke a deeper response than using words alone (Harper, 2002; Johnson, Sharkey, McIntosh & Dean; Loeffler, 2005; Zainuddin, 2009). In an interview they create a relaxed atmosphere for children to be involved in the interview process (Epstein, Stevens, McKeever & Baruchel, 2006) and allow the researcher to examine the motivation behind decisions by transporting the subject back to the event being discussed (Martin & Martin, 2004; Venkatraman & Nelson, 2008).

There are a number of different approaches to photo elicitation. One form is reflexive photography or auto-driven photo elicitation (Lapenta, 2011). Reflexive photography uses photographs to enhance the interview. However, unlike other forms of photo elicitation, photographs are not given to the participants to comment on, instead the subjects are asked to comment and elaborate on photographs they have taken themselves (Lapenta, 2011). An advantage of this approach is that the researcher is not

choosing the photographs to be used in the interview, thus reducing the chance of researcher bias (Lapenta, 2011).

A lesser used reflexive photography approach, which was adopted in this study, is to use photographs from individuals after their vacation experiences without giving them any knowledge about the study prior to their vacation (Carr, 2011). All families in this study were asked to bring to the interview a selection of photographs from their vacation. The only guidance they were given was that the photographs should represent the vacation and that they were happy for the researcher to see them. As the families had already been on their vacation when they agreed to participate in the study, the photographs were taken without knowledge that they would be used as part of a research project. One family (the Holts) advised during the interview that they did not have any photographs. The other seven families had all of their vacation photographs available. Before any questions about the photographs were asked, participants were reminded to remove any photographs they did not want shown and were told that none of the photographs would be retained or copied by the researcher. Only one adolescent from one family removed a photograph. Four families had digital photographs and three families had printed photographs. The photographs were used to elicit discussion rather than for content analysis (Schänzel & Smith, 2011). This proved a valuable research tool, as was found by Schänzel and Smith (2011), as it allowed the participants to reflect on the meaning and for the researcher to view events/situations from the vacation that they would otherwise not have access to.

All participants were asked the same questions about the photographs:

- 1) Which photo best represents the holiday to you? Why?
- 2) Which is your favourite photo? Why?
- 3) Which is your least favourite photo? Why?

In answering these questions, the family members were advised that they did not have to choose three different photographs, the same photographs may be used to

answer more than one question. They were also advised that they did not have to provide a photograph in response to each question. The photo elicitation exercise, while an individual exercise, was undertaken in a group setting in which other family members could both hear and comment on the discussion. The recording was stopped while the family members examined the photographs and made their selections. This was done to conserve space on the digital recorder as it took family members some time to look through each of the photographs. The recording was restarted when family members began discussing the photographs, either in general or because they were ready to answer the questions. Each photograph was described for the purpose of the recording (either by the participant or the researcher) and the family member then discussed why the chosen photograph answered the question(s). The photo elicitation exercise concluded the interview process.

The group interviews for each family lasted approximately 1-1.5 hours and created the data for this study. The following section discusses the analysis approach for the data collected.

4.6. Analysis of the Data

The data in this study were analysed through a process of thematic analysis. As stated by Willig (2013), thematic analysis is particularly well suited to studies examining people's way of thinking about particular social phenomena. It is through this process that the propositions identified in the conceptual framework (see Figure 3.1) can be fully explored and investigated. This is especially true for understanding their social reality as they go about their daily life (Joffe, 2012).

Thematic analysis is a system of identifying and organising patterns in qualitative data (Boyatzis, 1998). A theme is 'a specific pattern of meaning found in the data' (Joffe, 2012, p. 224). That is, themes are abstract constructs or patterns that then become the categories for analysis (Boyatzis, 1998; Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Ryan & Bernard, 2003; Willig, 2013). Thematic analysis can be used for both

exploratory and confirmatory purposes and is particularly suited to interview data (Joffe, 2012; Ryan & Bernard, 2003). Thematic analysis can form the basis of many other qualitative data analysis approaches, such as grounded theory and schema analysis, as it provides a systematic and transparent way of analysing the data (Joffe, 2012; Ryan & Bernard, 2003; Willig, 2013). As such, thematic analysis is, as described by Boyatzis (1998), a 'translator' between those using qualitative and quantitative analysis, and those who use different forms of qualitative data analysis.

Themes are categorised through a coding process. Codes are a form of data 'tag' that are used to mark off words, phrases and even pages of text. They represent the researcher's judgments about the data (Boyatzis, 1998; Ryan & Bernard, 2003). The development of themes and codes can occur before, during and after the data are collected. Irrespective of when the codes are developed, the process of identifying themes and codes in itself involves a large amount of interpretive analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Ryan & Bernard, 2003). Boyatzis (1998), Joffe (2012) and Willig (2013) refer the process of identifying themes and codes as both manifest (directly observable) content or latent (implicit) content, and state that most analysis includes both which can be used concurrently. The latent content approach allows the text to be examined more interpretively (Boyatzis, 1998).

Themes and codes developed prior to the data collection process can develop from the literature and the researcher's experience with the subject (Boyatzis, 1998; Crabtree & Miller, 1999a; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Ryan & Bernard, 2003). This is known as a deductive approach (Joffe, 2012; Willig, 2013). It is important to have deductively based codes, to recognise previous findings and to avoid 're-inventing the wheel' (Joffe, 2012). Deductive codes are useful as they are both easy to establish and reproducible. However, they are limited in their application as they are based on prior research and therefore do not account for emerging themes (Crabtree & Miller, 1999a).

Alternatively, the identification of themes occurs using an inductive approach where there is no predetermined coding framework. The themes are grounded in the

data and added to throughout the data analysis process (Joffe, 2012; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Ryan & Bernard, 2003; Willig, 2013). Inductive themes allow the researcher to identify new knowledge and concepts (Joffe, 2012). Inductive codes are developed from comparing within and between two or more research samples (Boyatzis, 1998).

A common approach to coding, also used in this study, is a combination of an inductive and deductive approach (Crabtree & Miller, 1999b; Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Joffe, 2012). In this study, the initial identification of themes was through the literature review and the conceptual framework. Subsequently, further codes were established inductively through the analysis process during and subsequent to the interviews. By using this approach the researcher is able to analyse the data with preconceived theoretical based themes while at the same time being open to new constructs (Joffe, 2012). This results in a complete thematic analysis of the data (Willig, 2013).

The process of analysing the data in this study began with the eight family interviews being transcribed verbatim. An excerpt from the interview transcripts is included in Appendix G. The data were collected through digital recordings and included notes, such as conversations at the end of the interview after the recording had finished. On average, each interview resulted in twenty pages of single-spaced transcription. All data were stored in the qualitative analysis software QSR NVIVO. The NVIVO software enable data to be sorted and organised electronically. It was this management of the data that allowed for a comprehensive process of coding to be undertaken and the identification of both deductive and inductive themes. While NVIVO itself does not code the data, the utilisation of this software increases the rigour of the data analysis by clearly showing the decision rules that were applied in the coding process (Crowley, Harre & Tagg, 2002).

While described as linear steps, the coding and analysis process are a non-linear reflexive process that involves revisiting previous steps as the themes and codes developed. Moreover, the process of coding is a selective process. The person doing

the coding makes the decision about what text to include or exclude and which category to code it in (Miles & Huberman, 1994). It is therefore important to employ a reflective/reflexive approach to the coding process as it is not the words themselves but the meaning that matters (Miles & Huberman, 1994). As recommended by Miles and Huberman, the data analysis occurred throughout the data collection phase, earlier interviews were further analysed as new interviews were undertaken.

The interactive nonlinear process of limiting bias through reflecting, revisiting, developing codes and identifying themes, is what ensures rigour and trustworthiness (often referred to as 'goodness') in qualitative analysis (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Henwood & Pidgeon, 1992; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Tobin & Begley, 2004). Rigour enables the researcher to demonstrate both integrity and competence (Tobin & Begley, 2004). While different authors have proposed different ways to determine rigour and trustworthiness, the general focus is on the four concepts put forth by Lincoln and Guba (1985): credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

Credibility (internal validity) focuses on the importance of fit. That is, that the researcher stays close to the data. This may include demonstrating, through comprehensive definitions and categories, why data have been coded in a certain way and how it fits with emergent theory (Henwood & Pidgeon, 1992; Tobin & Begley, 2004). Transferability centres on external validity, that is, it enquires whether the research is generalisable and whether the findings have more general implications. Dependability (reliability) is achieved through ensuring that the research is auditable, that it is logical, traceable and clearly documented. Finally, confirmability (objectivity or neutrality), is the process of establishing that the findings are derived from the data, and not from the researcher's imagination (Tobin & Begley, 2004). Reflexivity is often included in the process of confirmability (Henwood & Pidgeon, 1992; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

A number of authors, such as Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006), Howitt (2010) and Joffe (2012), have provided guides to conducting thematic analysis. Within these

guides, they have included steps to undertake this process. These steps include examining the data set in full before developing a coding frame (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Joffe, 2012). Codes should be checked for reliability, whether that be through applying them to multiple data sources, comparing them with other studies or having them reviewed by a third party (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Joffe, 2012). Joffe (2012) suggests that coding should then take place in a computer assisted data package. Once the coding frame has been developed the data can then be analysed for patterns and themes (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Joffe, 2012). Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) suggest at this stage that the data should be summarised and initial themes developed. Additional coding will ensure all data sources have been included, any further themes identified and findings confirmed. The purpose of these steps is to confirm the rigour and trustworthiness of the data by ensuring that the bulk of the data are explained, a transparent trail is created and that, as a result, current thinking is expanded (Joffe, 2012). These steps were used as the basis for the coding process in this study. Each step taken is described below. In addition, throughout the coding process for this study, thoughts and ideas were noted as relationships and themes were identified. This process is referred to as ‘memoing’ (Miles & Huberman, 1994) and comprised in this study of the creation of notes in the margins of transcripts, emails to supervisors and notes made on the draft versions of the analysis.

4.6.1. Step One: Deductive Coding

The first step in the analytical process was to examine the full data set and develop a coding frame (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Joffe, 2012). The coding frame (also called a coding manual or coding book) then guided the analysis. This step was broken down into a number of stages.

The first stage was the separation of the vacation into three phases (as identified in the conceptual framework, see Figure 3.1.). When the initial interview schedule was developed, four stages were identified – pre-vacation, search and decision, during vacation and post-vacation. However, the search and decision stage was combined into

the pre-vacation and during vacation phases. This was because, through the interview process, the search and decision stage was not determined to be a standalone phase. Rather it formed part of the process that occurred before or during the vacation.

The second stage involved creating codes derived from the conceptual framework as proposed in Chapter 3, see Figure 3.1. Using a deductive process, descriptive codes were developed for each of the vacation phases. Descriptive codes involve little interpretation, but a class is applied to a segment of the text (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The codes were applied based on the vacation phases and referred to each of the major themes identified in the conceptual framework. For example, amongst other themes, identities, motives, and influence strategies, were coded in each of the vacation phases (see Figure 4.1.). Sub-themes were also developed for each of these themes. For example, the theme of identities was further coded as individual identity, relational identity and family identity. See Appendix H, for deductive codes developed in this stage (Stage One).

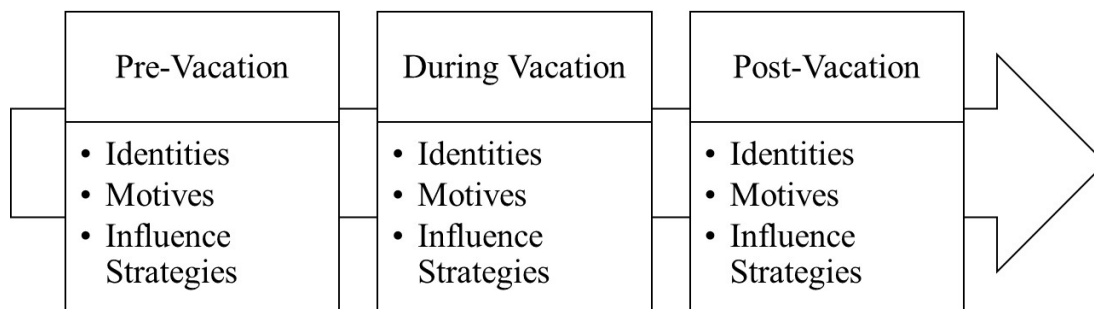


Figure 4.1. Deductive Coding

Once the deductive codes were identified and applied, the themes were then examined across the vacation (see Appendix H, Stage Two). For example, the identities theme was examined as a whole irrespective of which phase it occurred in (see Figure 4.2.). This led to the development of further codes and themes. For example, from identifying the different identity ‘levels’ and how these changed, the theme ‘fluidity of identity roles’ was identified.

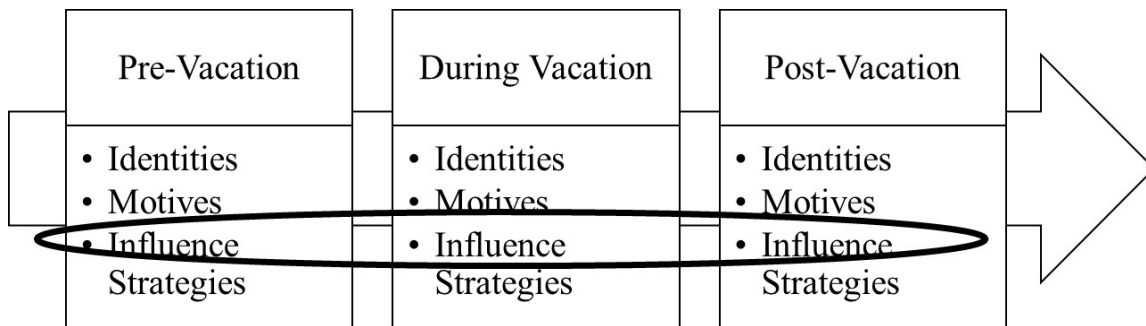


Figure 4.2. Deductive Coding - themes across the vacation

4.6.2. Step Two: Inductive Coding

The second and most complex step involved analysing the data for inductive themes that emerged. Similar to deductive coding, this was initially a two stage process. First, each phase in the vacation was analysed for key themes and then each theme was examined across the vacation. Initially applied were descriptive codes to segments of text, within each phase of the vacation, as themes were identified. For example, discussions about accommodation were coded as 'accommodation'. Then each theme was examined across the vacation. For example, references to accommodation were grouped together and examined irrespective of whether they occurred pre-, during, or post-vacation (see Figure 4.3.).

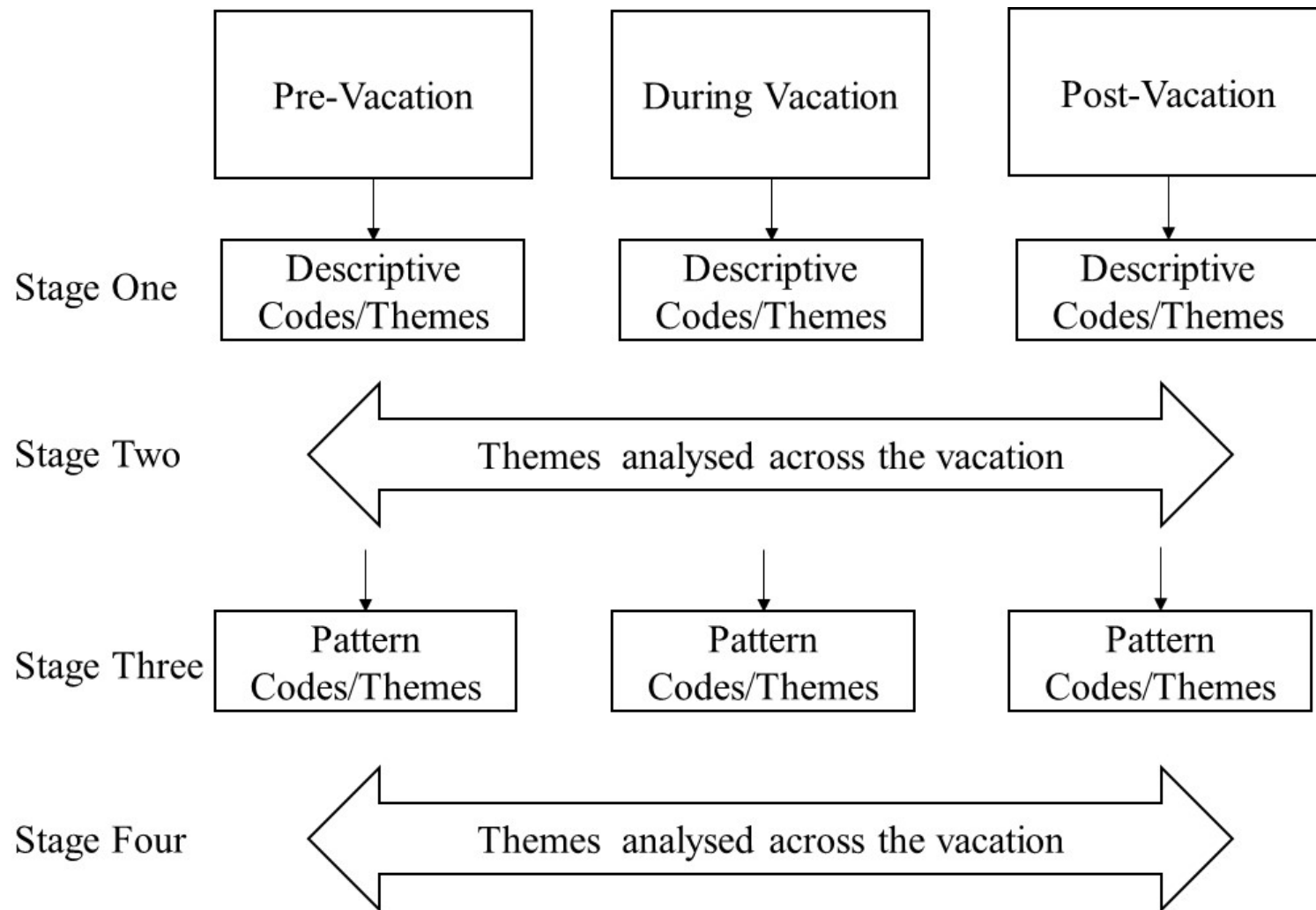


Figure 4.3. Inductive Coding

Second, after the application and examination of the descriptive codes, the data were re-examined to identify patterns. Pattern coding, as described by Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 69), involves ‘explanatory or inferential codes, ones that identify an emergent theme, configuration or explanation’. Figure 4.3, depicts these steps as Stages 3 and 4 in the coding process (see Appendix H, Stages Three and Four). As with the descriptive codes, pattern codes were examined within each vacation phase and across each vacation phase. For example, the importance of memory creation throughout the vacation and its impact on identity was a recurring theme in the data.

Throughout this process codes were adapted. For example, it was found, as Miles and Huberman (1994) identified, that some codes became too large and needed to be reclassified and some did not work as initial themes did not develop. The coding process finished when the analysis had run its course, when the data had been categorised and saturated and a sufficient number of regularities within the data emerged (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

4.6.3. Step Three: Creation of a Theoretical Model

The final step in the coding process involved identifying how each of the emerging themes, concepts and beliefs link together to form a theoretical model (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Ryan & Bernard, 2003). The model was rooted in the conceptual framework and developed through both the deductive and inductive coding process and subsequent findings.

4.7. Chapter Summary

This chapter described the approach and methodology applied in this study. Particular attention was given to how the constructs identified in the conceptual framework (developed in Chapter 3, see Figure 3.1) were operationalised. This study adopts an interpretive/constructivist paradigm. An interpretive/constructivist paradigm addresses the conventions of a CCT orientation. As it allows the researcher to observe how for the families in this study they negotiate their reality within the construct of the

family vacation. A qualitative methodological framework allows for this construction and a whole-family approach (where the individual and group perspectives are considered) ensures all family members' perspective are included. This approach is consistent with recent family tourism research that recognises the active role children (in this case adolescents) have in family decision making. In addition, a reflective process and reflexive stance is adopted. Central to a social constructivist paradigm is that reality is negotiated and the researcher needs to be aware of their self in the participants' construction of reality. The data for this study combines narratives and photo elicitation. Eight families (31 individuals) participated in this study. The data were analysed through thematic analysis and a deductive and inductive coding process, this enabled the propositions for this study to be investigated (see Figure 3.1) and how families with adolescents make and evaluate vacation decisions to be explored. Chapter 5 and 6 presents the findings that resulted from this approach. The discussion from these findings, its application to the conceptual framework and the development of a new theoretical model are reported in Chapter 7.

Chapter 5. Identity, Motives and Influence Strategies – Findings and Discussion

5.1. Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to present the findings and discussion on identity, motives and influence strategies. These findings are framed by the approach and methodology for this study as presented in the previous chapter. Chapter 6 presents the vacation decision and outcome findings.

This chapter, as with Chapter 6, presents the findings of the family interviews and the photo elicitation process. The responses from the individual self-administered questionnaires were reviewed to identify whether the responses were consistent with the family interviews. The findings of the individual questionnaires and the group interviews were consistent, confirming that the group (or individual within it) did not influence the individual perspective. For this reason, the questionnaires are not referred to in this and the following chapter but rather have been used to validate the findings of the group interviews. The families in this study did at times refer to the questionnaires in the interview, for example, Ella (13 years) *‘I wrote that in my thing. I liked Hamilton Island because it wasn’t educational’*. Alternatively, they recalled events in the interviews that they had not thought of in the questionnaires, for example, Barbara (mother) *‘It was mine now I think about it, I didn’t write that down though’*. With both examples, the participants were happy to discuss their individual thoughts with their families. The quotes that are used to support the findings in these chapters and throughout this thesis have been left unaltered from the original transcripts. The only exception is where ‘...’ appears within a quote. In this case, the words and meaning remain unchanged but the quote was shortened. To gain insights into the vacation for families with adolescents, it is important to hear the voice of each family member, especially the voice of the adolescent as this has rarely been heard in tourism research. Adolescents in this study often used words and colloquialisms such as ‘umm’, ‘yeah’

or ‘like’. While removing these from quotes would not change the meaning of what the adolescent was saying, it does inhibit their ‘voice’ and for this reason these words and phrases remain. Non-words, such as laughter, are included as much as possible. For example, adding ‘all laugh’ to the dialogue enables the reader to understand the manner in which the response was intended. In addition, after the name of each of the participants, either the adolescent’s age or the parent’s role in the family are provided in brackets.

This chapter is comprised of three sections. Section 5.2 presents the findings and discusses individual, family and relational identity. Section 5.3 presents the findings and discusses the interrelationship of identity and motives. Section 5.4 discusses the use of influence strategies by families to influence vacation decisions.

5.2. Identities in Families

This section discusses identity in families. The extant literature demonstrates that identity is central to understanding the tourist experience, as it is through identity that researchers can understand why people travel (Bond & Falk, 2013), why, in the case of families, members are involved in family decision making and how they make and evaluate vacation decisions. Families with adolescents are comprised of multiple members each with their own multi-faceted identity. Furthermore, for adolescents, adolescence is a period where their identity is developing as they transition from child to adult (see Section 2.3.2). These elements combined with family vacations representing a time families spend (in the most part) together means identity both frames and is central to exploring how families with adolescents make and evaluate vacation decisions. This section will discuss how the families in this study constructed their multi-faceted identity, using the three levels of identity, identified by Epp and Price (2008) as the basis. As identity is central to the tourist experience, gaining an understanding on how the families in this study view and express their multiple multi-faceted identities enables vacation motives, influence strategies and decisions to be explored.

Families, as existing research has demonstrated (see Section 2.3.2), are comprised of a collective family identity, smaller relational identities and individual identities. Epp and Price (2008) developed a framework aimed at orientating researchers to the role of consumption and communication in both creating and reinforcing family identity. Using this framework as the basis, and within the parameters of the consumption of the vacation, the family identity levels that Epp and Price referred to as 'Family Identity Bundles' (see Figure 2.1, Section 2.3.2) are explored.

5.2.1. Individual Identity

Individual identity in a family emphasises separation from the family and is both internally (by the individual) and externally (by other family and/or non-family members) constructed. Internally constructed individual identity was highlighted through the use of 'I' statements (see Section 2.3). For example, Fiona Fisher (mother) described herself (actual self) by stating, "*I am terrified of heights*". Externally constructed individual identity characteristics were observed when family members described or discussed other family members. For example, Grace Graham (mother) explained, "*she [Georgia] is scared of heights*", to justify why her daughter did not go on a theme park ride.

The individual identity of family members was identified through a combination of internally and externally constructed characteristics. The Adams family highlighted this in the following dialogues when they discussed seeing friends on vacation. Alice Adams (16 years), unlike the rest of her family, saw seeing friends as a highlight of the vacation. That is, Alice identified being social as congruent with her individual identity, as she exclaims, "*I like seeing people and there are always people there*". Alice highlights this separation from her family with the use of 'you' statements such as when she declared, "*you're so anti-social, you need to let go a little bit, all of you*". External confirmation of Alice's individual identity came from her family. Alice's mother (Anna) agreed, "*Alice is the social butterfly in the family*". Anna further reinforced this separation by highlighting that this characteristic was distinct from her other daughter

(Abby) who, *“was almost hiding behind bushes by the end of the holiday the previous time”*. Abby (15 years) confirmed this when she acknowledged, *“I was crossing the road at least”*, thus displaying her own individual identity and her sister’s in one statement.

Further dialogue with the Adams family demonstrates that, notwithstanding the existence of internally and externally confirmed individual identity characteristics, the level of salience and commitment to identity roles is situation specific (as identified by Bond and Falk (2013) and Jenkins (2014)). In the previous dialogues, Abby cited being less ‘social’ as an individual identity characteristic that set her apart from her sister, yet in another situation Abby displayed the salience of social aspects of her individual identity when she perceived being alone as damaging to her identity. She explained, *“you don’t go to the beach by yourself, like you wouldn’t want to be seen going to the beach by yourself... because everyone is there with people...”*.

In addition to demonstrating individual identity characteristics that are distinct from other family members, family members used ‘you’ statements when they were dissatisfied with a decision making outcome and to apportion blame (see discussion Section 2.3.2). For example, Edward Evans (father) attributed blame for a disappointing Great Barrier Reef cruise to his wife (Eve), stating, *“I was a little surprised that you booked into that”*. Doug Dunn (father), also attributed blame to his wife (for the destination choice), when he announced, *“it was your idea, you thought it would be a good idea, you can live with it”*. Donna (mother) then (in part) attributed the blame for Doug not enjoying the vacation to their son Dylan (17 years). As illustrated in the following note made after the interview:

Donna also stated that Doug had said he wouldn’t go on another family holiday with Dylan because he stayed up so late watching TV and playing his music, that it disrupted everyone else. Donna states that they have booked another holiday for a week and Dylan has his own unit.

Throughout the interview, Doug stated that he did not enjoy the vacation as he viewed the destination as incongruent with his individual identity as a nature lover. This is evident in comments such as, “*most of the things we did were very commercial and it would be nice to just have simple activities*”. Existing research (see Section 2.3.1) suggests there is a relationship between identity and satisfaction with a destination. Based on this statement Doug should have been dissatisfied with the vacation, as it was incongruent with his individual identity. However, this study challenges this finding and highlights the complexity in the relationship between identity and vacation satisfaction in families. Despite Doug experiencing both interpersonal and destination incongruence, he saw the vacation as successful because his children enjoyed it (discussed further in Section 6.4.1).

Individual identity is maintained and enhanced through consumption, as discussed in Section 2.3. The consumption of vacations as a vehicle to strengthen and reinforce adolescent individual identity was a recurring theme in this study. This is illustrated when the adolescents were asked to project their ultimate vacation (if you could go anywhere, where would you go?). All but two of the adolescents said their ultimate holiday was to an overseas destination. When asked about the reasons for their choice, common responses included, “*it seems cool*”, or “*my friends have been there*”. The destinations they chose both reflect how they saw themselves (actual self) and how they wanted to be seen (ideal self), particularly by their peers. These findings resonates with the work of Lewis et al. (2010) who found, albeit in relation to young adults rather than adolescents, that travellers prefer overseas destinations because of the prestige, social acceptance and ability to brag associated with such travel. The following dialogues, from separate interviews, further support this finding both respondents highlight the importance of peers in their choices:

Because the ad looks really good. Because I see it when I watch Saturday Disney. I see the ad for Disneyland and Disneyland Resort and it looks amazing. And all my friends have been there and they all talk about how

amazing it was. So it's not like they are lying on the ad, because some of the ad's lie. And it just looks so good and I'd really like to do it, while I'm young to enjoy it, I don't want to wait until I get old and not want to do it (Ella, 13 years).

And

Yeah, I'd like to go to Paris and stuff, because a lot of my friends at school we all want to go to Paris and stuff. Oh yeah I don't know, go to Gallipoli and stuff that would be cool, Turkey and Germany go to that Auschwitz and stuff, because we are doing a lot of that in school and it's really interesting me (Caitlyn, 14 years).

Further illustrating the importance of the vacation to strengthening individual identity characteristics of adolescents through bragging is the following dialogue with the Holt adolescents who discuss not visiting a theme park:

Hannah (12 years): *I did, though kind of want to, there was a little bit of, there was a little bit of something inside me saying, it would have been cool to go there. It's not bragging rights but then you get to go back...*

Harry (15 years): *A story to tell.*

Hannah: *Yeah a story to tell, so like instead of saying I umm....*

Harry: *'What did you do in the holidays?'*

Hannah: *'What did you do in the holidays?'* *'Well I went to a swimming pool'. 'Well I didn't go on holiday but I went to a swimming pool as well', like 'I went to Movie World', 'Whoa you went to Movie World?' and then it's just like, because we don't have anything like, in like, we don't have anything in Adelaide, and I don't think we*

have anything in Melbourne, besides Luna Park, so it's just like 'whoood' instead of I went to a swimming pool, 'good for you I did too'.

As discussed in Section 2.7.3., Kerr et al. (2012) suggest that when bragging, travellers focus on destination characteristics that project the right image to the traveler's social group. The dialogue above (as with the previous two dialogues) support this assertion. The Holt adolescents were disappointed about not visiting a theme park because of the inability to brag to their peers, rather than because they did not have the experience. That is, by not visiting a theme park, they perceived that they were unable to affect how others saw them or to strengthen their identity.

This discussion demonstrates how individual identity highlights differences from others; in a family situation this includes differences between family members. It further highlights how individual identity is maintained through the consumption of the vacation and how not maintaining individual identity can lead to disappointment. In addition to individual identities, families consist of family and relational identities that highlight commonalities between family members. The following sections discuss family and relational identities.

5.2.2. Family Identity

Family identity is what makes each family unique when compared with other families. 'We' statements are used to show relationships between people (Bond & Falk, 2013; Burr, 1990) and therefore represent one way to depict family identity. While all families in this study exhibited commitment to their family identity, the level of salience and commitment to this identity varied between families. Epp and Price (2008) explain that this variation is due to identity related needs differing between and within families over time, due to cultural norms and in response to local needs such as being pulled apart by daily life. In this study, the Dunn, Evans and Adams families displayed less

commitment to family identity, generally only using ‘we’ statements when they recalled an event they all participated in, illustrated as follows:

Donna (mother): *We went to a theme park? Which ones did we go to first kids?*

Dylan (17 years): *Movie World.*

Danielle (12 years) &

Daisy (14 years): *No Wet and Wild.*

Donna: *Yes it was, we only went once to Wet and Wild and it was the first day.*

The Dunn, Evans and Adams families rarely favoured their family identity, instead they displayed more commitment and salience towards relational identities (discussed in Section 5.2.3). On the other hand, the Carter and Brown families placed a high importance on their family identity. In the following dialogue, Campbell Carter defined his family as a family who “*love America*” and he used ‘we’ statements to reinforce who they were as a group:

Didn’t we think we thought, we might go to Asia, we might go like somewhere there, and then we all sort of came to an agreement that we really loved America and we really wanted to go back (Campbell, 17 years).

Photographs have been shown in previous research to create memories and strengthen family identity (Epp & Price, 2008). Evidence for this was found in this study and is discussed further in Section 6.4.1.2. Importantly, what was also observed was the use of photographs as a vehicle for families to articulate how they saw their family identity and to reflect on family identity characteristics. As illustrated when families chose a photograph that best represented their vacation and/or their favourite photograph. Most families (both parents and adolescents) chose a group photograph and explained their choice by either explicitly stating that the photograph represented

who they were as a family. The following quote by Catherine Carter (mother) is a typical response “... *that’s pretty representative of what we, you know we get in the mood, we join in we take our hats and our sunglasses off and smile at the camera*”. Families also described how the photograph symbolised the vacation and, through this, them as a family. The following dialogue illustrates this:

... we are all having fun as it’s representative of the holiday. Either the one at Yosemite or Disneyland. Even though it wasn’t a highlight (Disneyland) it gives a sense of what the holiday was like, it was pretty funny (Barbara, mother).

In addition to using the photographs as a vehicle to discuss family identity characteristics, families conveyed family identity implicitly through the way they talked about themselves during the interviews. For example, in the dialogue above, the Brown family referred to the family vacation throughout the interview as ‘fun’ or ‘funny’, depicting having fun together as an important characteristic of their family’s identity. In a similar way, the Graham family discussed the importance of shopping to their family identity. Throughout the interview the Graham family discussed multiple times how shopping (the word ‘shop’ was used 32 times in the interview) was an activity they both liked to do together and enjoyed most about their vacation. That is, they saw themselves as a family that liked to shop (family identity), as evidenced in the following dialogue:

Interviewer: *What about you Grace, was there anything that you wanted to do the most?*

Grace (mother): *Just shop I think, which we did.*

Gary (father): *We did.*

Georgia (15 years): *It’s one thing we are good at!*

(all laugh)

The strengthening of family identity on vacation was an important theme that was identified from the findings of this study, and is discussed further in Chapter 6. Related to this, and a surprising finding of this study given that adolescence has been described as a period of ‘storm and stress’ (see Section 2.2.1), was the high level of commitment and salience adolescents gave to their family identity. This was observed through the adolescents’ use of ‘we’ statements, through the way adolescents described their family and through the adolescents’ choice of photographs to represent the vacation. The following quote from the Carter adolescents, explaining why a photograph they chose represented their vacation, illustrates this:

Campbell (17 years): *It’s just good, it’s me holding balloons, Caitlyn’s smiling, Mum’s smiling, Dad’s looking at us. It just symbolises happiness, that’s where we were in the happiest place on earth and that’s what it is. We’re all having fun, we’ve got a good background.*

Caitlyn (14 years): *We didn’t care what we looked like or anything we were just ourselves.*

As indicated above, this finding is significant as adolescence is typically viewed as a period of reduced family cohesion, largely due to the adolescents’ growing independence and autonomy as they develop into adults (see Section 2.2.1).

It further was identified from the findings that adolescents used ‘we’ statements to represent family decisions, decisions that the adolescent is not directly involved in. For example, Ella Evans (13) discussed the accommodation purchase as a ‘family’ decision despite not being involved in that decision (discussed earlier in the interview):

And mummy was saying that the view wouldn’t be that good because we hadn’t spent lots of money to go up to the higher floor but you can see in the photographs it was a really good view.

In a similar example, Hannah Holt (12 years) discussed the purchase of movie tickets as a collective activity, “*because when we were buying the tickets at the box office we asked what would you recommend is it [the movie] available?*” While not expressly stated, it is unlikely that the whole family were directly involved in the purchase of these tickets. In addition, this finding was more prevalent amongst the younger (rather than older) adolescents. This further highlights the liminality of this life stage. The younger adolescents transitioning from ‘children’ show more reliance on their parents as decision makers than the older adolescents who are closer to adulthood and display more independence in decision making (discussed further in Chapter 6).

Although the literature clearly highlights (see Section 2.2.1) adolescence as a period of increased independence and autonomy, what the findings of this study suggest is the liminal nature of the adolescent years as adolescents move between independence and dependence on their families. Adolescents expressed commitment to their family identity on vacation both because family vacations are a collective experience and because, in cases where adolescents do not have the independence or autonomy to make their own decisions, they see themselves less as individual identities and more as part of the collective family identity.

5.2.3. Relational Identity

Relational identities are identities within a family that comprise of more than one family member (individual identity) and less than the whole family (family identity) (see Section 2.3.2). In this study, in addition to ‘we’ statements, ‘us’, ‘them’, ‘they’ and ‘you’ statements defined relational identities and were found to include a number of different relationships. Relational identities are important as they convey that families are more complex than multiple individuals who come together to form a family group. Within this group, there are a number of relationships that affect the dynamics and workings of the family.

The existence of a parent relational identity and separate adolescent relational identity was identified from the findings. The salience and commitment to relational identities varied between families. For example, the Dunn and Adams families showed commitment and salience to their parent relational identity. Donna Dunn (mother) highlighted in the following dialogue both the existence of the parents as a relational identity and the separation of this identity from the adolescents through the use of ‘we’, ‘they’ and ‘them’. Donna explained, “*we were there because we thought they would enjoy the theme parks the most, so it’s a picture of just them at the theme park, and they all look really happy there*”.

The adolescents in this study similarly displayed the existence of an adolescent identity and the separation of this identity from their parents by using terms such as ‘we’, ‘them’ and ‘they’. A typical example was illustrated by Alice Adams (16 years) when she commented, “*like we’d say, we’ll go to the pool together...*” In this dialogue, Alice highlighted the existence of a relational identity with her sister, the separation of this identity to their parents is further illustrated when Anna (mother) muses “*and [they’d] head off by themselves to the shops in one direction and we’d go another direction*”. These dialogues further highlight the temporal nature of identity roles. Alice referred to her individual identity, distinct from other family members, as the social member of the family, whereas in this dialogue she affirmed that she was part of a relational identity with her sister. At a further stage in the interview, Alice included herself in her family identity (as an active family), stating: “*that’s [running] always been a family activity that everyone likes*”. Identity levels in a family, while distinct, exist simultaneously. The salience of one identity level over another is dependent on the decision making situation and the individual’s commitment to each identity role.

In addition to a relational sibling identity, relational identities exist within the adolescent sibling groups for families with more than two adolescents. For example, in the Dunn family, Danielle (12 years) complained, “*I really wanted to go back to Wet*

and Wild, but mum, dad and Dylan didn't want to, but me and Daisy did", and in the Brown family two of the siblings discussed time spent together:

Ben (15 years): *Well me and Bella got a bit [of time alone] when Bailey went to hospital.*

Bella (17 years): *Yeah we got the day.*

The separation between adolescent and parent was also observed in the Fisher family, a single parent, single adolescent family. While not strictly a separate relational identity, this highlighted a separate parent/adolescent identity as well as a whole family identity, as illustrated in the following dialogue:

Fiona (mother): *But we had done some research.*

Freya (12 years): *You had, I hadn't.*

Fiona: *I tend to do the research and then we have a discussion about whether it's of interest.*

Relational identities are not limited to the separation between generations. The families in this study also revealed relational identities between a parent and one or more adolescent(s). The Evan's family exhibited a high degree of salience and commitment towards the mother/daughter relational identity as this was expressed more frequently than the whole family or parent relational identity. This is evident in the following quote, "*and we went to the pool. Daddy was like I'll come to the pool and mummy and I would wait in the pool and he would come like half an hour later, because he was watching the rugby (laughs)*" (Ella, 13). This is further illustrated when Eve (mother) discussed her ultimate holiday and mused, "*I would like to ... take Ella to parts of Europe, I'd like to do that. Umm if there were no practical or monetary considerations, that's what I would like to do*".

In addition to referencing statements, parent/adolescent relational identities were expressed through the identification of common characteristics between family members, as shown in the following dialogue:

Gaby (12 years): *But Dad and I like to go on all the rides so, I think I was happy to go but... Georgia and mum...*

Grace (mother): *We don't go on rides.*

Georgia (15 years): *No.*

Grace: *We hold the bags.*

In this example, Grace and Georgia explicitly identified their relational identity as the family members who do not 'like rides', while Gary and Gaby identified as the family members who enjoy rides. These relational identities were both internally constructed and externally verified by the remaining family members.

The existence of parent/adolescent relational identities was also observed implicitly throughout the interviews through the way family members talked about themselves and other family members. For example, Caitlyn Carter (14 years) gave similar answers to questions as those given by her mother (Catherine), as observed in the following non-consecutive quotes,

Interviewer: *Was there anything that was your decision Caitlyn?*

Caitlyn (14 years): *No not really I just sort of followed along.*

And later

Catherine (mother) *I just go with the flow. (all laugh). I am just there to wash the clothes and feed them (all laugh).*

In addition, Campbell (17 years) displayed similar relational identity characteristics to his father, stating that he liked to be active on vacation, "*so I caught that on, so now*

when I go on holidays that's what I want to do", which he said was what his father liked to do, "he just always goes, he can't sit still for more than five minutes".

The existence of family members' multi-faceted identities means that while each identity level is distinct, individuals move fluidly between levels and all levels can exist simultaneously. For example, in the following single response, Barry Brown (father) used 'I' to reflect his own identity, and 'we' to not only reflect the family identity, but also the father/son relational identity, saying, *"probably if we had more time in Yosemite, and it had worked out, then Ben and I might have gone off and done a much longer walk. We would have both liked that"*. In a similar way, Georgia Graham (15 years) used 'I' to reflect her own opinion and then 'we' to reflect both the family identity and the sibling relational identity when she commented, *"I was happy when we heard because we wouldn't go any further away, so it was a good compromise I suppose"*.

5.2.4. Discussion

The findings of this study illustrate that within families multiple multi-faceted identities exist at family, relational and individual identity levels. It is this recognition and identification that will be used to explore how families with adolescents make vacation decisions and evaluate the outcomes of those decisions and the vacation as a whole. These findings support Proposition 1, which states: *(P1): Identity, for the family with adolescents, exists at three levels, is dynamic and critical to understand family vacation decision making*. Moreover, the findings presented in the remainder of this chapter and the following chapter will give further support to the argument that identity plays a critical role in understanding how families make vacation decisions.

As discussed in Section 5.2, the complexity of family identity and consumption practices were identified by Epp and Price (2008) and depicted in their Family Identity and Interplay framework (see Figure 2.1, Section 2.3.2). Using this framework as a basis, and exploring identity within the parameters of the family vacation, the family identity bundle developed by Epp and Price was further developed in this study.

Although Epp and Price identified family identity bundles in their framework they did not develop this further and investigate how identity levels interact and/or the fluidity of family members between identity roles depending on the decision making situation. Figure 5.1 illustrates how family members fulfil multiple identity roles at three interrelated levels (as proposed by Epp and Price (2008)), and use person referencing statements to delineate between collective (e.g. we/us) and individual identity (e.g. I/you). The multiple circles at the individual and relational levels depict the complexity of family dynamics, as more than one person or relationship may exist at each level. At a relational level, three identities were observed: the parents, the adolescents and the adolescent/parent relationship. The arrows between each identity level denote that the salience and commitment to identity levels and roles are temporal (situation dependent), vary between families, and that all three levels exist independently and simultaneously. Figure 5.1 further illustrates that it is the combination of families' multiple multi-faceted identities that makes identity both complex in families with adolescents and critical to understanding the family vacation. Furthermore, it is the interaction of these multiple multi-faceted identities that largely create vacation motives (Bond & Falk, 2013; Epp & Price, 2008). The following section discusses vacation motives and their role in understanding how families with adolescents make vacation decisions.

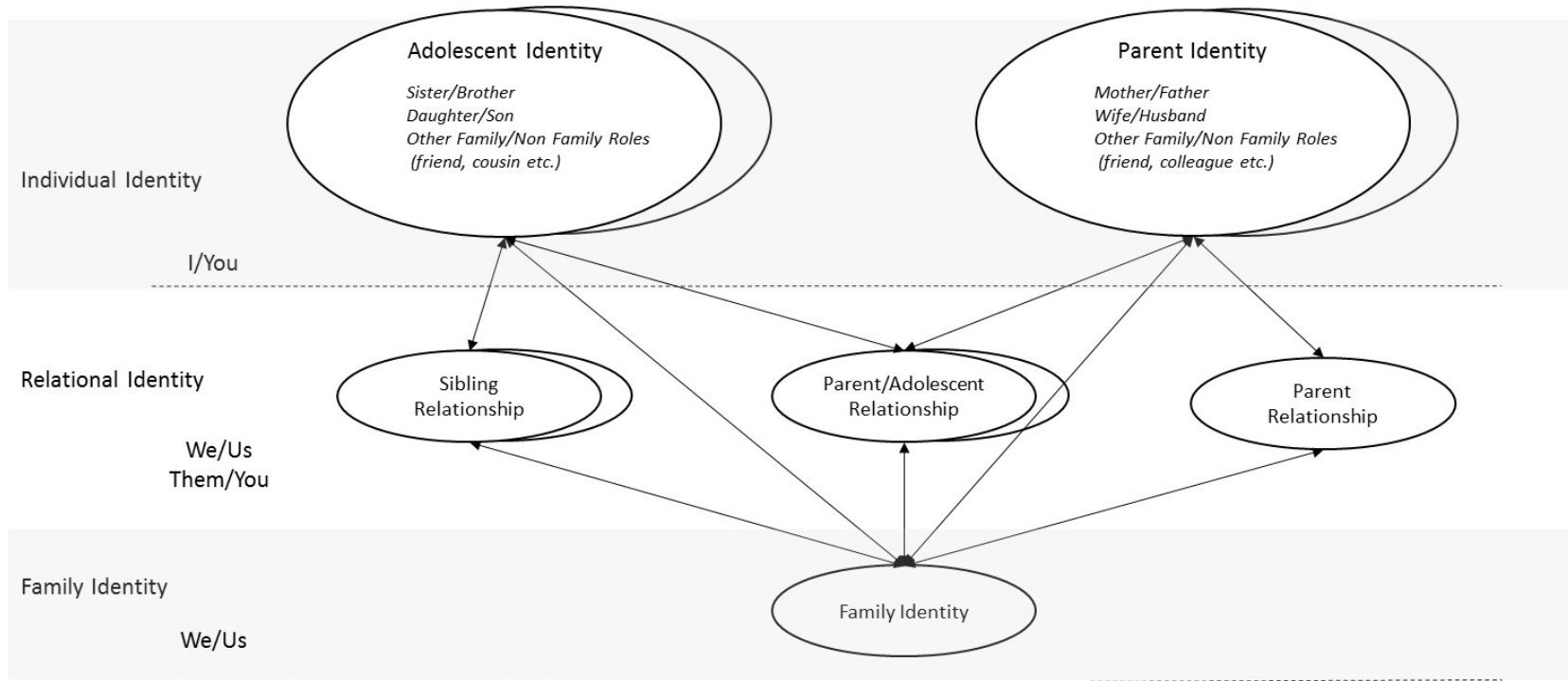


Figure 5.1. Family Identity Bundles for Families with Adolescents, adapted from Epp and Price (2008).

5.3. Motivation and Vacation Decisions

To gain insights into how families with adolescents make vacation decisions, it is first necessary to understand what motivates them to make those decisions and to influence other family members. Bond and Falk (2013) identified that an individual's multi-faceted identity leads to a traveler having multiple vacation motives (see Section 2.4). They further suggested that in any decision making situation, an individual's commitment and salience to the identity role they are fulfilling determines the dominant motive. What is less clear and more complex is how this applies in a family situation, as families consist of multiple multi-faceted identities (see Section 2.3). Moreover, on vacation many (if not all) decisions are group decisions and therefore subject to each individual family member's potentially discordant motives. As such, and as a result, in a family vacation decision making situation, the dominant motive is also influenced by the identity role other family members are fulfilling and their commitment and salience to those roles.

Five themes were identified from the findings of this study that demonstrate the relationship between motives and vacation decision making. Motives pertaining to specific vacation decisions are discussed in Chapter 6 in relation to the decision with which they occurred. Bond and Falk (2013) noted in their study that identity does not explain motives in their entirety, as such non-identity based motives are also explored within these themes, as discussed below.

First, if all family members have the same motive, then the vacation decision will be congruent with all family members' individual and family identity. This finding is evident in a dialogue with the Carter family. Catherine (mother) explained the initiation of the family vacation to the USA by saying, *"I think it was all of us, we all wanted a holiday and we had been before and desperately wanted to go back, so, yeah, we all wanted a holiday"*. Throughout the interview it became apparent that the Carter family perceived the USA as congruent with their family identity, as this quote and the quotes in Section 5.2.2 highlight. This was further emphasised when Cameron (father) referred to the adolescents as, *"American-centric"*.

Second, motives are fulfilled when an individual or relational group is motivated to make a vacation decision that does not affect others in the family. For example, Cameron Carter discussed how he would go for a walk before other family members were awake. He was motivated to go walking, congruent with his individual identity as an active person, and made the decision to do so without input from other family members. In a similar way, the Dunn parents (relational identity) went running together, as a vacation activity. They were motivated to do so, as exercise is congruent with their identity (individual and relational) as active people, and made the decision without input from the adolescents in the family.

Third, the motives of family members who have the decision making authority within the family are dominant in family vacation decisions. Decision making authority was observed to be situational and predominantly pertained to the parents in the pre-vacation phase and the adolescents in the during vacation phase (discussed further in Sections 6.2 and 6.3). For example, throughout the interview Heather Holt (mother) discussed a number of times that she was motivated to have a family vacation to spend time with her family (strengthen family identity), as illustrated in the following quote:

so I know that selecting a holiday like the Gold Coast taking them away from the home environment [pauses] because like he [Harry] said he would rather just spend time with his friends now. That to me is what was really important ... it just forces that time.

For the Holt family, the destination choice and timing of the vacation was not identity driven (except insofar as it facilitated time together), rather it was motivated by a number of push/pull factors, as Heather explained:

it was that time of year, around the Christmas holiday period where we like to have a holiday ... I was very enthusiastic about it because I knew I could tack it on to my... annual [work] conference there ... and have it a little bit more cost effective because you could get accommodation at corporate rates and things like that. So it was my idea and I kind of drove it.

For Heather Holt, in addition to the identity based need to spend time with her family and strengthen family relationships, the Gold Coast vacation fulfilled other needs, such as being cost effective and available at a time that suited her family.

The fourth theme emanates from the previous theme, in that a family member having a dominant motive may result in other family members having unfulfilled motives. That is, the multiple multi-faceted identities in families can lead to conflicting motives between and within family members, which may result in some motives remaining unfulfilled (not leading to behaviour) if that family member does not have the decision making authority within the family. Ben Brown (15 years) illustrates this when he lamented, *“I did want to go further but I didn’t get to do it”*. Alternatively, motives may be partially fulfilled and result in compromised behaviour. Section 5.3.1. further discusses conflicting motives.

Finally, when family members have conflicting motives, and a family member is not able to make a direct vacation decision, they may be motivated to use influence strategies to sway decision making in their favour. Section 5.4. discusses the use of influence strategies.

5.3.1. Conflicting Motives

Conflicting motives were observed in this study both within and between family members. Within family members, conflicting motives were found to stem from a family member’s multi-faceted identity, as suggested by Bond and Falk (2013). The dominance of a motive was determined by the level of importance a family member attached to an identity role(s). For example, Eve Evans (mother) complained, *“I liked reading my book by the pool...Ella would say, ‘come on mummy come in’ and I’d think ...uhhhh alright!! (laughs)”*. Eve was both motivated to read by the pool and spend time with her daughter. The decision to swim was due to Eve having a high degree of salience and commitment to her identity as a mother and therefore she was motivated to spend time with her daughter, and through this fulfill her daughter’s motive to swim. This took precedence over reading, which would have satisfied an individual motive to relax.

Heather Holt (mother) further highlights the existence of conflicting motives within family members. In the first comment, Heather expressed the motive to relax on vacation, as she commented, *“I just liked vegging out”*. However, she went on to say that family time was important because, *“I work full time and obviously so does Henry”* and therefore:

to me what was really important despite some of the arguments and despite not everyone wanting to do the same thing, that as a family we’re together and it just forces that time, because I just know that they’re slipping away.

Through these comments, Heather revealed, like Eve Evans in the previous dialogue, that although motivated to relax, she had more salience and commitment to spending time together as a family (to strengthen family identity).

Conflicting motives between family members stem from family members having incongruent motives, such as when a parent wanted to relax but the adolescent wanted to play (as highlighted in the Evans family dialogue). They further occurred when family members were motivated to spend time together in different ways. This is illustrated in the following comment in which Hannah Holt (12 years) expressed her preference (motive) for swimming pools:

... the waves were really like big and I like swimming in oceans but I don’t like them too high ... and I’m not the best swimmer. I think that’s why I like pools because it’s like free swimming, you don’t have this massive thing coming over your head and drowning you and like the waves and everything.

Whereas her parents were motivated to swim in the ocean:

Heather (mother): *It’s interesting when she [Hannah] mentions the pool because I’m not really big on swimming pools so it’s always this kind of.....*

Henry (father): *And I like the ocean.*

Heather: *We like the ocean so we always compromise, it’s always the pool most of the time.*

In this example, as with most during vacation activities (discussed further in Section 6.3), the adolescent's motive was dominant in decision making, due to the parents placing more importance on spending time together as a family (strengthening family identity) than fulfilling individual motives. In these instances, the parents were not so much sacrificing their own individual motives but more salience was placed on family identity motives. Furthermore, the findings illustrate that the salience placed on having a 'happy family' (or to strengthen family identity) led to compromise. Compromise meant that, generally, the motives that family members placed the most importance on were fulfilled, while those they deemed less important were either unfulfilled or only partially fulfilled. Compromise was seen as a normal part of family life on vacation, as Cameron Carter (father) highlighted in the following:

yeah, it's all about compromise we know boundaries of where to push, how far we can take them and exhaust them and when to back off and put that circuit breaker in so that they can have some time off, you just read that as parents.

Compromise also meant that families participated in activities that were congruent with multiple motives within and between family members, to satisfy or partially satisfy most family members, such as swimming. Section 6.3 further discusses vacation activities.

5.3.2. Adolescent Motives

Adolescents' motives reflect the multiple identity roles they fulfil within the family and their growing sense of individual identity. While there were commonalities in motives between all the adolescents in this study, there were also variances based on the adolescent's age (explored further in Chapter 6). The younger adolescents (aged 12-14) tended to express more child-like vacation motives for the vacation, such as fun, as identified in other studies (for example, Bakir and Baxter (2011), and Schänzel (2010a)). This is evident in the following dialogue with Danielle Dunn (12 years):

Interviewer: *So why did you want to go there [to a theme park]
Danielle?*

Danielle (12 years): *Because it's fun. It was fun last time we went so I
thought it would be fun this time.*

The older adolescents' (aged 15-17) vacation motives reflected their maturing individual identity and were similar to their parents' individual motives. This included the need to get away or have a break (discussed further in Section 6.2). In addition, and further reflecting their maturing identity, adolescents expressed similar family identity motives to their parents, such as to create happy family memories, spend time together and create family bonds. This finding is illustrated by Harry Holt (15 years), when discussing his ultimate vacation:

*well America ... it would be a good place to go with my parents, just
another memory to have with them when I'm grown up and said "I went
there with my parents". Going there by myself would be a pretty good
experience or going with friends on a gap year is another great idea but
ahh yeah.*

This finding differs from those of Hilbrecht et al. (2008) who suggested that adolescents are less likely to be motivated to engage in family vacation experiences, but are more motivated to be involved in vacation decision making. The adolescents in this study were motivated to be both engaged in family vacation experiences and in vacation decision making (discussed further in Chapter 6).

5.3.3. Discussion

This section focuses on what motivates family members to make vacation decisions and the role of identity in this process. The findings presented support, in part, Proposition 2(a), which states: *(P2a) The multi-faceted nature of identity leads to different motives within and between family members, and differing degrees of salience and commitment to those motives.* It was found that due to the multiple multi-faceted identities of families, motives between and within family members were at times conflicting. Supporting the findings of Bond and Falk (2013) family members demonstrated that the dominant motive in any decision making situation

reflected the identity role to which a family member had the highest level of commitment and salience towards. Not explored by Bond and Falk (2013) was how family members resolve conflicting motives on vacation. The findings of this study found that whether an individual motive led to behaviour was dependent upon the decision making authority of the family member in combination with the salience and commitment of other family members to their dominant motive. Conflicting motives meant at times some motives remained unfulfilled, but more often conflicting motives led to compromise to ensure all family members' motives were at least partially fulfilled. Adolescent motives were found to vary with age, in particular the older adolescents motives reflected their parents' individual motives, such as to relax, and family identity motives, such as to spend time together and create family memories. The similarity of adolescent and parent motives and the distinction of these motives from those of younger children (refer Sections 2.4.2 and 2.7.2) and the impact this has on vacation decisions and experiences highlights the importance of studying families with adolescents as a travelling group distinct from other families.

The findings of this study also support and add to Proposition 2b, as follows, *(2b): Motives directly affect decision making when the family or family members have the power or ability to do so.* Motives were found to directly affect decision making, when the entire family had the same motive, when individual family members or relational groups were motivated to make a decision that did not affect other family members, or when the individual or relational group had the decision making authority to make the decision on behalf of the family. When those situations were not apparent, either motives indirectly affected decision making through the use of influence strategies, motives remained unfulfilled (they did not lead to behaviour) or they led to compromised decision making (behaviour).

5.4. Influence Strategies

In a family situation, motives, as discussed in Section 5.3, do not always lead directly to behaviour. As a result, family members may use influence strategies to sway vacation decision making.

The use of influence strategies was observed in all families in this study, by all family members at all phases of the vacation. Family members discussed both using influence strategies and being subject to the influence strategies of others. They discussed these influence strategies in the interview while recalling incidents and they were asked directly about influence attempts. While the use of influence strategies varied between families and family members, it was identified from the findings that some influence strategies were more commonly used by parents, and others by adolescents. The findings of this study support those of Therkelsen (2010) who suggested that family identity roles influence which influence strategy family members use, and the likelihood of success of that strategy. The following sections discuss these findings in more detail.

5.4.1. Parent Influence Strategies

The influence strategies most commonly used by the parents in this study were the strategies of legitimate and experience. Legitimate and experience (as discussed in Section 2.5.1) are closely related to, and reflect, the parent's power authority within the family unit. These influence strategies were applied both directly and indirectly when the families made vacation decisions. This included the destination decision, as the Graham family highlight in the following note to the interview:

Grace spoke about Bali and not wanting to go there because the family wouldn't feel safe. She said that Georgia would really like to go because all her friends have been there, but she understands her parents don't want to.

The Graham parents used their legitimate (decision making authority) role as parents and experience of the destination to make the decision not to visit Bali. Parents also used experience to make activity decisions, as illustrated in the following conversation with the Dunn family:

Interviewer: *And what about you Danielle, did you want to go hiking?*

Danielle (12 years): *Not really.*

Interviewer: *Why did you decide to go?*

- Danielle: *I didn't decide.*
- Interviewer:** *So why did you go?*
- Doug (father): *Your father said "you're coming"! And when she did come she actually enjoyed it.*
- Interviewer:** *And did you enjoy it? (Danielle nods)*

In this example, Doug Dunn (father) insisted his daughter went hiking because he knew, from his hiking experience, it would be enjoyable and, from his parenting experience, that his daughter would enjoy it.

In other instances, parents used their parenting experience to indirectly influence decision making by choosing in advance activities that they knew the adolescents would enjoy. This would help in avoiding any family conflict. A comment by Barbara Brown (mother) reflect this, *"that was my idea and I looked it up and I said we have to go here, and it looked like fun and I chose it because I thought the kids would like it"*.

In these examples and throughout the interviews, the adolescents generally appeared accepting of their parents' legitimate power and experience. The findings of this study support those of Williams and Burns (2000) who found that children who believe their parents have legitimate authority will behave in a favorable manner. For example:

- Alice (16 years): *We didn't whinge that much, it was kind of ahh err huh, but it was a given we would go.*
- Anna (mother): *You knew you were going so you didn't bother to argue.*

And

- Ella (13 years): *I didn't want, like mum and dad wanted me to wear a sun protection top and I didn't want to wear one. So I caused a bit of trouble saying no and I didn't want to put on sunscreen....*
- Interviewer:** *Did you win the argument?*
- Ella: *No, never!*

Bargaining was also used as an influence strategy by the parents in this study. This involves a tradeoff or deal (Lee & Collins, 2000), as illustrated in the following dialogue:

Cameron (father): *Yeah, there are times where I have to be persuasive.*

Interviewer: *And how do you do that with them?*

Catherine (mother): *(laughing) Bribe them with money and presents, chocolate (all laugh).*

Parents revealed how they would bargain with the adolescents (often through bribing) to ensure their positive participation in family activities, such as the Adams parents offering lunch at a restaurant and the opportunity to see their friends if they went on a walk, or the Holt family offering popcorn for Hannah to come to the movies.

5.4.2. Adolescent Influence Strategies

The use of legitimate and experience as influence strategies were not often used by the adolescents in this study. It is proposed that this is due to the adolescent's lack of overt power in the family and their identity role of child in the family structure. Despite this, the adolescents were commonly 'given' the legitimate authority to make decisions for the family in the during vacation phase (discussed further in Section 6.3). As a result, many of the vacation decisions in the during vacation phase were made by the adolescents 'just asking'. As Caitlyn Carter (14 years) explained, "*they do everything I want to do*".

Negotiation, an influence strategy identified by Shoham and Dalakas (2006), was a common influence strategy used by the adolescents in this study. Shoham and Dalakas described negotiation as providing logical and practical arguments. Negotiation (discussed in Section 2.5.1) is a more complex version of 'just asking' strategy, as it involves the influencer 'giving reasons' to persuade other family members in the decision making process. This is illustrated by Ella Evans (13 years) as follows, "*I just say all the reasons why I'd really like to do it*". Negotiation is also closely linked to experience as it involves family members having knowledge or experience of a product/situation. For example, in the following dialogue Gaby

Graham (12 years) used her experience, gained through internet research and speaking with her grandparents, to ‘create’ an argument to influence her family in order to have breakfast with the orangutans at Singapore Zoo:

I think I showed some of the pictures on the website and sort of told them how good it was and like the things that would be good to see like how it would be good and stuff like that.

The findings of this study expand understanding of how adolescents build a logical argument in a negotiation influence strategy. It was identified that when adolescents use logical arguments, those arguments stem from their knowledge of their family as well as their knowledge of a product/situation (as demonstrated in the previous dialogue). Harry Holt (15 years) illustrates in the following comment, the use of knowledge based on prior interactions and experiences:

Well I had read the review [of the movie], and a few of my friends had seen it and they said it was really great action packed, and I um didn't really ask for too much that trip and to see Sherlock Holmes would make me happy so ...

Harry used his knowledge of the film and his knowledge of his prior interactions with his family to build arguments (negotiate) to see the movie. His knowledge of prior interactions centered on maintaining a perceived sense of fairness. Fairness or equality between siblings was identified by Kerrane et al. (2015) as important for children when framing purchase requests. Harry also ‘trades off’ his compliance in other vacation decisions. Lee and Collins (2000) define bargaining as a tradeoff, giving in on one occasion in order to achieve an outcome in another decision. Although Harry did not actively ‘give in’ on previous decisions, he used his compliance to strengthen his argument to see the movie.

Negotiation also stems from the adolescents’ knowledge of their parents’ parenting styles. For example, Campbell Carter explained how he influenced family decisions, “*umm saying that you’ve never seen this before and that you’ll never see it again and it’s once in a lifetime, you’ve been waiting for this for ages, this will*

never come ... you know that kind of stuff". This reflects his parents' parenting approach, as illustrated when Catherine Carter (mother) mused:

Cameron and I have always the attitude that, you know, like Campbell was saying, you're here we're doing it if you need it, or you want it, or you want to buy it do it now because we may not ever come back ...

It is likely that Campbell learnt his negotiation strategy from previous interactions with his parents.

Negotiation as an influence strategy can be further explained through resource theory (see Section 2.5). In a family, members evaluate their personal resources in relation to other family members and from this they ascertain their power in the family based on the perceived value of these resources (Beatty & Talpade, 1994). Beatty and Talpade (1994) discuss adolescent resources as financial resources and the knowledge of the product. This study identified that adolescent resources include, in addition to the adolescents' knowledge of a product/situation, their knowledge of their family both from previous family interactions and an understanding of their parents' parenting style (this study did not discuss the financial resources of adolescents). Adolescents then use these resources as their 'power' to negotiate with their family and influence vacation decisions. These resources developed from the adolescent's improving consumer skills (Fikry & Jamil, 2010; John, 1999), from their developing individual identity, and from their previous success in influencing family decisions (see Nanda et al. (2007) and Section 2.5).

Adolescence, as discussed in Section 2.2.1, is sometimes described as a liminal period. The liminality of adolescence was observed in this study through the use of both adult-like and child-like influence strategy used by the adolescents. In addition to using more adult-like negotiation influence strategies, adolescents also used emotional strategies (more common to the younger adolescents). Emotional influence strategies have been identified in other studies as typically used by children (for example, Gram (2007)). Emotional persuasion, as the name suggests, relies on emotion and there is no attempt to seek more information (Lee & Collins,

2000). Adolescents in this study used negative emotional strategies, which involved nagging and begging, often referred to in the literature as ‘pester power’. For example:

Freya (12 years): *Begged her, and begged her. And when we saw the brochure in the shop, I told her to go ...*

And

Hannah (12 years): *Nagging was efficient and it worked, got them up ... it was all cool, so I got my pool and I was happy!*

They also used positive emotional influence strategies when they showed affection and asked nicely, such as when Caitlyn Carter (14 years) joked, “*to persuade mum and dad it’s always like ‘I love you mummy, daddy’ (laughs). Let’s go!*”

To this point, the influence strategies discussed were used by individual adolescents, however not all influence attempts are individual attempts. Coalition is an influence strategy where two or more family members join forces to influence decision making (Bokek-Cohen, 2011; Lee & Collins, 2000). The coalition influence strategy was used by the Brown family adolescents in this study, as illustrated in the following dialogue:

Ben (15 years): *The best thing is when we join forces.*

Barry (father): *Yes you join forces, who’s the negotiator Ben?*

Ben: *Bella and Bailey are probably the best, and I just get the last bit done (all laugh).*

Bella (17 years): *You’re just tagging along.*

Supporting the discussion on influence strategies in this chapter are quotes from the influencer, illustrating that they are aware how they used these strategies. The following section explores family members’ levels of awareness of the influence strategies used on them.

5.4.3. Awareness of Influence Strategies

Three themes were identified regarding family members' awareness of influence strategies being used on them to influence family decision making: (1) family members demonstrated being aware of influence strategies being used; (2) family members demonstrated being unaware of influence strategies being used during the vacation but became aware through reflection during the interview process; and/or (3) family members were unaware at any stage (during the vacation or during the interview) of influence strategies being used.

The first theme, of family members being aware of influence strategies used on them, was generally limited to the parents in this study. That is, just as adolescents were able to describe what they did to influence vacation decision making and the success of that influence strategy, their parents were able to describe how the adolescent used influence strategies. This finding is evident in Barry Brown's (father) previous comment about coalition strategies, and when Anna Adams (mother) complained about her children's strategy, "*the main way is nagging*".

The second theme, of family members being unaware of influence strategies being used until the interview process, demonstrates both the reflective value of the interview process and the benefit of group interviews in obtaining a group consensus. For example, through the interview discussion Donna Dunn became aware of her daughter's (Danielle) use of an influence strategy:

Daisy (14 years): *She [Danielle] sometimes says you can pay for it out of my pocket money.*

Donna (mother): *Actually I think she did that a few times, and somehow convinced me but the money never did come back to me (Danielle and Donna laugh).*

Finally, some family members were unaware of influence strategies used on them. The following dialogue with Hannah Holt (12 years) illustrates this. Her parents used a bargaining influence strategy and Hannah appears unaware of the strategy, but changes her behaviour because of it. She said:

I was, I was like, I wasn't against movies because I enjoy them but like when I first heard that we were going to see the movie I was just like 'do we have to, can't we go swimming, like we could see a movie when we're not on holidays'. So it was like, not pointless but like, it was kinda like why are we doing this until I found out there was popcorn involved [then] I liked the idea.

5.4.4. Unsuccessful Influence Attempts

To this point, the findings have focused on successful influence strategies, but not all influence attempts are successful. This is apparent in the following comments:

Ella (13 years): *Yeah I give them reasons, but often ... If it's a maybe I definitely go for the reasons. But if it's no, it's going to stay no.*

And

Interviewer: *So the repeated asking doesn't work for the swimming?*

Freya (12 years): *I gave up a couple of years ago (laughs), it didn't work.*

In both of these examples it was found that adolescents are able to recognise when they will not be successful at influencing decision making and appear accepting that their motives will remain unfulfilled. While not as common, there were examples in this study of unsuccessful influence attempts by the parents, such as Anna Adams being unsuccessful in her attempt to have a family vacation in Vietnam or China. Unsuccessful influence attempts, like successful attempts, change behaviour either by family members participating in something they were not motivated to do or by them choosing an alternate behaviour. Compromise is a common outcome of any influence attempt (successful or unsuccessful). For example, if an adolescent 'begs' their parents to go swimming and is successful, this may result in the parents compromising their own motives, such as to read/relax. Alternatively, if unsuccessful it may lead to the adolescent undertaking an alternative activity.

5.4.5 Discussion

Influence strategies represent an important part of the vacation decision making process for families with adolescents. The findings of this study support Proposition 3, which states, (P3): *The decision of family members to use/not use influence strategies and which influence strategy to use, is a deliberate decision based on their identity, motives and previous experiences.* Family members were generally able to identify when they used influence strategies, what influence strategies would likely be successful, when influence strategies were used on them and when not to use influence strategies as they would be unsuccessful. Irrespective of whether an influence strategy was successful or unsuccessful, the findings of this study illustrate that influence strategies can lead to changes in behaviour, changes in motives and compromise in families. Influence strategies were found to be dependent upon the role family members were fulfilling. Some influence strategies were more commonly used by parents, such as legitimate and experience (reflecting their decision making/power authority within the family) and others more commonly used by adolescents, such as negotiation, bargaining and emotional strategies. The use of influence strategies by the adolescents reflects their development and adolescence as a liminal phase. Emotion as a strategy is commonly used by children and was evident in the younger adolescence. Whereas negotiation, as a more complex influence strategy, reflected the adolescent's maturing identity and consumer skills, as adolescents used their resources (product/situation knowledge and family knowledge) to build a logical argument to influence family decisions.

5.5. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings and discussion on identity, motives and influence strategies. The findings of this study highlight that identities and motives are interrelated and affect how families with adolescents make vacation decisions. Identity is central to the tourist experience as it gives insight into why family members do something. Identity in families was found to be complex, each family member had their own multi-faceted identity and families are comprised of multiple individuals. The commitment and salience of each family member to an identity role was found to be situation dependent and created different motives in any

decision making situation. Multiple multi-faceted identities meant that families in this study displayed multiple multi-faceted motives. Although this led to conflicting motives within and between family members, and created unfulfilled motives, compromised behaviour and the use by family members of influence strategies to affect vacation decision making, the families also expressed many commonalities in motives. It is the commonality of vacation motives between the generations that sets families with adolescents apart from families with younger children and highlights the importance of studying these families as a unique group. Influence strategies were found to be used in a rationale and deliberate way. With some influence strategies (experience and legitimate) more commonly used by the parents and others more commonly used by the adolescents. The adolescent's choice of influence strategy reflects their maturing identity and consumer skills and highlights adolescence as a liminal phase. The younger adolescents were still prone to use emotional influence strategy (typically used by young children) whereas the use of the complex negotiation strategy reflects the adolescents growing maturity and development. The next chapter presents the vacation decision making and outcome findings from this study. These findings are influenced by the identity, motives and influence strategy findings as outlined in the sections above.

Chapter 6. Vacation Decision Making and Outcomes – Findings and Discussion

6.1. Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to present the findings and discussion on vacation decision making and outcomes for the families with adolescents who participated in this study. This chapter is divided into the three vacation phases: Section 6.2 covers the pre-vacation phase, Section 6.3 covers the during vacation phase, and Section 6.4, covers the post-vacation evaluation.

6.2. Pre-Vacation Decisions and Experiences

The pre-vacation phase commences when the idea for the vacation is raised. Consequently, the first decision a family makes is whether to have a vacation (Assael, 1987; van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Woodside & King, 2001). A prerequisite for participation in this study was that all families had taken a vacation in the previous 12 months, so while acknowledged that families make a decision to have or not have a vacation, this decision was not considered in this study.

Mothers were found predominantly to initiate the vacation in this study, supporting the findings of Mottiar and Quinn (2004), and Therkelsen (2010). The mothers were largely motivated to have a vacation to facilitate family time (maintain and reinforce family identity), as Eve Evans (mother) stated in a typical comment, *“it was a good opportunity because we ... could do enough together there. We didn’t have to go off separately, like for example the pool. We could be together without always being in each other’s pockets”*. The exceptions to the mothers initiating the vacation were the Dunn and Carter families. In the Dunn family, the adolescents initiated the vacation. Donna Dunn (mother) gave family time as her motive for agreeing to the idea, as illustrated in the following quote, *“the kids were asking to go back because we only did the theme parks a few years ago ... and I thought we won’t get a chance to go back ... while Dylan is doing year 12”*. For the Carter family, the vacation was a whole family idea, as Catherine Carter (mother)

remembered, “*I think it was all of us, we all wanted a holiday and we had been before [to the USA] and desperately wanted to go back ...*”. The Carter family (as discussed in Section 5.2.2) were motivated to visit the USA due to its congruence with their family identity. Catherine Carter was also motivated, as with the other mothers in this study to have time with her family, as illustrated in the following conversation:

- Cameron (father): [looking at a photo] *I think it's the nicest one of Catherine, because I think to me it was the realisation of her happiness of having the family ... together at Disneyland.*
- Catherine (mother): *Yeah.*
- Cameron: *That's what you wanted wasn't it.*
- Catherine: *Yeah.*
- Cameron: *And you look really happy there.*

Moore et al. (2012) argued that the pre-vacation phase is important as it is at this point that the decisions that frame the vacation, such as the length of time and budget, are set. These framing decisions were found to affect the destination choice, as Grace Graham (mother) explained, “*I looked at various Asian destinations. We just wanted somewhere for 10 days, two weeks, not too far away and not too expensive*”, and the accommodation and transport choices, for example:

... because we were only planning on going for about five days I said that it's a lot of driving ... I said we might as well just stay in one place and the hotel rates that Heather's company had organised were really, really competitive especially at that time of year (Henry, father).

6.2.1. Destination Decision

The destination decisions for the families in this study were made both with the decision to have the vacation (for example, in the case of the Dunn family) and as a separate decision after the vacation decision was made, for example Grace Graham (mother) commented, “*... a holiday and then I looked at various Asian destinations*”.

As would be expected in a liminal phase, the adolescents' age affected their role in the destination decision making process. The younger adolescents (like younger children) had a lesser role in the decision. As illustrated when, Ella Evans (13 years) comments, "*I didn't know about it until they decided*". They were also accepting of the choice made by their parents, for example:

Eve (mother): *When we told you about it?*

Ella (13 years): *I was really happy.*

The older adolescents (with a more defined individual identity) however, had a more prominent role in the destination decision, as illustrated in the following:

Anna (mother): *No I wanted to go somewhere like China or Vietnam, something different and maybe do some cycling somewhere, go somewhere we hadn't been before. Alice wanted to go to Noosa because a lot of her friends would be up there.*

Alice (16 years): *No that wasn't the reason, it's just that I like Noosa.*

In this example, Alice Adams determined both where the family did not go on vacation (China or Vietnam) as well as where they went. For other families, the adolescents' involvement in the destination decision had more influence on where the family did not go, as illustrated in the following dialogues:

... we had been toying with the idea of maybe doing a Pacific holiday. I guess we got to the point where we decided to do a holiday, but I think it became an American holiday very quickly. We might have kicked around a few ideas. Bella had quite strong ideas that ... she wasn't interested particularly in going anywhere in Asia, and she had a preference for going to countries where they spoke English so you didn't have the language barrier and stuff. In fact really all of the kids kind of said the same from that point of view (Barry, father).

And

Caitlyn (14 years): ... *I didn't want to go to Hong Kong because it was like, because I thought that America was going to be better than Hong Kong.*

Interviewer: *For what reasons?*

Caitlyn: *Coz they've got better food, and better shops and stuff.*

Campbell (17 years): *Yeah I just liked America because I had been there, and I really missed it.*

These statements illustrate the adolescents' maturing identity. Adolescents (largely older adolescents), with a more defined sense of identity, are motivated to influence the destination choice so that the destination is congruent with their individual identity. Chon (1992) and others (see Section 2.3) found that the greater the congruity between an individual's identity and the destination image, the greater the motivation to visit that destination. The findings of this study confirm this while at the same time expand this finding. Adolescents are not only motivated to visit destinations they see as congruent with their identity but will also be motivated to avoid destinations that they see as incongruent with their identity. Moreover, these findings provide evidence that adolescence is, as discussed in Section 2.2.1, a liminal phase. The older adolescents with a more developed individual identity had a stronger sense of destinations they saw as congruent/incongruent with their identity and therefore were motivated to influence the vacation destination choice. The findings of this study further differ from those of Carr (2006) who found that adolescents have to compromise the most in the destination choice. The parents in the families where the adolescent(s) were involved in the destination decision in this study appear more likely to yield to the adolescent and make compromises than the adolescent was to compromise. This, as previously discussed, is due to the parents having a high degree of commitment and salience to their family identity. The following dialogue with the Adam's family illustrates this. For the parents, having a 'happy family' was more important than the destination choice:

Andrew (father): *And we said, mum and I said to each other, we don't want to go cycling in China or Vietnam with two crabby teenagers.*

Anna (mother): *Two grumpy teenagers.*

Anna: *Andrew and I thought well, we do like Noosa it's just not somewhere we choose to go but we knew we'd have a nice time.*

And for the Carter family, Catherine Carter (mother) explained:

Actually this year is going to be the first year that we are all travelling separately. We're not having a family holiday as such because of the school trips the children have got ... Cameron and I have decided to do Hong Kong, because that was the only place the children have allowed us to go without them.

A younger adolescent who influenced the destination itinerary was Freya Fisher (12), from a single child/single parent family. Although Freya did not choose Far North Queensland (the geographic destination), she did have a considerable role over the itinerary, as the following comment highlights:

...and she asked me if I wanted to spend two weeks in Mission Beach or one week in Mission Beach and then go up to Cape Tribulation and Port Douglas ... I wanted to go up to Cape Tribulation and Port Douglas, so we did.

This finding supports those of Flurry (2007), and Tinson et al. (2008), who stated that children from non-traditional families (such as single parent families) have a more equal role in decision making than children from traditional families.

An exception to the adolescents' determining role in the destination was the Graham family. For the Graham family, Georgia (15 years) initially appeared hesitant about the destination decision, illustrated when she said "*we were just happy with the choice, we were thinking of going to Hawaii, but it was too far and too expensive so ...*", and when she later commented, "*and we couldn't go to Bali or Thailand*". Georgia's parents acknowledged that they were aware Georgia wanted to go to destinations her friends had been to (and that were therefore seen by

Georgia as congruent with her individual identity), but they did not go because of safety concerns. Gary (father) explained, *“Thailand was a bit ... it had come off the protests last year as well, I think all the floods, there was something sort of a bit ...”* They were also concerned about financial and time restrictions, as Grace (mother) explained, *“we would have gone to Hawaii but it was quite expensive at that time of year and it was a ten hour flight”*. Georgia initially experienced disappointment (perceived incongruence) with the destination, saying, *“I was happy when we heard because we wouldn’t go any further away, so it was a good compromise I suppose”*. However, she revised this feeling once she experienced the destination, as illustrated through her comment at the end of the interview when she exclaimed, *“I’d say it [the vacation] was one of our favourites, it had everything”*.

The findings of this study demonstrate the active role adolescents play in the destination choice. These findings differ to those of Bojanic (1992, p. 74) who found that families with older parents (and therefore presumably older children – he does not specify the children’s ages) felt children were less important in vacation planning (pre-vacation phase) because ‘children are older and can either be left at home or taken on just about any type of vacation’. It was identified from the findings of this study, that while adolescents can go on ‘just about any type of vacation’, they do not want to go on any type. Instead they are motivated to visit destinations that they perceive are congruent with their individual identity and this motivation becomes stronger with age (reflecting their maturing identity). Moreover, the findings of this study differ to those of Hilbrecht et al. (2008), who suggest children are less concerned with the destination decision and more concerned with activity decisions. The findings of this study indicate that adolescents are equally concerned with both the destination decision and activity decisions (discussed further in Section 6.3).

When discussing pre-vacation decision making, and the motivation to have a vacation, both school commitments and the financial costs of the vacation were barriers to, and facilitators for, the vacation and the destination choice. Furthermore, just as the adolescents’ role in the destination decision grows stronger as the adolescents get older, so too does the impact of these factors on the vacation.

6.2.2. School Commitments and Financial Considerations

School acted as a barrier when commitments restricted the ability of the family to take a vacation. Similarly, school commitments and financial considerations were a barrier restricting the length of time for the vacation and the destination choice.

School commitments as a barrier applied generally to families with older adolescents. The Adams family illustrate this finding in the following dialogue:

Anna (mother): *And long holidays you need to be ... its hard with the kids who only have short holidays, other than three weeks in September and once they get to the pointy end of school they can't afford to be away for the whole three weeks, so those sort of distance destinations, I mean even Vietnam, we had to cut it short to make sure the kids have some time when we came back to study. So all those big trips ...*

Andrew (father): *"I want to come back I've got homework".*

Alice (16 years): *It wasn't just me it was Abby.*

Anna: *We would have come back the day before school started otherwise, but we came back three or four days before.*

Dylan (17 years) also said, *"it was a busy time of year because of Year 11 exams coming up"*. The barrier of school commitments was further raised by the younger adolescents who had older siblings, such as Caitlyn (14 years) who said, *"I want to, but because we are getting older now, we've got like exams and stuff, mum and dad don't think it's going to work, but I want to (laughs)"*. The only families in this study who did not discuss the impact of schooling were the Fisher and Evans families, both of whom had only younger adolescents (12 and 13 years old).

The financial cost of the vacation was also a barrier constraining the destination choice, as the Brown parents explained:

Barry (father): *Australia, New Zealand maybe Indonesia, closer more local holidays, I guess is the reality for a while.*

Barbara (mother): *Reality is money.*

As well as the length of the vacation, for example:

Realistically going for 10 days instead of 6 would be much better but every night is extra accommodation, meals out in restaurants, everything adds up, and at that particular time we were not in a financial position to do it.
(Heather, mother).

Similar to school commitments, financial considerations had a larger impact for the families with older adolescents. The findings of Phillips, Li and Taylor (2013) show that the cost of raising a child increases steadily with the age of a child, such that the weekly cost of supporting a young adult (18-24 years) is approximately four times the cost of supporting a child aged between 0-4 years. These findings would explain why families with older adolescents see the financial cost of a vacation as a barrier.

In addition, while it was not unexpected that the parents, as the income earners and managers of the family finances, were concerned with the cost of the vacation, a more unexpected finding was the level of awareness and concern adolescents showed towards the financial cost of the vacation. This has already been illustrated by Georgia's (15 years) discussion of the destination choice (see Section 6.2.1). Adolescent financial concern was also apparent within vacation activity decisions. For example, Ben Brown (15 years) reflected, "*I might have liked to if I could have but no it was just a bit too expensive*" and Daisy Dunn (14 years) complained, "*I didn't like that part in SeaWorld, that huge pool that used to be free, it cost like \$10 so I wasn't going to that*". Awareness of adult issues such as the financial cost of the vacation adds support to the view that adolescence is a liminal period (see Section 2.2.1). Through showing awareness of the financial cost of the vacation,

the adolescents are demonstrating that they are not children with no concern for family issues. Instead, they are developing and maturing as consumers and have an awareness of 'adult issues'. Nevertheless, as dependent children they do not have financial responsibility for the vacation.

In addition to school commitments and financial considerations being a barrier restricting the vacation, school commitments were also a facilitator for the vacation. As the following dialogue illustrates:

...and with Bella going into Year 11 and 12. Year 10 seemed like the kind of sweet spot before study and other things would get in the way of going away for a month. So it was also that impending couple of years, and for us quite a number of years where one of them is going to be in either Year 11 or 12, and that kind of seemed like the sweet spot [window of opportunity], that if we didn't do it then we would never do it (Barbara, mother).

That is, the approaching completion of schooling for the adolescent represents the end of family vacations (discussed further in Section 6.4) and therefore created a sense of urgency for these families (motive) to have what was perceived as potentially the last family vacation (discussed further in Section 6.4) before the adolescents became adults.

6.2.3. Other Pre-Vacation Decisions

The pre-vacation phase includes decisions about transport, accommodation and/or activities that are made before the family leaves home. In this study, accommodation, transport to the destination and some activities were booked during this phase through travel agents or directly via the internet and/or telephone.

The families in this study flew to their destinations and the transport decisions were made solely by the parents. Adolescents appeared to have a limited role and limited interest in the transport decision making process. Cost, convenience and the shortest time were the three recurring themes when families discussed their transport decisions.

The accommodation decisions were made and booked by the parents in this phase. The type of accommodation, such as self-catering versus hotel room, varied between the families. Commonalities in accommodation between the families included: the presence of a swimming pool, that it was not 'too' expensive and it was safe. The adolescents did not have an active role in this decision making process, although some adolescents did express feelings of anticipation associated with the accommodation, such as Hannah Holt (12 years) who exclaimed, "... we were kinda getting excited before the holiday and we went on the website, like to search it up..."

Enjoying accommodation as an experience that is 'different to home' was identified as a recurring theme for both parents and adolescents when they discussed what they enjoyed about it. Different to home for Ella Evans (13 years) was represented by the facilities, for example, *"I liked the pool, I liked Foxtel, I liked how I had a double bed. I liked how we were in the same room ..."* Whereas for Barbara Brown (mother), in addition to the facilities, the difference included how the accommodation made her feel, for example *"and we had a house in San Fran, but I think the hotels were more exciting for me, because they were new and we never get to stay in hotels. And especially if they have a breakfast, it's so exciting!"* Expanding on this theme, the atmosphere of the accommodation was important to its success. For example, the Graham family stayed in two hotels, the first was a new luxury hotel which was, *"amazing for the swimming pool up on the 27th level"* (Grace, mother). The second was also a luxury hotel, however it was older and did not have the *"amazing"* pool. Yet, the family preferred the second hotel. As Georgia (15 years) explained,

"The Marina Bay Sands the pool was just amazing, like that was all in all fantastic but ... it didn't really appeal to me as much ... the Shangri-La was nicer, the people were a lot nicer and happier, it had more of a family vibe. There were tons of families there, so it was nicer".

Georgia (and the rest of the Graham family) appeared to enjoy the second accommodation more due to its focus on 'family', therefore perceived as congruent with their identity as a family.

The importance of accommodation being congruent with identity is further highlighted by Harry Holt (15 years) who initially expressed disappointment with the accommodation when he thought it was not as good as he had hoped:

I looked at the Peppers it was quite impressive. When I found out it wasn't the Peppers we were staying at, I was sort of like awww [disappointed]. But when we went in there it was actually pretty good.

The accommodation was perceived by Harry as incongruent with his individual identity, as explained by his mother (Heather), *"I remember my son was a little bit concerned at the time because he loves modern, new hotels, pretty swanky sort experience"*. Harry revised this feeling when he experienced the accommodation and he found that *"it was actually pretty good"*.

Unlike transport and accommodation, the majority of vacation activities were not booked in the pre-vacation phase, as Freya Fisher (12 years) explained when asked, *"We don't book activities though"*. The only activities that were booked in the pre-vacation phase were a Great Barrier Reef tour (Evans family) and Disneyland tickets (Carter family).

6.2.4. Discussion

Pre-vacation decisions are important as these decisions, such as the budget and timing of the vacation, frame the vacation. Consequently, the parents in this study predominantly made these decisions. The adolescents had both a passive and active role in vacation decision making in this phase. Passively they influenced decisions through their presence, such as their school commitments influencing when, and for how long, they could take a vacation; their presence affecting the family accommodation choices (e.g. type, size and cost), and the destination being chosen with the adolescent's enjoyment in mind.

Adolescents were also actively involved in the decision making process in this phase of the vacation. In particular, the adolescents negotiated with their family to influence the destination choice. The concept of destination congruity has been widely discussed in the tourism literature (see Section 2.3.1), and the findings of

these studies also demonstrate that adolescents (and their families) choose destinations congruent with their identity (this is expanded upon in Section 6.4.1). The findings of this study are unique in that they found that (older) adolescents were also actively involved in ensuring the family did not visit destinations that they perceived as incongruent with their individual identity. Adolescent identity is maturing and bragging (see discussion Section 5.2.1) is a way adolescents can enhance their identity. Therefore, adolescents were not motivated to visit, and actively avoided, destinations that they perceived as not enhancing their identity and therefore that they could not brag about. Their parents, in this study, were motivated to have family time and therefore were open to this influence and more likely to compromise than the adolescents, as they had more salience to their family identity (having enjoyable family time) than their individual identity needs. As a result, some of the parents in this study visited destinations that, although not congruent with their individual identity, were congruent with strengthening family identity.

6.3. During Vacation Decisions and Experiences

As outlined previously, the during vacation phase commences when the family leaves home and finishes when they return. The existence of a during phase in the purchase and consumption process is somewhat unique to tourism, yet many tourism decision making studies do not include this phase in their research (Blichfeldt, 2008). Moreover as discussed in Section 2.2.1 vacations can be seen as a liminoid experience and therefore the traditional motives, influence and decision making roles that occur in a family's day-to-day life are suspended for the vacation period. This creates a unique decision making environment where family members can both individually and as a group make decisions that enhance and reinforce desired identity characteristics. Through exploring this phase, this study adds to a small but growing body of knowledge that examines how families make vacation decisions in the unique decision making environment, during the vacation.

Activities are an important part of during vacation decision making and the family vacation. For the purpose of this study, activities are defined as any pursuit the collective family group, individual family member or relationship group

participates in while on vacation. This includes, but is not limited to, shopping, sightseeing, eating out, swimming, visiting museums or heritage sites, theme parks and sporting activities. With only a few exceptions (see Section 6.2.3), all activities were booked by the families at the destination, supporting the findings of Woodside and King (2001), who found that many vacation purchases are not pre-planned or even thought of before the vacation.

6.3.1. Activities – Decision Making

The existing literature, for example, Decrop (2005), Johns and Gyimóthy (2003) and Therkelsen (2010), recognises that children are often the reason families visit and participate in activities. The concept of parental sacrifice was supported in this study through responses such as, “*with Disneyland, obviously it was all for the kids in a sense*” (Catherine, mother) and, “*we were there because we thought they would enjoy the theme parks*” (Donna, mother). Moreover, these findings support those of Lehto et al. (2009) who found that being together was important to families on vacation (discussed further in the following sections).

Each of the families in this study participated in a number of activities while on vacation. The activities were often destination specific, such as going to Disneyland (Carter and Brown families), Singapore Zoo (Graham family), Cape Tribulation (Fisher Family) and The Great Barrier Reef (Evans family). Nevertheless, there were some activities, such as shopping and swimming that were not destination specific and were common to all families in this study.

Shopping was a popular vacation activity, although how often families went shopping varied between families. For example, the Graham family went shopping daily and, as discussed in Section 5.2.2, demonstrated that shopping was closely linked to their family identity. Whereas the Evans and Fisher family went shopping less often. This may have been because these families were at destinations with less shopping facilities, as both the Evans and Fisher families discussed in the interviews how the adolescents, in particular, enjoyed shopping.

The initiation of shopping as an activity and decisions about which shops the family visited was predominantly made by the adolescents, as the following quotes illustrate:

We were looking for these special kind of shoes I wanted, we went to a couple of stores in Las Vegas, and they didn't have them, and they had the ones that I wanted on hold in this shopping centre that was about 20 minutes out of Las Vegas so mum and dad said if you really want these we'll go, so we went out there (Campbell, 17 years).

And

The night markets ... they were difficult to find but they were worth it in the end ... so I probably had to convince them to keep on looking (Georgia, 15 years).

The adolescents' enjoyment of shopping was recognised by the parents in this study. The parents largely allowed the adolescents to decide when and for how long the family went shopping. The adolescents' motive to shop stems from their perception of it as an enjoyable activity, for example, when discussing future vacations, the Carter family note:

Catherine (mother): *What do you want to do there?*

Caitlyn (14 years): *Disneyland, Broadway, shopping.*

Catherine: *Shopping, yes (all laugh).*

And

Daisy (14 years): *Ocean Grove or Hawaii, something beachy and nice and somewhere where the prices are lower, and I can go shopping.*

Motives were also associated with the adolescents' maturing individual identity (see Section 2.3.1). For adolescents, vacation purchases can be used to make an intangible experience more tangible, and as a vehicle to brag about the vacation through which they can strengthen their identity amongst their peers.

The Brown sons were the only adolescents in this study to express a dislike

for shopping. They initially said they did not enjoy it as an activity, as illustrated in the following dialogue:

Ben (15 years): *Shopping, yeah, that was probably about the worst thing, going to all these different shops.*

Bailey (12 years): *That was the worst thing for me.*

However, on further discussion it appeared that they expressed this sentiment partly because they disliked the shops they visited, for example:

Bailey: *The only shops I was interested in was the Lego shops and the lolly shops.*

Ben: *And ones with games in them.*

Barbara (mother): *Hang on we went to Lego shops, just for you two.*

Ben: *Yeah, I did buy one bit of Lego that was probably about the best thing.*

Bailey: *I got one bit of Lego too that was probably about the best thing.*
(all laugh)

The Brown brothers also saw shopping as incongruent to their individual identity and relational identity as brothers, (and perhaps perceived by them as an activity not enjoyed by boys) as illustrated when Bella (17 years) exclaimed, “*you said [in a funny voice] ‘shopping’s for dames’*”.

Swimming was a popular activity that was common to all the families in this study. Swimming, like shopping, was initiated predominantly by the adolescents. However, unlike shopping, swimming was more commonly initiated by the younger adolescents. Having fun is a common vacation motive for of children, identified in studies such as Bakir and Baxter (2011), and Schänzel (2010a) (see Section 2.4.2). Swimming for the younger adolescents was a fun activity and reflected their more child-like motives. It was also an activity that the younger adolescents used to interact or play with their parents, as Ella Evans (13 years) commented, “*and it was fun to play with the ball with daddy [in the pool] as well. It was fun catching it and stuff*” and as expressed by Hannah Holt (12 years) about her older sibling:

... So it was just like when I'd be in the pool it, being in a pool alone is not really fun ... When I was with my brother, although he would dunk me or something, it's just like we're having quality time, you wouldn't really like, like he wouldn't normally say 'yeah let's go to the park and I can push you off the swing' or something, being in the pool was fun.

These findings give further evidence to the argument that adolescence can be treated as a liminal phase (see Section 2.2.1), through the younger adolescents (transitioning from childhood) placing more importance on swimming than the older adolescents (transitioning into adulthood).

In addition, going to a swimming pool was a popular activity for the families in this study as they were able to spend time together, and through this fulfil family identity and concurrently they were able to fulfill individual identity needs (such as relaxing, swimming and reading).

With the exception of swimming and shopping, vacation activities varied between the families in this study. Nevertheless, there were commonalities in how the families made these activity decisions. Specifically, three themes were identified from the findings: (1) the parents initiated and chose activities that they thought the adolescent(s) would enjoy or they wanted them to experience; (2) the parents acted as gatekeepers, allowing adolescent(s) to choose activities within parameters they set; and/or (3) the adolescent(s) chose the activity. Common to these three themes is the underlying concept of parental sacrifice when making vacation decisions. Decisions were either made for, by, or with the adolescents in mind, with little or no discussion of the parents' individual vacation desires in most decisions. Each theme is discussed below in further detail.

First, parents both initiated and chose activities that they thought the adolescents would enjoy. Parents were motivated to create fun experiences for the adolescents, for example:

That was my idea and I looked it up and I said we have to go here, and it looked like fun and I chose it because I thought the kids would like it ...

and we would like it too because we like that sort of stuff ... (Barbara, mother).

This comment also illustrates the effect identity and motives have on how families make during vacation decisions. The Brown family (see Section 5.2.2) discussed the importance of having fun to their family and the family vacation. Barbara chose an activity that she perceived as congruent to the Brown family identity and an activity that she believed the family would enjoy and that would strengthen that identity. The parents also chose activities they wanted the children to see or experience. Reasons parents gave for this included education, for example, “*I felt obliged to give my child [says jokingly] ‘the educational experience’*” (Eve, mother), and, “*we wanted to show them the giant Redwood trees*” (Catherine, mother), or as Henry Holt (father) explained, because they wanted the adolescents to experience something, such as, “*Gold Class, we considered that a bit of a luxury item. Heather had been given a couple of tickets ... months ago. And we thought ... we can have a whole family experience*”. In these instances, parents demonstrated the legitimate authority they have in the family and their experience as parents (see Section 5.4.1) in making a family decision. This was especially pronounced when the adolescent did not want to participate in an activity, as illustrated when Anna Adams (mother) remarked, “*she wasn’t given a choice*”. When choosing activities, these findings suggest that in addition to parents’ motivation to have family time (strengthen family identity), they are also motivated, in their experience and identity role as parents, to choose activities they believe are in the adolescents’ best interest.

Second, parents acted as gatekeepers, allowing adolescents to choose activities within parameters set by them. For the Carter family, this occurred in new destinations, as discussed in the following comment:

Cameron (father): I think ... if it’s a new place we work out a structure and plan and tell the kids that, and then gauge the feedback ... I think there’s been times of control from us, and times of them empowered to give us the

feedback of what they do and don't want to do and the flexibility within that.

It also occurred when the Carter parents had pre-chosen an activity, for example:

Catherine (mother): *They planned [at Disneyland] which land they wanted to go to first every day, and what rides they wanted, it was their choice.*

Campbell (17 years): *And street parades and stuff, we'll go over here, we'll do these rides, we'll do this ride but we have to be back here...*

The Holt family set parameters due to the financial cost of the vacation, as illustrated in the following dialogue:

Henry (father): *Often we'll talk about it before we leave, don't expect to go to this, this and this. We'll be doing this so you come up with a decision of where you want to go.*

Heather (mother): *We give them choices, it's either this or this.*

Henry: *It's the same with the restaurants, these are all the three different types of restaurants, do you feel like this, this or this? And so, we're happy for them to guide those sort of decisions.*

Third, the adolescent chose the activity, for example Caitlyn (14 years) stated, “Normally, they do everything I want to do so, there was no sort of problem”. In these instances, the adolescent had no visible restrictions placed on their choices of both family and relational group activities. For example, Bella Brown (17 years) chose a family activity, as recalled by Barbara (mother), “We went places from *Princess Diaries* the movie, that was Bella's idea too,” and a relational group activity with her mother:

It was probably my idea to go see a Broadway show. Because generally I love musical theatre and dancing and everything, so in the end only me

and mum went because it was quite expensive, but I spent a lot of time working out which show I would like to see and which show looks the best and everything like that, and convincing mum that that was the one to go to (Bella, 17 years).

Although it was common for adolescents to choose the daily family activities, for families with more than one adolescent, each was not equally involved in the decision making process. That is, the younger siblings were generally less involved than their older siblings. For example, when asked if there were any activities she initiated, Caitlyn Carter (14 years) mused: “*no not really I just sort of followed along*”. The younger siblings appear to see this as part of their identity role within the family, as evident in the following dialogue with Ben Brown:

Interviewer: *What about you Ben, was there something that you decided on?*

Ben (15 years): *No, nothing.*

Barbara (mother): *When you were there, you thought let's do this?*

Ben: *No.*

Bella (17 years): *What about...no.*

Ben: *See I don't choose anything, I just went along with the flow.*

Barbara: *Yosemite, nothing there?*

Ben: *No.*

Bailey (12 years): *Yes the walk.*

Ben: *I did want to go further but I didn't get to do it.*

Bella: *He only went slightly further.*

Ben: *I didn't get to do it, clearly I didn't get to do anything.*
(all laugh)

These findings resonate with those of Kerrane et al. (2015) and Tinson and Nuttall (2014). Kerrane et al. (2015) suggests that in addition to the importance of fairness and equality between siblings, differential treatment of children by parents and different degrees of influence of siblings in family consumption is evident within families. Tinson and Nuttall (2014) suggest that this differential treatment and

degree of influence leads to a social hierarchy within families. In this study, the younger adolescents, who could be seen as 'lower' in the family hierarchy both appear to have less influence and are more likely to yield in decision making situations to their older siblings.

For the single child families (Evans and Fisher), the parents appear to choose activities they believe the adolescent will enjoy while at the same time giving the final decision making authority to the adolescents. For example, Freya (12 years) said, "*Mum does the research and I pick what I want to do*" and Ella (13 years) remembered, "*She'd say look at this Ella, and I'd have a look and say yeah I'll do that*". Moreover, Eve (mother) made a comment after the interview that was noted as follows:

Eve discussed how there isn't a lot of negotiation for activities, they just do what Ella wants because she is on her own so they don't have to take into account other children's interests/abilities and because they want her to have a good time.

Further supporting the findings discussed in Section 6.2.1 that children from non-traditional families (such as single parent families) have a more equal role in decision making than children from traditional families.

6.3.2. Own Time on Vacation

A number of recent family tourism studies (see Section 2.7.2) have discussed the importance of 'own time' to family members on vacation. This is important to understand when investigating adolescents, as family vacations involve families spending large periods of time together, at a time when adolescents have been shown to seek independence and autonomy (see Section 2.2.1). It was therefore somewhat surprising that the families, and more specifically the adolescents, expressed more salience to being together on the vacation than having their own time. The adolescents often stated that having their own time was boring and they preferred to be with their family, as evident in the following dialogues:

Bella (17 years): *Happy to be with my family, I get a bit bored on my own.*

Ben (15 years): *Yeah same with me.*

And

Gaby (12 years): *I prefer to experience things with other people and I don't really like it if I was on my own ... So I didn't really want any alone time.*

This finding suggests that a desire to be with others is closely connected to the adolescent's individual identity as their sense of identity is dependent on and strengthened by the people they are with. In their day-to-day life this is likely to be their friends, whereas on a family vacation this is predominantly their family. As the following dialogue with the Adams family highlights, Alice Adams (16) describes herself and is seen by others as being the 'social' member of the family (see Section 5.2.1), illustrating this when she said, "*I don't like to be by myself anyway so I'd go with a friend*".

'Own time' was expressed as a motive for some of the adolescents in this study, notwithstanding the fact that they also believed they were unable to be alone on the vacation, as apparent in the following dialogue:

Georgia (15 years): *Umm I like a bit of alone time, just going shopping by myself or something.*

Grace (mother): *Even maybe reading by the pool by yourself.*

Georgia: *Yeah but we are always doing things together.*

Interviewer: ***Did you get any alone time?***

Georgia: *No not really, to be honest (laughing).*

Gary (father): *You didn't need alone time?*

Georgia: *Well if you're in a different place ...*

This finding suggests that while adolescents were likely to discuss implied independence (and probably have independence in large parts of their day-to-day lives), as illustrated when Campbell Carter (17 years) lamented, "*Sometimes I just want to be away from everyone and just go for a walk and look what's happening*", they were in fact content to be dependent on their family, like a child, in unfamiliar

situations. Reconfirming adolescence as a liminal period, where adolescents display both dependence and independence. Illustrated when Campbell (17 years) commented:

For me it's, because of my age, I can't have that sort of alone time, where if everyone is in the hotel room, I can't say 'Oh I'm going down the street, going for a walk', no I just don't have that freedom.

'Time out' in the company of their family, instead of own time, was important to many of the adolescents in this study. Adolescents achieved this through reading, listening to music or playing electronics, as illustrated in the following dialogue:

Bella (17 years): *Every evening, because we kept like journals, we after dinner, we had a nice time for an hour, maybe two, filling out, that was a bit of alone time. Then because we did the road trip to, like in the car, some of the days were just full days of driving, so you could spend time, I dunno, I read a book. Bailey and Ben played on their Nintendos. So whatever. So that was a bit of alone time too.*

Barbara (mother): *Alone but you were with everyone.*

Spending vacation time in relational groups, with one or both parents and without their siblings, was enjoyed by some of the adolescents in this study. This was seen as both an alternative to being on their own, as Abby Adams (15) explained, *"I'd hang out with dad and I'd probably drag mum off to some shops and hear her complain for an hour, go to the beach with dad, that's nice actually"*. Alternatively, Bella Brown (17 years) enjoyed spending time with her mother because, *"the boys have different interests"*. This was a time also enjoyed by her mother (Barbara), who commented, *"I think that it's probably more fun to be with someone, instead of having all five of us, just going for a walk with one of you, or Bella and I just sitting and watching the TV together"*.

The adolescents without siblings (Ella Evans and Freya Fisher) both stated that while they were not motivated to have their own time, they preferred to be by themselves than make friends on vacation, as Ella (13 years) explained, *“there was a boy who came up and started talking to me but I don’t like talking to random people. So I really spent time on my own”*. The findings of this study differ from those of Mikkelsen and Blichfeldt (2015, p. 266), who studied caravanning holidays for families and found that children like ‘spending time with their newfound friends’. This difference is, in part, due to caravanning vacations having unique characteristics when compared with other family vacations, but also because Mikkelsen and Blichfeldt’s study had more focus on younger children and less on adolescents. They noted that, ‘people seem to “take a break” from going caravanning around the time the oldest child becomes a teenager’ (p. 257). Mikkelsen and Blichfeldt suggested that this may be both because caravanning facilities are more suited to younger children and because it is more difficult to engage adolescents on vacation. The findings of this study suggest that making ‘newfound friends’ is not salient to adolescents’ newly developed/developing individual identity and therefore a vacation where making new friends is core does not appeal to them.

The parents in this study had mixed feelings on the need for ‘own time’. Some parents discussed how they enjoyed having time to themselves while on vacation, as Gary Graham (father) explained, *“I normally go off to the gym or something, for a run...”*. Whereas other parents discussed how they preferred to be with at least one other member of the family throughout the vacation, as Cameron Carter (father) admitted, *“I hate being alone, do it with everyone or do it with one or two, that doesn’t worry me as long as I am with someone”*. Other parents discussed how, whilst enjoyable, having their own time was neither a priority nor an expectation of the family vacation. This was illustrated by Henry Holt, who discussed how he sought ‘time out’ rather than ‘own time’:

I find that family holidays you don’t get a lot of time to yourself because you are always looking at the next activity or the next plan of how everyone is going to be occupied, and, sometimes on this type of holiday Heather might go into her room to read a book for an hour or two and I might be

cooking if it's got kitchen facilities or something like that. So it's possible that you might grab an hour here and there it's not as much when you've got four people occupying a two bedroom apartment or whatever.

Some studies, such as Fountain et al. (2015), have found that mothers often seek a break from childcare duties, whereas fathers seek time with their families on vacation (see Section 2.7.2). In this study, it was found that not only did fathers seek time with their family, as Barry Brown (father) said, *"I get enough alone time when I go on business trips. So it's kind of nice to be with the family"*, but so did mothers, as Heather Holt (mother) lamented, *"That to me is what was really important ... that as a family we're together and it just forces that time, because I just know that they're slipping away"*. This finding suggests that both the growing independence of adolescents and the reduced childcare obligations (due to the same growing independence and autonomy) mean parents generally did not seek a 'break' on vacation. Instead, vacations represent a liminoid (suspended) experience within a liminal period that enable families to be together and reconnect as a family. Moreover, it is the characteristics that identify adolescence as a liminal period, such as the adolescents growing independence and autonomy, that signal to parents that adolescents will no longer be dependent children, which creates the sense of urgency for the family to spend time together.

Notwithstanding this finding, some mothers were motivated to have their own time on vacation, while simultaneously perceiving that their individual identity motives (to have their own time) were incongruent with their family identity motives (to have family time). This sometimes created the need to justify their decision. For example:

Cameron will take the kids and go off and I'll just chill out, whatever it is ... and it's not because I want to be away from them, it's just that I don't want to walk anymore ... I mean if we were having a holiday where we sat by the pool for two weeks and played then I'd probably want to stay with them for the whole two weeks, it's just, we just can't keep up! (Catherine, mother).

And

Daisy (14 years): *If mum came hiking that would have been nice.*

Donna (mother): *I don't know what I was doing that day....*

Daisy: *Washing.*

Donna: *I think you'd all been in the pool and you wanted to go in the pool the next morning so I was washing all the bathers.*

Doug (father): *I don't think mum's a hiker girls and boys.*

Donna: *I would have gone if I'd known if it was as good as that. I just thought it would be driving somewhere look at that and then come back. I didn't know it was going to be as good as it was.*

6.3.3. Conflict During the Family Vacation

The motive to have 'own time' on vacation, according to Mikkelsen and Blichfeldt (2015), stemmed in part from conflicting motives between family members. It was expected in this study that the vacation would result in higher levels of family conflict than was apparent in their day-to-day life. This would largely be due to the adolescent years being a time when family cohesion is at its lowest (Olson, 1988), adolescents seeking independence (Kwak, 2003), and vacations representing a period when the family spends significant time together. This was found not to be the case. This finding again suggests that the vacation for families with adolescents is a liminoid experience, as many of the stressors in the families' day-to-day life are not apparent on vacation. Among some participating families, the main reason given for less conflict was the feeling of being relaxed, for example:

Fiona (mother): *No actually, less arguing when we are away than.....*

Freya (12 years): *We are relaxed so...*

Alternatively, Ben Brown (15 years) commented that he believed there was less conflict because the family was busy, he said, "*you're always doing so much stuff you don't ever need to*". This suggests that Ben saw conflict as a result of adolescent boredom.

Conflict was further reduced because the parents (as previously discussed in Section 6.3.1) either chose activities they believed the adolescents would enjoy or allowed the adolescents to choose activities on the vacation. Decrop (2005) and Lehto et al. (2009) found that children's desires are more likely to be taken into account on vacation and parents often sacrifice their own desires and interests for those of their children. The findings of this study, while supporting this argument, also suggest that the reduction in conflict is due to adolescents and parents having similar vacation motives (as discussed in Section 5.3), therefore parents do not need to sacrifice individual vacation motives.

Reduced conflict and spending time together means families use vacations as a vehicle to strengthen family identity. This finding is evident in the comments from the Adams family, where the parents and adolescents did, "*a mix of things, together and separately*" (Anna, mother) on vacation. The Adams parents instead felt there was reduced conflict because of the independence of their daughters and because, like other families, they were relaxed, as illustrated in the following dialogue:

Andrew (father): *I think there is a lot less tension when you are on holidays, more relaxed, so what seems like World War three here during the day, when we are getting ready for school in the morning and there's arguments about ... have you made lunches, it was your turn, no it was your turn and all that sort of stuff doesn't happen.*

Anna (mother): *Because people aren't in a rush, and tired and stressed about what's happening.*

Andrew: *And because they don't have responsibilities, it's all pretty easy.*

Less conflict meant the families in this study saw vacations as, "*very good for our family*" (Eve, mother), as they brought them closer, a sense that they are all, "*in it together*" (Barbara, mother). This highlights that when a family is in a liminal phase, a vacation, as a liminoid experience, becomes a vehicle for families to regain a sense of family cohesion.

Notwithstanding the fact that conflict was reduced on the vacation, when the families were asked if there was any conflict, families typically replied with, “*there must have been*” (Eve, mother), they then proceeded to think of examples. These examples in the most part reflected day-to-day life, such as a comment from Georgia Graham (15 years) about conflict, “*we were always in the same room ... so it gets a bit...*” or Hannah Holt (12 years) who thought, “*we wouldn’t argue but the same old ‘I’m watching this on TV’*”. Families appeared to view some level of conflict as a normal part of family life. This finding can be explained by Obrador (2012) who suggests that when families travel they take the ‘home’ with them in terms of many of the day-to-day roles and rituals. As a result, the conflict that was seen by the families in this study as ‘normal’ did not affect the success and predominantly positive memories of the vacation (discussed further in Section 6.4.1).

6.3.4 Discussion

This study contributes to theoretical knowledge by adding to the growing body of research that recognises the importance of during vacation decision making to family vacations. Activities and attractions are a major part of this process.

Vacation activity decisions were made by both the adolescents and by the parents for the adolescents. The notion of parental sacrifice discussed by Johns and Gyimóthy (2003) was reflected in this finding, with parents seeing time together as more important than fulfilling individual vacation motives. Similar to the pre-vacation phase (see Section 6.2.1), the older adolescents generally had a higher level of involvement in during vacation decision making than the younger adolescents. This reflects the older adolescents’ greater consumer skills (Fikry & Jamil, 2010; John, 1999), their maturing individual identity and their salience to their identity role as an older sibling in the family structure. These findings further support the findings of Kerrane and Hogg (2013) who found that children within families do not have equal influence on family consumption. The exception to this finding was associated with swimming, where the younger adolescents had a greater role and attached more salience to initiating and influencing the family in this activity as their way of playing with their family. In addition, visiting swimming pools was a popular family activity, as it allowed families to fulfil family identity (spending time

together) needs while concurrently meeting individual needs such as to read and relax.

Reduced family conflict and higher levels of togetherness, when compared with day-to-day family life, were characteristics of the family vacation. These characteristics denoted the vacation as a liminoid experience for families with adolescents that enable families to reconnect as a family and feel an increase in family cohesion within a liminal life phase. As outlined, the findings of this study differ from other studies (see Section 2.7.2) in relation to family members seeking their own time on vacation. While some parents sought 'own time', most family members stated that they preferred to be together on vacation. For adolescents, this appeared to be predominantly individual identity driven; they found being by themselves boring and preferred the company of others to validate their experiences. For parents, 'own time' was not as salient due to their commitment to family time on vacation and an acknowledgement of the adolescents' independence and self-sufficiency in their day-to-day life (at home).

The during vacation findings of this study, together with the pre-vacation findings (see Section 6.2), support the following propositions of this study: Proposition 4, (P4): *Family vacation decision making is ongoing, with the decision making process, type and roles dependent on the context within which they occur*; Proposition 5a, (P5a): *Each vacation decision leads to a vacation experience*; Proposition 5b, (P5b): *The evaluation of each vacation experience is both influenced by and influences identity and motives*; and Proposition 6, (P6): *Vacation experiences may vary between when the decision is made and when the product is consumed*.

This study argues that vacation decision making is ongoing, commencing when the idea for the vacation is first raised and continuing throughout the vacation. At any decision making point, a family member's level of involvement in the decision making process is dependent on their commitment and salience to identity roles. That is, by being involved in the decision making process, family members are able to ensure that decision outcomes are congruent (or at least not incongruent) with their identity. Family members also make a choice to not influence decision

making, both because they perceive they could not alter the decision outcomes (adolescents) and because they were committed to the family identity and therefore would allow other family members the decision making authority (parents).

Vacation decisions lead to vacation experiences, when family members experience the outcomes of those decisions. Due to the collectiveness of family vacations, vacation decisions are, for the most part, experienced by all family members. While there is some evidence in this study that vacation experiences can vary at different phases in the vacation, generally they remained consistent. That is, if family members perceived a vacation outcome to be congruent (or incongruent) with their identity (such as in the pre-vacation phase), when they experience the outcome of that decision (for example in the during vacation phase), their perceptions were reconfirmed, thus strengthening that aspect of their identity. In addition, the multi-faceted nature of identity meant that decision outcomes did not need to be congruent with all aspects of an individual's identity, for the family member to evaluate an experience as a success (discussed further in Section 6.4.1.1).

6.4. Post-Vacation Evaluation

The post-vacation phase commences when the family returns home from the vacation. The vacation is evaluated in this phase and it is important in determining the vacation's success and the future of family vacations.

6.4.1. Success of the Vacation

All of the families in this study agreed that their vacation was a success. Families saw the vacation as a success if they perceived it as congruent with their family identity, as illustrated in the following dialogue with the Graham family:

Gaby (12 years): *It was the best holiday probably.*

Gary (father): *Best holiday?*

Grace (mother): *Better than Disneyland?*

Gaby: *Yep.*

Georgia (15 years): *I'd say it was one of our favourites, it had everything.*

Grace: *Yeah?*

Gary: *It had everything, it had shopping and some...*

Georgia: *(laughs) yeah basically.*

Shopping was seen as congruent to the Graham family's identity (as discussed in Section 5.2.2), therefore a vacation that was perceived as successful for shopping both reinforced that identity and was seen as, "*the best holiday*" by the Graham family. The vacation being congruent with the Graham family identity also meant they spent time together, which, as for many of the families, fulfilled their motive for the vacation (see Section 6.2). For example:

Georgia (15 years): [discussing a photographs] *The one that best represents the holiday, is the same as Gaby, the orangutans and us all looking very hot and sweaty.*

Interviewer: *Why does it best represent the holiday to you?*

Georgia: *Umm, because we did everything together through the trip and we had a good time.*

And

Fiona (mother): *Really relax and to spend time, nice quality time with Freya and do something that we don't normally do".*

Easterling et al. (1995) and Lehto et al. (2012) found that families feel they do not spend enough time together in their day-to-day life and are actually spending less time together (compared with previous generations), due to busy and hurried lives. This was also an issue for the families in this study. Therefore a benefit of the vacation was maintaining a sense of family, as mentioned above and in the following comment:

... Hamilton Island was very good for our family to do things together and when you have busy parents who sometimes aren't always there. It was a good opportunity because we really didn't, we could do enough together there. We didn't have to go off separately, like for example the pool. We could be together without always being in each other's pockets. (Eve, mother)

Spending time together in itself does not necessarily lead to a successful vacation if that time results in increased family conflict. For the families in this study, the vacation is a time of reduced conflict (as discussed in Section 6.3.3.) and therefore a time they can enjoy being a family.

6.4.1.1. Enjoyment of the Vacation

In addition to family time, the families attributed the success of the vacation to the level of enjoyment the family and/or family members experienced. Enjoyment as a way of representing a successful vacation was identified through the photo elicitation process. Family members were asked to choose photographs that best represented the vacation and/or were their favourite. They were then asked to explain why they had chosen the photograph. In doing so, family members commonly said it was because either they or their family was enjoying themselves, for example, “*and we are all happy*” (Ella, 13 years) and, “*the one with the orangutans because I thought that was when everyone really enjoyed it and like maybe the favourite part of everyone’s holiday*” (Gaby, 12 years).

When choosing photographs, the parents generally chose photographs of their children enjoying themselves to best represent the vacation, as shown in the following dialogues:

Donna (mother): *We were there because we [parents] thought they [adolescents] would enjoy the theme parks the most, so it’s a picture of just them at the theme park, and they all look really happy there.*

And

Grace (mother): *... And I also just like the girls when they are messing around by the pool, they’re relaxed. It’s amazing how wherever you go they love a swimming pool and they don’t really love swimming so it’s nice to see them relax and hang around.*

They also chose photographs of their spouses enjoying themselves:

Cameron (father): *I think it's the nicest one of Catherine, because I think to me it was the realisation of her happiness of having the family, together at Disneyland.*

And

Eve (mother): [Commenting on a photograph Edward had chosen] *it was nice seeing Edward and Ella doing something together, because often it is Ella and I doing stuff. And that was nice too, I liked that, that you got to do that together.*

These findings support those of Kozak and Duman (2012). They found that parents' vacation satisfaction can be explained through their children's and spouse's satisfaction, and explained through equity theory (family members measure satisfaction in parallel to other family members). That is, the parents were satisfied with the vacation when they saw their children and/or spouses enjoying themselves.

The adolescents generally chose photographs that depicted the whole family enjoying the vacation, as previously illustrated in Section 5.2.2 and further illustrated in the following dialogue:

Barbara (mother): *Why did you pick the photo with all of us in it?*

Ben (15 years): *Because we were having such a great time.*

Although there were differences between the generations in which photographs family members chose, both generations gave similar reasons for why they chose the photographs, which was family members enjoying themselves. As a result, it appeared that if the adolescents were enjoying themselves on vacation, the parents were satisfied and therefore enjoying themselves. As a result, everyone in the family perceived the vacation as successful.

Further, not all vacation experiences had to be enjoyable for the vacation to be evaluated as a success. This finding was highlighted by the Dunn family

experience. As discussed in Section 5.2.1, Doug Dunn saw the vacation destination (pre-vacation and during vacation) as incongruent with his individual identity; he neither enjoyed the destination or some of the experiences, such as the theme parks, as illustrated by the remark, *“We’re finished with them now”*. Nevertheless, Doug did not see the vacation as unsuccessful as he saw his children’s enjoyment. He said, *“My favourite [photograph] was the kids enjoying themselves”* and he described some of the other vacation experiences, such as hiking, as *“really good”* and going *“for a run every day”* as an enjoyable aspect of the vacation.

This finding highlights the complexity of understanding identity in families. The findings of this study found (as discussed in Section 6.2.1) that families will visit a destination if it is congruent with their identity. They also indicate that the benefits of the destination that they perceive as congruent depend on the identity role the family member is fulfilling and their level of commitment and salience to that role. For Doug, aspects of the destination were incongruent with his individual identity, such as the perceived urbanisation and commercialisation of the Gold Coast. Nevertheless he saw other aspects of the vacation, such as spending time together as a family and his children’s enjoyment, as benefits of the destination that were congruent with his identity as a father. This was an identity role he displayed a high level of salience and commitment to. Jenkins (2014) questioned whether identity and behaviour could be clearly linked due to the multi-faceted nature of identity. The findings of this study demonstrate that identity and behaviour can be linked if the identity role to which an individual has the most salience can be identified.

The evaluation of the vacation by other Dunn family members further highlights how vacation experiences can reinforce identity. Although the adolescents in the Dunn family initiated the vacation and enjoyed the vacation, they (like their father) did not enjoy aspects of the destination as they also saw it as congested/commercialised. For example, Dylan (17 years) said, *“I didn’t expect it to be anywhere nearly as built up and even having that many buildings near the water was a bit of a letdown”*. This is reinforced in the following dialogue:

- Dylan (17 years): *I think really the only nice part of the whole place we were at was that beach area that was in the National Park.*
- Doug (father): *With the rivers.*
- Dylan: *With the rivers, clear blue water, you know when you see photographs of come to Queensland it would have that whereas everywhere else ...*
- Danielle (12 years): *Was crowded.*
- Dylan: *Was crowded and horrible and way too urban.*
- Danielle: *Yeah.*

The disappointment the Dunn adolescents felt with the destination arose from the difference between the adolescents' perceived expectation of the destination and their actual experience. That is, while the adolescents saw the destination as congruent with their identity in the pre-vacation phase, large parts (but not all, they enjoyed the theme parks) of the actual destination experience were incongruent. This reinforced/strengthened the 'nature loving' aspects of their individual identity and family identity, as illustrated in the following dialogue:

- Interviewer:** *So what would you change Dylan as a family is there anything that you could have done to make it better?*
- Dylan (17 years): *Better location, more relaxed, more ideal view of what Queensland would be with more clear waters.*
- Donna (mother): *And that would have not been anywhere near the theme parks.*
- Dylan: *Yeah, I wouldn't mind that if we were going again. I would keep it away from the theme parks.*
- Donna: *Yeah and go to a remote part of Queensland.*

These views further affected their motive for future vacations. For example, Dylan (17 years) stated, "*I'd rather go to a place again more like Ocean Grove, where it's much more local and calmed down*". Daisy (14 years) stated that she would go to Queensland again but, "*a different part of Queensland*".

The multi-faceted nature of identity, and commitment and salience to identity roles affecting how families evaluate the vacation, was observed in other families in this study. For example, the Adams parents were motivated to visit China or Vietnam (as discussed in Section 6.2.1), yet they did not go. Nevertheless, they still enjoyed the vacation as they were able to strengthen family relationships and spend time together while giving their daughters independence. Anna Adams (mother) illustrates this when she says, “*you know although we tease Alice that we went because of her it is a very good place for us as a family to go to because it, subject to Abby being happy because there are friends of hers there, because it is easy...*”. This further supports the notion that not all aspects of a destination need to be congruent with all aspects of a family member’s multi-faceted identity for families to evaluate the vacation as successful.

Similarly, vacation experiences that family members did not enjoy, such as unsuccessful activities (Evans, Holt and Graham families) and disappointing accommodation (Brown family), did not affect the families’ evaluation of the vacation if the dominant motive for the vacation was fulfilled. For example, the Graham family did not enjoy a cable car ride, as evident in the following:

Gaby (12 years): *Well we went on, I think mum was the one who wanted to do it, I wasn’t too keen, but I was ok. Then when we got on it was a bit bumpy, when we got up there so that was a bit scary, and I thought there would be a good view, it was good but it wasn’t something very amazing.*

There was also disappointment with the hotel on arrival:

Grace (mother): *The rest of it was a bit disappointing for a new luxury hotel. We had to queue for about 40 minutes to check in. And trying to get interconnecting rooms is always a hassle, I find, when you travel. It was all full, the hotel has 1500 hundred rooms and they didn’t have two rooms that were interconnecting. And then they sent us to our room and it was not made up!*

Gary (father): *They had someone else in there.*

Gaby (12 years): *Yeah, someone else's luggage was still around.*

And finally, they were disappointed that they had to return on a second day to visit the orangutans:

Grace (mother): *... And the morning we turned up for it [the orangutans] they'd had a power failure so it wasn't operating. So we turned around and went back, and went back the next day.*

Despite these disappointments and less than enjoyable experiences, as previously discussed, the family described the vacation as the “*best*” because it fulfilled the aspects of the vacation they saw as important, such as shopping and family time.

6.4.1.2. Creation of Family Memories

The success of the vacation was also highlighted through the positive family memories the vacation created. As already outlined, vacations strengthen family identity through the experiences on the vacation. Family memories from the vacation, through stories and photographs continue to strengthen family identity and contribute to the success of the vacation into the future.

Family photographs represent tangible recollections of the vacation that elicit memories and stories. As Noble and Walker (1997) stated, photographs have a significant role in liminal phases as they enable the creation of memories that provide support in the post-liminal phase. The use of photographs as a way of creating memories and stories was evident when the families were looking at the photographs. There was a lot of laughing, excitement and happy ‘chatter’ as the families looked through the photographs and reminisced and recalled events, as illustrated in the following dialogues:

Interviewer: *Why do you like that one Bailey?*

Bailey (12 years): *Because well I like the Golden Gate bridge.*

Bella (17 years): *And also because it's a reminder of how cold it was, it was freezing.*

Bailey: *It wasn't for me!*
Bella: *You were the only one that was warm, so I was hugging Bailey because I was so cold and I wanted to warm up.*

And

Andrew (father): *Probably something like this photo which is Alice and me just being silly. So it's a self-portrait, a selfie, as they say and just being silly at a café where we were having a family dinner. So it's got good memory of the family and a happy time, family memory, eating out doors, so it was good.*

These findings highlight the importance of family photographs, in creating memories and keeping an experience alive. For example, Eve (mother) said, "*It's not the photo that I like. I just like that it reminds me of that night*". After looking at the photographs, the Evans family recalled the following experience:

Eve (mother): *Remember the bus thing, we had to walk back down. We went up to that high lookout ... and they serve you drinks and you watch the sun go down, it's all lovely. Except the sun had gone down, it's quite quick up there, and a bit cool when the sun goes down. And the bus didn't come to pick us up ... We were like there is no bus, it's up high and it's completely pitch black. There is no lights, and we were trying to get down.*

Ella (13 years): *With another family.*

Edward (father): *He wasn't happy was he? He was Sicilian.*

Ella: *(laughing) He jumped out in front of the bus as it was driving [Ella demonstrates waving her hands] ... and he ran out and he was like STOPPPP. It was so funny.*

Eve: *So that was a bit of a highlight, I'd forgotten about that one.*

The ability to keep a feeling alive through a photograph was also apparent when families chose photographs not for who was in them, but for what they

symbolised. For example, Alice Adams chose a photo of a cup of coffee, and reflected on how the coffee symbolised family time in a café:

Alice (16 years): *It's me at a café with mum, because I never, we don't really do that.*

Andrew (father): *That was all of us.*

Alice: *I know but that was something that we don't get to do back here so much.*

Interviewer: ***You all going to a café together?***

Alice: *Yeah or just anyone going to a café. There's not a group photo, but I like that place.*

Abby (15 years): *That's the other thing about eating out, it's not just the food is great, the company was alright.*

The following dialogue with the Fisher family further highlights the importance of photographs to vacation memories. Although Freya did not verbalise why each of the photographs she chose was her favourite or best represented the holiday, she intimated, through the chosen photographs, the importance of spending time with her mother:

Freya (12 years): *I like that one [photograph of Freya and Fiona with their arms around each other].*

Interviewer: ***Why do you like that one of you and your Mum?***

Freya: *I don't know.*

Fiona (mother): *We don't get many photographs of you and I do we?*

Freya: *That represents my view of the holiday! [looking at more photographs], that represents my view of the holiday.*

Interviewer: ***Why does that one?*** [photograph of Freya and Fiona in front of the hire car].

Freya: *I don't know, because we were driving to Cape Tribulation, and it just reminds me of it.*

Interviewer: ***Being with your mum?***

Freya: *Yeah I guess, yeah just driving there. Look at this one mum ... I love that one [photograph of Freya and Fiona]. It's my favourite!!*

This dialogue with Freya led to her mother reflecting on the importance of the family vacation to her daughter. Approximately one month after the interview, Fiona mentioned that she had not realised the importance of this until Freya spoke about it in the interview. As a result, she was planning more time for family vacations.

The benefit of the vacation in creating positive family memories was also evident through the stories that family members told about the vacation (both in conjunction with and without the photographs). While in the most part the stories were about events the families enjoyed, for some families some of the favorite memories resulted from experiences the families did not enjoy. This conclusion was drawn both from the enthusiastic and joyful way family members (particularly adolescents) retold stories, as illustrated in the following dialogue:

Bella (17 years): *... There was one place that was in the middle of nowhere, where was that place with the silos ... that was a bit creepy.*
(all adolescents talking at once)

Bailey (12 years): *It wasn't that bad.*

Bella: *It was bad there was like nothing there.*

Barbara (mother): *Oh hang on we had two rooms.*

Ben (15 years): *Yeah but it did stink there.*

Bella: *Yeah it was scary, I thought someone was going to kill me.*

Barry (father): *I think the reality was that hotel was probably one of the two star sort of places rather than three star.*
(adolescents laughing)

Bella: *Yeah.*

Barry: *It certainly didn't have a nice breakfast room, it certainly didn't have a nice pool.*

Bailey: *It did have breakfast.*

Bella: *No, the self-catering breakfast was like a banana.*
(all laughing)

This was similar to the Evans family recalling an incident when they went out in catamarans:

Eve (mother): *He forgot to tell us he was about to jump in and we thought he had fallen off.*

Ella (13 years): *(Laughs) We got caught on the buoy thing, and he was trying to get off the buoy and it wasn't working so he just dived in. It was so funny.*

Edward (father): *We got snagged and it wasn't getting off so ...*

Eve: *But next time you can tell us.*

Edward: *The only way to get it off was to dive in and get it off. And you can have a discussion with the girls about that, or you can just go and do it. And I just went and did it.*

Eve: *And then Ella screamed and all these boats are going 'oh my goodness man overboard' (all laugh) come and help.*

Ella: *And I'm screaming 'daddy, daddy'. (all laughing)*

Eve: *Yeah we can laugh about that now, but at the time ...*

These dialogues show that negative vacation experiences often become favourite vacation memories because they create a sense of togetherness and strengthen family identity. In addition, this finding suggests, as proposed by Schänzel (2010a), that irrespective of feelings at the time remembered experiences are generally positive.

Further contributing to this finding was the fact that very few participants had a worst/least favourite photograph. While negative experiences often represent some of the favourite memories from the vacation, at the time they are experienced they are not enjoyable. As a result, the family does not create a tangible record of the event through a photograph. So, while the Evans family had a photograph of the

catamarans, that photograph was taken before the ‘negative experience’. They did not enjoy any aspect of the Great Barrier Reef tour and therefore did not take photographs, as they recalled:

Edward (father): *We didn’t get any photographs of the boat. Was that because we didn’t take the camera? ...*

Eve (mother): *No I just don’t think we took any photographs.*

Ella (13 years): *Yeah I don’t think we did.*

For the families in this study, the evaluation of the vacation’s success was through, vacation motives fulfilled, family members enjoying the vacation, the strengthening of family identity and the creation of family memories. That is, family vacations enable what Higgins and Hamilton (2014) refer to as ‘familying’ (see Section 2.3.2) a time when families can be together and enjoying being a family. The vacation as a possession (the memories and experience they see as theirs) is a liminoid experience. Through consuming the vacation, families use this experience to preserve a sense of family in a period of liminality. A period where adolescents are seeking independence and autonomy in their day-to-day life from the family unit. That is, through ‘familying’ families create and strengthen a sense of family for the future. For families with adolescents this takes on a sense of urgency, as families in this liminal phase feel that time is running out to create family memories, strengthen family bonds and have family vacations.

6.4.2. Future Vacations

Nevertheless, despite families having had a successful vacation, it was identified that this did not mean that there would be future vacations either to the same or alternate destinations. The following section discusses these findings.

6.4.2.1. Return to the Destination

Despite the agreed-upon success and enjoyment of the vacation, families said they would prefer not to return to the same destination for their next vacation, as Georgia Graham (15 years) explained, “*probably not soon, but in two years maybe, I’d rather go to other places that we haven’t been before*”. Abby Adams (15) said she would, “*probably [go] somewhere new, because like Noosa, I’ve already been*

there, and it's kind of been there done that, type thing", whereas Bella Brown (17 years) explained, *"I don't know if we would go back to America because it was so good I don't know I'd want to change what I thought about that holiday but going somewhere else would be really good"*. Some family members stated that they would like to return to the destination but in a different format. For example, Eve Evans (mother) said she would go for a shorter vacation because, *"you wouldn't do it for more than 7 days, you would get bored"*. Gary felt he would *"probably go on the way to or from somewhere rather than go to Singapore as a destination"*, and Campbell Carter (17 years) said he would go to *"maybe somewhere else in America, we have done Disneyland twice. There's no problem going back to Disneyland three times, I don't mind, it's good to get out of the house, but you know!"* Finally, the Dunn, Adams and Holt families stated that although they enjoyed the vacation, they would not return to the destination as they preferred other destinations. For example, Harry (15 years) said, *"although, it was a good experience [the Gold Coast], ideally I prefer Noosa, although it's always good to go somewhere else, try somewhere else, somewhere different ..."*

Despite some not wanting to return to the destination themselves, families said they would recommend the destination to others. This finding further illustrates the success of the vacation. That is, while the families themselves want new experiences, they were happy to recommend it to others. The exceptions were Harry Holt (15 years), who felt, *"umm, I'd say yes it's a good place but I wouldn't rave about it, I'd say there's a lot more, there are a few other different places that have a lot more ... appealing"*, and the Dunn and Adams families, who said that they would recommend the destination but with caveats. For the Dunn family, this was a reflection of their disappointment with aspects of the destination, for example, Donna (mother) said, *"if they've got children definitely if they don't, probably not. I don't know that the Gold Coast has a lot to offer other than the theme parks"*. The Adams daughters felt their destination would appeal more to girls, as they believed it to be more congruent with a girl's identity, as illustrated in the following dialogue:

Abby (15 years): *I think it depends on whose family it is.*

Alice (16 years): *It depends on what kids you've got, if it's two boys.*

Abby: *Yeah, no.*

Interviewer: *So why do you think boys wouldn't like it?*

Alice: *I think they would like it, I just think if you say to them, if you say to the two boys, we're going to Noosa, there's shops, there's food, there's beach, there's it's all social, I mean are two teenage boys going to go "yeah, we're there!"*

6.4.2.2. Future of Family Vacations

The future of family vacations was also a topic of discussion for the families in this study. As adolescents get older, school commitments become a barrier for family vacations (as discussed in Section 6.2.2.). At the same time, as adolescents approach adulthood they show signs of their growing independence and a desire to vacation independently. This was previously noted (see Section 6.4.1) as it creates a sense of urgency to have a vacation. The end of the family vacation with dependent children is evident in the following dialogue:

Dylan (17 years): *I might be getting, it might be a bit much for me, that's all, like I'd rather go with my friends by that stage.*

Interviewer: *By next year you mean?*

Dylan: *By the end of this year.*

The end of family vacations (notwithstanding that a family may choose to vacation together as adults) was widely discussed by the families in this study. Two themes were identified regarding the end of the family vacation. The first is that there is an end to what the Brown family referred to as the major vacations, as illustrated in the following dialogue:

Ben (15 years): *I'd like to see more but I don't think there will be that many others.*

Barbara (mother): *They're talking about substantial family holidays.*

Bella (17 years): *Yeah we will still go on beach holidays and stuff.*

Ben: *Yeah like each summer we go to Blairgowrie to stay.*

Barbara: *And we go to the snow a bit.*

Bella: *Yeah the snow and stuff, yeah but overseas.*

Barry (father): *We are likely to do shorter week or two week long
possibly more ...*

The second theme is the recognition of the adolescent years as a liminal time for families and the end of family vacations as families approach the post-liminal phase. For the adolescents, this meant vacationing as independent adults (young singles). For example, Campbell Carter thought his next vacation would be to, “*probably America but maybe with some friends of mine. Because I’ve been there, I’ve seen it with my family, that’s one experience but if I could be with my friends, do sort of, friendly sort of stuff*”. For the parents, a post-liminal phase meant vacationing as empty nesters, for example:

Interviewer: *So do you see Machu Picchu and the Pyramids being
after the girls have left?*

Andrew (father): *Yes.*

Anna (mother): *Yes, we’ll do our own thing.*

The end of family vacations was shown to be a ‘phasing out’ period rather than a definitive end point. For families with multiple adolescents who become adults at different times, this is because the move to the next life phase occurs over a period of time. Furthermore, although families discussed the end of family vacations as imminent, when asked to describe their ultimate vacation (at some point in the future), they often portrayed it as a family vacation, for example:

Barbara (mother): *Oh Canada that would be great, or go back to the UK.
I’m a bit obsessed with the UK.*

Bella (17 years): *Yeah me too.*

Barbara: *And Europe and show them that.*

It further was identified from the findings of this study that, in the most part, it is the adolescents’ need for independence that signals the end of family vacations rather than the parents desire to vacation alone. As a result, parents were often willing to offer a ‘drawcard’ to recapture family life and ensure future family vacations, as evident in the following comment:

And because they're the last years where, we would be, where there is any prospect at all of going on holiday together, other than one of them might come with us if we were going somewhere really exotic and we offer to pay in the University years or something (Anna, mother).

This finding was further evident in the Carter family who discussed 'saving' destinations they knew the adolescents would want to visit for family vacations:

Catherine (mother): *Cameron and I have decided to do Hong Kong, because that was the only place the children have allowed us to go without them.*

Cameron: *Yeah, so that's why hopefully the places we do want to go still as a family, Catherine and I won't do as a couple, we'll wait and hopefully the kids can come.*

In addition, Cameron Carter (father) expressed the desire for future vacations with the adolescents as they become adults:

... I'd rather travel with them than without them so that's my view. Even if they had partners like when they get a bit older I'd be more than happy to involve them so long as the nucleus of the family is together. Travel to me is about the family rather than sometimes the experience (Cameron, father).

6.4.3. Discussion

The families in this study evaluated their vacations as a success despite evidence of destination incongruity and disappointing vacation experiences. Success was associated with positive family memories and congruency with the identity roles and motives they had a high level of commitment and salience towards. This finding supports Proposition 7, (P7): *The sum of the vacation experiences contributes (although not equally) to the overall evaluation of the vacation*, and Proposition 8, (P8): *The post-vacation evaluation of the vacation is influenced by and influences identities and motives.*

Understanding identity within families and the impact this has on behaviour is complex. As discussed in Section 2.3.1, the extant tourism literature suggests that travellers will visit destinations that are congruent with their identity. Although the findings of this study support this, for families this association is not so simple. The findings of this study highlight that a destination (or during vacation activities) do not have to be congruent with all aspects of a family members multi-faceted identity to be undertaken and/or successfully evaluated. Behaviour and successful evaluation are therefore dependent upon that destination/activity being congruent with identity aspects that family members display a high degree of commitment and salience towards, rather than all aspects of family members' multi-faceted identities.

Family vacations further benefit families through improving family cohesion and the creation of family memories that live on after the vacation. This is of importance when exploring families with adolescents as vacations (as a liminoid experience) represent a period of harmony in what has been described as a turbulent life stage (see Section 2.2.1) and therefore, as stated by Noble and Walker (1997), create memories that provide support for families as they transition into the next (post-liminal) life stage.

The future of family vacations was an important theme that was identified from this study. Despite enjoying the vacation, the families said they would prefer to experience new destinations for their next vacation. In addition, the families recognised that family vacations would soon end, as adolescents sought independence as young adults. This finding in part supports Proposition 9, (P9): *Family vacations in their existing form eventually come to an end as families move into the next stage of the family life cycle*. In addition, what the findings of this study demonstrate is, notwithstanding that the end of family vacations was discussed as imminent by many of the families, there was an acknowledged 'phasing out' period rather than a definitive end. This was because families might have multiple adolescents becoming adults at different times, and families could still vacation together as adults if the 'drawcard' was attractive enough. Moreover, irrespective of whether family vacations would come to an end or continue in another format, families feel that 'time is running out' and it is this sense of urgency that underpins many of the vacation motives.

6.5. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented and discussed how families with adolescents make vacation decisions and evaluate the outcomes of those decisions through the three vacation phases. Identity and identity based motives were found to be central to understanding this process. Vacations were shown to be a liminoid experience which creates a unique decision making environment where many of the family's day-to-day roles are suspended. Pre vacation decisions were predominantly made by the parents. The adolescents had both a passive (e.g. school commitments influencing the vacation timing) and active role in this process. Actively the adolescents negotiated the destination choice ensuring the family did not go to destinations they perceived as incongruent with their maturing identity. Parents' salience and commitment to the family identity meant that parental sacrifice was a common theme. During the vacation, most decision were made for or by the adolescents. Families additionally sought out activities where they could be together and still fulfill individual motives. The combination of increased family togetherness and reduced family conflict meant vacations are perceived as 'good' for families. The vacation creates an environment where families can reconnect and strengthen family bonds within a liminal life phase. These characteristics, together with a sense that time is running out for family vacations, meant that families sought time together rather than own time on vacation. The following chapter addresses the research objectives for this study and provides the concluding remarks to this study.

Chapter 7. Conclusion to the Study

7.1. Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to provide the summation and concluding remarks for this study. Having presented and discussed the findings in the previous two chapters (Chapters 5 and 6), this chapter will re-address the research objectives, examine the key methodological, theoretical and practical contributions of this study, and identify limitations and directives for future research.

This study makes a valuable contribution to research in understanding the unique vacation needs of families with adolescents. Family tourism studies exist, however, typically they have focused on pre-adolescents. Evidence from this study demonstrates that the vacation needs of families with pre-adolescent children do not always translate to the vacation needs of families with adolescents. Families with adolescents are in a liminal phase during which adolescents' individual identity develops and adolescents seek independence and autonomy as they approach adulthood. This development means adolescents are actively involved in vacation decision making to ensure outcomes are congruent with their developing individual identity. This involvement, in the most part, does not lead to increased family conflict, instead, vacations represent a liminoid experience for families, a time where they can reconnect (strengthen family identity) and create family memories that will ease the transition into approaching post-liminal phase.

Through including the family group and the voice of the adolescent, this study makes an important contribution to CCT research. CCT research is recognised as one of the most successful and inclusive approaches to consumer research (Arnould & Thompson, 2007; Askegaard & Linnet, 2011; Fitchett et al., 2014). Yet, one of the cited criticisms of CCT research is that it typically takes an individualistic perspective (Fitchett et al., 2014) and the voice of the child is rarely heard (Cody, 2013). This study addresses this gap. Further, a CCT approach provided a platform through which the interplay of family identity and the consumption of the vacation were examined during a period of changing family dynamics.

The following section revisits the research objectives for this study and, through this, highlights its unique contributions.

7.2. Research Objectives Revisited

The aim of this study is to explore how families with adolescents make vacation decisions. Specifically, the research objectives are to explore:

1. How families with adolescents make vacation decisions and the role of family members multiple multi-faceted identities in this process.
2. The motivation of family members before and throughout the vacation to influence the decision making process.
3. How families with adolescents evaluate the vacation experience and the outcomes of their vacation and the role of family members multiple multi-faceted identities in the evaluation process.

The conceptual framework developed from the existing literature and discussed in Chapter 3, created a platform to address each of these research objectives. The overarching theme that runs through this study is the importance of identity in understanding the vacation for families with adolescents. Broadly, this affected the vacation as a whole in two ways. First, the adolescents' developing identity shifts the family into a liminal phase, identified in previous research as characterised by low family cohesion due to the growing independence and autonomy of adolescents. This phase concludes with adolescents reaching adulthood and it is this approaching post-liminal phase that creates a motive for families to have a vacation. Second, the vacation, as a liminoid experience, represents a suspension from the stressors of day-to-day life and therefore creates a vehicle for families to strengthen family identity.

The vacation for families with adolescents was examined commencing when the idea for the vacation was raised and concluding when the family returned home. Vacation decision making is ongoing and how families made vacation decisions varied based on the phase of the vacation within which they made that decision. At any decision making point, a family member's involvement in the decision making

process was dependent on the decision and their commitment and salience to identity roles. A higher level of commitment and salience to an identity role meant a family member was more likely to be involved in the decision to ensure outcomes were congruent (or at least not incongruent) with that identity role.

Involvement in vacation decisions and decision making authority was not equal between family members. Parents largely made the pre-vacation decisions that framed the vacation, such as the length of time and budget for the vacation. The adolescent's role was mainly passive in these decisions, and included their schooling influencing the timing and length of the vacation. Adolescents did have an active role in some pre-vacation decisions, namely the destination choice. The adolescents' (largely the older adolescents) involvement ensured, in the most part, that the family did not visit a destination they perceived as incongruent with their individual identity. The parents were open to this influence (as also demonstrated in the during vacation phase) due to the importance they placed on family identity (having enjoyable family time) over their individual identity needs. As a result, the parents were found to be more likely than the adolescents to compromise on the destination choice.

Adolescents were found to play an active role in during vacation decision making. Predominantly during vacation decisions were made by or for the adolescents. Similar to the pre-vacation stage, older adolescents had a higher involvement in decision making than younger adolescents. This finding illustrates three important points. First, older adolescents have greater consumer skills and a more developed identity, creating the motive to influence decisions to ensure congruent outcomes. These developments also mean older adolescents have more power in the family structure to influence outcomes than their younger siblings. Second, the adolescent years can be viewed as a liminal phase, where children transition into adults, or alternatively adolescence can be viewed as two liminal phases within the adolescent life stage. In stage one, children transition into adolescents and in stage two, adolescents transition into adulthood. Viewing adolescence as two liminal phases within a life stage acknowledges that younger adolescents and older adolescents have different characteristics, such as their differing levels of involvement and influence in the decision making process. Third,

parents place a large degree of salience on fulfilling family identity motives such as spending time together. This motive stems from the parents sense that time is 'running out'. As a result the parents are willing to sacrifice their own individual identity motives in most decision making situations to create an enjoyable family experience.

Influence strategies were identified as a common part of vacation decision making. Influence strategies were used both deliberately and rationally by family members. Not only did family members (most commonly the adolescents) articulate how they influenced vacation decisions, which influence strategies they used, when they were unsuccessful and when not to influence decision making, generally they were also aware of influence strategies being used on them. Identity roles largely determined the use of influence strategies. Parents commonly used strategies such as legitimate and experience, reflecting their decision making authority within the family. Whereas adolescents typically used negotiation, bargaining and emotional strategies. This reaffirms the notion of adolescence as a liminal phase; emotional strategies require no argument and therefore were found in other studies to be commonly used by children and in this study, was more commonly used by younger adolescents (see Section 2.5.1). Alternatively, a negotiation influence strategy is a more sophisticated (and adult-like) strategy that demonstrates the adolescent's maturing individual identity, greater consumer skills and ability to use their resources to develop a logical argument.

Families predominantly displayed similar vacation motives between the generations. This finding further indicates the importance of exploring the vacation needs of families with adolescents as distinct from other traveling groups. Existing research focusing on pre-adolescent children has found that vacation motives differ between the generations (for example, Bakir and Baxter (2011), Hilbrecht et al. (2008) and Schänzel (2010a)) whereas this study found (particularly for the older adolescents) more similarities than differences. Moreover, multi-faceted identities and multiple decision making points create multiple vacation motives. Jenkins (2014) questioned whether identity and behaviour can be clearly linked due to individual's multi-faceted identities. What this study evidences is a linkage between identity and behaviour. A family member's dominant motive in any decision

making situation reflects the identity role to which they display the highest level of commitment and salience towards, and as found by Bond and Falk (2013) and Stryker and Burke (2000), they are motivated to make behavioural choices that reinforce that role. In addition, and not explored in these studies, this study found that whether an individual motive leads to behaviour is dependent upon the decision making authority of the family member in combination with the salience and commitment of other family members to their dominant motive. The parents, and somewhat surprisingly the adolescents (given their growing independence), placed a high importance on family identity motives, such as spending time together. The parents in particular would compromise on individual identity motives to achieve this goal, as they had more salience towards family identity motives. So, although conflicting motives may mean a motive is unfulfilled, more often it led to compromise. For this reason, families saw compromise as important to a successful vacation.

In addition, and related to families being motivated to spend time together, the families in this study did not apply a great degree of salience to having 'own time' on vacation. This finding differs to the findings of other family tourism studies (see Section 2.7.2) and reflects the unique vacation needs of families with adolescents when compared to families with younger children. Adolescents perceive 'own time' in the most part to be 'boring' which suggests that adolescents' identity is strengthened by the people they are with. Although some parents did express a desire for 'own time', in the most part parents sought time together as a family. This finding differs to the findings of studies predominantly with younger children (see Section 2.7.2) who found mothers seek a break from childcare duties on vacation. It was found in this study that it is the characteristics that identify adolescence as a liminal period, such as the adolescents growing independence and autonomy that means both parents do not need a break from childcare duties and that signal to parents that adolescents will soon no longer be dependent children. These characteristics create a sense of urgency to have a vacation, 'while they can', and the commitment and salience of parents to being together on the vacation.

The evaluation of the vacation occurred during and after the vacation. This study indicates that families will evaluate the vacation a success, despite evidence

of destination incongruity and disappointing vacation experiences, if they fulfill their motives for the vacation, if they enjoy the vacation, and/or if the vacation leads to the strengthening of family identity and the creation of positive family memories. When evaluating the success of the vacation, ‘enjoyment’ was identified as an important construct. For parents this typically involved their adolescents or spouses enjoying the vacation. For the adolescents, this was about the whole family (including themselves) enjoying themselves. Moreover, it was through the enjoyment that families saw the fulfillment of their original motives for the vacation, such as spending time together and strengthening family identity.

Vacations represent a liminoid experience for families with adolescents, as they suspend many of the stressors and conflicts of daily life for the duration of the vacation. Stressors and conflicts arise from busy/hurried lives (see Section 2.7.3) and the adolescent’s growing independence and autonomy, which create what has been identified as a period of ‘storm and stress’ (see Section 2.2.1) and low family cohesion (see Section 2.4.2). In its place, vacations provide a vehicle for families to reconnect and create memories. This, together with family members not seeking their ‘own time’ (contrary to the findings of studies of predominantly pre-adolescent families) means families perceive vacations as ‘good’ for their families.

The future of family vacations was an important theme that was identified. Despite families evaluating the vacation as a success, the adolescent’s transition into adulthood meant that families perceived that family vacations would soon end. This, in turn, created the motive to have a vacation while they could.

7.3. Research Reflection

The subjectivity of the researcher in the research process is a sometimes cited criticism of qualitative research (see the discussion in Section 4.3.1). To address this criticism, this study adopted a reflective and reflexive approach. Reflection and reflexivity are important and proven ways of ensuring rigour and trustworthiness in qualitative research findings (Finlay & Gough, 2008). These approaches were used throughout this study. This section focuses on the researcher’s development as a researcher and the researcher’s role in the production of knowledge.

The starting point in the reflective process is gaining insights into the reasons for conducting a research project. In the case of this study, prior to starting this research I had worked in private industry (mostly in a finance capacity) and, after the birth of my third child, in the academic field initially teaching business related subjects within a tourism school. Concurrently, I enjoyed a number of family vacations both within Australia and overseas. Through my employment history I developed an interest in both consumer and tourism research and, through travelling, an awareness that while there are facilities catering to young children, there does not appear to be many facilities or services catering specifically for families with adolescents. It was thus through a combination of my professional and personal experiences that I became interested in undertaking a research project and, more specifically, in the topic of this study.

As a new researcher, my depth of understanding both of the research topic and the research process has developed throughout my research journey. This, in turn, has influenced my decision making on how I have approached this project. For example, when I started this research my topic had a transactional focus, it focused on when, and at what stage of the decision making process, adolescents influenced vacation decisions. It was, as I now realise, a simplistic view. At the time, I believed that if marketers knew at what stage(s) in the decision making process adolescents influenced vacation decisions, they could then target tourism campaigns at adolescents during that stage(s). While I still believe this in part, what I now recognise is that understanding how families with adolescents make vacation decisions is more complex. My knowledge developed through examining the literature. Through this process, as suggested by Maso (2008), I started to encounter different preliminary answers, half-answers or leads to the development of the research topic. New ideas and directions continued to develop throughout the research process and one of the hurdles that I had to overcome was to not get distracted by too many new ideas. As Maso (2008, p. 46) stated, these stages are an important part of qualitative research as they become the 'building blocks of a theoretical framework'. In my case, the framework developed from the existing literature and my own knowledge and ideas, which resulted in what I believe to be the best way to approach this research. Of course, as with the development of any research approach, I had to make choices, I had to choose which direction to take

and what to include and exclude from the project. Maso (2008) described this as a forced reflexivity. This process became a way of testing my subjective beliefs (ideas) against the existing literature.

The process of forced reflexivity continued throughout my research journey, including when I collected and interpreted the data. For example, my initial approach to the interviews was to 'run through' each day of each family's vacation. I realised in the first interview that this was not going to produce deep insights because the family could not recall what they did each day (in consecutive order), some days they did not do anything and, most significantly, this was an uninspiring way to conduct an interview. As a result, I subsequently adopted a more fluid approach to the interviews, asking the participants about their favourite experiences or about activities they initiated. The adjustment to my approach allowed knowledge to be built. It further resulted in family members adopting a reflective practice as demonstrated when they asked each other questions and constructed stories, with additional details, thoughts, explanations and reflections added through the process.

Due to the personal nature of qualitative interviews, the researcher not only collects, selects and interprets the data but also co-constructs it. As a result, to ensure the validity of findings in qualitative research, the impact of both the perspectives and presence of the researcher must be taken into consideration (Finlay, 2008a). This is of particular importance when looking at families, as it is in family research the interviewer's role to ensure the multiple voices are represented, understood and interpreted correctly (Arvey, 2008). Due to the narrative nature of the family interviews, the families constructed large parts of the dialogues. I saw the ability of the families to co-construct their vacation memories as a strength of the interview process (as also found by researchers in the existing literature, refer Section 4.5.1.). At various times, I was detached from the conversation as the family brought up events, agreed or disagreed with each other and asked questions between themselves. At other times, I had an active role in the interview process. Similar to Gough (2008), I found that humour was an effective way to relax participants and get them involved in the interview, and that I oscillated between detached polite interviewer and involved co-participant.

The families in this study were aware that I am a parent and, as a result, I believe the parents saw me as a peer. In saying this, my children at the time of the interviews were not adolescents, and the families were aware of this. Therefore, while I had first hand experiences of vacationing as a family, I did not have experience of vacationing with adolescents. Notwithstanding, the fact that I was a parent meant the parents often confided in me after the interviews, with these comments included as notes to the interview. Of course, while not explicitly expressed, it is likely that the adolescents saw me as a parent rather than a peer. I was aware of this when conducting the interviews, and changed my language when talking to the adolescents to reflect their language, using humour to make them feel relaxed. While not completely eliminating the barrier of a parent/child interaction (as I am a parent), through awareness I was able to adjust my interview style to make the adolescents feel as comfortable as possible. As a result, notwithstanding issues regarding keeping the adolescents engaged in the research process (see Section 4.5), the adolescents were both eager to answer questions and have their voices heard.

The reflective/reflexive process is ongoing. While this section has discussed aspects of this process, adopting a reflective/reflexive approach meant that throughout the research process I tried to maintain an awareness of myself and the effect of my presence on the research process. This is an important aspect to qualitative interpretive research, as while an interpretive paradigm recognises (as discussed in Section 4.3.1) that meanings are made, it is through taking a reflexive approach that the researcher is able to recognise their position in the making of that meaning (Fontana & Frey, 2003; Fook, 2012).

7.4. Methodological Contributions

This study makes important methodological contributions through its CCT orientation and by adding to qualitative family consumer research.

CCT research has been criticised in the past because of its focus on the individual consumer, with the voice of the child rarely included (see Section 3.3). These criticisms have been addressed by Thompson et al. (2013), however, there is still only a small body of research with a CCT orientation, that like this study, takes

a whole-family approach, including the voice of the child (adolescent) in the research process. CCT research provides a platform to examine the interplay of identity and consumption. Adolescence has been recognised as the period in a child's life where their individual identity and consumption habits are developing and maturing (see Section 2.2.1). Therefore, this study makes an important contribution by not only including the voice of the child, but by including the voice of a child in this transformative part of their life.

This study also adds to the body of consumer research through its whole-family approach and the adoption of an interpretivist paradigm and qualitative methodology. Interpretive research is increasing in strength in consumer research, as it allows the researcher to take into account how people (in this case families) contribute to the building of knowledge. In addition, when used with a CCT orientation, it provides a framework for the interrelationship between identity and consumption. As discussed in Section 4.3, traditionally there has been an emphasis on quantitative methodologies in tourism family research and, as a result, studies have focused on individual family members. More recently, tourism researchers have recognised the importance of taking both a qualitative and whole-family approach to research. By taking that approach in this study, knowledge was built through narratives and photo elicitation. Narratives, as discussed in Section 4.5.1, are beneficial in family research, as was found in this study, as they enable families to recall and clarify events and to tell the whole family constructed vacation stories. This study further contributes to knowledge by also using a lesser known reflexive photography approach (discussed in Section 4.5.2) within this process. This uses photographs taken by participants prior to any knowledge of the study. Through using photographs in this way, the researcher is not choosing the photographs, reducing researcher bias and the participants taking the photographs 'for' the research process.

7.5. Theoretical Contributions

In addition to the methodological contributions, this study makes two important theoretical contributions. First, and not in the least, through its focus on vacations for families with adolescents and the development of conceptual

understanding of the vacation for these families. Understanding enhanced through this study's focus on who the family with adolescents is, how and why they make vacation decisions and how they evaluate the outcomes of those decisions.

Second, this study makes an important theoretical contribution by adopting a comprehensive approach to exploring the family vacation. By adopting this approach this study contributes to a number of areas identified as requiring further research. These include a need for research; that examines family travel behaviour as a whole, that examines the impact family members have on each other when making and evaluating vacation decisions, and that examines families' vacation experiences, including the need for time away from the family and the benefits sought by families from vacations.

The conceptual framework that was developed from the prevailing literature, and presented in Chapter 3, unites the constructs of identity, motives, influence strategies, decision making and the evaluation of decision outcomes across the three vacation phases. This framework was the basis to address the research gaps identified in Section 1.4.1, and through this contribute to theoretical knowledge.

This study contributes to theoretical knowledge by identifying while there are similarities in the vacation needs of families with adolescents and other family groups, there are also a number of important differences. The identification of these differences warrants the study of the vacation for families with adolescents as separate from other vacationing groups. In addition, these differences mean the findings from studies focusing on other travelling groups (particularly families with pre-adolescent children) do not necessarily apply to families with adolescents.

The unique characteristics of families with adolescents, that create distinct vacation needs, stem from family members' multiple multi-faceted identities, and the adolescent's developing individual identity. The adolescent years have been identified as the years where family cohesion is at its lowest as adolescents become more independent and autonomous. Vacations were found to be important to families in this life stage as they are seen as a temporary suspension (liminoid experience) from these stressors and a vehicle to reconnect, improve cohesion and strengthen family identity. That is, vacations preserve a sense of family and are a

way of regaining control when family dynamics are changing. Moreover, memories from the vacation become transitional objects (links to the past) that assist families to adjust in the post-liminal phase. These memories stem from the retelling of stories and reviewing vacation photographs.

This study further contributes to theoretical knowledge by taking a comprehensive view of the family vacation. Vacation decision making is ongoing with vacation decisions made before, during and after the vacation (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Therkelsen, 2010). In the pre-vacation phase, while the parents predominantly make the decisions that frame the vacation, this study found, unlike other studies (for example, Hilbrecht et al. (2008)), that adolescents are concerned with the destination decision (see Section 6.2.1). In addition, and as a result of the parents commitment to family identity, it is the parents, not the adolescents (as found by Carr (2006)) who are more likely to compromise on where the family goes.

Through the recognition of the during vacation phase, the importance of the many decisions that are made throughout the vacation are realised. This study adds to the growing number of studies that identify this phase of the vacation. The findings confirm those of other studies that activity decisions are made predominantly, for example, Therkelsen (2010), or by, for example, Decrop (2005), the adolescents (children). In addition, adolescents are actively involved in vacation decisions to ensure outcomes are congruent (or at least not incongruent) with their identity. Older adolescents with a more developed identity tend to be more involved in vacation decisions than younger adolescents who are often happy for decisions to be made on their behalf. The parents, both make decisions for the adolescents and are largely open to the adolescents' influence due to the importance they place on family identity (having family time) over any contrary individual identity needs.

Carr (2006) identified that the primary motives of parents and adolescents on vacation are similar, this study confirms this finding (see Section 5.3.2). In addition, this finding further highlights the importance of studying the family with adolescents as separate to families with pre-adolescent children, as studies focusing on pre-adolescent families suggest vacation motives are predominantly different between the generations (for example, Bakir and Baxter (2011), Hilbrecht et al.

(2008) and Schänzel (2010a)). When vacation motives were conflicting, the dominant motive in any decision making situation was the one that family members had the most commitment and salience towards (usually family identity based) (see Section 5.3). Highlighting the complexity of families, it was identified that whether this motive led to behaviour was dependent upon the decision making authority of the family member in combination with other family members' motives, and the decision being made.

Further contributing to knowledge on how families make vacation decisions was the use of influence strategies by families. The choice of influence strategy by family members reflected their role in the family structure and was largely a deliberate decision (see Section 5.4.3). This study developed an understanding of negotiation as an influence strategy, negotiation stems from the adolescents' use of resources (product and family knowledge) to build an argument to influence family vacation decision making (see Section 5.4.2).

The combination of similar vacation motives, reduced family conflict and the developing identity of adolescents means families, in the most part, do not seek their own time on vacation. A finding that is different to pre-adolescent family vacation studies (for example, Fountain et al. (2015), Mikkelsen and Blichfeldt (2015) and Schänzel and Smith (2014). Instead, adolescents prefer the company of others (their family on vacation), and parents, who see the adolescents growing independence, seek time together. The combination of these elements means families see vacations as 'good' for their family and contributing to family identity (see Section 6.3.2).

Finally, as identified by Carr (2011) and Decrop and Snelders (2005), family vacations eventually come to an end, notwithstanding families may choose to travel as independent adults (see Section 2.7.3). This study adds to this finding by demonstrating that the end of family vacations represents a 'phasing out' period rather than a definitive end (see Section 6.4.3). Furthermore, the adolescents growing independence and autonomy drives the end of family vacations rather than the parents desire to vacation alone. At the same time, this growing independence and autonomy create a sense of urgency to have a vacation while the family still can.

7.6. Practical Contribution

In addition to the theoretical contributions, this study makes a number of practical contributions that the tourism industry and other related industries should consider. As highlighted in Section 1.3.2, the family with adolescents does not appear to be the direct focus of tourism marketing. That is, although tourism operators cater for families with young children and other travelling groups (as discussed in Section 1.2), rarely do they specifically cater to families with adolescents. This is despite these families comprising a large portion of vacationing families and despite them having different vacation needs to other travelling families.

Due to the unique characteristics of families with adolescents it is important that the tourism industry recognises these families as a distinct market segment. In particular, they need to recognise that the family vacation is a liminoid experience that allows families to reconnect, spend time together and create memories within a life stage characterised by ‘storm and stress’ and low family cohesion. As discussed previously in this chapter, one of the unique characteristics of families with adolescents is the similarities in motives between the generations. That is, families with adolescents on vacation seek new experiences that are different to home and that the whole family can and will enjoy together. These similarities put the tourism industry in a unique position to develop facilities, activities and promotional campaigns that appeal to both generations. Notwithstanding, there are some differences in motives and characteristics between the parents and adolescents and it is these differences that inform the practical recommendations of this study.

For parents, the family vacation is about having family time before the adolescents become adults and no longer want to vacation (and be with) their families. Parents see their adolescents ‘slipping away’ as they become more independent and autonomous. Due to this independence and because adolescents are, for the most part, self-sufficient, parents generally do not feel the need for a break from the adolescents on vacation. Nevertheless, parents do seek time out to relax in the company of their family. As a result of these characteristics, parents seek vacation destinations that the family (particularly the adolescents) will enjoy

and activities that the family can participate in together. They want a vacation that will create positive memories. To meet these needs, when targeting parents, the tourism industry should consider using images in promotional campaigns that depict families enjoying themselves. They should also develop facilities and activities that enable families to participate together while also allowing for 'time out' to fulfil individual motives. For the families in this study, swimming was one such activity. Furthermore, within families there are relational groups, such as mother/daughter, father/son, who have similar motives and enjoy spending time together, the tourism industry could also consider developing activities that appeal to each of these groups.

The financial cost of the vacation is also an issue predominantly for the parents. The tourism industry should be aware and consider the financial impact of vacations for families with adolescents (who are in the most part considered as adults by the tourism industry) in their pricing strategies. The tourism industry also needs to be aware of the limited time families with adolescents have available for travel (due to increased schooling commitments) and develop packages that are both price sensitive and consider the windows of opportunity for travel these families have.

Adolescents also seek time together with their families on vacation, partly because they enjoy family time but also because they see time to themselves as boring. Adolescents, like their parents, seek time out in the company of their families and enjoy activities they can participate in as a family. They also seek destination and vacation experiences that they can use to brag about to their friends. Older and younger adolescents displayed disparity in some vacation motives. Older adolescents have more involvement in vacation decision making and their vacation motives largely reflect their parents' motives. Whereas younger adolescents tend to be less involved in vacation decision making and display more child-like motives that center on fun and play. It would, therefore, be advantageous for the tourism industry to consider promotional campaigns that target younger and older adolescents separately as well as together. Campaigns aimed at younger adolescents would focus on families having fun and playing together, while campaigns aimed at older adolescents would depict families having fun together and include families

relaxing and ‘having a break’. In addition, when appealing to all adolescents, the tourism industry should develop and highlight facilities and activities that will enhance the adolescent’s individual identity, and enable them to brag about the experience to their friends. This could include shopping facilities, theme parks and adventure based activities. In addition, the tourism industry should consider using social media popular with adolescents (such as Instagram) to both promote their destination/operations and as a platform for adolescents to brag about their vacation (and further promote the destination/operations) to their friends/followers. Finally, vacation activity decisions are largely made by, or for, the adolescents, so by appealing directly to the adolescents, the tourism industry is targeting the family member(s) who will make and/or influence family decisions.

7.7. Limitations and Future Research

The aim of this study was to explore how families with adolescents make vacation decisions. By creating a conceptual framework, comprehensive insights were obtained on the role of identity, motives and influence strategies on family vacation decision making, the outcomes of these decisions and the evaluation of the vacation as a whole. The findings from this study highlight the importance of research that includes all family members in the research process, research that identifies the family with adolescents as a separate life stage from other family groups, and research that adds to the understanding of the unique vacation needs of families with adolescents.

To obtain these insights, this study took an exploratory approach. This approach was appropriate for this study as vacations for families with adolescent children have had limited focus in the tourism literature. Future research is needed to expand family types and the age of children to also include non-adolescent family members.

As discussed in Section 1.3, a conscious decision was made to delimit the family types who were included in this study. The families who participated therefore represented a relatively homogenous group (that is, all lived in Eastern suburbs of Melbourne, predominantly suburbs where the average income is above

the national average, were of Australian European origin and both parents worked either full or part time). While appropriate for this study (as discussed in Section 4.4), future research is needed to expand family types to a larger and/or broader population. In particular, it would be beneficial to investigate a broader demographic range of families, such as families from a wider range of socioeconomic groups, ethnic backgrounds and/or family types (for example blended families).

In addition, as the objective of this study was to gain insights into the vacation for families with adolescents, only families with adolescents aged between 12-17 years were included. While a deliberate decision, it is recognised that families with *only* adolescents are not reflective of many families *with* adolescents (who may also have younger children or adult children). The decision to include families with *only* adolescents was made to ensure that the findings of this study were not influenced by other non-adolescent aged children within the family. However, it would be beneficial for future studies to include families with a wider age range of children. That is, in addition to adolescents, include families that also contain pre-adolescent and/or young adult children. Including a wider age range would enable insights to be gained on whether the effect of adolescents on the family vacation is the same when the needs and influence of other non-adolescents are included.

Central to this study was the impact of families' multiple multi-faceted identities and identity based motives on how families make and evaluate vacation decisions and the vacation as a whole. Through this, it was recognised that identity and motives evolve based on the family members' role and success (or otherwise) in decision making and the evaluation of the decision outcome. This study was undertaken at a point in time and therefore, while recognising changing motives over the course of the vacation, did not consider the effect of evolving motives and identities on future vacations. Future research could therefore include a longitudinal study that considers the effect of identity and motives from previous vacations on future vacations, as well as the effect the vacation has on family identity in a family's day-to-day life after the vacation. Moreover, future research would be beneficial to examine whether vacation motives vary between families who take regular vacations and those who do not vacation regularly.

It further was identified through the interview process that there were variances between families in their commitment and salience towards identity levels. It would therefore be beneficial for future research to explore these variances, such as why some families show more commitment and salience towards relational identities whereas others display more commitment and salience towards their family identity.

It was not feasible to go on vacation with the participants in this study. As such the interviews were conducted after the vacation a limitation of this study is the potential fallibility of memory and negative impacts of post rationalization. This study did through the group interview process (which was used as a vehicle for family members to recreate their reality of their vacation) and the combined 'I/we' perspective (See discussion Section 4.5) reduce the impact of these factors on the findings. Nevertheless, it would be beneficial for future research to examine whether memory and post rationalization has an impact on the findings, this could include conducting pre vacation interviews and through participants keeping vacation diaries.

Finally, the end of the family vacation was an important theme that was identified from this study. The end of vacations was both a motive for the vacation itself and the desire to spend time together on the vacation. Notwithstanding, families also discussed through the interviews future family vacations and the hope to continue travelling as a family. It would therefore be beneficial to conduct further research to gain insights into whether family vacations do continue, in what format they continue and when and how family vacations finally come to an end.

7.8. Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study was to explore how families with adolescents make vacation decisions. Through the development of the conceptual framework and with a CCT orientation, this study provides valuable insights into the effect family members' multi-faceted identities and motives had on how families with adolescents make and evaluate vacation decisions and evaluate the vacation as a whole. Through this, this study has made valuable methodological, theoretical and practical

contributions that highlight the unique needs and characteristics of these families and the importance of studying and identifying families with adolescents as a unique market segment. Nevertheless, due to the limited existing research focused on vacations for families with adolescents, this study highlights opportunities for further research to expand on these findings.

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Appendix A: Ethics Approval

MEMO

TO	Mr Martin Robertson Faculty of Business and Law Victoria University Footscray Park Campus	DATE	25/01/2012
FROM	A/Professor Bill Eckersley Acting Chair Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee		
SUBJECT	Ethics Application – HRETH 11/220		

Dear Mr Robertson,

***HRETH 11/220** The influence of adolescents on family vacation decision making (HREC 11/134)

The proposed research project has been accepted and deemed to meet the requirements of the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) 'National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)' by the Deputy Chair of the Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee. Approval has been granted from **25 January 2012 to 25 January 2014**.

Continued approval of this research project by the Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee (VUHREC) is conditional upon the provision of a report within 12 months of the above approval date (**25 January 2013**) or upon the completion of the project (if earlier). A report proforma may be downloaded from the VUHREC web site at: <http://research.vu.edu.au/hrec.php>.

Please note that the Human Research Ethics Committee must be informed of the following: any changes to the approved research protocol, project timelines, any serious events or adverse and/or unforeseen events that may affect continued ethical acceptability of the project. In these unlikely events, researchers must immediately cease all data collection until the Committee has approved the changes. Researchers are also reminded of the need to notify the approving HREC of changes to personnel in research projects via a request for a minor amendment. It should also be noted that it is the Chief Investigators' responsibility to ensure the research project is conducted in line with the recommendations outlined in the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) 'National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).'

On behalf of the Committee, I wish you all the best for the conduct of the project.

Kind regards,

A/Professor Bill Eckersley

Acting Chair

Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee

Appendix B: Participation Flyer

Do you have teenagers?

Have you taken a family holiday in the last 12 months?

We would like to invite you to be a part of a study into the role of teenagers on family vacation decision making.

The purpose of this study is to understand the level of influence 12-17 year olds have on family holidays and to understand what makes a successful family vacation.

For the study we will:

- ASK you to complete a short individual questionnaire and participate in a family interview.

(Total time approximately an hour and a half)

- ASK you to bring along photos of your last holiday to help you remember the experience
- TREAT everything you say in the strictest of confidence (no names or addresses will be published)
- ENJOY recalling and talking about your last holiday

NOTE: Parents must be at least 18 years of age and have at least one child between the ages of 12-17. All interviews will take place either at your home or at an agreed location. Visits will be scheduled at a convenient time to accommodate the schedules of the family.

[illegible]

Appendix C: Information to Participants

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

You are invited to participate

You are invited to participate in a research project entitled 'The influence of adolescents on family vacation decision making'.

This project is being conducted by a student researcher [Micaela Spiers] as part of a Masters study at Victoria University under the supervision of Mr. Martin Robertson and Dr. Romana Garma from the Faculty of Business and Law.

Project explanation

The purpose of this study is to investigate the influence adolescents have on family vacation decision making. Specifically, to identify the role adolescents have at each stage of the family vacation decision making process; to discover the influence strategies that are used by adolescents to influence decision making and, to understand the motivation behind these strategies.

What will I be asked to do?

Participants will be asked to complete an individual questionnaire and participate in a group family interview. Participants will also be asked to bring photographs of their family holiday to help remember the experience. It is anticipated that the questionnaire and interview will take approximately one and a half hours.

What will I gain from participating?

By participating participants are also helping researchers understand how families with adolescents make holiday decisions. This information in turn will help tourism operators offer services that best meet the needs of families with adolescents. In appreciation of the time participants have given, they will be given family movie tickets.

How will the information I give be used?

The information will be used by the researcher in her Masters by Research thesis. This information may also be published in journal articles and conference papers. At no time will identifying details of the participants be published.

What are the potential risks of participating in this project?

There is the potential that this project may cause family conflict and/or anxiety for individual family members. In order to minimise the likelihood of this happening, the procedures will be clearly explained to all participants and counselling services offered.

How will this project be conducted?

This project will be conducted through a combination of individual questionnaires and group family interviews. The group family interviews will be recorded and transcribed. Both the questionnaire and interview data will be examined (alongside data from other participants) to identify and code key themes and words.

Who is conducting the study?

Chief Investigator: Mr. Martin Robertson

Lecturer in Event Management
School of International Business
Faculty of Business and Law
Victoria University
Telephone: 9919 4037
Email: martin.robertson@vu.edu.au

Student Researcher: Ms. Micaela Spiers

School of International Business
Faculty of Business and Law
Victoria University
Telephone: 0419 441 483
Email: micaela.spiers@live.vu.edu.au

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the Chief Investigator listed above.

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Research Ethics and Biosafety Manager, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001 or phone (03) 9919 4148.

Appendix D: Consent Form (Adults)

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS:

We would like to invite you to be a part of a study into the influence of adolescents on family vacation decision making.

This study will examine the impact of adolescents in family vacation decision making, from the perspective of individual family members and the family as a whole.

CERTIFICATION BY SUBJECT

I, "[Click here & type participant's name]"

of "[Click here & type participant's suburb]"

I certify that I am at least 18 years old* and that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the study: The influence of adolescents on family vacation decision making being conducted at Victoria University by: Mr. Martin Robertson

I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks and safeguards associated with the procedures listed hereunder to be carried out in the research, have been fully explained to me by:

Ms. Micaela Spiers

and that I freely consent to participation involving both the below mentioned procedures:

- Individual questionnaire
- Group family interview

I agree to bring family photographs of the vacation to the interview. These photographs will be used to help recall the vacation. Only photographs that I feel comfortable providing will be used. If anyone in my family feels uncomfortable with the researcher viewing particular photographs they will be removed from the study.

I understand that my involvement in this study is completely voluntary. I understand that even if others in my family have decided to participate I am still free to make an individual decision about my own involvement, regardless of their choice.

I certify that I have had adequate opportunity to have any questions I may have about this research answered. I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept confidential.

Signed:

Date:

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the researcher

Mr. Martin Robertson

Phone: 9919 4037

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Research Ethics and Biosafety Manager, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001 or phone (03) 9919 4148.

[*please note: Where the participant/s are aged under 18, separate parental consent is required; where the participant/s are unable to answer for themselves due to mental illness or disability, parental or guardian consent may be required.]

Appendix E: Consent Form (Adolescents)

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH (Participants under 18 years of age)

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS:

We would like to invite you to be a part of a study into the influence of adolescents on family vacation decision making.

This project involves looking at the role of 12 to 17 year olds in decision making, before, during and after their family's holiday. Specifically we would like to ask you about your family's holiday to [insert destination]. You are completely free to say if you do or don't want to be involved. It's your decision.

If you say 'yes' you will talk to us, and if your family says that they would like to talk to us, you and your family can decide where we will meet. This can be at your home, Victoria University or another suitable location. When we visit there will be a short survey (questionnaire) that Research Leader will give to each person in the family and then we will have a chat (interview) with all members of your family together. These are discussed in more detail below.

First the questionnaire: The Research Leader will ask that everyone in your family answers a short questionnaire about your holiday to [insert destination], this should take about 10 minutes. In this questionnaire the Research Leader will ask you your thoughts and experiences about your holiday. This will be completely private, no one in your family will see your answers, and they will not be discussed with anyone else in your family at any time. In the same way, what other members of your family write will be kept private to them.

Second the interview: Once the questionnaire is finished we will ask everyone in your family to gather together so that we can talk about your holiday to [insert destination]. The Research Leader will not look at what you put on the questionnaire before we do this. We will ask your mum or dad to provide some photos of the holiday to help everyone in the family remember what you did. If you feel uncomfortable with us looking at any of the photos your parents provide we will ask your parents to put those photos away immediately. We want to find out about how your family made decisions on your holiday and what were the best parts (and not so good parts). This project is **NOT** about finding out family secrets, testing you or embarrassing you.

Because we will be talking to a lot of people, and we don't want to forget what everyone in your family said, the Research Leader will use a mini recorder to record our chats. After we will go back to the office, we will type out what each person said. Later, if you or your parents wish, the Research Leader can meet with you and show you what we have typed. If you think anything is wrong you can tell us how we should change it.

If you change your mind about taking part in this activity please tell us as soon as possible. You are allowed to stop the interview at anytime (even if your parents want to keep talking). You can also say that you don't want to answer a question, if you don't want to. You don't need to give a reason why, and you don't have to answer it, even if your parents do.

If, during the interview, something upsets you that you would like to discuss with someone outside your family, it would be a good idea to talk to someone you know, like your teacher or family friend, or you could call the Kids' Help Line on 1800 55 1800.

If you wish to participate in this project please sign the consent below and return in the attached envelope. There are two copies of this form, you only need to sign and return one, the other is for you to keep. If you agree to go ahead and the rest of your family agrees to go ahead, we will contact your family to arrange a time and place to meet.

If you would like to know more about the project before deciding to be a part of it you can ring Micaela Spiers on 0419 441 483 or email micaela.spiers@live.vu.edu.au, Martin Robertson on 9919 4037 or email martin.robertson@vu.edu.au or Romana Garma on 9919 1515 or email romana.garma@vu.edu.au.

I, "[Click here & type participant's name]"

of "[Click here & type participant's suburb]"

I understand that I am voluntarily agreeing to participate in the study:

The influence of adolescents on family vacation decision making being run at Victoria University by:

Mr. Martin Robertson

I have read the "consent form for participants involved in research" and had the project explained to me by:

Ms. Micaela Spiers

And I understand that:

- My participating in this study is completely my choice. I understand that even if others in my family have decided to participate I am still free to decide on my own if I want to be involved, regardless of what they have chosen to do.
- Any information I provide in the questionnaire or interview will be kept private. My name and/or address will not be used or stored with any of the information I have provided.
- I am free to stop participating in the project at any time and I am free to refuse to answer any questions at any time.
- Photographs of my vacation will be used in the interview to help my family and I remember our vacation, if I feel uncomfortable with the use of any of the photos I can ask that they not be used.

I freely agree to participate in both the:

- Individual questionnaire
- Group family interview

Signed:

Date:

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the researcher

Mr. Martin Robertson

Phone: 9919 4037

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Research Ethics and Biosafety Manager, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001 or phone (03) 9919 4148.

Appendix F: Interview Schedule

Interview Schedule

The interview schedule details the specific questions and areas to be covered. In order to elicit detailed and complete response to these questions. Further questions as listed below may be asked.

How did that make you feel?/Did anyone else feel the same or different?

Do you agree/disagree with that?

Could you please explain what you meant by that?

Are you able to give me an example?/Is anyone else able to give me an example?

Was that important to you?

Before interview – ask – do you take many holidays a year? Do you normally go overseas, interstate, or within state. Do you normally go together as a family?

Predecision Stage

1. Who initiated the idea to have a holiday?

- a. Why was there a desire to have a holiday? (motivation)
 - Ask family to brainstorm some words
- b. Did you need to convince other family members? (influence)
 - If so – how did you do it
 - Did anyone not want to go
 - why didn't you (motivation)
 - what convinced you to go (influence strategy)
- c. Was there an alternative to not having a vacation?

Search and Decision Stage

2. How did you decide where to go?

- a. Was there a reason you chose XX? (motivation)
 - What did you hope to do/see/get out of it etc.
 - When you heard you were going there – what did you hope to do/see/get out of it etc.?
- b. Were there alternatives?
- c. Did everyone get involved in deciding to go to X?
 - Why/why not
 - When you heard you were going to X what did you think?
 - Did you have to do a lot of research?
 - Who did the research?
- d. Were you in agreement (influence)

- Did everyone want to go there?
 - Did you have to change anyone's mind?
 - Did anyone still not want to go?
- 3. Once you decided to go to X what else did you book before you went?**
- a. What decisions had to be made –
 - Spending money, things booked, time, budget etc.
 - Was there a lot of research involved?
 - b. Who was involved in these decisions
 - c. Who made these decisions
 - d. What was your motivation, did you have to convince anyone, why did you change your mind etc.?
- 4. How long did you go for? Was there a reason you chose this amount of time?**

During Vacation Stage

- 5. For each situation the following questions will be referred to**
1. What made you decide to do X? (motivation)
 - Had you planned to do this?
 2. Whose idea was it? Did everyone agree?
 3. How did you change people's mind? (influence)
 4. Were you glad you participated, changed your mind, decided to do X?
- 6. What did you do on your holiday that was your idea?**
- 7. Did you have any alone time? Did you want alone time? Did you want more alone time?**
- 8. What was the best thing you did on the holiday – whose idea was it?**
- 9. What is your best strategy to convince your family to do something when on holiday?**

Post-Vacation Stage

Part One

- 10. Did you have a good time?**
- a. Why/Why not?
- 11. Would you want to go there again?**
- a. Why/why not?
 - b. What would you do the same/differently?
- 12. Do you see yourselves having another family holiday?**
- 13. Would you recommend family holidays to others?**
- c. Either to this destination or another
- 14. Did the holiday fulfill your expectations? (motivation)**
- 15. Often, in families there are conflicts between family members.**
- a. Were there any conflicts on your holiday?
 - b. Would that affect future holidays?
- 16. What represents the ultimate holiday to you?**
- c. What could have made it better?

Part Two

Participants are asked to choose three photos

1. Their favourite
2. Their least favourite
3. The photo that best represents the vacation

For each photo the following questions will be referred to

Why did you choose this photo? Why does it best represent XX?

What does it mean to you?

How does it make you feel?

Appendix G: Transcript Example

The following transcript excerpt is typical of the interviews conducted in this study. Full interview transcripts were not included for reasons of brevity.

If another family wanted to do the same trip as you did, is there anything that you would say, that didn't work as well, or that worked really well?

Campbell: no, no we had a good holiday

Catherine: yeah it was a good holiday, a good trip

Cameron: maybe more time in LA

Catherine: oh yeah, yeah the whole thing needs to be longer.... But how long is a piece of string? (laughs)

Cameron: yeah but with budgets and time away and things like that

Catherine: but definitely if we were to do it again and we had, you know, more time, yeah, you would spend two weeks in LA, probably a week in Las Vegas and probably two weeks up in San Francisco.

Cameron: we came back thinking we didn't get to see as much of central LA, based down in Anaheim

Catherine: yes

Cameron: so we thought next time we would spend two nights or three nights in LA itself to see some more of the sights and things like that. We did a one day....

Campbell: tour

Cameron: tour but just the typical hop on hop off bus touristy thing

Catherine: but we did, when we did San Francisco, we did it in four days, I think it was four and a half days or something, and that's, we've discussed it, that's enough, we feel we've done it, there's nothing we want to go back and see again. If the trip said, you have to, then we would and we'd look at something, but no, we've been there done that.

Cameron: and Vegas, you could, I dunno, you could go back again...

Catherine: but for the kids it's really only just the shopping

Cameron: yeah

Campbell: yeah, I've been there twice, it's just shopping for us kids, and just the atmosphere, I mean....

Cameron: more shows maybe

Campbell: more shows, but unless you're 21 and above and you drink or gamble or whatever, it's just not the complete experience, the Vegas experience, but that's fine as a family, it's definitely a family place to go.

So do you see yourself having more family holidays?

Caitlyn: definitely

Campbell: ummm

Catherine to Cameron: let them answer... Caitlyn said definitely

Caitlyn: mum and dad don't think so, coz....

Catherine: no

Caitlyn: I want to, but because we are getting older now, we've got like exams and stuff, mum and dad don't think it's going to work, but I want to (laughs). Not thinking practically....but....

Catherine: Campbell?

Campbell: I'd love to do it but I don't think I've got the time with school, you know I've got Year 12 next year. Yeah, no I don't see it happening, but it's not like a huge loss. I mean I cherish the experiences I've had and I'm sure there will be holiday's after I've done VCE and stuff.

Catherine: We've sort of, we've been talking about this a bit lately and we're trying to see if we can fit in maybe we can fit in just a quick up to the Gold Coast perhaps, I dunno, sometime next year, even if it's just for five days, just to be a family and just hang out for five....perhaps. We don't see that there is going to be an overseas trip next year as a family, that's not going to happen with Year 12 but long term we're hoping perhaps, Caitlyn is in Year 9 and we are thinking perhaps when she is end of Year 12, she'll still be 17, she's a young one. Campbell will be 19 and if he's still up

for it, we're thinking of doing one great big last, all four of us, once she's finished school perhaps going to Florida or something like that. Dunno, it will depend how they feel as young adults basically. Do you think? Have you got anything to add to that?
(To Cameron)

Cameron: Only that, yeah, already started to think about the next holiday as a family, I think we travel particularly well as a family and umm, yeah, gee, I'd rather travel with them than without them so that's my view. Even if they had partners like when they get a bit older I'd be more than happy to involve them so long as the nucleus of the family is together. Travel to me is about the family rather than sometimes the experience.

Catherine: actually this year is going to be the first year that we are all travelling separately. We're not having a family holiday as such because of the school trips the children have got. One's off to Kuala Lumpur, one's off to Northern Territory and at the same time, because we are all going at exactly the same time, Cameron and I have decided to do Hong Kong, because that was the only place the children have allowed us to go without them.

Because they don't want to go there?

Catherine: well that's basically.....we were looking at going to Hawaii perhaps, and they said no way, you're not allowed to go without us

Cameron: that's an interesting point about their influences determined where we ended up, because if we had of gone on to somewhere that they desperately wanted to go.....

Catherine: we weren't allowed!

Cameron: yeah (all laugh)

Caitlyn: they didn't have my approval

Cameron: yeah, so that's why hopefully the places we do want to go still as a family, Catherine and I won't do as a couple, we'll wait and hopefully the kids can come.

Appendix H: Coding Framework

Some codes have been combined in the framework for presentation. During the actual coding process each item was coded separately, for example ‘decision making destination’ was coded separately to ‘experience destination’.

Step One – Deductive Coding:

Stage One: In the initial coding phase deductive codes were applied to the data these codes were initially developed from the conceptual framework. The coding was done as the data were collected so codes were continually developed and collapsed as the data were collected and analysed.

Pre Vacation	During Vacation	Post Vacation
Identity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual • Relational • Family Motives <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vacation • Destination Influence Strategies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of • Type Decision Making/Experience <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Destination • Budget • Transport • Accommodation • Decision making roles • Conflict 	Identity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual • Relational • Family Motives <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activities Influence Strategies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of • Type Decision Making/Experience <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activities • Meals • Transport • Budget • Experience pre vacation decisions • Conflict 	Identity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual • Relational • Family Motives <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ideal vacation • Future vacation Decision Making <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Future vacation • Return to destination Evaluation of the vacation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family memories • Success • Enjoyment

Stage Two: The deductive codes were developed across the vacation, themes started to develop.

Identities – I/you/we/us/them

- Family Identity – frequency/situation
- Relational Identities – frequency/situation
- Individual Identity – frequency/situation

Motives

- Parent/Adolescent
- Conflicting
- Family

Influence Strategies

- Use of/frequency - parent/adolescent
- Type

Decision Making

- Roles – situation/identity – parent/adolescent
- Major decisions – common to all families
- Budget/Finance
- Conflict

Evaluation

- Decision outcomes/experiences
- Vacation outcomes/success/enjoyment
- Future Vacations

Step Two – Inductive Coding:

Stage Three: Each phase was analysed for key themes were identified from the data. As the coding was performed after each interview, earlier interviews were revisited as new themes were identified.

Pre Vacation	During Vacation	Post Vacation
Destination <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where to (not) go • Parental sacrifice • Satisfaction • Congruence/ incongruence • School/Timing • Finance • Initiation/Roles • Influence • Motives 	Destination (actual) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Congruence/ Incongruence <u>Activities</u> Parents <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family Time • Relax • Cost • Sacrifice • Own time • Influence/motives • (Un)successful 	End of vacations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School • Independence • Urgency
Family Time <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motives – family/individual • Conflict/own time 	Adolescents <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fun/swim/ younger • Relax – older • Time together • Cost 	Future of Vacations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Format • Urgency • Return • Conflicting Motives
Conflicting Motives <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identity 	Activity – family <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Swimming • Shopping • Destination • Roles • Own/Family time • Conflict • Influence/Decision (un)successful 	Success <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enjoyment • Memories • Family time • Unsuccessful activities • Destination congruence/ incongruence

Stage Four: Patterns were analysed across the vacation and the core themes of the thesis developed. The themes in this stage developed from analysing the themes in the previous stage together with the deductive codes developed in Step One.

Identities – I/you/we/us/them

- Fluidity of identity roles
- Salience/Commitment to identity roles
- Adolescent independence and autonomy
- Memories and Family Identity
- Urgency for Vacation/Transition

Motives

- Parents/Adolescents
- Identity Based
- Own time/family time
- Conflicting motives – between/within family members
- Situation dependent

Influence Strategies

- Negotiation
- Legitimate/Experience
- Bargaining
- Emotions
- Awareness of Influences Strategies

Decision Making

- Congruence/incongruence with identity – family/individual/relational
- Parental sacrifice – family identity/individual identity
- Vacation conflict
- Own time/Family time