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Don't get frustrated now!

An experimental study on momentary mood change, online search behavior, and travel intention

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"The best way to predict your future is to create it." (P. Drucker)

I always wished to complete my studies. Unfortunately, it took me more than twenty years to get the chance to do so. My educational adventure commenced in Bergen in 2006, continued in Sydney for two years, and will perhaps finish with this paper, here in Stavanger.

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This journey ends now, and I am excited about the future - *my bright future.*

~ Enjoy your reading! ~

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List of abbreviations

CDP – Consumer Decision Process model

FA – Factor Analysis

PCA – Principal Components Analysis

PBC – Perceived Behavioral Control

TAM – Techology acceptance model

TIA – Travel Industry Association of America

TPB – Theory of Planned Behavior

TRA – Theory of Reasoned Action

TRIAT – Travel Intention After Treatment

TRIBT – Travel Intention Before Treatment

TT – Theory of Trying

UiS – University of Stavanger

Abstract

This causal study investigates the role of momentary mood in intention – behavior gap in tourism context. Theory of Reasoned Action, Theory of Planned Behavior and Theory of Trying provide the theoretical framework. One experiment in laboratory settings provides empirical support for testing the hypotheses. A conceptual model of the relationship between momentary mood, online search behavior and intention to travel in the context of vacation planning on Internet was developed as a part of the framework. Results suggest that momentary negative mood during vacation planning on Internet causes a decrease in time spent to search online. Changed mood was found to be a result of frustration, which also has a direct effect on the time spent. Travel intention is not affected by momentary mood or frustration, and the relationship between travel intention and search behavior is found significant. Personality traits scored a weak but positive relationship with frustration and search behavior, and a frail negative relationship with mood and travel intention. Finally, some implications are discussed and suggestions for further research are presented.

***Key words**: momentary mood, frustration, intention – behavior gap, vacation planning on Internet, psychographics.*

Chapter 1. Introduction

Do we always do what we intend to? Do we constantly materialize our intentions into actions? Woking up this morning with the intention to complete this first chapter of the thesis is a fact. In fact the intention was strong and it was strongly believed that it predicts the performance. Few hours later, however, this page was still blank. What raised a barrier to act on intention? Why did the intention not conclude in behavior? There is a number of factors that intervened: the overwhelming amount of information available on the databases, the difficulty to make a choice, personal lack of experience in writing a master thesis, external distractions (phone calls, messages, etc), and a changing mindset.

Inquisitiveness is the key driver of researchers. Digging into phenomenon, asking questions, relating answers with new questions, and analyzing the findings is what plays an important role in such studies. Starting point, however, is the idea of the researcher, which stems from a certain context.

1.1 The background: unfolding the reality

True happenings

Consumer behavior in tourism was experienced as one of the most challenging discipline during undergraduate studies. Reasons for that are not relevant in this context. Learning outcomes and exam results were not satisfactory. As a challenge, the writer of this paper decided to focus around this area of research in the master thesis.

The idea of this project emerged last year during “Geo-Pshyco-Nomics” seminar.

Professor David Simmons from New Zeeland, mentioned at some point that "tourists allocate time and money to their travel experiences" (Personal communication, July 08, 2011). People's mindset was not taken into consideration, which raised some question marks.

On a personal level, it was often experienced the fact that despite the intention to travel and disposable income, if the mood to travel is not right, act of travelling will not happened. Different factors occur and changed the mood from the moment searching for travel information started, to the actual moment of purchasing the tickets. The change was not always negative, however. Sometimes it happened to get in the mood to travel and purchase a flight ticket on impulse. Perhaps others think alike and it is important to know what changes the mood of people and therefore will not travel, because travel industry loses these potential buyers in the last minute. On the other hand, some people buy an impulsive journey, as they get in the mood to do so after browsing on the Internet. Such information might assist online travel marketers to enhance sales, and destination managers to understand consumers' choices better.

Thinking further to this idea, the researcher started to enquire if others also experienced the same. Conversational interviews were initiated, interested to see how others think, or asked friends to plan a trip together using online portals, to observe if their mood to travel will change along the way. Would this actually determine them to go somewhere, or would they get annoyed because it is difficult to find the cheapest price or to decide on the numerous choices the web provides? Would initial intention still predict action if the mood changes, or would the intention change as well?

What do the textbooks say?

The next logical step was to consult the textbooks. Does anyone else carry out any research on this phenomenon? Is there any theory that can explain and incorporate the phenomenon, or perhaps had omitted to consider it?

The link between intention and behavior belongs to "the field of social psychology" (March & Woodside, 2005a, p. 117). The area of research for this paper is tourist psychology. The tourist can have a double function. One should be clear about when the tourist is only the consumer, and when it is the customer as well. A customer is a person that purchases the product, but not necessarily uses it. A consumer, on the other hand, is the person that purchases and enjoys the product (Solomon, 2011). Purchase decision making does not always belong to the tourist. In business travel, for instance, often times it is the corporation that decides all the travel details. The employee who travels is just the consumer of the product. In leisure travel, on the other hand, most of the time the tourist is both the customer and the consumer. This study focuses on the consumer in leisure traveling only.

Swarbrooke & Horner (2007) also acknowledge the difference between consumer and customer in tourism, and underline the importance of understanding "the psychographic" (p. 79) in the existing models of purchase decision in this field. Looking at the models presented in this book, one notices that little attention (if any!) is given to the consumer's mood. Indeed, a number of factors internal to the tourist, such as "personal motivators", or "attitudes, opinions and perceptions" (p. 75) are considered.

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) consider that attitude is a significant variable in formation of intention, however, this was also seen as an external variable associated with behavioral intentions (Blue, 1995). Nevertheless, looking at some of the models of the purchase decision

in tourism presented by Swarbrooke & Horner (2007) in the above mentioned book, it is noticeable that the role of traveller's mood in decision to travel has not been considered.

Consequently, one can question: Is traveller's mood seen as a "personal motivator" (p. 75) by researchers? Does the mood of tourists motivate / influence their decision to purchase a journey, when travel for leisure? Can their mood be measured at the moment of purchasing a journey? Perhaps ones mood is affected by the amount of information out there. Probably one gets annoyed of having too many choices. Possibly one gets frustrated for spending too much time in searching for the cheapest alternative, or not knowing if it did find the cheapest alternatives.

These are just few of the queries that enhanced the desire to pursue with this topic. Following Swarbrooke & Horner line of explanations and critiques on models of the purchase decision-making process, it was noted a certain concern about the differences between the rationality on which most of the purchase models are based, and the irrationality that consumers often time exhibit when purchase a journey (p.78). Could it be that this difference is given by a change in mood that intervenes from the moment intention to purchase a journey (presumably based on rationality) is materialized in purchase behavior (that sometimes might seem irrational, sometimes not)? Does momentary mood has a significant role in the gap between intention and behavior in travelling?

1.2 Problem statement: empirical positioning

Purchase decision in tourism is an equation with still many unknowns. Most of consumer behavior textbooks acknowledge that studying the interaction between producer and buyer is not sufficient anymore. Engel, Kollat and Blackqwell (1968) introduce the concept of buying being a process, using a "decision-process approach" to examine the

consumer. The authors suggest that the act of purchasing can be influenced by the external stimuli that "involves basic psychological processes" (p. 7) specific to each consumer. The consumer goes through a process - the decision making process -, where it can be influenced "before, during, and after a purchase" (Solomon, 2011, p. 34).

In tourism, both internal and external motivators can influence decision to travel. These can be shared, multiple or individual, expressed and real motivators, as Swarbrooke and Horner mention (2007). Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) Theory of Reasoned Action (hereafter known as TRA) assumes that human beings base their decisions on rationality and suggests that "behaviors are not really difficult to predict" (p. 5), if knowledges about purchase intention are clear. The gap between intention to buy and the act of buying in Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) TRA is not thoroughly researched upon, in the context of tourism. This gap can be a bridge where changes can occur (Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2010). Situational factors may intervene and individuals may change their mind. The predicted behavior and the actual behavior may differ.

This paper aims to investigate the role of momentary mood change in intention – behavior gap; where mood change is seen as a situational factor that can intervene. This is investigated in the context of vacation planning on Internet, where travel behavior is labeled *search behavior*. A further description of this concept is presetnte in chapter 2 para 4, where all the concepts are defined.

The reason of chosing this context is that to date people use more online search and self-planning of vacations. It might be useful to know what can create a shift in direction between intention and behavior; how long does it take before people give up and online providers of tourism products loose paying customers; and what is the role of momentary mood in all this?

In this study, "mood" and "affective state" are used synonymously. These constructs have been examined upon quite frequently. Based on research conducted by Wyer and Carlston (1979), Schwarz and Clore (1983) point out that "people may use their momentary affective state as information relevant to making various kinds of judgements" (p. 513). In the same spirit, Bakamitsos and Siomkos (2004) looked into the impacts affective state has on consumers' judgement, starting from the idea that their mood at the moment of processing information can influence their judgement (p. 304). This idea was taken a step further few years later. In its literature review of social mood, Olson (2006) mentions new functions of mood in society, that are "determines various types of social actions" and "determines decisions made by consumers"; to that extend that social mood "can override external influences on economic outcomes" (p. 194).

This research topic is ethical. It targets travellers of all sorts of origins, without any partiality for a certain ethnic category, age group, social status, etc. It does not critique respondents views, preferences or orientations. Respondents' identity is anonymous and no personal data is stored in any form.

1.3 The need for research: a sound identification

Decision making process has been scrutinized in many occasions, and from different perspectives. Marketing and consumer behavior researchers focus on the classical framework consumer behavior models offer, where intention is the last window to look through when predicting behavior, especially in the purchase process of goods (Clawson, 1971; Tauber, 1975). TRA and TPB focuses on actions being predicted by intentions under volitional control. Ajzen, however, recognizes that "not all intentions are carried out" (1985, p. 11), and explores some of the factors that can make consumer to "change their intentions" (p. 11).

These can be "unforseen events" (p. 12). Nevertheless, the author makes no mention of their further nature, whether these are internal or external. The author points out, though, that the time interval between intention formation and action leaves room for these events to arise; and mentions that information available also plays a significant role.

Decision making, nonetheless, is a comprehensive process, and researchers should consider which other features might determine a consumer to purchase, besides intention. After all, each consumer has its own paradigm through which it weights pros and contras when deciding. Hansen (2005) provides an integral approach of decision – making process, mentioning that only few researchers acknowledge the need of considering "consumers' affective responses" (p. 421), when analyzing the consumer decision - making process. The author emphasizes that the over-used 'Consumer Decision Process model' (hereafter known as CDP) has a strong cognitive nature, and does not incorporate the eventuality that consumers actions can be a response to their emotions. Hansen points out that TRA and TPB are theories that "reflect attempts to model consumer decision making", but lack the assessment of consumers "emotional perspective" (p. 423). Ene and Schofield (2011) acknowledge that traditional CDP models consider tourists "as rational decision makers" (p. 369), omitting to include emotions and affective state into the equation. The authors suggest Hansen's (2005) hybrid model as improved framework, although this has yet not been empiriaclly tested in tourism context. This model, however, will not be tested in this paper.

As early as in 1960's, Juster (1964, cited in March and Woodside, 2005b) identifies the need for empirically testing the gap between intention and behavior in tourism context, given the following statement:

> "*Purchase (actions) are directly related to (or predicted by) intentions, modified by the incidence of unforeseen circumstances"* (p. 66).

The authors, nonetheless, only investigated the nature and size of such gap, without empirically testing any of the situational factors that can occur in the gap. In this paper, the concepts of such *unforeseen circumstances* and the *situational factors* mentioned earlier are used synonymously.

Consumer behavior vs consumer psychology

Paying attention to the consumer behavior is a priority for business managers and researchers. There are countless of books and articles on how consumers perceive the decision making process, in different sectors. Market fluctuation creates destination managers and marketers numerous challenges in attracting visitors. These need to readjust their strategies (Ulrike, 2006), and assess if internal factors can override the external ones in decision - making process. Sometimes, the inner voice is stronger than rationality. This implies that there is a need to understand the relationship between feeling states, judgement and behavior. Clark and Isen (1982) have also considered this relationship.

Consumer psychology evaluates the influence of consumption on individuals, aiming to understand "the cognitive processes and behavior involved when people purchase and use products and services" (Jansson-Boyd, 2010, p. 1). This discipline focuses on why the process on consumption happens the way it does, what the consumer have in mind and how this affects its behavior. Many researchers in the leisure area focus on what the constraints are; although the focus should be on what are the opportunities. The overall goal of marketers and sales managers is to generate purchase behavior; and it is easier to grow something when the soil is fertil, rathern than drained. What generates choice of leisure and travel behavior?

Webster and Wakshalg (1983, cited in McGuiggan, 2000) suggest that actual choice is influenced by psychological variables, as they create preferences. Therefore, personality is

expected to influence leisure choice indirectly (p. 247). Krippendorf (1987, as cited in McCabe, 2000) acknowledges eight sets of "personal and self-directed" (p. 213) reasons for which people choose to travel for leisure, but no direct connection to personality or mood is mentioned. Do personality traits impact on the degree of mood change, the time spent online to plan the vacation, and on intention to travel?

Intention – behavior gap

Intention to visit a destination does not automatically imply acting on it. The gap between intention and behavior is an opening for factors to intervene, influencing people to not travel. Simultaneously, people who initially had no intention to travel might be inspired to do so, if the right stimulus reaches them. In the particular case of vacation planing online, the right stimulus can be an advertisement about a cheap flight ticket, a discount coupon for accommodation (external stimuli), or the momentary mood (internal stimulus). Understanding intentions, choices and behavior assists in creating appropriate sales and marketing tactics (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 1998). Perceiving how change in momentary mood relates to search / purchase behavior can be useful to avoid loosing customers in the last minute, or to enhance the impulse buying. Gardner (1985) reviews the psychological literature and takes note that "mood states have direct and indirect effects on behavior, evaluation and recall" (p. 281).

Fishbein (1967, as referred to in Litvin and MacLaurin, 2001) considers that "behavioral intent is a consequence of attitude" (p. 821). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) portray behavioral intention as the result of consumers' attitudes and subjective norms; and suggest that intention is the finest forecaster of behavior that is under volitional control of the person (Ajzen, 1988).

Troye (1999), on the other hand, argues that attitude alone can generate a predisposition to purchase, which, however, not always have to conclude in the expected purchase behavior. The author mentions that attitude has three dimensions: (1) the cognitive dimension, which is related to knowledge about the product; (2) the affective dimension, which is given by consumers' emotional response to purchase item; and (3) conative dimension, which refers to how the consumer relates behavioral to the purchase item (pp. 137 – 138). Although Ajzen (2005) states that discrepancy between intention and behavior in decision – making is mainly due to measurement issues, the author recognizes that "prediction of behavior from intention" can also cause incompatibility, because "general attitudes are poor predictors of specific behaviors" (p. 102). The involvement of affective state is recognized in formation of intention in both cases, but neither Ajzen (1980, 2005), nor Troye (1999) had considered that a change in mood can intervene in intention – behavior gap, and have an effect on search behavior and purchase performance.

Situational factors

Ajzen (1985, p. 12) recognizes that unforeseen events can occur and create discrepancies between intention and behavior. The unforeseen circumstances that appear in the last stage of the consumer consumption process have the power to modify intentions (Juster, 1964, cited in March and Woodside, 2005). When Ajzen and Driver (1992) applied TPB on leisure choice, the authors noticed that perceived behavioral control reflects "past experience, as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles" (p. 208). Bagozzi (1992) reviews the intention – behavior relationship and states that "social psychological processes and possibly instrumental acts" can happen from the moment intention is formed to the moment the final act is executed (p. 194). The author takes note that none of used theories

(TRA, TPB and TT) acknowledge or assess this fact. Same year, Bagozzi and Warshaw (1992) point out that situational factors can spoil the transformation of intention into behavior, if these "interfere with the ability of intentions to initiate needed actions" (pp. 605 – 606).

Simonson (1993, as referred to in March and Woodside, 2005) identifies that such unexpected events can change intention, and this is influenced by the degree to which consumers "can predict how their preferences will change" (p. 918). March and Woodside (2005) advise that research should be conducted to assess such situational factors. Ajzen (2005) revises TPB the same year, and reveals that factors, such as situational constraints, self-awareness and competency requirements, may occur in the relationship between intention and behavior, as moderators (pp. 42 – 44). The author, however, makes no mention of momentary mood change as a possible situational factor. As per today, no substantial research on other situational variables that may occur in the intention – behavior gap has been identified while conducting research on existing literature.

Searching online and purchase

Online search for information has become more and more a natural part of decision - making process in tourism. Godek and Yates (2005) acknowledge that Internet facilitates online communication between sellers and consumers. Consumers are reached at individual level. The product selection aims to enhance the probability of purchase and to influence decision to buy. The choice process is strategically defined to be relevant to this decision. However, there is no mention of considering customers momentary mood in defining the characteristics of online marketing at individual level. The authors focus on consumers perceived behavioral control, in the product selection process.

This is presented as "basic motivator of human behavior" (p. 234), but the writer of this paper suggests that momentary mood can also be a noteworthy influence on human behavior, when numerous choices are offered; such is the case of vacation planing on Internet.

Finding the cheapest alternative when planning a holiday online can be compared to participating to an auction online. It is common knowledge that the cheapest flight tickets, or hotel rooms are usually sold right away (on first come, first served base). A consumer who is not quick in deciding over the choices, might not find the same alternative available again few minutes later. Although one does not exactly bid for the product it wants, one competes with other consumers online that search for the same product in the same time. The impulsive consumer is more likely to purchase the ticket right away, while the 'thinker' will waste the chance, reflecting more on it. The author of this paper experienced wasting the chance a couple of times, and this has generated a noticeable feeling of annoyance. Loosing a cheap flight ticket due to uncertainty over the choices has resulted in being frustrated, and reducing the motivation to search again or purchase the next available product.

Mood responds to stimuli

After a long period of paying little attention to the role of mood in interpersonal behavior, judgment and decision - making, researchers in social psychology field have acknowledge the need to pursue this occurrence. Forgas and Smith (2010) recognize the role of mood state in retrieving previous events. Referring to Bower (1981), the authors mention that people that currently are in a positive frame of mind will recall more happy actions and those in a negative disposition, more negative ones (p.157). Approximately one year before that, Zajonc (1980) highlights the disassociation between cognitive and emotional reactions, since affect is a "source of disruption" (Forgas and Smith, 2010, p. 147).

Zajonc (2000) confirms this and concludes that mood has an independent function in peoples' reaction to social stimulations. Mood is closely related to information processing strategies and influences how people form judgment (Forgas and Smith, 2010, pp. 165 - 166).

Clark and Isen (1982) agree and mention that judgment making is influenced by affective state of the individuals, which can have a positive or negative effect on the behavior (p. 78). The authors suggest that automatic and controlled processes of affective state can have an effect on behavior. Nevertheless, these two processes are anticipated to work in the same direction, in the case of positive mood; and in opposite direction, in the case of negative (p. 102). Swinyard (1993) also mentions that mood responds to stimuli, because "mood-protection mechanism may fail" (p. 273). Conversely, Blanchette and Richards (2010) disagree with these findings, and argue, "the affective state is not related to the stimuli" (p. 562). This could be because the authors did not focus on the cognitive tasks of mood response to stimuli. They focused on emotion, and the affective state was induced by targeting the contents, "the materials that participants are processing in the task" (p. 562). Emotion and mood, however, should not be confused. The first one is a short-term affective response to an intentional entity, being related to someone / something (Olson, 2006, p. 194). Mood it is not aimed at to target particular objects (Clark and Isen, 1982) and it is considered a momentary affective state (Isen, 1984).

Taking a step further, if mood becomes a stimulus, rather than a response to stimuli, it might turn out to be an "effective reinforcer" (Jansson-Boyd, 2010, p. 30). Leisure travelling in itself is a form of reinforcing ourselves. Premack (1959, cited in Jansson-Boyd, 2010) identified that "operant behavior" (p. 30) can be stimulated by identifying something the consumers like.

This might be mapped at individual level. The challenge is to cluster consumers based on what they like because their momentary mood. Using happy mood as a stimulus, for example, might offer something in common to a large group of people to like, therefore to increase the likelihood of purchasing.

Hesitation

Wong and Yeh (2009) have researched upon tourist hesitation in decision - making. The authors conclude that hesitation is related to perception (of risk), and moderated by knowledge (of the product). They further mention that tourist hesitation in decision - making is not a prioritized research topic, although looking from the point of view of tourists / customers, hesitation implies having to search again for information and to make new decisions (p. 18).

Hesitation to choose among the choices, combined with frustration over the overwhelming number of alternatives, creates room for change in mood, which would override the initial intention to travel. Bentler and Speckart (1979) challenged TRA in their study about alternative attitude-behavior models. The findings indicate that other factors are also important in predicting behavior, beside intention, because "intentions may be altered by factors other than attitudes and subjective norms" (p. 462).

Rational choice under uncertainty

The participants to this experiment will be asked to seek and process information, estimate alternatives, and choose among several alternatives. Simultaneously, they will be asked to retrieve memories of good and bad happenings that they previously experienced when they visit a city.

Doubt can be generated, when choosing among a high number of alternatives with the aim to find the cheapest choice. Judging heuristically and going beyond the information and its obvious context might be something consumers do in such situation, to take their choice. In a study conducted nearly forty years ago, Tversky and Kahneman (1974) established that people experience cognitive biases when judging alternatives under uncertainty. Holding preconceived notions when estimating multiple alternatives can result in significant errors. The psychology of choice (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981) suggests that individuals with predilections towards certain alternatives encounter difficulties in framing a decision. The perceptual and cognitive abilities of human beings employ a subconscious effect to support the judgement progression. This takes form of a "cognitive judgment process" that Hastie and Dawes (2010) believe is performed by a "cognitive toolbox of mental heuristics stored in long-term memory" (p. 88). Arguing the work of Tversky and Kahneman (1974), Rasmussen (1993) advises that "statistical intuition" provides indication on when and where to look for information (p. 163).

These tools influence the judgement made when seeking and selecting informations, because they are deeply anchored in long lasting previous experiences. People tend to develop an assessment strategy when estimating probabilities and making judgments. According to Hastie and Dawes (2010), this strategy is based on "working memory", which means that one uses "associative thinking" or "rely on the fluency of the information". Should the information not be available, people tend to "rely on simple recognition to estimate values" (p. 89).

1.4 Purpose of the study

This causal study is based on a hypothetical deductive method, with the main purpose to investigate the relationship between momentary mood, search behavior and travel intention, in the case of vacation planing on Internet. The area of research is tourist psychology, which is a social science.

The institutional purpose of this study is to bring an incremental knowledge to the field of tourist psychology, by investigating the intention - behavior gap, where changes might occur. The significance of this new knowledge is given by the precision of data gathering and analysis (Fisher, 2010). The personal purpose is to explore an area of social science that is of personal interest and to achieve the master degree. The communicative purpose is to report the findings of the research (Glatthorn and Joyner, 1998, pp. 4 - 5).

1.5 Disposition of the study

This study will continue with establishing the theoretical framework (literature review); state the research question; propose a cognitive model and a hypothesis; describe the research design planed to employ (methods); validate the measurements; illustrate the implementation and results; and analyse the findings. In the end, conclusions will be drawn and recommendations for further research will be presented.

Chapter 2. Theoretical framework

According to Hesse-Biber (2010), literature review should present the research problem in a comprehensive manner. Machi and McEvoy (2009) suggest using the advanced literature review process in the case of a master thesis. This assists to covering the existing knowledge about the topic, and to "discovering what is not yet known about the topic" (p. 4).

This qualitative study provides a critical evaluation of the existing literature that relates to the research problem. The writer selects existing literature that supports the need for this research, defines the academic arena for answering the research question, and explains the concepts employed.

2.1 Mapping the literature

An extensive research was conducted using different databases and libraries to identify the right literature that supports this study. A mixture of materials was used: textbooks, peer-reviewed articles published in different journals, and dissertations (Figure 1).

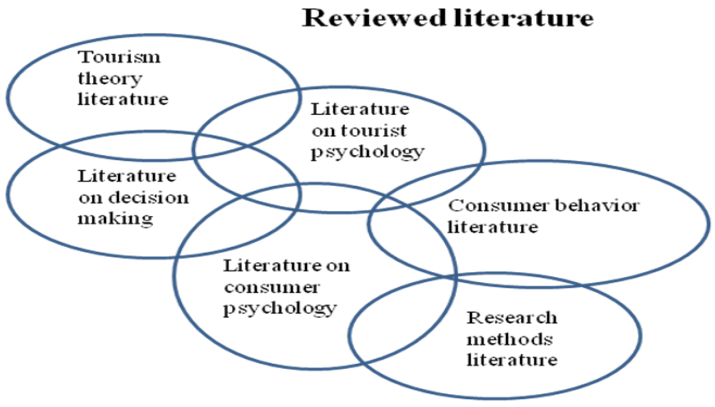

Fig. 1. Mapping the literature sources that were accessed for this study. Adapted from Fisher and Buglear, 2010, p. 101.

Hesse-Biber (2010) acknowledges the guiding role of the literature review, from the early stage of drafting the research idea. The majority gaps in knowledge for this study were filled through reading previous papers within the area of research (Creswell, 1994, p.21). The following online data bases were used to find previous studies: EBSCON, PsykInfo, ScienceDirect and Hospitality and Tourism Complete. Some of the key words used were: mood in travel, mood change, momentary mood, frustration, hesitation, online information search, situational factors, purchase behavior, consumer psychology, tourism behavior, tourist psychology, theory of reasoned action, theory of planned behavior, theory of trying (hereafter

known as TT), research methods. University's library was used to find textbooks about research methods, tourist and consumer behavior, decision-making, attitudes and behavior, etc.

2.2. Theoretical support

Theories are the ground knowledge that can host and explain the research phenomenon. Babbie (2010) defines theories as a "systematic sets of interrelated statements" that "aims at explaining what we see" (p. 44). The theoretical framework for this study derives from: (1) TRA and TPB – that it will be used to frame the existing theoretical knowledge for this study, as we test it in the context of tourism; (2) TT - that will be used as support for measurements, and in analysis.

2.2.1 Tourist psychology

In its book on social psychology of tourist behavior, Pearce (1982) provides a review on earlier literature on tourists, tourism and tourist psychology. The author evaluates the sociological studies of tourism that mainly focuses on explaining reasons for which tourists travel and what the nature of their experience is; how tourists release immediate reality heaviness and distance themselves from situations that trigger stress (p. 16 - 20). Tourist activity is, apparently, what researchers place first, leaving aside travellers mindset, their inner state, thus their mood. Leisure research is conducted on macro scale, where the real information is to be found on micro level, at the individual level.

Nowadays, Pearce (2011) has a new approach in studying tourist behaviour and experience. The author invited few scholars that have a mixed background in psychology, social psychology, marketing research, and consumer behavior analysis to provide their

insight in the field of tourist research. This demonstrates that researchers now recognise the use of looking behind the obvious reasons and motives for which tourists travel.

2.2.2 Theory of reasoned action

> "*According to the theory of reasoned action intention is the immediate determinant of behavior and thus allows us to predict behavior" (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980, p. 90).*

Early on, Wicker (1969, cited in Cooper et all., 2004) questioned the existence of a strong relationship between attitude and behavior, due to lack of empirical support. It seems that social norms (also known as subjective norms) were not considered at that time.

In most of the cases intention does predict behavior (for a review on TRA predictive capacity see Blue, 2005). TRA has been extensively applied in a various number of studies over the years. Recently researchers (Patry & Pelletier, 2001; Beadnell et all., 2008; Randolph, Fincham and Radey, 2009; Tsai et all., 2010; Shu & Chuang, 2011) have applied the theory in different fields, "in applied settings, as well as in laboratory settings" (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980, p. 97).

In this study, TRA is used as a framework that supports decision - making process; still, we are only interested in the gap between intention and behavior. We assume that the formation of intention based on the subjective norms and the attitude towards the behavior (p. 8) is concluded, and will not look into how the intention occurred. Intention to travel can be weak, strong or non-existent. This research will concentrate on what happens if a situational factor, such as a change in momentary mood, intervenes after the intention to travel (or not) is formed; how would this influence the behavior. The context of vacation planning on Internet is used for gathering empirical data, and, as mentioned, search behavior reflects purchase behavior. More details about this will be provided in chapter 2 para 4 Conceptual definition.

2.2.3 Theory of planned behavior

This theory is a more appropriate framework for explaining the researched phenomenon, because it runs a rather "dispositional approach to prediction of behavior" (Ajzen, 1991a, p. 180). This theory introduces the perceived behavioral control (PBC) as "a third determinant of intentions" (p. 118), in addition to attitude towards behavior and subjective norms. TPB focuses on cumulative past behavior as predictor of behavioral disposition, and it covers TRA's "limitations in dealing with behaviors over which people have incomplete volitional control" (Ajzen, 1991a, p. 181). Langdridge, Sheeran and Connoly (2007) noticed that PBC can "influence intention because people are unlikely to intend to perform behaviors over which they have little control" (p. 1886).

Bagozzi (1992) identifies some error margins that TRA presents when applied to goals, since behavior is defined by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) as a volitional behavior. This means that performance is strongly predicted by intention, because the consumer can and intends to act on its intention. The authors see no reasons for which the consumer will be frustrated, therefore no factors that can prevent the performance are considered. The dynamic of consumer behavior, however, had changed over time, and several factors might generate frustration and / or other experiences in the gap between intention and behavior, and produce a swift in the direction between intention and behavior. TPB explains performance that is "under partial volitional control" (Bagozzi, 1992, p. 181) and through perceived behavioral control the theory considers "obstacles that possibly might thwart performance of an act" (p. 181).

In online vacationing planning, the perceived behavioral control is in the eye of consumer. Search behavior is closely dependent on the choices provided by Internet, since the consumer trusts these when planning the journey. Nevertheless, Ajzen (1991a) mentions that cumulative observation does not apply to specific situations, hence, there is a probability that "other, more immediate factors" (p. 181) can also be present. In this thesis, these *immediate factors* are the situational factors / unforeseen events mentioned earlier on.

Momentary mood change is the independent variable for this study. Mood change was found to have a role in cognition (Isen, 1984; Mayer, 1986) and behavior (Gardner, 1985). We aim to investigate this role in the specific context of vacation planning on Internet. This is a context of decision making in tourism, where a personalized direct dialog between seller (Internet based travel products providers) and buyer (the consumer that searches for journeys to plan the vacation) is not quite possible. The seller has no opportunity to acknowledge consumer's momentary mood and 'wrap' the product in a way that meets the specific needs the consumer has on the spot. The chances of loosing the consumer are therefore greater than in a direct dialog taken place in a travel agency.

Tversky and Kahneman (1981) support the idea that even though one has a strong intention to act – and in this context, to travel – one can experience that a situational factor occurs and change one's mind. Moreover, Park, Iyer and Smith (1989) make note of the fact that effects of situational factors in a specific context can change consumers shopping behavior. Ajzen (2005) introduces few factors (internal and external) that seem to have control over consumers given behavior to some degree (p. 108). The author, however, does not provide a comprehensive guarantee that there will be no inconsistency between intention to act and acting.

Ajzen brings along the concept of "literal inconsistency" (p. 104) as an explanatory construct for the gap between intention and behavior. The author provides a descriptive analysis of the concept, but does not ask himself why would "people say they will do one thing, yet do something else" (p. 104); it does not dig further to find reasons for which people change their mind.

A number of researchers (Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1992; Patry & Pelletier, 2001; Bamberg, Ajzen and Schmidt, 2003; Huang, 2011; Chen et all., 2011; etc) evaluated intention as predictor of behavior, in distinct contexts. Gooding and Kok (1996), for example, provide a review of the applications of TPB in health-related sectors. Applying the TPB to leisure choice, Ajzen and Driver (1992) concluded, "theory of planned behavior can advance our understanding of leisure activities" (p. 207). Mood had been found to play an indirect role in measuring attitude (p. 217), but no attention was given to mood change, as a factor that can intervene in the intention – behavior gap. The authors mention that transforming intention into behavior depends on "actual control", such as time and money; and on the impact of realistic perceived behavioral control on intention and actions (p. 209). This means that if no new and atypical elements, such as mood change, intervene, than we can expect an undeviating intention – behavior link.

On the other hand, March & Woodside (2005a, p. 118) interpretation of TPB is that intention forecasts merely the 'attempt' to carry out a behavior. However, referring to Conner and Armitage (1998, as cited in March & Woodside, 2005a, p.118), the authors recognize that this theoretical framework offers a "deeper insight into the differentials that occur between planned and actual behaviors" (p. 118).

Same year, March and Woodside (2005b) tested theory of planned versus realized tourism behavior, with focus on "vacation destination behavior" (p. 906). The authors empirically tested few consumption behaviors, as well as looked at "contingency influences" (p. 906) identified in the gap between some of the planned and realized behaviors. The authors mention that situational factors play a significant role in explaining why sometimes an intention does not lead to purchase; and they use 'memory' as an example (p. 918).

Going back to Ajzen (1985), it was noticed that the intention – behavior relation hosts certain factors that can influence the stability of intention, thus, the prediction of behavior. New information, for instance, can "disrupt the intention - behavior relation" (p. 19), because the attitude towards behavior and / or subjective norms are affected, and as a result, people change their mind about the nature of intention. Furthermore, provided feedback has been found to diminish the predictive exactness of the initial intention (Songer – Nocks, 1976a, 1976b, as referred to in Ajzen, 1985). In vacation planning on Internet, sellers provide the feedback concerning occupancy availability, price range, activities and attractions choices, etc. Such information impacts on buyer's initial intention, invites to new considerations, because the context is different from before. The consumer continues to try finding the preferred travel product at the desired prise, or gives up at some point.

2.2.4 Theory of trying

For how long would one search for the cheapest price or for the best of choices, when planning a vacation online? How long would it take the consumer to change its mood when searching for a journey to purchase, either in positive or negative way?

TT is used as theoretical arena for the experiment through which data will be collected. When testing momentary mood change we will measure the amount of time respondents spent trying to plan their trip, as a component of search behvior factor. The findings will be correlated this with their momentary mood before and after the treatment, demographics, personality, previous online experience, age group, etc. Knowing how long time it takes before the initial intention suffers an alteration in online vacation planning can be a useful indicator for tour operators, travel agencies, hotels, online marketers, etc.

TT was developed by Bagozzi and Warshaw (1990), aiming to empirically test the theory of goal pursuit (Warshaw et al. 1985, as cited in Bagozzi and Warshaw, 1990) and the process of planned behavior (that is TPB of Ajzen, 1985). The authors launch this new theoretical outline, where reasoned actions are intermediate goals for consumers that "think impediments stand in the way" (p. 128). In this study, task difficulty, lack of expertize in online search, time constraints, and frustration might be impediments that stand respondents in the way to fulfill the task, thus to change their momentary mood and their purchase plans.

Other researchers employed this theoretical framework for studying phenomena in different fields of interest. Ahuja and Thatcher (2005) anchored their study on effects of work environment and gender on trying to innovate with information technology (p. 427) on TT, in order to go beyond intentions to understand behavior. Xie, Bagozzi and Troye (2008) used TT as framework in examining prosumption propensity. Furthermore, Hansen, Samuelsen and Andressen (2010) introduced this theoretical framework to complaining conduct. Xie et al. (2008) recognize that TT is more useful in explaining a process that is exposed to failure and requires several attempts to reach the purpose.

Hansen et al. (2010), on the other hand, explain that the process of trying is concerned with circumstances where the goal is only reached after several attempts, after the consumer struggled to perform. Vacation planning online is such a process. One is less likely to succeed in finding the cheapest and most convenient journey from the first attempt of searching for it online.

2.2.5 Decision making

Looking at decision - making process from only one angle is not sufficient. The complexity of this process dictates the need for an integrative approach, where both core components and the specific aspects are considered. Researchers (Ranyard & Crozier, 1997) reviewed cognitive process models and explanations of decision – making; introduced the concept of personal involvement (Verplanken and Svenson, 1997) and emotions (Blom Kemdal and Montgomery, 1997) in personal decision – making; and looked at the effects of time pressure on judgement and decision making (Maule and Edland, 1997). Later on, Connolly et al. (2000) provided an interdisciplinary reader on judgment and decision - making, with a wide array of applications, critiques and new directions. Harvard Business Review, on the other hand, presents a more proactive approach on decision - making (Harvard Business School Publishing Corporation, 2001). The contributors focus on different aspects, such as: (1) humble decision making (Etzioni, 2001), (2) interpersonal barriers to decision - making (Argyris, 2001) and (3) the hidden traps in decision making (Hammond et al., 2001).

These are just few examples of different approaches that researchers used to examine the decision making process. There is no standard definition of what this process consists of. Plous (1993) mentions that no decision making is context – free; decisions are influenced by peoples' "selective perception, pressure toward cognitive consistency, biases in memory and

changes in context" (p. 14). Martin et all. (2004) seconds the idea that context and memory play a noteworthy role in judgment and decision – making, because one builds its judgment line based on "previously stored information, as well as information from the current context" (p. 55).

The recall of changes in context, and especially in marketing contexts, is influenced by consumers's mood (Gardner, 1985). In its review on how mood states affects consumer behavior, Gardner found out that affective state is significant at the "point – of – purchase and in communications" (p. 281). The author states that "mood states may influence purchase behavior" and "information acquisition" (p. 292). These are two significant stages in decision – making, especially in vacation planning, which requires acquiring a greater amount of information than when one purchase a pair of shoes, for example.

2.2.6 Decision – making in vacation planning

In tourism, decision - making is a process that can take either a long-term progression, or can be brief action. Sometimes one plans the trip for a long time, considering even the smallest details; and sometimes one travels just because one felt like it, suddenly. Either way, one has to make a decision. We travel for vacation (leisure), or business. In this paper, business travelling is not considered examined, and the focus is on intention – behavior gap in decision to travel for leisure.

Decrop (2006) defines the process of decision making in tourism as a complex process that involves several decisions and sub - decisions. This is because vacation is usually an ongoing process that involves a number of plans that can either be sequential, or alternate (2006).

Stewart and Vogt (1999) recognize the importance of planning in vacationing, because this is beneficial to tourists (the consumer) and the industry. Tourists plan the vacation ahead to avoid risk, the authors mention. The suppliers in the industry can provide the expected products and services, if they have a request beforehand. In vacation planning and decision – making the tourist make use of information, perceptions and judgements. Hoc (1988, as referred to in Stewart and Vogt, 1999) brings behavior in the picture, mentioning that the process of planning is of cognitive nature, in opposition to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) that present an "attitudinal approach to understanding goal - directed behavior" (Stewart and Vogt, 1999, p.81). However, the authors conclude that using cognitive science planning models to comprehend behavior in tourism leaves room for restrictions.

Purchasing decisions in vacation planning differs from consumer to consumer. TRA has been previously used as a theoretical framework for measuring vacationing. Litvin and MacLaurin (2001), for instance, had a quick look on the relationship between attitude and behavior, conducting empirical work to measure Singaporeans inclination for vacationing in Australia (p. 821).

How it relates to personality and mood

Even though Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) mention that factors such as "personality characteristics" (p. 8) were also referred to when analyzing and explaining behavior, the authors give no indication if mood was also considered. A direct interaction between personality traits and specific actions was not demonstrated, as these characteristics "correspond only to behavioral categories" (p. 87).

Questions on "how, what, and why of travel" (Plog, 1994, p. 209) are better answered and explained using psychographics. This method allows marketers to segment tourists based on their personality patterns, linking these with travel behavior. Demographic segmentation does not consequently mean that people have similar travel preferences, being not that effective in predicting travel behavior (Plog, 1994). Walker Jr., Gountas, Mavondo and Mullins (2009) suggest 'psychographic characteristics' as an independent descriptor of marked segmentation. The authors mention that this segmentation criterion "describes the psychological make-up of the consumers" (p. 135). Marketers of travel and tourism can have use of designing own psychographic systems, in regards with destination development, product positioning, destination positioning, development of supporting services, packaging, etc. - Plog mentions. Indeed, research on personality traits could relate to travel and tourism, as such segmentation might provide new opportunities for marketers; but does mapping consumers personality really alone predicts consumers' behavior in tourism? Or does the momentary mood also have a say in this equation? Would personality characteristics be related to momentary mood, time spent on searching for information and frustration?

It is common knowledge that travellers have also different moods at different points in time. Blanchette and Richards (2010) recognize the difficulty in explaining the role of positive and negative mood on decision - making. The authors suggest that the concepts of interpretation, judgement and decision - making "are intrinsically linked" (p. 576), and that "positive and anxious mood states influence decision making" (p. 577).

2.2.7. Online search behavior

Search of information online has a remarkable dynamic in the tourism sphere. The more experienced the traveller is, the less time will spend in searching for information (March

& Woodside, 2005a, p. 139. Past experience was found to have an influence on vacation behavior and choice of visit (Lehto, O'Leary and Morrison, 2004). Pretrip decision-making (vacation planning) is linked with familiarity and the degree of uncertainity involved. Vacation decisions are based on booking in advance, and vacation planning is suggested to be an "important variable" in studying the vacation market (p. 803).

The role of social media in the search for information online was found to have a "growing importance" (Xiang and Gretzel, 2009, p. 8). This is due to the need of sharing information with others. Xiang and Gretzel found that virtual communities represent 40 percent of social media represented in Google (p. 6). Vacation planning online using a searching engine also returns evaluations from other travellers. Such evaluations are subjective and can generate mood change. Marketers may experience diminuated chances that consumers consider the products with detachment. Fesenmaier (2007) recognizes that tourism marketers face new challenges because of these new distribution channels (social networking, blogs, and virtual communities).

Aiming to understand tourists' information search behavior, Gursoy and McCleary (2004) developed a theoretical model that incorporates psychological and motivational elements, economics and consumer information processings. The model is comprehensive and provides a unique insight of the process of searching for information in tourism context. For this study, the proposed model of Gursoy and McCleary (2004) offers a theoretical basis for some of the items in the experiment. Kotler and Armstrong (2008) suggest that personality "can be useful in analysing consumer behavior" (p. 141), because it influences buying behavior.

McInerney (2006) mentions that classical decision theory does not take into account that people who try to perform may also fail. The realization of carrying out an intention is influenced by the frequency of trying and this depends on how strongly motivated the consumer is at the time of trying to perform (buy). The author suggests that "the psychological consitution" (p. 259) of the one that tries to perform should also be considered as it affects the intensity of trying. In this study the frequency of trying is measured not in terms of how many times the respondents will access an online site, but in terms of how long it takes from the moment they started the online search for information until they give up.

2.3 Research question

Initialy the research question was: *What situational factors arise in the intention – behavior gap in people's decision to travel, and how do these factors affect their decision to take the journey of not?*

The writer designed an explorative study, aiming to identify if there was a phenomena out in the world (Verpe, 2012), using a free online survey instrument (SurveyMonkey, 1999-2011) and handing out the same survey to random students at UiS, in the caffeteria. This survey was completed by people online (n = 56) and on paper (n = 34). For an overview see Appendix 1a and 1b. The main purpose was to spot out the situational factors that random people would consider feasible to changing their mind and preventing them from traveling. Would momentary mood change be one of these factors? Would people be aware that a change in mood at a certain point in time could be a factor that prevents them from pursuing their intention to travel? Would respondents rather pick other factors, and if so, would they consider that these other factors can produce a change in mood? The idea behind this study was to mapping random people's awareness over the phenomena.

A project that aims to find out the answer to this initial question requires more than six months research that a master student is given to complete its thesis, and more resources. Consequently, this study had to be further narrowed down. Therefore, this paper focuses on the 'momentary mood change' as a situational factor possible to intervene in intention – behavior gap. Hence, the research question for this study is:

What role does momentary mood have as a situational factor that arises in the intention – behavior gap in people's decision to travel, and how can a change in momentary mood affect peoples' search behavior and travel intention?

2.4 Conceptual definition

This sub-chapter focuses on conceptualization. This is a process through which the proposed model is introduced, and the constructs used in the model are defined. Babbie (2010) considers this to be a mental process (p. 127), where researcher's thoughts are translated into words, in order to be transmitted to others (Neuman, 2009, p. 116).

2.4.1 Cognitive model

Engel et al. (1968) define a model to be "a replica of the phenomena" where the variables and the relationship between them is depicted (p. 35). The models bellow are created by the writer of this thesis to illustrate the phenomenon; the first one portrays the initial research idea of the study, where several situational factors were taken into consideration as possible to occurring in the intention – behavior gap in decision to travel (Figure 2). This is inserted in the thesis just to introduce the reader into the extended phenomenon. The model presented in Figure 2 is not subject to empirical testing in this study.

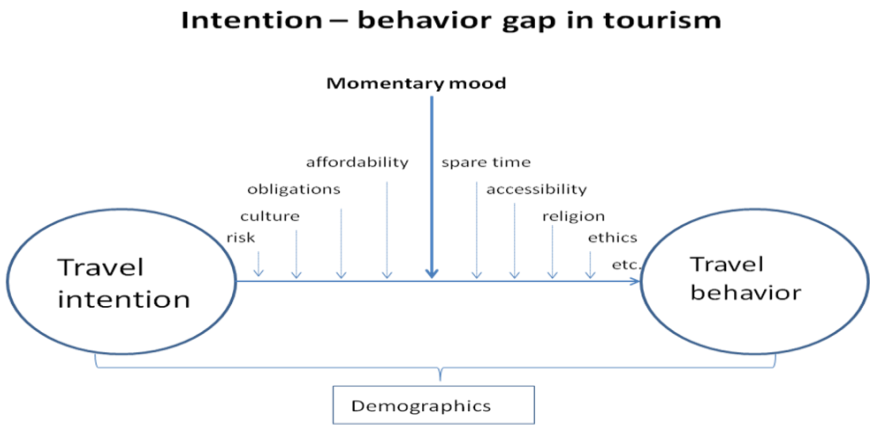

Figure 2. A suggested model regarding situational factors possible occuring in intention-behavior gap in traveling decision making. Based on Theory of Planned Behavior, Ajzen (1985).

Given the limited space, time and resources available for this thesis, however, only one situational factor is been researched upon, that is momentary mood. Hence, the proposed model for this study is as follows (Figure 3):

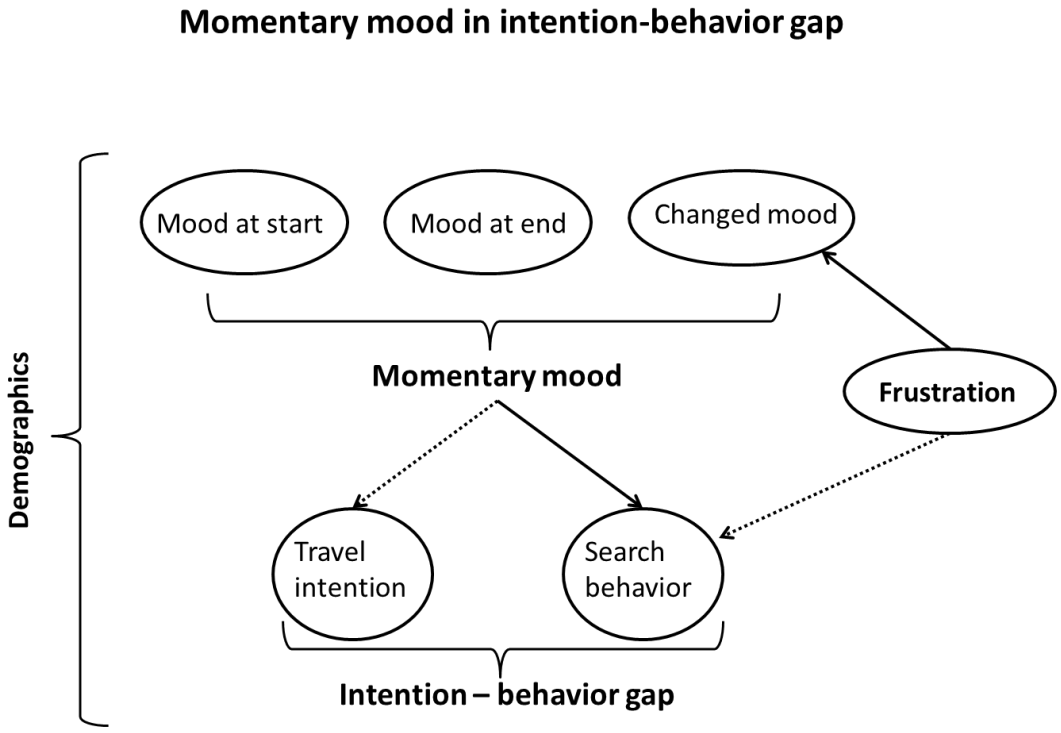

Figure 3. The role of momentary mood in intention – behavior gap in vacation planning online: a cognitive model. Based onTheory of Planned Behavior,(Ajzen, 1985)

This is graphical representation of the reality, which illustrates what the writer thinks about the research topic. This rather crude model aims to provide a visual support to the research phenomena, but at this point, the relationship between the variables is only assumed (Engel et al., 1968, pp. 35 – 36). The arrows indicate the hypothesisez effect (Huang and Hsu, 2009).

2.4.2 The concepts in the model

Travel Intention

Intention as a concept used in consumer behavior is defined as "a cognitive state that reflects the buyer's plan to purchase" (Howard and Sheth, 1969, p. 416). This could be an announcement made by the consumer concerning its plan to purchase, that can be oral or written. Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) describes intention as "a person's location on a subjective probability dimension involving a relation between himself and some action" (p. 288). The authors point out that intention varies, and that behavioral intention is subjective and not certain, as a person might or might not "perform some behavior" (p. 288). Furthermore, Ajzen (1988) points out that intention is the sum of conative, cognitive and evaluative dimensions og attitudes towards behavior. The motivational factors that determine behavior are strongly present (Ajzen, 1991), making possible to use intention as an indicator for behavior (Olsen, Heide, Dopico, and Toften 2008). Once the intention is formed, based on attitudes and beliefs (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), this will transform into behavior if the specificity of target, situation and time correlate at all levels (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

The behavioral specificity, on the other hand, due to its dual nature, such as "specific or general behavioral intentions" (p. 293), is more difficult to rely on. In tourism research, for example, it is not clarified yet wether intention to travel has a more specific nature or a

general one. What does intention to travel signifies? It can represent a general intention to relax after a period of work and stress. It can represent a specific intention to visit a certain site, or to visit some friends abroad. March and Woodside (2005a) supports the idea that behavioural intentions in decision to travel can be general or more specific, predicting to perform a single or "a series of behaviours" (p. 117).

In this study, intention to travel must not be confused with desire to travel. Travel intention is the construct that reflects attitudes towards travelling and subjective norms are defined; although the actual purchase of journey is yet not accomplished. A desire to travel it does not imply such certainty; therefore, it is is not suitable to use in this study. Langdridge et al. (2007) provide a clear delimitation of these two concepts (p. 1886), and mention that desire only augments intention forecasting, mediating the link between intention and attitude that exists in TRA and TPB. This research project focuses on what happens after travel intention is well formed, and until the journey is purchased, online. Therefore, the research rationale is based on the assumption that travel intention is clearly formed.

Travel Behavior

Oxford English Dictionary (OED, 2012b) defines behvior as "the manner in which a thing acts under specified conditions or circumstances, or in relation to other things" (para 5.). In this paper, travel behavior is the final act of purchasing the journey, which encounters the choices the consumer has to make when planning the vacation online: transport, accommodation, activities, etc. The consumer is the buyer that searches for information, estimates the findings, and bases its purchase act on useful information that he / she retrieved (on memory, or paper).

According to Nicosia (1966, as referred to in Crompton, 1992) buying is a concluding act, "emerging from funneling process" (p. 422). Anderson (1981) introduces two types of behavior: (1) implicit, which refers to the mental response to stimuli; (2) explicit, which refers to the performing act. The second one is also known as overt action, a construct that has been object to research quite often, because it is an observable response (Ajzen, 1988; Jaccard and Blanton, 2005). In this study, buying behavior is reflected by search behavior. It would have not been ethical to ask participants to purchase the itinerary planned online during the task in the experiment. The researcher did not have the means to subsidize the purchase either. Therefore, it was decided that search behavior reflects the purchase behavior, thus travel behavior. We assume that respondents that completed the task are those who would have also purchase the product, and vice versa.

Behavior configuration encompasses four elements: (1) action, (2) target, (3) settings, (4) time (Fishbein and Jaccard, 1973). Solomon (2011), consumer's behavior is a process where different actors contribute to the formation of the final act: purchase of a product. Several models of consumer behavior in tourism are available (for overview see Hyde, 2004; Bowen and Clarke, 2009), portraying the consumer as a "problem solver" (p. 162). Wether purchasing a vacation is due to the need for excitement, or a response to different stimuli (marketing strategies, social factors, or family expectations), the final act of purchasing the journey is the result of a complex process. The above mentioned elements, in this context, are rather clear. *Action* refers to the actual sitting down by the computer and search for travel information online. The *target* is to easily identify the cheapest and / or most convenient alternatives. The *settings* represent the surroundings in which the action take place (in a data computer – in this study, or home / work / public place in real life); and *time* refers to the amount of minutes / hours consumers spend to reach the target.

Research on secondary sources did not identify any previous studies that assess the degree to which volitional versus nonvolitional control influence both intention and behavior in a tourism context, such as of vacation planning online. Although Ajzen (1991b) considers that perceived behavioral control presents a noteworthy influence on intentions and behavior in decision - making process, Bagozzi (1992) argues this idea, noticing the difficulty of being and not being in control in a specific situation. From a more personal perspective, vacation planing online is not an arena where the consumer has total volitional control. First, because it does not control the choices it can choose among, the seller controls and restricts these. Second, because even the smaller 'happening' within surroundings can distract its attention from the process of purchasing the journey, thus, change its mood and mind. Third, because it perceives the product through its personal paradigm – its personality, previous experiences, judgement frame, feelings, memories, etc – and humans can not always control their affective state at all moments, such as, getting frustrated.

Momentary mood

Mood has been the subject of study for several researchers within different fields (Dribben and Brabender, 1979; Manucia, Baumann and Cialdini, 1984; Diener, Larsen, Levine, and Emmons, 1985; Ambady & Gray, 2002; Gardner, 1985; Sirakaya, Petrick and Choi, 2004; Olson, 2006; etc.). The concept of mood has received different definitions over the years (Waters, 2008), and it has been used interchangeably with the term affect and emotion (p. 570). In this study, we consider mood to be an affective state. The synonymity between these two constructs is recognized by Clark and Isen (1982, p.75) and Sirakaya et al. (2004, p. 519).

Mood was proved to generate a gap between buyers and sellers (Van Boven, Lowenstein, and Dunning, 2003, as cited in Olson, 2006) and to have both direct and indirect effects on judgement (Bakamitsos and Siomkos, 2004), and judgement accuracy (Ambady and Gray, 2002). Mood it is not attached to any intentional object (Olson, 2006, p. 194). This construct has been found to have an impact on leisure activities (Floyd, 1997; Matilla, 2000), influencing consumers' evaluation of adverts (Knowles, Grove and Burroughs, 1993, as referred to in Sirakaya et al.), and retrieval of information (Clarck and Isen, 1982; Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer, 1999). Furthermore, mood influences decision making, in terms of shopping intentions (Swinyard, 1993, p. 272).

Mathews, Jones and Chamberlain (1990) portray mood to be "an emotion-like experience lasting for at least several minutes" (p. 17). According to Underwood and Froming (1980), a body of researchers mention that mood has usually been regarded as a "transient phenomenon" (p. 404). This applies to the long - term dimension of mood. In this thesis, research focuses on momentary affective state, because vacation planning is a goal related activity that does not last a long period. The period for planning a vacation is normally limited; therefore, one should inspect the structure of mood within consumers at the moment of planning.

In the cognitive model, ***mood at start*** reflects current mood of the respondents before proceeding to complete the task; and ***mood at end*** reflects respondents' mood after the task is completed or abandoned. Furthermore, ***changed mood*** is found out measuring the difference between average of mood at end and average of mood at start. The results were compared with self-reported statements for manipulation check, for a better understanding of the change. The three factors all together determine ***momentary mood*** that we aim to assess.

Momentary mood is primarly the independent variable for this study. However, in certain circumstances, it may take the role of dependent variable, for example when we assess its relation with frustration.

Can it vary, can it be measured?

As Diener et al. (1985) pointed out, structure of mood changes over time within a person. What one feels at some point it is not necessarily similar with what would it feel at other point, in similar circumstances. Poon (2001) supports the idea that mood can changes, and mentions that this has been previously demonstrated through various experimental studies that manipulated mood. Bakamitsos and Siomkos (2004) provide a clear review of studies on applying mood induction to create ambience and influence consumer behavior, and remind the reader that mood manipulation / induction should rather be a subtle process that will not determine the consumer to "block out its effects" (pp. 312 – 313).

Mood literature is gradually growing, and to date, mood has been measured as significant variable in several studies. For an extensive summary of mood literature, see Sirakaya et al. (2004). The nature of relationship between mood and the dependent variable varies, and mood was measured in relation to marketing stimuli, recall of positive materials, retrieval of previously stored information, etc., (Berkowitz and Connor, 1966; Bower and Coher, 1982; and Curren and Hanrich, 1994, as referred to in Sirakaya et al.). Secondary research results indicate that mood change has been linked with, and measured in relation to cognition (Mayer, 1986), and personality traits (Mayer and Salovey, 1988).

Measuring mood in laboratory settings is possible through inducing the desired mood state. The most acknowledge inducement procedure was developed by Velten (1968).

Several researchers have used this procedure over the years (Dribben and Brabender, 1979; Manucia, Baumann, and Cialdini, 1984; Gardner, 1985; Gerrards – Hesse, Spies and Hesse, 1994). Different instruments of measuring mood have been developed and validated: Mood Survey (Underwood and Froming, 1980; Henss, 1999); PANAS scale (Watson, Clark and Tellegen, 1988; Poon, 2001); Diener and Emmons's scale (Watson, 1988), and The Brief Mood Introspection Scale, also known as BMIS (Mayer and Gaschke, 1988). These three concepts are indirect observable (Babbie, 2010), because the characteristics of the respondents are reported in an experiment that is self-administered (p. 129).

Frustration

The concept of frustration is used to explain momentary mood change. Lawson (1965) developed the construct of frustration as a scientific concept. The concept portrays an observed behavior of a person, suggesting that there is a cause for this behavior. The linguistic definition of "frustration" found in Oxford English Dictionary (OED, 2012a) offers a range of examples where the concept implies the existence of a cause that generates it: divorce, missed aims, attack, inconsistency, etc. The notion of frustration has been used as early as year 1575 (OED, 2012a), and was known as "the action of frustrating: disappointment" (n.s.). Amsel (1992), who further mentions that frustration is the result of different reactions to stress and other reasons, recognizes Lawson's (1965) conceptual definition of frustration.

Frustration is directly depicted in the proposed model, because it may impact on the dependent variables (search behavior and travel intention) either direct or indirect. This stimulus variable (Edwards, 1960) consists of a "problem-solving situation" (p. 5), because respondents will be asked to solve a task in the experiment, being given limited approaching choices.

Limiting the alternatives available when choosing for something, can be one reason that produces frustration. Online search engines, although they provide hundred - thousands of alternatives, these are yet still limited, because not all tourism related businesses in the world are available into search engines databases, thus, not all the options are available. Moreover, there is no guarantee that the alternatives Internet provides will meet the needs and expectations of each individual consumer. What is a suitable and perfectly useful choice for thousands of consumers might be of no interests for other thousands.

On the other hand, for some consumers the alternatives Internet search provides in regards to travel choices might be overwhelming and create confusion. Wells (1936) portrays the anatomy of frustration and brings to attention this fact: should one be confused in his mind, could one get frustrated. Although this depiction has a philosophic approach, there is some truth in it, on the practical level too. We search online for a cheap flight ticket, for instance, and we come across a large number of options. Each seller claims its price is the cheapest, but who is to believe? Some choose to use the help of comparative search engines, such as www.kelkoo.no or www.finn.no, but even those cannot comprise ALL the alternatives out there. There is still the possibility that another option, a cheaper option is available on Internet. Isn't this confusing? Further, remembering which options one clicked on and checked, which not, is again confusing, and can influence the mood in a negative way. According to Natale and Hantas (1982) there is "a significant influence of negative mood on the processing of self-relevant information" (pp. 932 - 933).

According to Professor Carl Cater from Aberystwyth University, frustration can be observed or perceived (Cater, personal communication, 27. October 2011). The observed frustration was assessed by employing two independent observers during data collection.

The perceived frustration was self- reported by the participants to the experiment, on task difficulty, amount of information available, and generated boredom.

Demographics

This concept is depicted in the proposed model, with two purposes. First, to portray the profile of the population; the items enquire upon age, country of origin, profession and gender. These types of statistically characteristics are often used in marketing, and refer to the population of a region. In this study, however, demographics describe the social characteristics of the sample only. It was no possible to create an image of the typical member of the population, because the realised sample was not large enough.

The second purpose of incorporating demographics was to observe how respondents' background links with their travel intention, online search experience, and the time spent on planning the vacation. Ajzen (2005) argues that people's personal, social and informational background influences intentions and behaviors. People belonging to different social environments have unlike exposures to knowledge and information, thus, perceive things alike (p. 135). It is expected, for example, that participants with higher degree of online search experience will get less frustrated, and spend longer time searching for the cheapest alternatives, than those that are not that familiar with online vacation planning.

2.4.2 Applying context

Online travel inquiries

Planning a vacation can be a comprehensive process that requires several steps (Pan & Fesenmaier, 2006). In the "grand models" designed by pioneers of consumer behavior (Nicosia, 1966; Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell, 1968; Howard and Sheth, 1969 as cited in

Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), the tangible product plays a significant role in decision -making (p. 815). Prior computers marched into daily life the search of information was limited to contacting travel agencies, consulting travel books, guides and brochures, talking to friends and families, reading newspapers and magazines. Information available provided less numbered choices than to date.

Planning a vacation commonly implies use of online information search engines in our time, as travelers' increasingly share their experiences on media Websites (Xiang and Gretzel, 2009). Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) offer a meta-analysis of the existing literature that assesses decision - making in vacation planning. The authors mention that search for information is one of the stages within this process. This process is determined by both psychological (internal) variables, such as intentions; and non-psychological (external) variables, such as time (p. 816). In these settings, decisions are based on available information that is detailed considered (Conner and Armitage, 1998). TIA (2005, as cited in Xiang and Gretzel, 2009) states that about "64 % of online travelers use search engines for travel planning" (p. 1).

Vacation planning process and online information search were subject to study for Pan and Fesenmaier (2006). The authors investigate this process at micro-level, presenting a conceptual model of online tourist search (p. 814). The major findings reveal that vacation planning online is a complex process, which often overrides the consumer capacity of processing the overwhelming amount of information. Results indicate that people have different levels of understanding the process, also called "semantic mental model" (p. 825), and use subjective key words related to previous experiences, but describing actual needs (p. 826). The paper is more an insight of how consumers use the Internet in vacation planning.

Yousafzai, Foxall and Pallister (2010), on the other hand, used TRA, TPB and Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) to assess the degree of which these theories can predict consumer's behavior, in use of Internet banking. The context used for research differs to some degree to the one used in for this research project. Using Internet banking does not require much planning; it is a rather straight to the point performance behavior. The authors identified that TAM is more suitable theoretical arena to explain the relation between intention and behavior in Internet banking because this model was developed exactly for explaining such behaviors (p. 1194). Nonetheless, we chose not to include TAM in the theoretical framework, because the purpose of this study is not to assess the respondents "acceptance of a technology" or their "perception concerning its usefulness" (p. 1176). What it is interesting to extract and use from the mentioned study, is the reinforcement that examining the consumer behavior online is significant. This is because "technology-related variables have become as important as traditional factors" (p. 1196) in predicting the behavior online.

Information search and online vacation planning has become significant for tourist industry, because the process of tourist information acquisition is eased by the availability of information online. Lake (2001, as referred to in Pan and Fesenmaier, 2006) reveals that more than ninty percent of people surfing the net gather travel – related information or visit tourism webpages when planning their vacation (p. 810). Moreover, observing the immediate reality, we noticed that all the acquaintances, friends, or family members, have online search as their first choice when planning a journey. The information is only one (or several!) click away, and vacation planning online is a part of the overall travel experience. Therefore, the writer of this study has chosen this context to study the gap between intention – behavior in decision to travel.

2.5 Hypotheses

According to Bagozzi & Warshaw (1992), vacationing is an "event-planned goal" that requires planning, in form of information search, online booking, visa application (in some cases), etc. These "instrumental acts", and more precisely the degree of which these are difficult to handle / achieve, are "direct determinants of actual" travel (p. 607). This means that the intention – behavior gap in TRA and TPB leaves room for different unforeseen events to happen, such as a change in momentary mood to travel.

This paper focuses on the following assumption: **"*momentary mood change may possibly intervene in the intention – behavior gap in vacation planning on Internet; and can have either positive or negative effect on people's search behavior and travel intention*".**

Consequently, the following operational null hypotheses will be tested:

H_{0a}: There is no difference in the mean of momentary mood before and after planning the vacation on Internet.

H_{0b}: There is no relationship between momentary mood state and the amounts of time a consumer spend to plan the vacation online.

H_{0c}: There is no relationship between momentary mood and travel intention when planning a vacation online.

H_{0d}: There is no relationship between frustration and momentary mood change in vacation planning on Internet.

H_{0e}: There is no relationship between frustration and the amounts of time spent to plan the vacation online.

H_{0f}: There is no relationship between frustration and travel intention when planning a vacation online.

2.6. Establishing causality

In a causal liaison, the relation between variables can be positive or negative (Cook and Campbell, 1979). A causal proposition implies three conditions to be met: (1) temporal precedence; (2) constant conjunction; (3) contiguity between presumed cause and effect (pp. 9- 19). In this study, momentary mood change is presumed to be the cause that pulls a shift in intention to travel, thus purchase of journey. Momentary mood change comes first, and the effect arises after. Therefore, the condition of temporal precedence is met. Constant conjunction assess wether the relation between variables is a mutual causal relationship. That means that a discrepancy in the intention – behavior gap arise whenever a change in mood occurs, during the decision making process. Contiguity between cause and effect refers to the proximity of constructs in place or time (OED, 2012c). To establish if this condition is met, one should run a cross-sectional research, to see if the cause came first, or the effect. Regrettably, the experimenter omitted this aspect when developing the measurement instrument.

Causal inference in this study is based on presumption that if one experiences no change on the momentary mood during vacation planing on Internet, one does not change its intention to travel, and will act on this intention, purchasing the journey or not. Sobel (1995) suggests that one cannot examine the effect of manipulated variable in a distinct occurrence unless one takes into account assumptions that are not verifiable.

This is because the information needed to contradict the opposite of presumed causal relationship is not always available (p. 17).

Chapter 3. Methods

3.1 Research design

The writer employs a single stage between – subjects experimental design (Keppel, 1991; Creswell, 1994; Vaus, 2002) to collect data on self-perceived and behavioral measures (Metcalf et al., 1996). This is a pure experiment, as "subjects are assigned randomly to the treatment" (Creswell, 1994, p. 130). Data collected through an experiment in laboratory settings provides "closed-ended information" (Creswell et al, 2007, p. 6). The experiment is used to test for a causal relationship between momentary mood change and intention to travel, in a current time frame. Scores are statistically analyzed. Trafimow (2004) underlines the need for running an experiment when adding a new variable in measuring the relationship between intention – behavior, because it provides a more valid methodology. Gerrards-Hesse, Spies and Hesse (1994) seconds the need for using an experiment in laboratory settings when researching on "varying mood states" (p. 56), and finds this method as the most exact one. Although it may seem easier to just conduct a qualitative study for this research project, interviewing some respondents face to face, easiness should not override the choice of research design - Trafimow states (p. 528).

There were merged a couple of qualitative and quantitative studies. The results obtained from embedding data delineate a broader representation of the research problem (Creswell et al, 2007, pp. 6-7). The following qualitative studies were used: literature searching, pre-testing of the experiment, and open interview after the experiment. The

literature review was presented in chapter 2, indicating the direction of the research, in a deductive manner (Creswell, 1994).

The pre-testing of the experiment was used to get concrete information of how easy the instrument is to comprehend, in terms of language and task difficulty. First, one student was asked to read the questions, without seeing the answer scales, and to give feedback on how readable the questions were, and where the student thought it belongs into the question (Øgaard, 2011), and if the wording was appropriate, and not too academic. Further, few random students were asked to run the experiment, assessing the items in terms of readability, clarity and the degree of understanding the content (Um and Crompton, 1990). The content validity was double checked with three scholars with long experience in the field. Two of the items scales on feedback section were deleted, based on their face validity, and one was reformulated. One more item was added to check for manipulation and a new sub-section was added in feedback section. The ending points of Likert-scale were re-assigned to achieve similarly, maintain consistency, and enhance reliability of the measurements. Data collected in the pretesting phase was used to pretest internal reliability, calculating Cronbach alpha coefficient for each construct (Cronbach, 1951; Churchill Jr, 1979, Shu and Chuang, 2011). According to Nunally (1967, cited in Churchill, 1979) accepted Chronbach alpha scores for basic research are $\alpha > 0.5$ (p. 68). Scales that scored $\alpha < 0.5$ were revised. We deleted few items and recalculate Cronbach alpha to improve reliability.

The main empirical study is quantitative. We conducted an experiment in laboratory settings to examine the causal proposition, using a deliberate manipulation that simulated real experiences (Cook and Campbell, 1979).

The following design notation depicts the intended experimental design (Figure 4). This was designed based on Bryman and Cramer (2009), Neuman (2011) and Øgaard (2011). This illustrates how the experiment is intended to be conducted on the group of participants, and the control group.

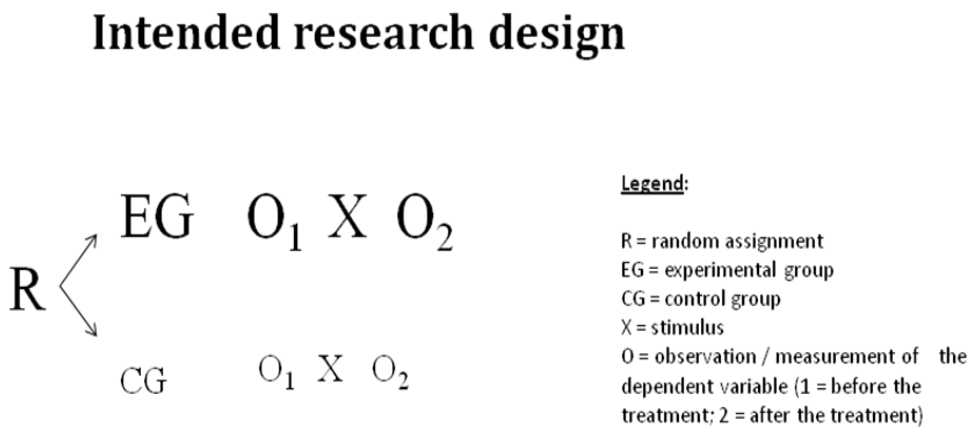

Figure 4: Design notation for planned research design.
Based on Neuman (2011); Øgaard (2011).

The experiment aims to produce knowledge wether manipulating momentary mood generates an outcome (McMillan and Schumacher, 1989, as referred to in Creswell, 1994), in form of an alteration of travel intention and search behavior in vacation planning online.

After the experiment was completed, few of the respondents were invited to informal conversation (open interviews) about the topics in the experiment (Norman, 2011, p. 285). This gave participants the chance to answer in their own manner, instead of just choosing one of the given options in the survey. This method provides the research with open-ended information (Creswell et al, 2007).

The overall goal of using multiple studies is to "attempt to reduce the number of alternative explanations both theoretical and methodological" (Ellsworth & Gonzalez, 2010, p. 25). The configuration of the findings will be determined by assessing their interaction with the research problem. This method is comprehensive and leaves less room for errors (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007).

3.1.1 Research design validity

Research design validity refers to the fit between the "mental pictures of the idea" and operationalization (Neuman, 2009). In other words, validity is concerned with measuring what we intend to measure (Øgaard, Personal communication, 2011). Churchill Jr (1979) advises marketers to achieve high validity of measurements, in order to enhance the significance of the findings (p. 64). The validity is high when observed scores are as close as possible to the true scores - Churchill Jr. mentions. Errors between the observed scores and the true scores can be systematic or random (pp. 65 - 66).

Internal validity

Experiments have a high ability to determine the cause - effect relations, thus to present high internal validity (Ellsworth & Gonzalez, 2003). The experiment in laboratory settings locks out disturbing elements, and provides the researcher with "complete control of the exposure time" respondents used planning the vacation online (Kaplanidou and Vogt, 2006, p. 214). Hull IV & Michael (1994), however, consider that studying leisure in laboratory settings might "create and artificial context" and "overwhelm subtle mood states associated with leisure (p. 4). More on this aspect is available in discussion chapter, based on the results of the experiment.

Threats to internal validity

Threats to internal validity refer to how robust the model is against other elements. According to Neuman (2011, pp.294 - 297), confounding variables are threatening the internal validity. The author mentions 12 artifacts that can hazard an experiment:

Selection bias is given by the randomization effectiveness. In this study randomization was successful, because the participants were all students and stuff from UiS, thus had the same background. The experiment was conducted only once; therefore, history effect was not a threat. Maturation effect was also not present, since the time participants spent on the experiment was short. It was no time for the units within the experiment to change. The testing effect was less likely to threaten the experiment, because the researcher did not invite subjects that run the pretest to the actual experiment also. Therefore, they were not a part of the experimental group, nor of the control group, consequently what they learned in the pretest could not affect the actual test.

Furthermore, instrumentation threat was also not in place, because the change in dependent variable was not measure using a physical instrument. None of the respondents left the computer laboratory during the experiment; therefore, experimental mortality did not arise. The statistically regression effect was difficult to assess at this stage, but we assume that respondents scored quite high on travel intention because it is normal for students and university staff members to have a three weeks holiday in the summer and travel.

The diffusion of treatment could not be completely avoided. Although respondents from experimental group had no connection with respondents from the control group, data collection took place in more than one day (see Appendix 2).

Students that participated to the experiment first might have dispersed information about it to their classmates. Therefore, share of information about the treatment was possible, and we consider diffusion of treatment to be a threat to internal validity. The compensatory behavior was, however, eliminated because the experimental group has no knowledge that a control group exists and that they get to answer the experiment at home, at their own leisure.

Experimenter expectancy, on the other hand, might have been a threat to internal validity. This is due to the fact that one participant asked during the experiment if it is required that they write down the findings of the task in section. The experimenter mentioned that this was not that significant, and this might have generated thoughts in the respondents mind about what was actually the experimenter looking for. Consequently, participants mindset might have disconnect for a little while from the experiment itself.

The observers employed for the experiment did not have knowledge about the hypothesis, or the treatment. They were only instructed to observe certain behavior of participants and report it on the given paper sheet (see Appendix 3). The experimenter, even though it was present in the room of the experiment and had contact with participants, it did not reveal the real purpose of the research to those. The subjects did not know what the experiment really aimed for, and could not process such information. Therefore, we tend to believe that a double-blind experiment was achieved, having control over the experimenter expectancy threat.

Last, but not least, it is less possible that demand characteristics and placebo effect were threats to internal validity. The first one was avoided because participants did not pick – up clues about what the researcher was looking for. This was evident in the open interviews

that we took after the experiment. The second one was avoided because no empty stimulus was administrated to the participants (Neuman, 2011, pp.294 – 297).

External validity

This research project studies the response people have on frustration and not the construct of frustration in itself; or its formation. The frustration was chose as the mechanism to explain the mood change, because we are not interested in the average of frustration as a state of being of the population. The results from the quantitative study could be applied to a larger population, because we were looking at the process of responding to frustration, and to the correlation of this construct to the other variables. Even though realized sample was not that large, students are recognized to represent people, as they often times are used in empirical studies. It is assumed that students react to frustration as any other person from population would do, even though students did not represent all other social classes of people. We also used employees from the university, and this diversified the sample. These are also assumed to respond to frustration as other people would do (Øgaard, 2011). .

3.2 Sampling and allocation

Description

The population is non-stratified randomly selected (Creswell, 1994). The intended sample is a systematic random sample (Babie, 1990; Wright and London, 2009) that entails people who have intentions to travel upon upcoming summer holiday and plan their vacation online. The initial idea was to ask people to complete the experiment at home, aiming to capture the phenomenon in real conditions.

The thought was to hand out the questionnaire to one random person and then to use a snowball effect to further recruit people to the experiment, by asking each respondent to recommend someone else. Unfortunately, this method was not in accordance to experimental design requirements, because the researcher would have had no control over disturbing elements that may occur, or over the time spent and the accuracy of respondents' participation.

Therefore, data was collected placing the participants into conditions that are manipulated, in laboratory settings. These allocated conditions (Wright and London, 2009) were chosen, because they gave the researcher more control over the time spent to complete the experiment and the interruptive elements were locked out. The extent to which the researcher had control over these factors was moderate. The survey is cross-sectional and it was administrated in person to each subject that participates to the experiment (Creswell, 1994). We used one large group of participants in the laboratory settings $n = 82$, and a control group, $n = 5$. The control group is of small size and participants completed the experiment at home, in own environment, at their own leisure. The control group was not exposed to the treatment (Pallant, 2007). The dependent variables (travel intention and search behavior) were measured only once and the pretest is considered a pilot test of the experiment (Neuman, 2011, pp. 284 – 294).

The sample is recruited from within students and staff from UiS, as well as friends and acquaintances, randomly (Wright and London, 2009, pp. 57 - 58). Invitation to participate to the experiment was sent via e-mail and a social event was created on Facebook, to invite people.

Suitable sample size

The size of the sample establishes the statistical power of the test (Baggio and Klobas, 2011, p. 29). The population size for this researched phenomenon was not easy to estimate. The population is everyone who has an intention to travel and sits down by a computer to plan the vacation online. The sample size was calculated based on the assumptions that there is a normal distribution of the variance of the population, at a precision level of plus / minus five percent and a level of significance of 95 percent. It is required to use standard deviation value to calculate the size of needed sample. Bartlett II, Kotrlik and Higgings (2001) advice that in case of using a 7-point scale to measure a continuous variable, the investigator should decide which variable to use for determining the sample size, or to use error estimation (p. 44). This indicates the size of error margin that is acceptable.

The following formula is used to determine the desired sample size.

$$n = \left(\frac{S}{P}\right)^2 \cdot V^2 \qquad (1)\ (\text{Ø}\text{gaard, 2011})$$

S = the significance in the standard deviation. This is 1.96 for population greater than 120 (Bartlett II, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001).

P = precision in rapport to the average. This is the degree of accuracy that we allow, which for this study we choose 95 %, meaning accepted error margin is 5%. This level of precision corresponds to the above standard deviation (Øgaard, 2011).

V = coefficient of variation. This is a predetermined number in normal distribution: 1/3 (Øgaard, 2011).

$n= (1.96 / 0.05)^2 \times (1/3)^2$

$n = 1{,}536.64 \times 0.11$

$n = 170.73607 \Rightarrow$ **n = 171**

Given the results of Equation 1, the intended sample should contain 171 participants. Hesse - Biber (2010), however, states that recommended minimum sample size for experimental analysis is "21 participants per group for one-tailed hypotheses", and "82 participants for two-tailed hypotheses", in case of correlation analysis (p. 53). We aimed for a minimum of 85 participants, and an ideal of 175.

3.3 Measurements

In this chapter, we present how the measurements for this study were conducted.

3.3.1 The instrument

The instrument is self-designed (Creswell, 1994; Neuman, 2011), being entirely created by the writer of this study. The items in the questionnaire aim to reflect the cognitive model, and to measure the relationship between the variables. The questions are anchored into literature. The questionnaire is structured and pre-coded. This assures that questionnaire is controlled by the researcher. The questions are organized in logical and sequential order (Baggio and Klobas, 2011).

The instrument was designed in English (see Appendix 4a and 4b). A Norwegian version was also provided for participants that did not feel comfortable using the English version (see Appendix 4c and 4d). The translated instrument was double-checked by Bjørn Hagen Aakre, Web Developer at Region Stavanger BA and UiS Alumni, to enhance the accuracy of translation, because the experimenter has neither English nor Norwegian as native language.

The instrument was designed in two versions: one for inducement of sad mood, and one for inducement of happy mood. Both versions are similar, besides the inducement statements that were given a negative or positive note, based on previous studies (see instrument validation, chapter 3 para 3.2). The instrument was accompained by a cover letter, where the subjects were introduced to the purpose of their participation. The instrument was divided in few sections. In Section 1 we identified the individual circumstance of each respondent, in terms of travel experience, online information search skills, upcoming travel intentions and perceived momentary mood status. Section 2 comprises the task required to be completed online. The post-task questions from Section 3 aimed to identify participants' self-awareness of the momentary mood and to check the manipulation inducement procedure. Respondents provided feedback about the difficulty of the task; self-assess their personality and map the demographics (Section 3 & 4 in the instrument).

Mood state (sad and happy) was induced through happy / sad statements. Mood induction procedure is based on previous scientific studies (Velten, 1968, Teasdale & Fogarty, 1979 and Thomas & Diener, 1990). Frustration was used as the mechanism to explain momentary mood change. Subjects were asked to use only www.google.com as a search engine, and to start their vacation planning using the following words "travel to Australia". Google is commonly known as the most used interface and search engine. Further, the respondents were asked to proceed solving the task by using only the options that resulted from this action. Limiting searching alternatives is a manipulation method that aims to restrict subjects from using other online search alternatives, creating an internal conflict, thus, frustration. Lawson (1965) sees frustration as a barrier that jamms a response that assists achieveing a goal; and this is why we chose to create this difficulty in the test.

The questions and tasks were formulated in a manner that endeavors to avoid incorrect argumentation in logic and rhetoric, so the respondents have no difficulties in understanding these as intended (Øgaard, 2011). Unless anything else stated, the instrument has items with 7-point Likert scale. The lower ending point is 1 (one), and represents the absolute negative answer (such as: very seldom, not likely to, never, totally disagree, etc). The highest ending point is 7 (seven) and reflects the absolute positive answer (such as very often, likely to, always, totally agree, etc). The researcher was mostly interested in the variance within the answers, because where there is a variance in responses, there is a reason, therefore an explanation for it. Such explanations gave ground for discussions, analysis, and recommendations. The measured items aimed to entail the true value and errors (Øgaard, 2011). Sources of error are presented later, in chapter 3 para 3.3., Instrument weknesses.

The indicators cover various aspects of the concepts. For example, for 'travel intention' were formulated three questions: (1) to identify self-reported travel intentions; (2) to cover the attitude towards travel intention; and (3) to cover the subjective norms. The response alternatives provided to choose among are exhaustive, mutually exclusive and useful. The questions in the questionnaire are closed-ended and in standard format, targeting to reflect / explain the cognitive model, and are mainly based on previous studies. The questions were not double barreled, not biased and did not take side. Furthermore, the questionnaire design was not ambiguous, and presents no implied presumptions (Øgaard, 2011).

The development of a measurement instrument requires purification of the items, assessment of their reliability and validity (Churchill Jr, 1979). Trail and James (2002) suggest ascertain the scale of an instrument in terms of reliability and validity, prior using it.

3.3.2 Instrument validation

Reliability

Measurement reliability refers to its consistency over time, observers or instruments used (Ellsworth & Gonzalez, 2003; Creswell and Plano Clarck, 2007). The consistency of this instrument is not tested over time, because respondents were invited to complete the experiment only once. This is due to restricted time one has for this project, scarce resources and low willingness students had in attending data collection (for attendance rate see Appendix 3). To assess the reliability of this instrument over time, the same participants should have been invited to repeat the experiment under "identical of very similar conditions" (Neuman, 2011, p. 208).

In case anyone is interested in replicate this study, it is advisable that the experiment is run more than once, using the same respondents, and in identical conditions. This creates the opportunity to identify the observed score of reliability on the test, and consequently estimate the variance of the true score and unsystematic errors of measurement. Should the results of measuring reliability be closed to 1.00, then the reliability is close to perfect; and if the result is close to 0.00, the reliability is not present (Aiken, 1999, p. 72). Ellsworth and Gonzalez, however, mention that consistency over time is less relevant in social psychological research, and one should focus on consistency over observers and instrument used (p. 35).

Consistency over observers was achieved, because the researcher used the same observers, and those were instructed thoroughly prior the experiment. The same observers were used to avoid bias in understanding their task, or in the interpretation of it. Consistency over items (in the instrument) was calculated using alpha coefficient (Churchill Jr, 1979, p.

68). The coefficient alpha was calculated for each dimension of the items, and the total score of summing up these values provided alpha coefficient for the construct (Churchill Jr, p. 69). Initially, the reliability of the constructs ranged between α = .511 - .897 (Table 5, Appendix 7). Pallant (2007) suggests that Cronbach's Alpha values above .7 are acceptable, although values higher than .8 are desirable. Nunnally (1967, as referred in Churchill Jr., 1979), however, recognizes as acceptable values above .5, when the research is basic. We decided to consider values above .05 as acceptable. We deleted items that had low correlation with other items, were repetitive or had not proper support on previous research. As a result, the reliability of the instrument has increased. Cronbach alpha of revised scale ranges between α = .652 - .907 (Table 6, Appendix 7).

This means that the instrument performs quite successfully in capturing the constructs, and reliability is within accepted values. The answers are rather closed to the true answers, and the error margin is not that high, which means the results are quite truthful (Churchill Jr., 1979, p. 68). We will use these values because we are not going to compare our results with other studies, as this scale has not been used before (Pallant, 2007). Items deleted to improve reliability will not be used as basis for discussions.

The reliability of this instrument is reported only to this study, and should not be generalized. If this instrument will be used in another context, its reliability is not valid in that context. For example, the scales that asked respondents to self-rate their level of frustration, or their momentary mood on a seven-point scale, are meant to be a direct measure of these variables only, and cannot be applied to measure related constructs. Test – retest reliability of constructs was not computed because we did not gather repeated measures of the variables (Bagozzi and Warshaw, 1990, p. 135).

Validity

Validity of the instrument is concerned with how correct the indicators are for the purpose of this research. Neuman (2011) points out that validating an instrument means checking "how well the conceptual and operational definitions mesh with one other" (p. 211).

Internal validity (internationalization)

The most significant questions in the instrument are formulated in accordance to previously validated studies (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Keller & Staelin, 1987; Um & Crampton, 1990; Engvik, 1993a, b; Cheng et al., 1999; Ambady & Gray, 2002; Gursoy and McCleary, 2004; Lehto, O'Leary and Morrison, 2004; Pan & Fesenmaier, 2006 and Xiang and Gretzel, 2009). The mood induction procedure have also been validated in the past and used by other researchers (Velten, 1968; Isen & Levin, 1972; Dribben & Brabender, 1979, Teasdale & Fogarty, 1979 and Thomas & Diener, 1990). Furthermore, the mood induction procedure was confirmed through compiling self - reported mood assessments on the questionnaire with behavior observation obtained from employing the independent observers. These two manipulation assessment methods were used together to confirm that mood state induction has happen as intended (Poon, 2001).

The instrument used for this study has a high internal validity. The experiment was conducted in laboratory settings. The differences observed among the participants (observed frustration) are assumed to be due to the treatment, as any other disturbing elements have been locked out. Participants were not permitted to communicate with each other, to interrupt themselves during the experiment, to use mobile phones or other devices that could perturb their attention from the experiment.

A high level of internal validity can be confirmed if the differences observed by the independent observers coincide with perceived frustration that is self-reported by the participants in the instrument. Respondents were required to assess their frustration degree. On each participant desk was placed a number, and observers were able to link their observations with the participant in case (Appendix 6). In this way, the experimenter was able to evaluate and report if observed frustration and perceived frustration corresponded (Appendix 9). The results of this observation are presented in section 4.3 Results, sub-section *Measurement of frustration.*

External validity

The decision of using students and staff from UiS makes impossible to assess if the results of this study will replicate to another settings, using other sample (Ellsworth and Gonzalez, 2003). Nevertheless, as we mentioned earlier in subchapter 3.1.1, students and staff at UiS are recognized to represent people.

Face validity

When pretesting the instrument, few random individuals were asked to review the questions in the instrument before this was set out to the world. The feedback indicated that questions were clearly worded and easy to understand. None of the questions were double barreled, and the wording was not bias or negative sided (Øgaard, 2011). The language was easy to understand, and the accuracy of translation brought no confusion. Only two participants asked for extra explanations on one question during the experiment. This means a percentage of 2.44 of the total number of participants in the experimental group.

Criterion validity

Criterion validity is concerned with relating the scores with a previous standard measurement of the construct that is similar (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Unfortunately, the experimenter did not identify a similar instrument, while conducting literature review. The fact that most of the questions are based on previous studies and / or instruments used to measure mood, however, weights against reaching the criterion validity.

Construct validity

Construct validity assesses consistency of indicators within concepts. Neuman (2011, p. 213) points out the need for examining convergent and discriminant validity to see if indicators 'drive' in the same direction or not, and to which degree "the constructs were unique" (Trail and James, 2001, p. 118). For example, the concept of mood was assessed with seven indicators before treatment: items 13 to 19; and 6 indicators after the treatment: items 24, 25a, 25c, 25d and 25e.

Confirmatory factor analysis has been previously used to investigate for convergent and discriminant validity of the variables (Langdridge, Sheeran and Conolly, 2007). Ellsworth & Gonzalez (2003) suggests testing if constructs are distinguishable for demonstrating discriminant validity. The instrument was subjected to factor analysis (FA) using SPSS version 15 (Pallant, 2007). The appropriateness of the data was assessed to see if FA is a suitable method to run for testing validity. We made sure that there is no problem of nonnormality (Dong, Liu and Ding, 2012). Skewness recorded values smaller than 3.0 and kurtosis values no higher than 10, as recommended by Kline (1998, cited in Dong, Liu and Ding, 2011, p. 2011).

The results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity ranging between KMO = .522 - .832 ($p < 0.0001$) provided the foundation for the analysis (Hutcheson and Sofroniou, 1999, pp. 224 – 225; Gorsuch, 1983).

To evaluate validity, the researcher used Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of items in the scale. Items that had low factor loadings, low level of variance explained, or were too specific were dropped. Most constructs turned out to be unidimensional with loadings greater than .55, except items 4 and 9. Loading factors of revised scale are presented in table 7.

The results of reliability check indicate that constructs are unidimensional, have accepted values of Cronbach alpha coefficient $\alpha > .5$ (Nunally, 1967, as referred in Churchill Jr., 1979). The results demonstrate that the scale items have good convergent and discriminant validity. Repetead factor analysis and reliability check were run; for a comprehensive overview of instrument validation process and results see Appendix 8.

Having said that, we demonstrated the four pieces of instrument validation evidence: (1) Internationalization – the items are valid because they are based on previous studies; (2) Reliability – all items have acceptable α values; (3) discriminant and convergent validity – see above factor analysis; and (4) Face validity – pretested instrument with feedback on content, language, meaning, and understanding of the isntrument.

Table 7

Factor loadings revised scale

Item nr.	Constructs / items	KMO	Factor Loadings β	Variance explained
1	**Search behavior**	.522		
2	Self reported travel experience		.888	61 %
3	Often leisure travel		.914	30 %
4	Travel planning habits leisure		.434	9 %
	Travel intention	.637		
5	Social expectations on travel		.551	45 %
6	Upcoming travel intentions before treatment		.801	18 %
7	Attitude towards upcoming travel before treatment		.759	16 %
8	Subjective norms upcoming travel before treatment		.742	12 %
9	Upcoming travel intentions after treatment		.437	9 %
	Momentary mood	.832		
10	*Mood at start*			
11	Momentary moody		.742	68 %
12	Things work		.730	15 %
13	Experiencing ups and downs		.908	6 %
14	Accomplishments in life		.847	5 %
15	Currently frustrated		.855	4 %
16	Feeling good		.862	2 %
	Mood at end			
17	Annoyed		.862	64 %
18	Post task frustration		.805	18 %
19	Time wasted		.743	12 %
20	Mood changed		.772	6 %
	Changed mood			
21	Average mood before task		.739	55 %
22	Average mood after task		.739	45 %
	Frustration	.677		
	Self-reported			
23	Frustrated based on task		.848	67 %
24	Frustration during task		.843	19 %
25	Boredom during task		.768	13 %

3.3.3 Instrument weaknesses

The following weakness of the instrument was acknowledge during data implementation. Face validity of Question number 29 would increase if it was formulated differently:

What was the reason for which you stop your online search for the given task?

Most people marked the task as completed, although they mentioned that they are not certain over the price being the cheapest. This is a contradiction! When one is not certain that the goal is achieved then the task is yet not completed – pure logic! Therefore, if question 29 would have been formulated as mentioned above, the alternative answer picked by respondents would have better explained the real reason of stopping the search.

A possible source of error for the responses could be resopndents level of distraction. Some of the students were recruted to participate to the experiment during their lecture. Perhaps some of them where not completely focused on the task, and did not give 100% of their attention to the experiment. Another source of error can be given by the restriction of starting the online search by using www.google.com only. In the conversational interviews conducted after the experiment, a couple of participants expressed their wish to have approached the task differently. Perhaps the time spent would have returned other results if respondents were given the freedom of accessing all sorts of search enginges. Unfortunatelly this was not possible, because we would have lessened the level of our control over the experiment.

Another weakness of the instrument is the fact that neutral mood state was not taken into consideration. Sirakaya et al. (2004) suggest that neutral mood is prefferend in consumer

behavior studies. The authors menitons that unbias ratings can be obtained if the moderating effects are controlled (p. 533).

Products purchase online are non-tangible. Sirakaya et al. (2004) argue that lower mood generates lower agreement in product evaluation. The task in the experiment was of complex and demanding nature, as it asked participants to plan an itinerary for two to Australia at cheapest rate. According to Averill (1973), self-perceived degree of decisional control – choice – arises when a person does what it consents to. Respondents agreed to participate to the experiment. However, they were not asked to agree with the task, but requested to complete it. Perhaps this situation also generated a change in mood at some extend, which the experimented omitted to consider apriori.

Last, but not least, the instrument was not tested over time using the same students in similar conditions, thus its reliability has accepteable values only for this study, as previously mentioned.

Chapter 4. Implementation and results

In this chapter we explain how data collection actually happened, what is the realized sample, what was the procedure, and what results did we get.

4.1 Realized sample

Subjects were invited to participate to the experiment by sending out a formal invitation (see Appendix 6). A statistical overview of participation is presented in Appendix 2. Out of 1205 people that received the invitation, only a number of 86 people attended the experiment. One contribution has been declared invalid, because the participant was observed to complete the feedback section prior completing the task of planning a vacation online.

Three of the respondents did not answer all the questions in the questionnaire, therefore we have missing values = 3..

Realized sample for experimental group is n = 82. The participants to the experiment are mainly students and staff members at UiS. Participation rate is low at a rate of 6.8 per cent. A detailed profile of respondents is presented in Results, chapter 4.3. Realized sample for control group is *n* = 5. Participants are employees in different institutions. These were invited to participate using snowball effect. Details on respective profile are available in Results control group, chapter 4. para 4.

Strengths and weaknesses of realised sample

A significant strength of this sample is that students and employees are often used in empirically studies, thus recognized by the scholars as representative members of the population. Furthermore, it is obvious that these have strong intention to travel during upcoming summer holiday. Students had worked hard during the school year with assignments, exams and part-time jobs, and perceive summer holiday as a well deserved reward. Employees at UiS usually have a three weeks holiday, and most of them spend the summer outside Stavanger. If the sample would have been chosen from retired people, for example, than the intention to travel the upcoming summer holiday might not have been as strong. People that enjoy their retirement time can travel at any time.

One of the weaknesses of this sample lies in its homogeneousness (Fodness, 1994). The majority of the respondents are students at University of Stavanger. This can be a threat, because homogeneousness might restrict diversity of the results. Besides, students are more experienced in using online search engines.

The respondents were asked to only use google, because it is assumed that google might be the first choice for a random consumer. Unfortunately, neither the author of this study, nor the independent respondents were able to observe each participant correct compliance to this request. We would not imply that participants did not follow the instructions accordingly, but we would not exclude the possibility that due to frustration experienced as their search options were restricted, some of the respondents did not proceed to using a comparative search engine, such as www.kelkoo.com, to identify the cheapest prices, and complete the task faster.

Another weakness might be the fact that control group is not formed of students and staff from UiS, but employees from other institution. It is possible that participants from control group have different paradigms regarding vacation planning online, intention to travel, and willingness to spend time on such task. We should have probably used students and staff from UiS for control group as well, to have a roughly match of participants.

4.2 Procedure

The experimental group took the test in the computer lab, to isolate the respondents from other disturbing elements (Jensen, personal communication, 16 February 2012), to avoid influences from the measurement process (Øgaard, 2011) and to control that the time declared as spent on the task is real.

During the experiment, independent observers were present for observation of behavior, thus manipulation check (Poon, 2001). These were two master students from UiS (classmates), one master student studying psychology at University of Tromsø, and one PhD student from University of Stavanger. The observers were provided observant sheets (see Appendix 3), and were carefully instructed on their tasks: (1) to observe and take note if the

participants seem frustrated, (2) to note if respondents ask for help in solving the task or get interrupted. Observants annotations are useful to compare self - reported frustration with observed frustration, thus cover the measurement of frustration entirely.

Two questions were inserted in the instrument to assess what is participants' perception on the experimental treatment (Creswell, 1994). The instructions for the experiment were read with neutral voice to not influence participants mood prior commencing the experiment. One of the observers read the instructions to avoid that personal implication of the researcher would reflect in this process and influence participants' mood (Velten, 1968; Swinyard, 1993).

Happy and sad versions of the instrument were randomly distributed to the respondents, which were hopefully roughly matched for education, gender and age. The researcher set-up the computer lab before the respondents arrived and placed one "happy mood instrument" followed by a "sad mood instrument" and so on, on the desks. Participants were given a participation number to keep their identity anonymous; and to be able to link observed and self - perceived frustration (see Appendix 6).

4.3 Results experimental group

The results from experimental group are based on data compilation using SPSS version 15 (Pallant, 2007).

Demographic profile of respondents

Descriptive statistics of the realized sample for the experimental group (Appendix 10) indicates that 51 are female respondents (62.2 per cent) and 30 are males (36.6 per cent), giving a total of 82 participants. One respondent did not state its gender (Figure 4.1).

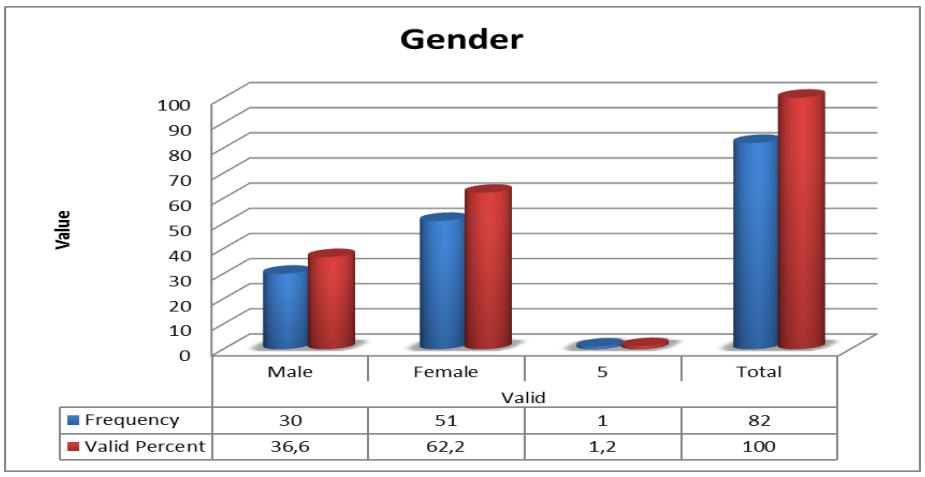

Figure 5. Representation of gender frequency

Most respondents (n = 58) were of age interval 19 - 29. This gives a valid percentage of 70.7 % participants of young age. The percentage of 11 % of the sample fell into the age category of 30-39, 6.1% percentage in age range 40-49, 7.3 % were of age between 50-59, and 3.7 % were of age 60 and above. Only one participant was under age of 19 years old, which means a valid percent of 1.2 % of the total (Figure 4.2).

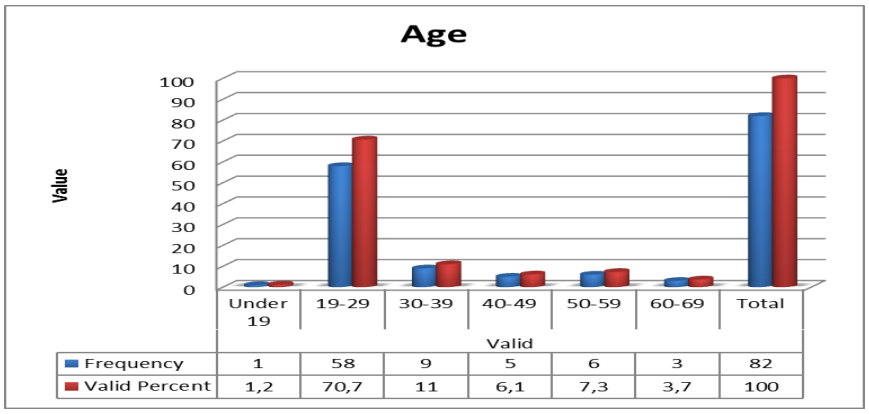

Figure 6. Representation of age frequency

The majority of respondents were from Scandinavia (n = 56) with a valid participation percent of 68.3 per cent. Nearly ten percent of participants were from Western Europe and Africa (n = 8 in both cases); nearly four percent were from Eastern Europe and Asia (n = 3 in

both cases), one respondent was from Oceania and one from South America, which represents a valid percent of 1.2 per cent in both cases (Figure 4.3).

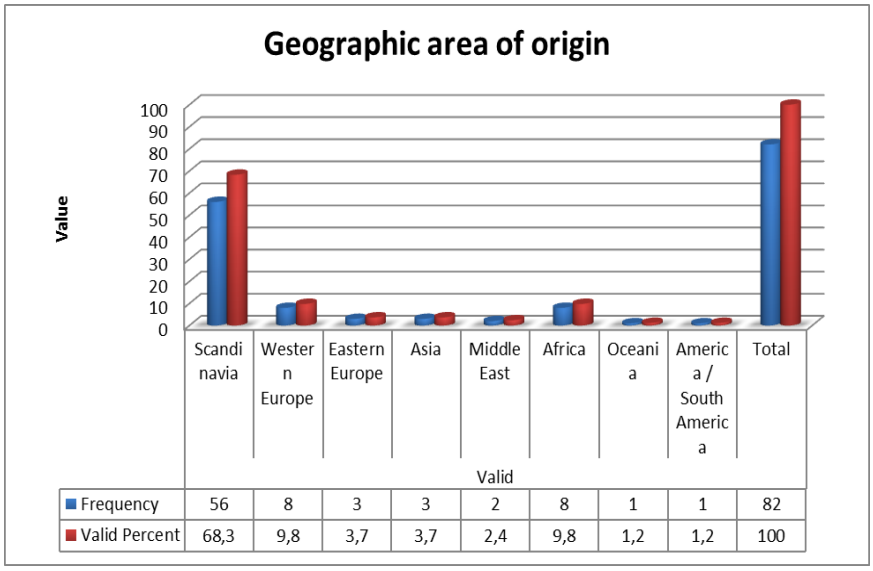

Figure 7. Representation of geographical area of origin frequency

Approximately 62 per cent of the respondents were students at UiS (n = 62), and 3.7 per cent were students from other universities (n = 3). A number of 17 participants were staff members at UiS, that menas a valid percent of 20.7 per cent (Figure 4.4).

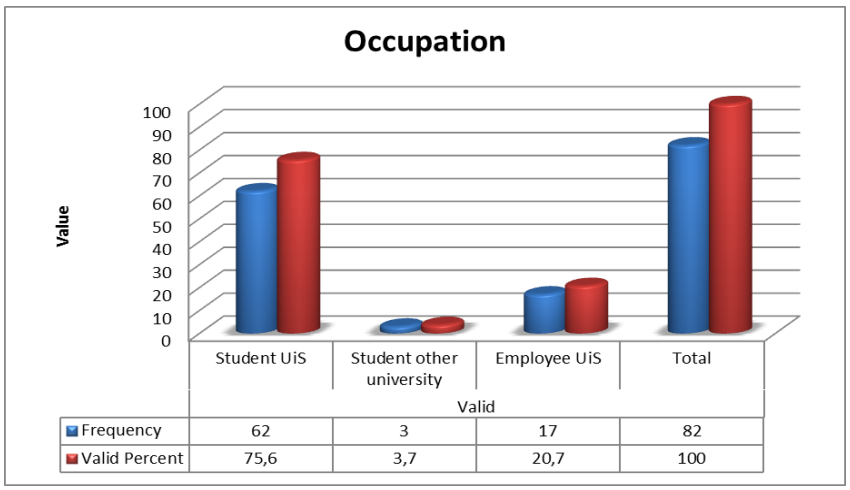

Figure 8. Representation of occupation frequency

Descriptive statistics of measurement scales

All the questionnaires used for the analysis of experimental group (n = 82) were complete and none had the same answer for all questions. No duplicated submissions were detected (Shu and Chuang, 2011). This was possible to check because participants were asked to note their phone number / email address on a small piece of paper for the lottery drawing. After the drawing was taken, we could check that we did not have a double participation.

The statistical evaluation of the instrument was completed using SPSS (Johannessen, 2007; Pallant, 2007; Hammervold, 2012). Results of the initial measurement scales are available in Table 12, Appendix 10. The statistics presented in Table 13 illustrate the revised measurement scale, which was validated in the previous chapter (also available in Appendix 10).

Measurements harmony

All of the items measuring search behavior and travel intention recorded a mean value above the midpoint ($\bar{x} > 4.0$), which means that participants were in agreement with the statements. Among the six items for measuring momentary before treatment, 67 percent of the items recorded a mean value above the midpoint, and 33 percent a value bellow the midpoint ($M < 4.0$). Furthermore, all four items measuring momentary mood after treatment recorded a much lower mean, which is considerably bellow midpoint. This means that participants did not agree with the statements used to measure momentary mood before and after the treatment (Huang and Hsu, 2009).

Perceived frustration was measured through self-reported statements of frustration before and after task. Surprisingly, the mean value of self-reported frustration after task $M =$

2.743 is significantly lower than the mean value of self-reported frustration before task *M* = 4.049, although the mean value of self-reported frustration during task is *M* =3.72 (Appendix 9). This suggests that frustration level decreased gradually during this experiment. In less than half of the cases (n = 39), there is a match between observed frustration and self-reported frustration Mean of variance for perceived frustration is *M* = -1. 30. The number of mismatched observations (n = 43) represents 52.4 percent of participants. A number of 20 participants (24.3 percent) reported increased level of frustration based on task completition; eight participants (8.9 percent) reported no change of frustration level; and the rest of 54 participants (66, 8 percent) reported a lower level of frustration after task (2009).

The statistical mean of the time spent (*M* = 3.54) on solving the task just bellow the midtpoint of the scale. The respondents were asked to state the time at which they commenced and ended the search for the vacation planning. The researcher then calculated the amount of time spent per individual, and created the following 7-items Likert scale for the values, to be able to insert the results in SPSS in a consistent manner with the rest of the instrument:

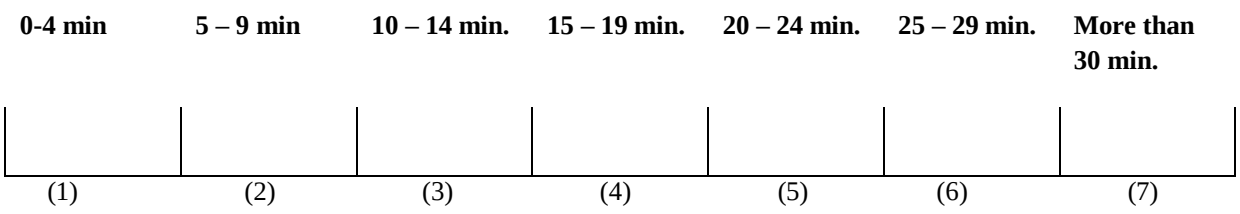

Figure 10. Time spent in 7- item Likert scale format.

Translated into real minutes, based on the Likert skale above, it means that respondents spent between 10 – 14 minutes on the task, in average.

Travel intention construct recorded a bimodal distribution of scores, and the two modes are 7 and 5. Search behavior, momentary mood and frustration recorded a multimodal frequency distribution (Howitt and Cramer, 2005). No major differences are recorded between the mean and the median for all items. The median scores indicate that the distribution of the scores is not "perfectly symmetrical" (p. 23), even though the differences between mean, median and mode scores are not that big. The shape of frequency distribution is left-handed skewed for the following constructs: search behavior, travel intention and mood before treatment. The other concepts present a right-handed skewed frequency distribution. The shallowness of the distribution curve is steep for some items and flat for others, in the revised scale. No items recorded a middling curve (p. 33).

Cognitive interviews

A couple of days after the experiment, few of the participants were engaged in informal conversational interviews. The questions asked were "Did you get frustrated during the experiment?" and "Did frustration change your momentary mood?" The logic thread beyond these questions was (1) to identify if frustration – the mechanism used to explain mood change – was induced during the experiment and generated an outcome, (2) to get a verbal feedback on the mood change phenomenon. The answers confirm that respondents were frustrated at the beginning, mainly because they were restricted to use www.google.com as search engine and to follow the options provided by it regarding the vacation planning:

> *"What annoyed me the most was the overwhelming amount of information, I did not know which one to check first, or how to identify the cheapest. I wish I could use a comparative search engine, like finn.no"* (Female student).

Another participant, on the other hand, experienced frustration increasing during the task, because he could not be certain that he got the cheapest price:

> *"What it is irritating in the real life is that you believe you got the cheapest alternative and purchase the ticket. The day after when you look again just to re-confirm your choice, you discover that a cheaper option was available"* (Male student).

One employee from UiS that participated to the experiment did not let himself influenced by the frustration, because he "*was determined to complete the task to help you out."* (Male employee at UiS).

4.4 Results control group

Demographic profile of respondents

The control group had 3 female respondents (60 per cent of the total) and two males (40 per cent). Three respondents belong to the interval of 20 – 29 of age group, and one to interval 39 – 40 years of age and one to interval 40 - 49. The control group respondents are from Scandinavia (n =4) and Western Europe (n=1) In terms of social status, three are students at UiS, and two employees at other institutions than UiS.

The main purpose of having a control group was to see if participants will spent longer time in planning the vacation (in average) if they are not in the controlled conditions the laboratory settings imply, and complete the task. For those that did not complete the task, we are interested to see if the frustration generated a mood change, thus the outcome. Mean time spent for control group is $\bar{x}$ = 18.8 min (Table 14, Appendix 11).

Cognitive interviews

One of the female participants from the control group repported that "*the amount of information overwhelmed me, and I gave up"*, mentioning that "*it is almost impossible to remember all the prices, and you believe you found the cheapest, but you are not sure"* (Female employee other institution). A male participant from this group, who spent only five minutes to plan the vacation online, declared that "*I looked at the price list and trusted the results"* (Male employee other institution).

Chapter 5. Data analysis

5.1 Analysis of variance

Using SPSS version 15.0, we run one-way between-groups ANOVA analysis to compare the outcome of the intervention, inducement of happy vs sad momentary mood, on some of the variables (Pallant, 2007). Subjects were divided into two groups according to the nature of treatment: Group 1 = happy mood inducement and Group 2 = sad mood inducement (Gerrards-Hesse, Spies and Hesse, 1994). Given the small size of our sample, we also calculated the effect size of the results, using the following formulae:

$$\text{Eta squared} = \frac{\text{Sum of squares between-groups}}{\text{Total sum of squares}} \qquad (2) \quad \text{(p. 247)}$$

Cohen (1988, as refered to in Pallant, 2007) suggests that eta squared values of .01 indicate a small effect; .06 a medium effect and .138 a large effect (p. 208). Thus, the results indicate no statistically significant difference between groups in terms of time spent, momentary mood after treatment, search behavior, travel intention and frustration.

The statistical difference between groups was significant for momentary mood before treatment, with a small effect size (for more details see Appendix 12).

5.2 Correlations of the variables in the cognitive model

In order to explore the relationship among the variables in the cognitive model, Pearson correlation analysis was used. The results are presented in the following table:

Table 15

Pearson Correlations between variables in the cognitive model

		Momentary Mood	Frustration	Travel Intention	Search behavior
Momentary Mood	Pearson Correlation	1	.445**	.062	-.018
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.582	.874
	N	82	82	82	82
Frustration	Pearson Correlation	.445**	1	.067	-.022
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.548	.844
	N	82	82	82	82
Travel Intention	Pearson Correlation	.062	.067	1	.370**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.582	.548		.001
	N	82	82	82	82
Search behavior	Pearson Correlation	-.018	-.022	.370**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.874	.844	.001	
	N	82	82	82	82

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

There was a statistically significant relationship between frustration and momentary mood, but not between frustration and travel intention or search behavior. This means that frustration does not influence directly search behavior as such, or on the travel intention; not even through the momentary mood, because this variable did not record a significant relationship with search behavior and travel intention.

To our surprise, search behavior and travel intention are positively related at statistically significant level. Further assessment of these findings are presented in the discussion chapter.

5.3 Manipulation checks

Momentary mood was manipulated to create the psychological condition of experiencing mood change (Park, Iyer and Smith, 2001). The results indicate that treatment (mood induction) had a significant effect on subjects. Momentary mood before treatment scored a mean $M = 4.11$, $SD = 1.443$, $p < .0005$ and momentary mood after treatment scored a mean $M = 2.85$, $SD = 1.052$, $p < .0005$ for the experimental group as a whole. When divided by inducement mode, the effect of treatment differs from Group 1 (happy) to Group 2 (sad). For more details see Appendix 15.

Besides manipulated thru mood inducement, it is possible that the respondents in the experimental group were indirectly manipulated thru time pressure. These participants were mainly busy students or employees at UiS, thus the actual time spent on completing the experiment may also been determined by time pressure if they were in a rush. Item 29b in the measurement instrument aimed to find out if this is the case (*Had other errands)*. A number of eight participants that did not completed the task reported that other errands as the most suitable reason for which they did not complete the task. This represents 9.56 percent of the experimental group of $n = 82$.

5.4 Hypotheses testing

H_{0a}: Based on the assumption that momentary mood is normally distributed, we run a t-test for paired samples using SPSS version 15.0 (Pallant, 2007), to evaluate the impact of the treatment on the momentary mood. The results indicate a statistically significant decrease in scores. The mean decrease was 1.49 with a 95 percent of confidence interval ranging, from 1.03 to 1.70. The eta squared statistic (.33) suggests a small size effect (Cohen 1988, pp. 284

– 287, as referred to in Pallant, 2007). We conclude that the mean of momentary mood before and after the treatment is different and **reject the first operational null hypothesis H_{0a}.** Given the value of the two sample means (before and after the intervention), we suggest that the momentary mood changes (worstens!) during vacation planning online. More details in Chapter 6 - Discussions.

H_{0b}: The relationship between momentary mood and time spent on the task was investigated using Pearson correlation coefficient, based on the assumption that momentary mood was normally distributed (Pallant, 2007). There was a small negative relationship between the two variables. The worse the momentary mood is, the less time one spends on planning the vacation online. Thus, the second operational null hypothesis **H_{0b} is rejected.** We conclude that momentary mood does have an impact on the time spent to plan a vacation on Internet, even though the strength of the relationship is weak.

H_{0c}: The same analysis was used to investigate the relationship between momentary mood and travel intention, based on the assumption that variables were normally distributed (Pallant, 2007). There was a weak positive correlation between these variables. We decide to **accept the third null hypothesis H_{0c}.** We conclude that momentary mood does not have a significant impact on travel intention, as it only helps to explain less than one percent of the variance in intention to travel.

H_{0d}: Using correlation analysis we identified that there is a medium positive relationship between frustration and manipulated mood (mood change), based on the assumption that the two variables presented a normal distribution (Pallant, 2007). We conclude that frustration does impact directly on the momentary mood when planning the vacation online and **reject this hypothesis**. The more frustrated consumers get when planning the vacation online, the more likely is that their momentary mood will change.

H_{0e}: The relationship between frustration and the time spent on planning the vacation was also investigated using Pearson correlation coefficient, on the premises that variables were normally distributed (Pallant, 2007). There was a medium, negative correlation between frustration and time spent, which suggests that the more frustrated people get, the less time will spend planning the vacation online. Therefore, this operational null hypothesis **is rejected.** We conclude that frustration has a direct negative effect on the time spent online to plan a vacation, accounting for the tenth part of the overall variance.

H_{0f}: Pearson correlation coefficient analysis used to determine the direction and strength of the relationship between frustration and travel intention in vacation planning was based on the assumption that variables are normally distributed (Pallant, 2007). There was identified a small positive relationship between the variables that did not reach statistical significance. We chose not to reject this null operational hypothesis**.** The sample size is too small to defend the statistical significance. In conclusion, **H0f is accepted** and we suggest that frustration does not have a direct impact on intention to travel when planning a vacation online. This means that even though the consumer gets frustrated (for different reasons!) and spends less time to search for information and / or plan a vacation online, the intention to travel will not be influenced by their inner state (affective state and frustration, as Hoc was also accepted). We discuss possible reasons for this in chapter 6 para 3. For more details on hypotheses testing, see Appendix 13.

5.5 Model fit

Given the sample size is smaller than n = 200, it is not considered that the sample is large enough to generate significant results of Chi-square tests (Kline, 1998, as referred to in Huang, and Hsu, 2009, p. 33). Thus, the model fit was not tested. We recommend,

nevertheless, that the experiment will be repeated to a sample greater than n = 200, and then test the model fit.

Chapter 6. Reflecting over the findings

In this chapter, the researcher will atempt to link the findings with the theory and evaluates the results. The purpose of this study was to examine the role of momentary mood change in intention – behavior gap in tourism, using vacation planning on Internet as context of discovery and frustration as mechanism of explaining the change in momentary mood.

6.1 Temporal delay

According to Fishbein & Coombs, 1974 (as referred to in Ajzen, 1985), the longer the time passage is between formation of intention and actual behavior, the greater the chances are that situational factors may intervene and change the nature of initial intention, thus, purchase behavior. Teasdale and Fogarty (1979) argue that delay of remembering pleasant and unpleasant memories differs between people in happy and people in sad mood. Kalwani and Silk (1982, as referred to in March and Woodside, 2005) proved that temporal delay influence the relationship between intention and behavior, as the predictive power of intention (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) fades over time. In this particular study, temporal delay is rather obvious, if we look at it from this perspective. Respondents took the experiment in March – April, and summer holiday does not start until late June. Travel intention measured at the time of collecting data cannot be taken as a powerful predictor of holiday purchase behavior, because of this time passage. Hence, it is more appropriate for this study to adapt the concept of temporal delay to vacation planning online.

Temporal delay covers the passage of time flowing from the moment the consumer starts searching online for information, until the moment it purchases the journey or gives up searching. Consequently, the researcher measured the amount of time people spend in searching for information, assuming that there is a likelyhood between respondents that completed the task, and those that would conclude the vacation planning online with a purchase. Time passage in this context is not that long, however it was identified that situational factors (momentary mood change) can occur and fade the predictive power of intention to travel. Such information is relevant to online marketers, not only within tourism industry. A humble suggestion of how this information can be used by marketers online is presented in chapter 7.5, managerial implications.

6.2 The role of momentary mood

Mood was found to impact on "cognitive, motivational, and behavioral processes" (Poon, 2001, p. 378). The effects of positive and negative moods on judgements and decision – making are contradictive to each other.

Momentary mood changes

Participants entered the experiment with different momentary moods. The results in chapter 5 para 1 point out that there is a statistical significant difference in momentary mood before treatment between the two groups (happy and sad). After the treatment, the variance between the groups is not statistically significant anymore. At first look, this can be either due to the treatment [the mood inducement procedure based on Velten (1968)], or due to the task in itself. Either way, respondents' mood had changed from the moment they started the experiment to the end of it; which is exactly what we hypothesized in chapter 2 para 5. We assumed that *momentary mood **change** may possibly intervene in the intention – behavior gap*

(…). Mood change is the difference between mood before and mood after the treatment. The treatment was meant to induce opposite affective states to the two groups. Some of the respondents were induced bad mood (n = 36) and some happy mood (n = 46). It is less likely that a different treatment would generate a homogenous momentary mood change between the two groups. Therefore, we exclude the possibility that momentary mood changed due to the treatment, and we go further to discuss if this change is due to the task itself.

Mood and Time Spent

We mentioned in section 2.2.3 that TPB focuses on cumulative past behavior as predictor of behavioral disposition (Ajzen, 1991a, p. 181). We also know that search behavior and momentary mood recorded a multimodal frequency distribution (Howitt and Cramer, 2005) and a negative weak correlation (although not statistically significant). As the second hypothesis was rejected, it was determined that the worse the momentary mood is, the less time respondents spent to search online for the vacation planning. Indeed, but why is that?

Instrument validation of the revised scale (Appendix 8) disclosed that self-reported travel experience explaines 61 per cent of the variance in search behavior. Travel habits explaines only nine per cent and the remained of 30 per cent is explained by the *frequency of planing a leisure journey online*. Just to make a point regarding the frequency of past behavior, it is needed to go back to the initial scale validation (Appendix 8). Before purification, self-reported travel experience only accounted for 58 per cent of variance in the overall travel experience and *frequency of journeys planned* accounted for 14 per cent of variance in online search experience. *Often leisure travel,* that means how *frequent* participants *travel for leisure*, was accountable for 33 per cent of the overall travel experience. Consequently, the key word, *frequency*, deserves some attention.

Ajzen (1991a) did not provide an explaination wheter the cumulative past behavior is a function of experiences of a particular behavior in the past, or of habits generated by repetitive behavior. The task in the experiment was about planning a vacation for two to Australia, at the cheapest rates. We presume that Australia is not a frequently chosen destination among participants, given the long distance and high costs of travelling. Attitudes toward trying to plan a vacation to Australia are not self – generated in this study, because participants were asked to do the task, it was not something coming from within. Intention to try, then, is not a "perfect reflection of past trying" (Bagozzi, 1990, p.131). Hansen et. al (2010) argue the probability that consumers present a recent behavioral experience, that is not necessarily the result of "a particularly extensive history", thus it has low frequency (p. 377). Consequently, travel habits and the frequency of planning such a leisure trip are not likely to contribute to the variance in search behavior.

This leaves us with *self-reported travel experience* as the explanatory item of the search behavior (time spent) due to momentary mood, based on the factor loadings provided in the instrument validation of the revised scale. Assuming that respondents reported their previous travel experience based on their perception of cumulative past travel behavior, we may consider that self-reported travel experience engages in a negative relationship with momentary mood in vacation planning on Internet. The lower the travel experience is, the higher the chances are that momentary mood change will intervene in the intention – behavior gap in vacation planning process. Which means that the operational alternative hypothesis (Creswell, 1994, p. 74) for H_{0b} sounds as follows: The lower the self-perceived travel experience is, the less time consumers will spend online to plan a vacation when the momentary mood changes. Managerial implications of this finding are available in chapter 7 para 2.

Having said that, the next step is to understand why this happens. What is the role of self-perceived travel experience; and cand we find support in the theory for this finding?

We established that momentary mood does not have an effect on travel intention, when we accepted the third hypothesis. Bagozzi (1990) expands on TPB to enclose goal achievement, and adapts Fishbein's model (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) to demonstrate that intention to try determines the act of trying to achieve a goal. In the current study, the goal is to plan the vacation at the cheapest rate. We assessed the act of trying not in terms of number of trials, but in terms of time spent trying to achieve the goal. The results point out that consumers spend between 10 – 14 minutes before they both change their momentary mood and give up, or repport that the task was completed (even though they were not that certain of the achievement of the goal). We asked the respondents to repport how do they know that the task was completed (thus, found the cheapest prices!), in order to assess self-perception on task completion. None of the responses divulged a connection between goal achievement and intention to try. The majority of respondents that repported a task completion, argued that this is due to their online search experience, and more precisely, due to use of previous known search engines:

> *"I used kelkoo.no"* (UiS female student from Scandinavia, who spent 13 min. on the task).
>
> *"... from earlier experience from booking tickets and hotel in AU I believe I found a good price"* (UiS female student from Western Europe, who spent 23 min).
>
> *" I ordered the available hotels from cheapest to most expensive one. However, the system did it automatically"* (UiS male employee from Middle East, who spent 16.15 min).
>
> *"The website sorted out the price for me and I choose the cheapest one"* (UiS male student from Scandinavia, who spent 11 min).

> *"Comparing with other websites"* (UiS male student from South America, who spent 22 min).

These are just few examples from the feedback regarding self-repported considerations on how respondents got the cheapest prise. Participants made use of functions that search engines offer: sorting the price from the lowest to the highest, comparing results among several websites, etc. This confirms that they were not first time users of a search engine, nor did they have null online search experience. Lehto, O'Leary and Morrison (2004) identified that the amount of time spent on planning a trip is negatively related with prior experience. The relationship was found to be non-significant.

According to March and Woodside (2005), decision - making in holiday planning is "more complex" (p. 919). Stewart and Vogt (1999) agree, because planning requires taking more than one decision simultaneously to achieve a goal. Refering to Um and Crompton (1990), the authors underline that TPB "focuses on single events or decisions" (p. 81). The dynamic of decision making in planning, however, is more of cognitive nature. The decision is not singular, and the events to be planned are more than one (accessibility, accommodation, activities, and attractions). Choice and decision - making in the course of planning interlink and are "informed by previous experience" (p. 82). The overall goal of travelling is formed by distinctive sub-goals: to find the appropriate destination, to plan the trip, etc.

Mood and information search

Ajzen (1985) suggests that new information "disrupts the intention behavior relationship" (p. 19). Bagozzi (1990) argues that "the link between trying and goal achievement depends in part on factors beyond the person's control" (p. 129). Although the effects of previous travel experience on travel choices had been subject to empirical testing already (Stewart and Vogt, 1999), vacation planning has not been linked to theories of

planning yet (p. 80). The role of mood in searching and processing information has been studied before (Schwarz & Clore, 1983). According to Bakamitsos & Siomkos (2004), mood distresses judgement performance level in processing information stage.

In this regards, some of the respondents that were induced happy mood repported the task completed, mentioned in Question 28 that they are not certain over it.

> *"I cannot know entirely for sure, but the page gave me many options and I picked the cheapest out of them"* (UiS female student from Scandinavia, who spent 20 min).
>
> *"I don't, I would have taken more time, and read some blogs or travel letters from the net. I would also gone directly to pages I feel I can "trust" and know from before instead of a google search"* (UiS female student from Scandinavia, who spent 8 min).
>
> *"Not really sure, but I used a link that compared the flytickets"* (UiS female employee from Scandinavia, who spent 8 min).

Other respondents, that were induced sad mood, and repported the task completed, were also uncertain:

> *"I don't know"* (UiS female employee from Scandinavia, who spent 8 min).
>
> *"I am not completely sure, but I chosed the cheapest flight of the ones who were given to me"* (UiS male student, who spent 10 min).
>
> *"Actually I am not sure if I got the cheapest price"* (UiS female student, who spent 10 min).

Conversely, some respondents were convinced that they found the cheapest price: *"Based on different search"* (UiS male student, who was induced sad mood and spent 10 min on the task).

The degree of which respondents' judgement was disrupted by their mood was not measured in this study. Most of the participants seemed rather uncertain over their choices, and achievement of goal. The above mentioned statements are in agreement with the feedback received during conversational interviews that the experimenter engaged in with participants after the experiment. Most of interviewers expressed their uncertainty, and linked it with frustration and mood changed.

> *"I got frustrated because I could not know which is the cheapest price. Too much information outthere"* (UiS female student, from Scandinavia).
>
> *"I gave up because of complexity of booking platforms that puts you off by asking so many details"* (UiS male student, from Africa)

Tversky and Kahneman (1974) argue that judgement under uncertainty is influenced by the availability of instances or scenarios and adjustment from an achor (p. 1131). Is memory such an anchor?

Mood and memory

Respondents seemed to employ an assesment strategy that was based on "working memory", and "rely on the fluency of the information" (Hastie and Dawes (2010, p. 89). Consumers' memory is directly involved when inquiring travel options online. Blanchette and Richards (2010) believe that "memory - based estimation" of options and "heuristic use of affect" (p. 576) can also influence the decision - making. Poon (2001) points out that memory, at the time of retrieving information, is related to mood state. People who were induced happy mood in an experiment turned out to have a better overview over the information wealth, than people with induced sad mood, or neutral (p. 364); and people who were induced depressed mood scored "greatest accuracy in performance appraisal judgments" (p. 374).

Blanchette and Richard, on the other hand, argue that positive moods "cannot easily be accounted for by memory or attentional mechanism" (p. 577). Thomas and Diener (1990) suggest that of people's self-report accuracy is complex and the retrospection of an experience where emotions are involved is not precise. People have a tendency to overrate the intensity of positive and negative emotions (p. 295).

Snyder and White (1982) identified that people tend to keep in mind "events and experiences that are congruent with their current mood states" (p. 160); and this is because in the retrieving information, consumers "access the desired information" (Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1968, as refered to in Solomon, 2011, p. 131). Memory retrieveal of prior outcomes was found to closely relate to mood and optimism (Gärling, karlsson, Romanus and Selart, 1997).

Mood and Choice

Based on these arguments, we tend to agree with respondents that gave up the task because of information overload. Many online search engines provide competing alternatives, based on prices, duration of travel, star ratings (for accommodation), etc. From personal experience, overload of information seems so unstructure and generates the feeling of uncertainty. Dhar and Simonson (1992) found that marketers could use product comparison to influence consumer preferences, and enahance their confidence in the choice made (p. 439). Question 28 in the instrument aimed also to assess the level of involvement of the respondents. Beerli, Meneses and Gil (2007) affirm that emotional perceptions might have an impact on involvement and self-congruity, and suggest further research into the topic (p. 583).

Does low involvement implies going for familiar choices to avoid frustration, thus mood change? The multitude of choices available online has been subject to study to several

researchers (Crompton, 1992; Crompton and Ankomah, 1993; Decrop, 2010). Schiffman, Kanuk and Hansen (2008) state that consumers decrease the number of choices available using "decision waves" (p. 81) that are meant to remove incompatible alternatives. If participants to this study used this technique in processing given choices, we have no knowledge if their momentary mood has a contribution to the elimination process or not.

This aspect was not measured. An accurate overview of the number of choices provided by google at the time of data collection is available in Appendix 5.

6.3 The effect of frustration

The decreased average value of self-perceived frustration after task compared with the one before task (Appendix 9) points towards the fact that the task itself was not generating frustration. This can be because either participants did not find the task difficult, based on their online search experience, either they made used of their planning habits. First run of factor analysis (Table 8, Appendix 8) indicates that use of online search engine counts for 20 per cent of online search experience, frequency of journeys planned counts for 14 per cent and self – repported online search for 10 per cent. The rest of the variance is covered by consumers' travelling habits. Travel planning habits for leisure scored during first factor analysis a factor loading $\beta = .804$, eigenvalue = 1.765, explaining 35 per cent of the variance in online search experience.

We therefore reflect on the possibility that respondents ignored the request of using www.google.com as the only search engine, and appealed to search engines and website platforms that they felt accustommed with, as an old habit. Perhaps they started using Google as instructed, and as they experienced an overwhelming amount of information (Table 4,

Appendix 5), respondends decided to use comparative web-platforms (like www.kelkoo.no) or other familiar websites. We suggest that further research is conducted to assess the relationship between travel habits; travel experience and online search behavior (more details are available in Chapter 9).

Frustration, however, was found to have a medium positive relationship with manipulated mood (changed mood). The relationship was statistically significant. This means that the more frustrated consumers become when planning the vacation online, the more likely is that their momentary mood changes. Frustration scored 12 per cent variance in explaining the mood change. We suggest that the task itself did not generate frustration, then it did not generate the mood change either. What else could then generate the change in mood?

Frustration was found to have a direct and negative effect on the time spent on the task. The relationship reached statistical significance and frustration explains nearly 10 per cent of the variance in the scores of time spent. As already mentioned, frustration explains 12 per cent of the variance of mood change. Finally, frustration has no impact on travel intention (Hypothesis H_{0f} was accepted). This means that when frustration occurs, it changes consumers' momentary mood, and influences the time spent to plan the vacation online, but it does not directly affect their intention to travel. Unfortunatelly, we only run the experiment once, and cannot say if the overall time spent to plan the vacation online is affected. Here it is considered the possibility that consumers plan their vacation in several stages / sessions. We have no knowledge whether the frustration experienced at one point of searching online for alternatives will perpetuu or will vanish after switching the computer off. Perhaps the temporal delay that we discussed earlier on(chapter 6 para 1) plays a role here as well.

An obvious aspect to debate is how significant are these findings in real life context. Students participating on an experiment are probably not that relaxed and fully dedicated to the experiment, as they would be if the vacation planning would have happened at home, in own environment, and it would have been a real vacation planning. According to Gardner (1985) "distribution of moods during the completion of a questionnaire differs from the distribution during an activity of interest" (p. 296).

6.5 Personality traits

Previous researchers disclosed that personality traits relate with behaviour (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008; Hansen et al., 2010). Hansen et al. suggest that according to TT, behavior (in our case time spent to plan the vacation) "might be hampered by both internal and external concerns" (p. 376). Individual personality characteristics are suggested as moderator variable in the gap between intention and behavior (Ajzen, 2005), based on the assumption that consistency differs from individual to individual (p. 45). Does personality traits generate distinctive momentary mood, and does the time spent differ based on personality traits? "Experience seekers" (Bowen and Clarke, 2009), for example, might not get frustrated over the amount of information available, because they have "higher-level travel needs" (p. 98) that can be satisfied if they find the right information, in detail. The begginer, on the other hand, might not be interested in that many choices and information at the stage of vacation planning online.

Lasane and O'Donnell (2005) specify that affective and cognitive components had been applied to measures of temporal orientation (p. 16). This has encouraged us to try to find out whether there is any indication that personality traits and the time spent are related.

Appendix 18 encloses statistical results of correlations between personality, frustration, momentary mood, travel intention and search behavior. Personality scored a positive but weak relationship with frustration, and with search behavior; and a weak but negative relationship with momentary mood and travel intention.

None of the relationships reached statistical significance, and we believe this is because (1) sample was too small; (2) participants had to repport their perception on their personality after completing the task, thus changed in mood and frustration might have influence self-perceived statements. Moreover, it was found that there is a positive relationship between personality and time spent, based on the assumption that both variables are normally distributed (Pallant, 2007). Although this relationship did not reach statistical significance either (for more details see Appendix 18), it is advisable that more research is conducted in determining which of personality traits are influenced by frustration and momentary mood change, and what is the effect of this influence on search behavior and intention to travel.

6.6 Side findings

Nearly half of the respondents reported that they always use online search engine to plan vacation (see Frequencies, Appendix 17). Most likely, this is a new trend, because over half of participants planned less than 20 journeys so far. Self-perceived online search experience, however, scores rather high: (1) 34 per cent of resopndents scored 5 out of 7; (2) 23 per cent of respondents scored 6 out of 7; (3) and 17 per cent scored maximum. This means that participants at the experiment are highly computer literate, have great general knowledge in use of online search engines, but not necessarily in use of travel search engines.

We therefore suggest that highly profilated online search engines like Google, finn.no, or kelkoo.no (just to mention few), will provide end-users with complimentary 'how to' online courses, to explain how they could make the best out of the choices available, how to better define their search chriteria and how to compare the results within own web-site and with competitive web-sites.

In this way, consumers will avoid getting overwhelmed with information, get frustrated, and spend more time to plan the vacation online in one instance. Probably they will spend more time until the planning process ends with a purchase.

Chapter 7. Implications

7.1 Methodological implications

The explorative study we run to identify situational factors that may occur in decision to travel brought along interesting findings. Almost 90% of the respondents came with similar feedback, being concerned that this survey has only one question. It was interesting to notice how respondents considered this aspect of negative nature, as it would be the ground for failure. It is believed that a comprehensive study on this phenomenon would bring along significant findings for researchers, in terms of how participants perceive a survey that is structured other than they expect.

Sample size is not large enough to test the model fit. New round of data collection is needed to complete this.

7.2 Managerial implications and suggestions

This study has opened a door to investigate issues that TRA and TPB have yet not considered. A situational factor can intervene in the gap between intention and behavior and may change consumers momentary mood. The results of this study indicate that business managers who provide online vacation planning may loose their customers in short Average time spent on planning a vacation online is no longer than 10 - 14 minutes. This means that online marketers and managers must come with marketing strategies that generates a sure purchase within this time frame.

This strategies should be distinctive for experienced and non-experienced consumers (Gursoy and McCleary, 2004, 368 – 369). An immediate suggestion is to structure the online platform as easy accessible as possible, with minimum of irrelevant commercials that distract the consumer from its intentions, or disrupt the process of searching for the product. Information provided should be available both in simple (for consumers with less online search experience) and advance manner (for the experienced tourist that finds the process of planning as part of the vacation itself).

Moreover, it is believed that if online booking platforms will provide a more personalized service, the consumer will be more attracted to use its services. Nowadays, not many online booking platforms offer a direct contact with a travel consultant via online chat. The majority of such sites invite the consumer to contact them via email or phone. Usually one has difficulties to reach a travel consultant via phone, and choose write an email. This eamil is not answer right away. The time passage between contacting the travel agent and until the respons comes leaves again room for changes to happened. The consumer may get another option, and purchase the journey somewhereelse, or maybe get frustrated for having

to wait, and give up. If managers of online booking websites consider to implementing a direct channel of communication with customers that plan their vacation online, the quality of customer service will enahnce, thus sales turnover will increase.

Happy mood induction was found to "increase generosity" and "lead subjects to reward themselves more" (Manucia et al., 1984, p. 358 - 359). Looking at the results of the average time spent based on the affective state (Appendix 14), 'happy respondents' spent a statistical average of $M = 3.63$ on the task ($n = 46$), and 'sad respondents' a statistical average of $M = 3.42$ ($n = 36$). The difference in means seems low at first look, and this can be due to the small size of the sample, and the uneven number of participants per group of mood state. However, this difference has its applied importance. We assume that the happier the consumer is, the more likely is that it spends more time and money in vacation planning and purchase. This assumption is not empirically tested in this study, thus it is recommended to further research.

Momentary mood change was found to occur more easily in the intention – behavior gap in vacation planning if the consumer has low travel experience. In this regards, it is advisable that destination managers and online marketers run a market segmentation based on visitors' cumulative past travel behavior, since self-perceived travel experience weights over 60 percent for the search behavior, thus the time spent to plan the vacation.

Mood induction procedures can be conducted through the information provided in the websites. Poon (2001) suggests that mood shifts can be applied to the workplace to produce the "desired employee behaviors" (p. 378). Hence, mood shifts can be applied in communicating to consumers online. We suggested earlier installing a direct channel of

communication (chat) on the websites (booking interfaces). Sellers can provide buyers with positive and detailed feedback on products, and generate a positive mood to the buyer. Such approach may have immediate results (consumer decides to buy) and long term results (customer satisfaction enhances, word of mouth is positive, reputation increases, new customers are recommended to use the interface).

7.3 Practical implications

For practitioners this study bring new knowledge in terms of website design and management of online search engines.

Even though the main purpose of this paper was not to assess respondents opinion on www.google.com user friendliness as such, there is a clear signal that information overload may result in lost of interes, frustration and mood change, when searching online for products. This suggestion, however, has not been empirically tested per say, hence this is just a modest reflection over practical implications. It was shown that uncertainty is present in the process of searching for a product, that momentary mood changes in the gap between intention and behavior, and that frustration has a weak negative relation with search behavior (Appendix 16) and a medium negative correlation with time spent (Appendix 13, para 5).

Furthermore, this study may also have important implications in understanding the consumers choice and decision making when planing a vacation online. The present findings suggest that frustration generates a change in mood in the gap between intention and behavior. These outcome may result in loss of buyers. However, care must be taken in generalizing these findings, from the random population used in the experimental group (n = 82) to the entire population, until this study is repetead to verify its reliability and validity.

Many of the booking platforms only offer two or three languages of communication. There are situations where consumers find cheap alternatives for their travelling on sites that only use their native language to communicate. This approach is restrictive and mody likely generates frustration, thus mood change. Furthermore, it is practical to cover a broad array of languages of communication when chatting online with consumers.

Chapter 8. Conclusion

This study is not an absolute response to the research question, because the results of one experiment can only be an indication. Besides their momentary mood and personality traits, the results carry within respondents' culture, level of attentiveness, willingness to answer sincerely, and scepticism. The knowledge gained through this study is, therefore, an incremental contribution to the field of tourist psychology. Information can be used in further consumer behavior and online marketing studies.

Findings indicate that momentary mood does change in the gap between intention and behavior when an internal stimuli (frustration) impacts on it. These stimuli are triggered by overwhelming amount of information available, online search habits, and degree of familiarity in use of an online search engine. Change in momentary mood has no direct impact on travel intention; however, it is positively related with frustration. There is a medium negative correlation between frustration and the time spent to plan the vacation online. Personality relates positively to frustration and search behavior, and negatively with momentary mood and travel intention. In both cases the relation is weak and not significant statistically. The average time spent online to plan the vacation was lower for the experimental group than for

control group. The difference is not that large, and it is believed that a larger and more diversified sample for both groups would return more reliable results.

Chapter 9. Further research

Findings from this study brought along some opportunities for further investigations. These are presented in a rather reflective note, because inquisitiveness is a key driver to further research. We leave room to the reader to build his / her own thoughts around it.

The survey on situational factors presented in Appendix 1 revealed that affordability is the main constraint for travelling. A noteworthy percent was also recorded on frustration upon prices. What would it be the accepted ratio between the disposable income and the price of a journey, for the consumer with reduce / medium / high power of purchase? Is it possible to map how much of their income do consumers sett aside for their travelling habits and then compare the sum with the price ranges available to the consumer? Do the marketers consider and meet consumers' affordability? Does consumers' personality traits, such as structured / not structured, have an effect on saving a certain sum each month for travelling, to enhance the affordability level? Does the inventive traveller finds cheaper transportation / accommodation means, and plan its vacation based on these means?

Coach surfing has become more and more popular among your travellers, for example, what is the impact on wholesale, on destination basis? Would the submissive tourist accept any given price without putting too much effort in further search for cheaper alternatives? These are just few of the aspects that the writer of this thesis suggests reflecting upon. Perhaps looking to the tourist market these perspectives and designing new segmentation based on psychographic characteristics would refresh the market groups, provide new selling

opportunities, reach new customers or tempt the old ones with new products or new wrappings of the same products. Gountas and Gountas (2001) introduced psychographics segmentations for tourist, using Jung's personality theorying, since as such segmentation "may improve the overall effectiveness of tourism markets" (p.219).

It would be interesting to apply the experiment on other domains of online purchase, for example clothing purchase online, adapting it to the context. Would the results be the same? Would the average time spent before consumers change their momentary mood impact ont the predictive power of intention fades? We suggest that the experiment is conducted with regards to purchase online of other products, to see if momentary mood does occur in the intention – behavior gap in other decision – making context, having impact on the predictive power of intention over purchase behavior. Should the results confirm that the 'happy' buyer spends more time and money on online purchase, could the online marketers come with new marked segmentation (happy vs sad buyer). Create marketing strategies that keep the happy buyer in this affective state and use mood induction strategies to induce a happier mood to the sad buyer, which will make him / her to spend more time and money on purchase online.

We also suggest that the experiment is conducted outside the laboratory premises. Assessing consumers in their own environment might bring along more interesting findings. Blom Kemdal and Montgomery (1997) suggest that "decisions studied in laboratories often seem artificial and simple in comparison to the complexity of real-life decisions" (p. 72). According to Rasmussen (1993), in a familiar environment, diagnosis on flux of information available is based on statistical intuition, and the tasks involved in decision – making are "considered on a time-sharing basis", that "depends on the nature of the tasks" (p. 165). Given the fact that in laboratory settings, the experimenter controls for attention allocation through

the design of the experiment and instrument, it is advisable to collect data from a larger group than the control group. The small sample of CG, however, did return an indication that people spent more time searching for information when there are at home.

It is also recommended to apply this research design to business travellers, and compare the findings with leisure travellers. For a destination such Stavanger, for example, such a study would be beneficial. Care should be given to the fact business travellers: (1) do not book their journey themselves, thus, they are not customers to online marketers, just consumers (Swarbrooke and Horner, 2007); or (2) are given restricted options of which company to use, because organisations have previous allotment agreements (as the writer of this thesis had personally experienced). Would these two aspects generate frustration, momentary mood change and impact on intention to travel and / or travel behavior (in terms of not coming back as a leisure visitor)? Would the business traveller record a decrease in professional performance after the journey, because the irritation over choice of travel means influence its judgement?

Some of the respondents reported that the task was too comprehensive. The writer of this thesis suggests that the expeiment is conducted again, where the task refers to purchase of flight tickets only, or booking of a hotel room to a given destination. It is possible that the difficulty of the task generates frustration, thus mood change. It would be useful to know if momentary mood presents the same tendency to change, if the task is less difficult, and only focuses on one product at the time.

Another issue that came up during this study is the role of information overload in vacation planning online. This aspect deserves future attention. The amount of information available on Internet is countelss and we suggest that a study is conducted to establish its

relationship with travel intention and search behavior, in the intention behavior gap in tourism.

We detected that there is a medium positive relationship between search behavior and travel experience (see Appendix 16). Based on this finding, we suggest that more research is conducted to investigate what generates this significant relationship. It seems consumers that have greater travel experience (for leisure) record a greater leisure travel intention than consumers with low travel experience (also for leisure). Knowing that self-reported travel experience weights for 61 per cent of variance in search behavior, frequency of leisure travelling for 30 per cent and travel habits for only 9 per cent, we are not certain that this finding is due to a habit to travel. However, as the sample for this study was of small size, it is recommended that more research is conducted (on a large random sample) to determine if self – reported travel experience is gained because of a habit to travel, and what is the ratio between frequency of leisure travel and inclination to travel (habit). The writer of this paper considers that if it is determined that yes, habit has a significant role in gaining travel experience, and the above mentioned ratio is greater than one, than we could create a new marked segmentation based on consumers habits (= routine, practice, inclinations, tendency). This is because, it is said from old times that peoples' habits become their second nature. Furthermore, we suggest that research is conducted regarding the impact of travel habits on online search behavior when planning a vacation online.

Apart from travelling based on habits, people also engage in a journey suddenly. We see this as *impulse traveling*. The notion of selling package tours at a last minute rate is rather common in sell of travel products on internet. There are called 'restplasser' in Norwegian, or *last minutes sales* in English. We therefore recommend that extensive empirical research is

conducted on the role of momentary mood on impulse traveling. Is it a specific trigger or a random stimulus? Is impulse traveling a modality to satisfy a need that momentary mood had generate, or do people travel on last minute rates just because of the monetary value of it?

Chapter 10. Limitations of the research work

Using more than one theoretical framework to explain the phenomena requires an increased attention to how the concepts inter-relates, are defined and how the relation paths are explained. Given that this is the first research project of the experimentar, it is fair to recognize that some details, some aspects, and some relationships might have been omitted. For example, we neglected to measure neutral mood state, as it was already mentioned earlier.

Getting to the end of this study, the researcher has now realized how comprehensive the process of desigining an experiment is. Certain aspects could be improved. For instance, items sequence in the experiment could have been more structured, focus on each concept could have been concrete, creating less number of items with higher explanatory variance percent. This would have return more findings around the phenomenon.

Recruiting students for the experiment turned to be the most challenging part of this research project. Although a price for participating was offered (the researcher bought two gift cards with value of 250,- NOK at Vinmonopolet out of its own pocket, and organized a drawing for these), the participation rate was rather low (see Appendix 5). Low participation rate could be due to:

(1) Last year bachelor students were over stressed with writing their own final paper.

(2) Second year bachelor students were concerned with assignments and exams.

(3) First year bachelor students were not yet into researching, thus, did not see the value of experiencing this first hand.

(4) UiS was conducting a couple of experiments for PhD students, simultaneously.

(5) Lack of disposal time and personal interest in helping others.

(6) The fact that students had to come to a computer lab to complete the experiment.

Having said that, one should find a more effective way of motivating subjects to participate to data collection. It was not advisable to require students a mandatory participation to the research project, because it would have influenced the results, as frustration was used mechanism to explain mood change. The results would have been ambiguous, because it would have been difficult to determine if their frustration during the experiment comes from inducing methods, or from the obligation to attend.

Nevertheless, for the future, UiS should advise students to participate to at least two research projects per study year, as a part of their learning process. This would not only ease recruitment procedure for researchers, but also would enhance students understanding / knowledge of research work, and help them achieve greater results when they have to run their own research project.

Time pressure is an aspect that we did not consider in the measurement design. This can generate some error in the results, if participants at the experiment felt pressured to solve / give up the task because other errands were waiting. Maule and Edland (1997) advise that insufficient time might "underpin good judgement and choice" (p. 189). The disruptive effects of time pressure were not measured in the instrument, and care should be given to this aspect if further attempt to replicate the experiment will be made. According to Maule and Edland,

time pressure do have a negative relationship with quality of judgement and decision making (p. 191).

Personal limitations

This study was the first comprehensive research project completed from A-Z. Although basic theoretical knowledge in the field of social research was gained through the master program, individual practical experienced in doing research was not sufficient. This might have limited the quality of the study, despite all the dedication and hard work.

Language of communication was considered a limitation to the study, as English is not the writer's mother tongue. Cheng, Horwitz and Schallert (1999) support other researchers' beliefs that use of second language in writing generates anxiety, thus influences academic decisions.

Having dyslexia was also a challenge that might bring along some weakness to the study. Reading the literature required to support this work took more time than anticipated, and generated a large amount of stress. The unexpected gain that writing this thesis brought along, however, was overcoming the frustration built up over the years because of this condition. Getting from being teased as a child for being a low reader, to reading tones and tones of needed literature was an achievement in itself.

"Do just once what others say you can't do, and you will never pay attention to their limitations again." - Captain James Cook

Chapter 11. Assorted thoughts (with a reflective touch)

How many times have I not changed my mind during the process of writing this thesis? My intentions had been switched upon quite often, either because of one or another external situational factor interrupting the course of writing, hence the idea vanished in the sky; or because my mood had changed, due to tiredness, headache, or frustration. Such happenings take place all the time in our daily life, we are just not that aware of it at all times. We start something with a certain intention towards behavior, we are interrupted, and we change our mind. Think about it… Even now, when you read this thesis? Have you not been interrupted, at least for a second, and then return to the reading? Well, in that very little second, your mindset might have changed, and you might have perceived the rest of the reading otherwise than you did before the interruption.

Thinking of it, it is possible that even the smallest thought that crosses our mind while doing something, may have a powerful influence in our behavioral specificity, and set us in strategic drift, sort of speak. A rather difficult phenomenon to measure and demonstrate, but if we would be able to do so, we would take a huge step ahead in understanding consumers behavior before they act.

Although its journey had its ups and downs, the phenomena researched upon had made the work exciting. Everyone, in day-to-day life, experiences momentary mood change. Some are aware of it, some are not. From intention to act, to act itself there will always be room for situational factors to occur. We just have to learn how to acknowledge it and stay in control.

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**

NB:

1. The picture on the front page is created by a friend of mine especially for the thesis. Any copy or replication of the picture is permitted by request only. Kindly contact the author of this thesis, for further details.

2. The picture on the last page has this source: http://journeyingbeyondbreastcancer.com/2011/01/28/poetry-friday-57/

Appendices

Appendix 1a

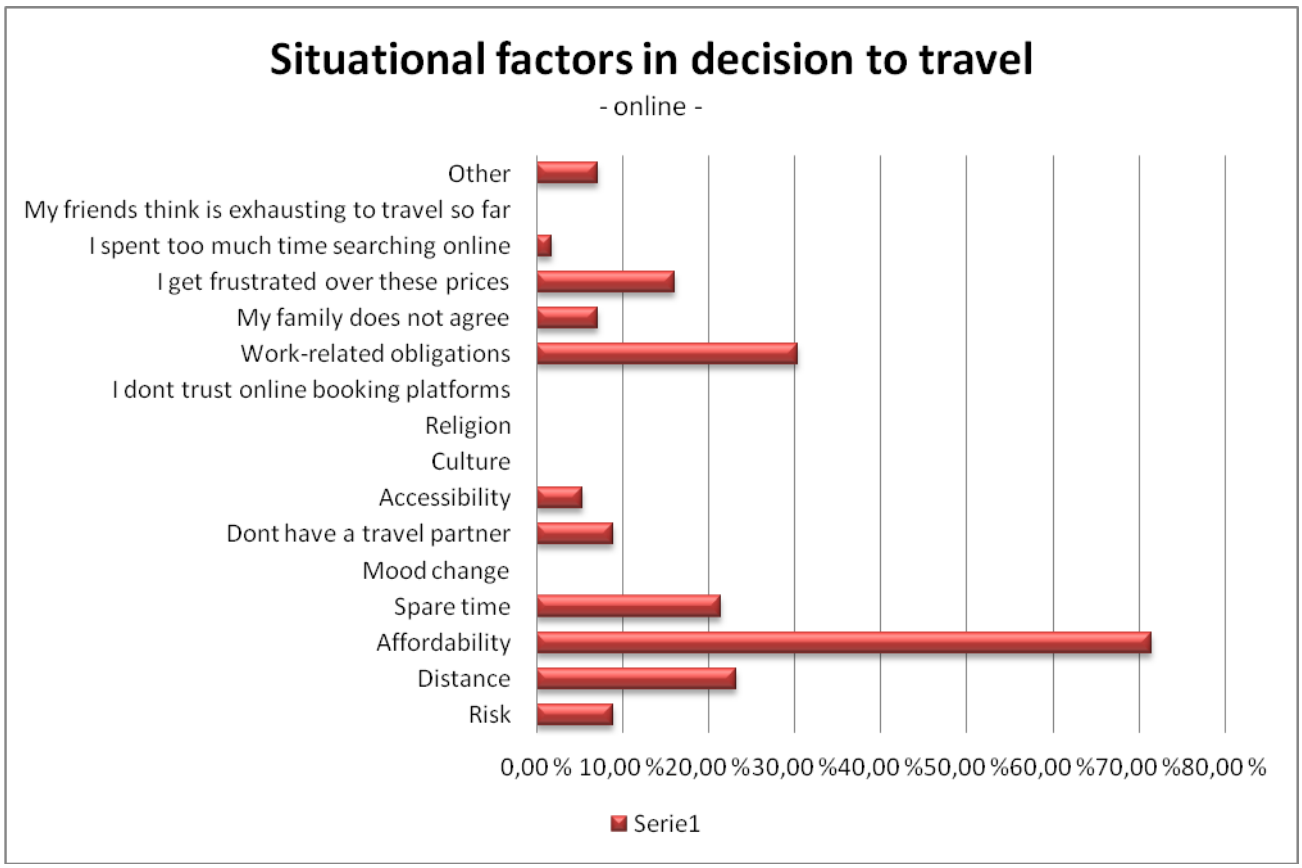
Table 1

Situational factors in decision to travel (online format)

Assuming you intend to travel to Australia the upcoming summer, which situational factors might intervene and prevent you from travelling?

Factor	**Percentage**	**Nr of answers**
Risk	8,90 %	5
Distance	23,20 %	11
Affordability	71,40 %	40
Spare time	21,40 %	12
Mood change	0,00 %	0
Dont have a travel partner	8,90 %	5
Accessibility	5,40 %	3
Culture	0,00 %	0
Religion	0,00 %	0
I dont trust online booking platforms	0,00 %	0
Work-related obligations	30,40 %	17
My family does not agree	7,10 %	4
I get frustrated over these prices	16,10 %	9
I spent too much time searching online	1,80 %	1
My friends think is exhausting to travel so far	0,00 %	0
Other	7,10 %	4
Total answers		**111**

n = 56


Situational factors in decision to travel
- online -
Other
My friends think is exhausting to travel so far
I spent too much time searching online
I get frustrated over these prices
My family does not agree
Work-related obligations
I dont trust online booking platforms
Religion
Culture
Accessibility
Dont have a travel partner
Mood change
Spare time
Affordability
Distance
Risk
0,00 % 10,00 % 20,00 % 30,00 % 40,00 % 50,00 % 60,00 % 70,00 % 80,00 %
Serie1

Graph 1

Appendix 1b

Table 2

Situational factors in decision to travel (paper format)

Assuming you intend to travel to Australia the upcoming summer, which situational factors might intervene and prevent you from travelling?

Factor	**Percentage**	**Nr of answers**
Risk	14,71 %	5
Distance	32,35 %	11
Affordability	73,53 %	25
Spare time	17,65 %	6
Mood change	8,82 %	3
Dont have a travel partner	5,88 %	2
Accessibility	17,65 %	6
Culture	0,00 %	0
Religion	2,94 %	1
I dont trust online booking platforms	14,71 %	5
Work-related obligations	23,53 %	8
My family does not agree	20,59 %	7
I get frustrated over these prices	29,41 %	10
I spent too much time searching online	26,47 %	9
My friends think is exhausting to travel so far	2,94 %	1
Other	8,82 %	3
Total answers		**102**

n = 34


Situational factors in decision to travel
-paper-
My friends think is exhausting to travel so far
I get frustrated over these prices
Work-related obligations
Religion
Accessibility
Mood change
Affordability
Risk
0,00 %
10,00 %
20,00 %
30,00 %
40,00 %
50,00 %
60,00 %
70,00 %
80,00 %
Serie1

Graph 2

Appendix 2

Table 3

Overview participation to the experiment
Data collection

Date and time	**Number of invites**	**Chanel of communicating the invitation to participate**	**Number of enrolled**	**Number of actual participants**		**Particip. rate (out of invites)**	**Room nr.**
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)		(6)	(7)
Mandag 19. mars at 14:30	500	Facebook Its Learning	16	8		0.016 %	V-102 AR
Tirsdag 20. mars at 12:00	15	Verbal, through a friend	15	6		0.40 %	E 353
Thursday 22. mars at 13:00	80	Direct in class	0	16		0.20 %	H-209
Monday 26 mars at 15:30	30	Email	2	9		0.30 %	A-256
Tuesday 27 mars at 15:30	30	Email	0	6		0.20 %	A-256
Wednesday 28 mars at 14:30	500	Facebook Its Learning	0	7	11	0.022 %	V-102 AR
Wednesday 28 mars at 15:30		Poster	0	4			V-102 AR
Monday 16 april at 10:00	50	Email Its Learning	0	30		0.60 %	H- 207 H-209
Total	**1205**			**86**		**0.07137%**	
Of which, valid				**82**		**0,06804979 %**	

Appendix 3

Independent observers' observation sheet

What?	Respondent nr:									
INTERRUPTED	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70
FRUSTRATED	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70
BORED	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70
REQUIRED HELP TO SOLVE THE TASK	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50

	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70
INTERRUPTED	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80
	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90
	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110
	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120
	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128	129	130
	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140
FRUSTRATED	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80
	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90
	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110
	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120
	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128	129	130
	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140
BORED	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80
	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90
	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110
	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120
	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128	129	130
	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140
REQUIRED HELP TO SOLVE THE TASK	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80
	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90
	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110
	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120
	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128	129	130

	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140
INTERRUPTED	141	142	143	144	145	146	147	148	149	150
	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159	160
	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	170
	171	172	173	174	175	176	177	178	179	180
	181	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190
	191	192	193	194	195	196	197	198	199	200
	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	208	209	210
FRUSTRATED	141	142	143	144	145	146	147	148	149	150
	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159	160
	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	170
	171	172	173	174	175	176	177	178	179	180
	181	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190
	191	192	193	194	195	196	197	198	199	200
	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	208	209	210
BORED	141	142	143	144	145	146	147	148	149	150
	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159	160
	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	170
	171	172	173	174	175	176	177	178	179	180
	181	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190
	191	192	193	194	195	196	197	198	199	200
	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	208	209	210
REQUIRED HELP TO SOLVE THE TASK	141	142	143	144	145	146	147	148	149	150
	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159	160
	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	170
	171	172	173	174	175	176	177	178	179	180
	181	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190
	191	192	193	194	195	196	197	198	199	200
	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	208	209	210

Instructions: Use the table above to note down your observations:

- Please notice if participants are interrupted (due to phone calls, questions from the neighbor participant, etc) during the experiment.
- Please observe if participants get frustrated / bored during the experiment.
- Please provide additional explanations on how to complete the survey.
- Please DO NOT assist respondents in solving the practical task.

Please return this form at the end of the experiment. Thank you for your help!

Appendix 4a

The instrument inducing happy mood – English

Faculty of Social Sciences
The Norwegian School of Hotel Management
Department of Business Administration
4036 Stavanger, Norway

Diana Gabriela Verpe
Master Student
e-post: dg.verpe@stud.uis.no

Hello!

My name is Diana Gabriela Verpe. I am a master student, completing my Master of Science in International Hotel and Tourism Leadership at University of Stavanger. This research experiment is important for my master's thesis. I am focusing on the use of online information search in tourism. The topics in this survey are straightforward; the questions are ethical and harmless to you. Kindly answer all the questions; if not the response cannot be used. All the answers are anonymous. Your participation is honestly valued.

For any further enquires regarding this research project, please do not hesitate to contact me via email. Feedback on the findings can be provided on general basis, upon request. Thank you for your time and for your contribution to my research project. I am truly grateful.

Sincerely,

Diana G. Verpe

Instructions:

1. Kindly turn off your mobile phones.
2. Please read the questions carefully.
3. Only select one alternative for each question, the one that best illustrates your circumstances. Circle the chosen alternative.
4. Do not consult / talk with other participants.
5. Ask the designated observers for assistance.

Section 1 – Individual circumstances

A) Your travel experience

1. Do you consider yourself an experienced tourist?

Not experienced 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very experienced

(Pan and Fesenmaier, 2006)

2. How often do you travel for…

*Leisure :*Very seldom 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very often

*Business:*Very seldom 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very often

3. I believe friends and family want me to travel.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Um and Crampton, 1990)

4. I travel because is fun.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Um and Crampton, 1990)

B) Online information search

5. Do you usually plan your journey when you travel abroad …

For leisure:

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

For other purposes:

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

6. Do you use an online search engine when you plan your journey?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Xiang and Gretzel, 2009)

7. How many journeys have you planned until now?

None	**1 - 19**	**20 - 29**	**30 - 39**	**40 - 49**	**50 - 59**	**More than 50**
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

(Lehto, O'Leary and Morrison, 2004)

8. To which degree do you consider yourself experienced in online information search?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

(Gursoy and McCleary, 2004)

9. Have you ever worked in a travel agency / airline company?

	Yes (1)	**No (2)**
Travel agency		
Airline company		

C) Upcoming travel intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen & Driver, 1992)

10. Do you intend to travel during upcoming summer holiday?

Not likely to travel 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely to travel

11. Travel abroad during my upcoming summer holiday would…

Be a waste of time and money 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Be a good investment in my well-being

12. My closer friends and family think I …

Should not travel this summer 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Should travel this summer

D) Mood dimension

13. Currently you feel happy.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely much

(Thomas and Diener, 1990)

14. All in all, I am pretty pleased with the way things are going.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Please bring to mind a pleasant experience associated with the word "city".

15. Currently you feel joyful.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely much

(Thomas and Diener, 1990)

16. Life is so full and interesting.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Please bring to mind a pleasant experience associated with the word “visit”.

17. Currently you feel pleased.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely much

(Thomas and Diener, 2009)

18. I feel so good, I almost feel like laughing.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Please bring to mind an pleasant experience associated with the word “money”.

19. Currently you feel enjoyment.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely much

(Thomas and Diener, 2009)

Please turn the page now ☺

Section 2 - Plan your vacation

Instructions: Read the questions carefully and follow the instructions as stated. Do not interrupt yourself during this task.

20. Write down what is the time now, using the clock on the computer in front of you _____.
21. Go on www.google.com and type 'travel to Australia'. Do not use any other online search engine.
22. For your upcoming summer holiday, your task is to plan a round trip to Australia, with the duration of 4 (four) weeks, for two adults.

    From the options www.google.com gives you, choose **the cheapest***:

    a. Flight tickets for two adults to Australia (t/r). Choose the flight route with the shortest duration, in addition to the cheapest rate.
    b. Accommodation, breakfast included.
    c. Attractions and activities.
    d. Means of local transport during your vacation.

Turn the page when you are done.

*(Hung and Petrick, 2011)

Section 3 - Feedback

E) Mood

23. Note the time when you have finished or abandoned the task. _____.

24. Currently you feel excitement.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely much

25. Based on this task, to what extend do you feel…

a)Annoyed: Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much so

b)Frustrated: Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much so

c)That you wasted your time: Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much so

d)That you are in better mood: Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much so

e)That you are in worst mood: Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much so

26. Do you intend to …

a)Travel during upcoming summer holiday? Less likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Most likely

b)Purchase a journey online during summer Less likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Most likely

F) Task concerns

27. Did you complete the task?

	Yes (1)	**No (2)**
Completed		

28. If you completed the task, how do you know you got the cheapest prices? (Gursoy and Gavcal, 2003)

……

29. What was the reason for which you did not complete the task? (Please pick the most suitable answer):

	Yes (1)	**No (2)**
I spent to much time on it already		
Had other errands		
Was overwhelmed with information		
Vacation planning is boring		
The task was too comprehensive		
Got frustrated		

30. To which degree do you think that:

a)Your friends and family expect you to travel this summer?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

b)Travel this summer will be a good investment in your well-being?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

c)You will plan your upcoming summer vacation online?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

31. To which degree did you experience frustration during this task?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

(Frustration = the feeling of being upset or annoyed as a result of being unable to change or achieve something; the prevention of the progress, success, or fulfilment of something).

32. To which degree did you feel bored during this task?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

33. To which degree did the amount of information was overwhelming?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

(Keller & Staelin, 1987).

34. To which degree was the task difficult to understand?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

(Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999)

35. To which degree did you feel that the task was similar to planning a trip in real life?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

G) Yourself

36. Pick the options that describe best how you are in the daily life:

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	
Well-organised								Unorganised
Worried								Not worried
Submissive								Dominant
Nervous								Not nervous
Extrovert								Introvert
Tensed								Not tensed
Not inventive								Inventive

Engvik (1993a, 1993b).

Section 4: Demographics

37. You are from:

Scandinavia (1)	Western Europe (2)	Eastern Europe (3)	Asia (4)	Middle East (5)	Africa (6)	Oceania (7)

38. Age:

Under 19	**20 - 29**	**30 - 39**	**40 - 49**	**50 - 59**	**60 - 69**	**Older than 70**
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

39. Gender:

Male (1)	**Female (2)**

40. Occupation:

Student UiS (1)	**Student at other university (2)**	**Employee UiS (3)**	**Employee at other institution (4)**

Thank you once again for your participation!

Appendix 4b

The instrument inducing sad mood - English

Cover letter was identical as per 'happy mood inducing' instrument.

Section 1 – Individual circumstances

A) Your travel experience

1. Do you consider yourself an experienced tourist?

Not experienced 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very experienced

(Pan and Fesenmaier, 2006)

2. How often do you travel for…

Leisure : Very seldom 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very often

Business: Very seldom 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very often

3. I believe friends and family want me to travel.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Um and Crampton, 1990)

4. I travel because is fun.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Um and Crampton, 1990)

B) Online information search

5. Do you usually plan your journey when you travel abroad …

For leisure: Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

For other purposes: Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

6. Do you use an online search engine when you plan your journey?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Xiang and Gretzel, 2009)

7. How many journeys have you planned until now?

None	1 - 19	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	More than 50
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

(Lehto, O'Leary and Morrison, 2004)

8. To which degree do you consider yourself experienced in online information search?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

(Gursoy and McCleary, 2004)

9. Have you ever worked in a travel agency / airline company?

	Yes (1)	No (2)
Travel agency		
Airline company		

C) Upcoming travel intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen & Driver (1992)

10. Do you intend to travel during upcoming summer holiday?

Not likely to travel 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely to travel

11. Travel abroad during my upcoming summer holiday would…

Be a waste of time and money 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Be a good investment in my well-being

12. My closer friends and family think I …

Should not travel this summer 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Should travel this summer

D) Mood dimension

13. Currently you feel depressed.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely much

(Thomas and Diener, 1990; Ambady and Gray, 2002)

14. Things aren't quite like I would like them to be.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Please bring to mind an unpleasant experience associated with the word "city".

15. Currently you feel depressed.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely much

(Thomas and Diener, 1990; Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

16. Looking back on my life I wonder if I have accomplished anything really worthwhile.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Thomas and Diener, 1990; Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Please bring to mind an unpleasant experience associated with the word "visit".

17. Currently you feel frustrated.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely much

(Thomas and Diener, 1990; Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

18. I feel downhearted and miserable.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

(Thomas and Diener, 1990; Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Please bring to mind an unpleasant experience associated with the word "money".

19. Currently you feel worried.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely much

(Thomas and Diener, 1990; Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

You can turn the page now !

Section 2 - Plan your vacation

Instructions: Read the questions carefully and follow the instructions as stated. Do not interrupt yourself during this task.

20. Write down what is the time now, using the clock on the computer in front of you _____.
21. Go on www.google.com and type 'travel to Australia'. Do not use any other online search engine.
22. For your upcoming summer holiday, your task is to plan a round trip to Australia, with the duration of 4 (four) weeks, for two adults.

    From the options www.google.com gives you, choose **the cheapest***:

    a. Flight tickets for two adults to Australia (t/r). Choose the flight route with the shortest duration, in addition to the cheapest rate.
    b. Accommodation, breakfast included.
    c. Attractions and activities.
    d. Means of local transport during your vacation.

Turn the page when you are done.

*(Hung and Petrick, 2011)

Section 3 - Feedback

E) Mood

23. Note the time when you have finished or abandoned the task. _____.

24. Currently you feel unhappy.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely much

25. Based on this task, to what extend do you feel…

a)Annoyed: Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much so

b)Frustrated: Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much so

c)That you wasted your time: Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much so

d)That you are in better mood: Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much so

e) That you are in worst mood: Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much so

26. Do you intend to …

a)Travel during upcoming summer holiday? Less likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Most likely

b)Purchase a journey online during summer Less likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Most likely

F) Task concerns

27. Did you complete the task?

28. If you completed the task, how do you know you got the cheapest prices? (Gursoy and Gavcal, 2003)

	Yes (1)	No (2)
Completed		

……

29. What was the reason for which you did not complete the task? (Please pick the most suitable answer)

	Yes (1)	**No (2)**
I spent too much time on it already		
Had other errands		
Was overwhelmed with information		
Vacation planning is boring		
The task was too comprehensive		
Got frustrated		

30. To which degree do you think your friends and family expect you to travel this summer?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

(Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980)

31. To which degree did you experience frustration during this task?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

(Frustration = the feeling of being upset or annoyed as a result of being unable to change or achieve something; the prevention of the progress, success, or fulfilment of something).

32. To which degree did you feel bored during this task?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

33. To which degree did the amount of information was overwhelming?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

(Keller & Staelin, 1987).

34. To which degree was the task difficult to understand?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

(Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999).

35. To which degree did you feel that the task was similar to planning a trip in real life?

Very low degree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very high degree

G) Yourself

36. Pick the options that describe best how you are in the daily life:

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	
Well-organised								Unorganised
Worried								Not worried
Submissive								Dominant
Nervous								Not nervous
Extrovert								Introvert
Tensed								Not tensed
Not inventive								Inventive

Engvik (1993a, 1993b).

Section 4: Demographics

37. You are from:

Scandinavia (1)	Western Europe (2)	Eastern Europe (3)	Asia (4)	Middle East (5)	Africa (6)	Oceania (7)

38. Age:

Under 19	**20-29**	**30-39**	**40-49**	**50-59**	**60-69**	**Older than 70**
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

39. Gender:

Male (1)	**Female (2)**

40. Occupation

Student UiS (1)	**Student at other university (2)**	**Employee UiS (3)**	**Employee at other institution (4)**

Appendix 4c

The instrument inducing happy mood – Norwegian

Faculty of Social Sciences
The Norwegian School of Hotel Management
Department of Business Administration
4036 Stavanger, Norway

Diana Gabriela Verpe
Master Student
e-post: dg.verpe@stud.uis.no

Hei!

Navnet mitt er Diana Gabriela Verpe. Jeg er siste år masterstudent i Internasjonal Hotell og Reiselivsledelse på Universitet i Stavanger. Dette forskning prosjektet er en viktig del av min masteroppgave. Jeg forsker på reiserelatert informasjon søking på nettet. Alle spørsmålene i denne spørreskjema er etikkbasert, uskadelig og lett å forstå. Gjerne svar på alle spørsmålene, for at din deltagelse skal være gyldig. Ditt bidrag skal være anonymt.

Skulle du ønske mer informasjon om dette prosjektet, ta gjerne kontakt med meg på e-post adressen som er nevnt ovenfor. Tilbakemelding om funnene kan gis generellsett, hvis ønsket.

Tusen takk for at du tar deg tid til å delta på dette eksperimentet.

Med vennlig hilsen,

Diana G. Verpe

Instruksjoner:

1. Gjerne slå av mobilen.
2. Les alle spørsmålene nøye.
3. Velg kun det alternativet som beskrives best din situasjon, for hvert spørsmål.
4. Besvarelsen skal være individuell, og må ikke i samarbeid med andre deltagere.
5. Ta kontakt med de vaktassistentene hvis du trenger yterlige informasjon.

Seksion 1 – I din tilfelle

A) Reise erfaring

1. Er du en erfaren turist?

Ikke erfaren 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig erfaren

(Pan and Fesenmaier, 2006)

2. Hvor ofte reiser du …

Ferie og fritid: Ikke ofte 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig ofte

Jobb sammenheng: Ikke ofte 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig ofte

3. Jeg tror mine venner og familie vil at jeg skal reise.

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Um and Crampton, 1990)

4. Jeg reiser fordi det er morsmot.

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Um and Crampton, 1990)

B) Informasjon søk på nettet

5. Du pleier å planlegge reisen din selv når du reiser til utlandet …

For ferie og fritid:

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

For andre type reiser:

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

6. Bruker du en søkemotor når du planlegge din reise?

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Xiang and Gretzel, 2009)

7. Hvor mange reiser har du planlagt inntil nå?

Ingen	**1 - 19**	**20 - 29**	**30 - 39**	**40 - 49**	**50 - 59**	**Mer enn 50**
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

(Lehto, O'Leary and Morrison, 2004)

8. Til hvilken grad ser du på deg selv som en erfaren informasjons søker på nettet?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig store grad

(Gursoy and McCleary, 2004)

9. Har du noen gang jobbet i en reisebyrå eller flyselskap?

	Ja (1)	**Nei (2)**
Reisebyrå		
Flyselskap		

C) Reise intensjoner i den nærmeste framtid

(Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen & Driver, 1992)

10. Hvor sannsynlig er det at du skal reise til utlandet denne sommer?

Lite sannsynlig 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Mest sannsynlig

11. Å reise til utlandet denne sommer skal…

Bortkaste tiden/pengene min(e) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Være en bra investering i meg selv

12. Mine nærmeste venner og familie tror jeg …

Skulle ikke reise denne sommer 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Skulle reise denne sommer

D) Din humør tilværelse

13. Du er blid for tiden.

Ikke i det helle tatt 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Altfor mye

(Thomas and Diener, 1990)

14. Ting fungerer som jeg vil.

Adri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Tenk på en god opplevelse hvor ordet 'byen' spiller en sentral rolle.

15. Du føler deg sprudlende for tiden.

Ikke i det helle tatt 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Altfor mye

(Thomas and Diener, 1990)

16. Livet er så morsomt og interessant.

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Tenk på en god opplevelse hvor ordet 'besøk' spiller en sentral rolle.

17. Du er fornøyd med deg selv for tiden.

Ikke i det helle tatt 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Altfor mye

(Thomas and Diener, 1990)

18. Jeg er så glad, har nesten lyst til å le høyt.

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Tenk på en god opplevelse hvor ordet 'penger' spiller en sentral rolle.

19. Du er full av glede for tiden.

Ikke i det helle tatt 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Altfor mye

(Thomas and Diener, 2009)

Du kan snu siden nå ☺ !

Seksjon 2 – Reiseplanlegging

Instruksjoner: Les alt nøye og respekter de anviste instrukser. Ingen pauser er tillatt under denne oppgaven.

20. Noter hva klokken er nå, ved å bruke klokken på skjermet nede i høyre hjørnet _____.
21. Gå til www.google.com og skriv 'travel to Australia'. Du kan ikke andre søkemotorer.
22. Planlegg en tur for to voksne til Australia til sommer. Turen skal være i 4 uker.

    Ved bruk av valgene du får på www.google.com, må du velge **billigste***:

    a. Fly billetter tur retur Stavanger-Australia. Velg den korteste (tidsmessig) flytur, i tillegg til at den er billigste.
    b. Boalternativ, med frokost inkludert.
    c. Attraksjoner og aktiviteter.
    d. Transport alternativer lokalt

Du kan snu arket når du er klar.

*(Hung and Petrick, 2011)

Seksjon 3 – Tilbakemelding

E) Humør

23. Noter klokkeslett når du har fullført oppgaven eller gitt opp. _____.

24. Du fikk lyst til å gjøre noe spennende.

Ikke i det helle tatt 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Altfor mye

25. Basert på denne oppgaven, til hvilken grad føler du deg…

Irritert: Ingen grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

Frustrert: Ingen grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

At du har bortkastet tiden din: Ingen grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

At du er i bedre humør: Ingen grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

At du er i dårligere humør: Ingen grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

26. Hvor sannsynlig er det…

At du skal reise til utlandet denne sommer :

Lite sannsynlig 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Mest sannsynlig

At du kjøper en reise på Internet denne sommer:

Lite sannsynlig 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Mest sannsynlig

F) Om oppgaven

27. Fikk du fullført oppgaven?

	Ja (1)	Nei (2)
Fullført		

28. Hvis du fikk fullført oppgaven, hvordan vet du at du har funnet de billigste alternativer? (Gursoy and Gavcal, 2003)

……

29. Hva er grunnet til at du ikke fikk fullført oppgaven?

	Ja (1)	**Nei (2)**
Jeg brukte altfor lang tid på den		
Hadde andre planer og måte dra		
Var satt ut av så masse informasjon på nettet		
Reiseplanlegging er kjeddelig		
Oppgaven var for krevende		
Ble frustrert etterhvert		

30. Til hvilken grad tror du at dine venner og familie forventer at du skal reise denne sommer?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

31. Til hvilken grad følte du deg frustrert mens du dreiv på med oppgaven?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

(Frustrasjon = følelsen av å ikke være i stand til å endre eller oppnå noe; følelsen av å bli forhindret til å oppnå noe).

32. Til hvilken grad følte du kjedet deg med denne oppgaven?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

33. Til hvilken grad føler du at du hadde altfor mye informasjon å velge mellom?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

Keller & Staelin (1987).

34. Til hvilken grad var oppgaven vanskelig å forstå?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

(Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999)

35. Til hvilken grad var oppgaven lik planlegging av reise i virkeligheten?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

G) Deg selv

36. Valg alternativene som beskriver deg best, i det daglige:

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	
Velorganisert								Ikke organisert
Bekymret								Ubekymret
Ikke dominerende								Dominerende
Nervøs								Ikke nervøs
Pratsom								Fåmælt
Anspent								Ikke anspent
Ikke oppfinnsom								Oppfinnsom

Engvik (1993a, 1993b).

Section 4: Demographics

37. Du er fra:

Skandinavia (1)	Vest Europa (2)	Øst Europa (3)	Asia (4)	Middle East (5)	Afrika (6)	Oceania (7)

38. Alder:

Under 19	**19-29**	**30-39**	**40 - 49**	**50-59**	**60-69**	**Eldre en 70**
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

39. Kjønn:

Mann (1)	**Kvinne (2)**

40. Yrke:

Student UiS (1)	**Student på andre universitet (2)**	**Ansatt UiS (3)**	**Ansatt andre sted (4)**

Takk for din deltagelse!

Appendix 4d

The instrument inducing sad mood - Norwegian

The cover letter was identical as per 'happy mood inducing' instrument.

Seksion 1 – I din tilfelle

A) Reise erfaring

1. Er du en erfaren turist?

Ikke erfaren 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig erfaren

(Pan and Fesenmaier, 2006)

2. Hvor ofte reiser du …

Ferie og fritid:

Ikke ofte 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig ofte

Jobb sammenheng:

Ikke ofte 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig ofte

3. Jeg tror mine venner og familie vil at jeg skal reise.

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Um and Crampton, 1990)

4. Jeg reiser fordi det er morsmot.

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Um and Crampton, 1990)

B) Informasjon søk på nettet

5. Du pleier å planlegge reisen din selv når du reiser til utlandet …

For ferie og fritid: Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

For andre type reiser: Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

6. Bruker du en søkemotor når du planlegge din reise?

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Xiang and Gretzel, 2009)

7. Hvor mange reiser har du planlagt inntil nå?

Ingen	**1 - 19**	**20 - 29**	**30 - 39**	**40 - 49**	**50 - 59**	**Mer enn 50**
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

(Lehto, O'Leary and Morrison, 2004)

8. Til hvilken grad ser du på deg selv som en erfaren informasjons søker på nettet?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig store grad

(Gursoy and McCleary, 2004)

9. Har du noen gang jobbet i en reisebyrå eller flyselskap?

	Ja (1)	**Nei (2)**
Reisebyrå		
Flyselskap		

C) Reise intensjoner i den nærmeste framtid

(Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen & Driver, 1992)

10. Hvor sannsynlig er det at du skal reise til utlandet denne sommer?

Lite sannsynlig 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Mest sannsynlig

11. Å reise til utlandet denne sommer skal…

Bortkaste tiden/pengene min(e) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Være en bra investering i meg selv

12. Mine nærmeste venner og familie tror jeg …

Skulle ikke reise denne sommer 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Skulle reise denne sommer

D) Din humør tilværelse

13. Du er blid for tiden.

Ikke i det helle tatt 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Altfor mye

(Thomas and Diener, 1990)

14. Ting fungerer som jeg vil.

Adri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Tenk på en god opplevelse hvor ordet 'byen' spiller en sentral rolle.

15. Du føler deg sprudlende for tiden.

Ikke i det helle tatt 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Altfor mye

(Thomas and Diener, 1990)

16. Livet er så morsomt og interessant.

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Tenk på en god opplevelse hvor ordet 'besøk' spiller en sentral rolle.

17. Du er fornøyd med deg selv for tiden.

Ikke i det helle tatt 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Altfor mye

(Thomas and Diener, 1990)

18. Jeg er så glad, har nesten lyst til å le høyt.

Aldri 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Alltid

(Teasdale and Fogarty, 2009)

Tenk på en god opplevelse hvor ordet 'penger' spiller en sentral rolle.

19. Du er full av glede for tiden.

Ikke i det helle tatt 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Altfor mye

(Thomas and Diener, 2009)

Du kan snu siden nå ☺ !

Seksjon 2 - Reiseplanlegging

Instruksjoner: Les alt nøye og respekter de anviste instrukser. Ingen pauser er tillatt under denne oppgaven.

20. Noter hva klokken er nå, ved å bruke klokken på skjermet nede i høyre hjørnet _____.
21. Gå til www.google.com og skriv 'travel to Australia'. Du kan ikke andre søkemotorer.
22. Planlegg en tur for to voksne til Australia til sommer. Turen skal være i 4 uker.

    Ved bruk av valgene du får på www.google.com, må du velge **billigste***:

    a. Fly billetter tur retur Stavanger-Australia. Velg den korteste (tidsmessig) flytur, i tillegg til at den er billigste.
    b. Boalternativ, med frokost inkludert.
    c. Attraksjoner og aktiviteter.
    d. Transport alternativer lokalt

Du kan snu arket når du er klar.

*(Hung and Petrick, 2011)

Seksjon 3 - Tilbakemelding

E) Humør

23. Noter klokkeslett når du har fullført oppgaven eller gitt opp. _____.

24. Du fikk lyst til å gjøre noe spennende.

Ikke i det helle tatt 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Altfor mye

25. Basert på denne oppgaven, til hvilken grad føler du deg…

Irritert: Ingen grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

Frustrert: Ingen grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

At du har bortkastet tiden din: Ingen grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

At du er i bedre humør: Ingen grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

At du er i dårligere humør: Ingen grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

26. Hvor sannsynlig er det…

At du skal reise til utlandet denne sommer :

Lite sannsynlig 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Mest sannsynlig

At du kjøper en reise på Internet denne sommer:

Lite sannsynlig 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Mest sannsynlig

F) Om oppgaven

27. Fikk du fullført oppgaven?

	Ja (1)	**Nei (2)**
Fullført		

28. Hvis du fikk fullført oppgaven, hvordan vet du at du har funnet de billigste alternativer? (Gursoy and Gavcal, 2003)

……

29. Hva er grunnet til at du ikke fikk fullført oppgaven?

	Ja (1)	**Nei (2)**
Jeg brukte altfor lang tid på den		
Hadde andre planer og måte dra		
Var satt ut av så masse informasjon på nettet		
Reiseplanlegging er kjeddelig		
Oppgaven var for krevende		
Ble frustrert etterhvert		

30. Til hvilken grad tror du at dine venner og familie forventer at du skal reise denne sommer?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

31. Til hvilken grad følte du deg frustrert mens du dreiv på med oppgaven?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

(Frustrasjon = følelsen av å ikke være i stand til å endre eller oppnå noe; følelsen av å bli forhindret til å oppnå noe).

32. Til hvilken grad følte du kjedet deg med denne oppgaven?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

33. Til hvilken grad føler du at du hadde altfor mye informasjon å velge mellom?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

Keller & Staelin (1987).

34. Til hvilken grad var oppgaven vanskelig å forstå?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

(Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999)

35. Til hvilken grad var oppgaven lik planlegging av reise i virkeligheten?

Veldig lite grad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Veldig stor grad

G) Deg selv

36. Valg alternativene som beskriver deg best, i det daglige:

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	
Velorganisert								Ikke organisert
Bekymret								Ubekymret
Ikke dominerende								Dominerende
Nervøs								Ikke nervøs
Pratsom								Fåmælt
Anspent								Ikke anspent
Ikke oppfinnsom								Oppfinnsom

Engvik (1993a, 1993b).

Section 4: Demographics

37. Du er fra:

Skandinavia (1)	Vest Europa (2)	Øst Europa (3)	Asia (4)	Middle East (5)	Afrika (6)	Oceania (7)

38. Alder:

Under 19	**19-29**	**30-39**	**40 - 49**	**50-59**	**60-69**	**Eldre en 70**
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

39. Kjønn: 40.. Yrke:

Mann (1)	**Kvinne (2)**

Student UiS (1)	**Student på andre universitet (2)**	**Ansatt UiS (3)**	**Ansatt andre sted (4)**

Takk for din deltagelse!

Appendix 5

Table 4

Overview choices available on www.google.com during data collection

Date and time	Choices offered by www.google.com	In how many seconds
Mandag 19. mars at 14:30	1 540 000 000	0.3
Tirsdag 20. mars at 12:00	1 560 000 000	0.2
Thursday 22. mars at 13:00	1 610 000 000	0.2
Monday 26 mars at 15:30	1 540 000 000	0.3
Tuesday 27 mars at 15:30	1 490 000 000	0.2
Wednesday 28 mars at 14:30	1 490 000 000	0.2
Wednesday 28 mars at 15:30	1 530 000 000	0.23
Monday 16 april at 10:00	1 540 000 000	0.21

Appendix 6

Invitation to research project

Hello,

My name is Diana Gabriela Verpe. I am a master student, completing my Master of Science in International Hotel and Tourism Leadership at University of Stavanger. I would like to invite you to participate to a research experiment that is important for my master's thesis. I am focusing on the use of online information search in tourism. The topics are straightforward; the questions are ethical and harmless to you. All the answers are anonymous. Each participant will be allocated a respondent number upon arrival.

The experiment takes place at University of Stavanger, room V-102, first floor in Arne Rettendal building. Please choose the date/time that is suitable for you to participate.

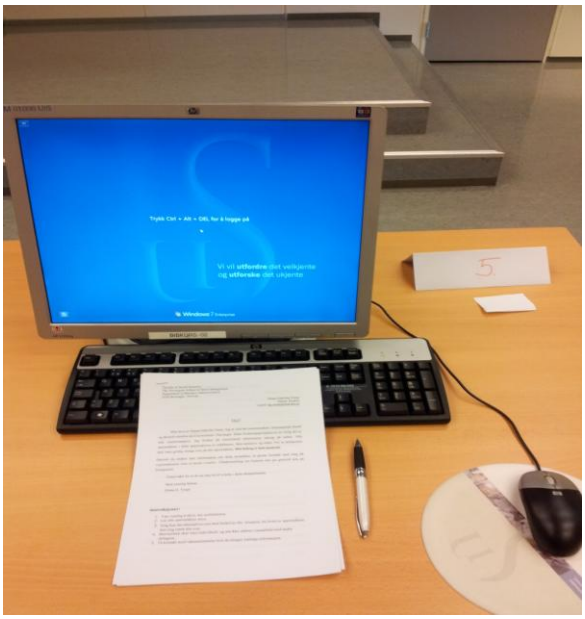
Day	Time
Wednesday 28. March 2012	14:30
Wednesday 28. March 2012	15:30

Due to restricted carrying capacity of the computer room, kindly provide feedback about your choice via e-mail: diana.verpe@gmail.com or mobile 45 66 19 37 latest Tuesday 27. March 2012. Your participation is honestly valued. As a modest thank you note, we will hold a lottery. The winner gets a gift card at Vinmonopolet 250,-.

Looking forward to welcoming you ☺ !

Computer laboratory set-up prior data collection

Room V-102 prepared for the experiment



Ready to participate

NB – private pictures

Appendix 7

Table 5

Overview of Cronbach alpha coefficient before purification

Constructs	Factors	Items	α
Search behavior	Travel experience	Self reported travel experience	.598
		Often leisure travel	
		Often leisure other purposes	
	Online search experience	Travel planning habits leisure	.511
		Travel habits other reasons	
		Use of online search engine	
		Frequency journeys planned	
		Self-reported online search experience	
Travel intention	Travel intention before task	Social expectations on travel	.680
		Attitude towards travel	
		Upcoming travel intentions	
		Attitude towards upcoming travel	
		Subjective norms upcoming travel	
	Travel intention after task	Upcoming travel intention	.517
		Upcoming intention to purchase	
		Subjective norms traveling this summer	
		Travel attitude	
		Intention to plan vacation online	
Mood	Momentary mood	Momentary moody	.897
		Things work	
		Experiencing ups and downs	
		Accomplishments in life	
		Currently frustrated	
		Feeling good	
		Currently worried	
	Momentary mood change	Currently happy	.578
		Annoyed	
		Post task frustration	
		Time wasted	
		In better mood	
		In worst mood	

Frustration	Self-reported frustration	Frustrated based on task	.664
		Frustration during task	
		Boredom during task	
		Info overwhelming during task	

Table 6

Overview of Cronbach alpha coefficient of revised scale

Construct / items	**Nr of components**	**Reliability**
Search behavior		
Self reported travel experience	**3**	**.652**
Often leisure travel		
Travel planning habits leisure		
Travel intention		
Social expectations on travel	**5**	**.684**
Upcoming travel intentions before treatment		
Attitude towards upcoming travel before treatment		
Subjective norms upcoming travel before treatment		
Upcoming travel intentions after treatment		
Momentary mood		
Mood before treatment	**6**	**.907**
Momentary moody		
Things work		
Experiencing ups and downs		
Accomplishments in life		
Currently frustrated		
Feeling good		
Mood after treatment	**4**	**.787**
Annoyed		
Post task frustration		
Time wasted		
Mood changed		
Frustration (self – reported)		
Frustrated based on task	**3**	**.753**
Frustration during task		
Boredom during task		

Appendix 8

Table 8: ***Principal components analysis (initial scale)***

Constructs	Factors	Items	SPSS name	α	Eigen val.	Communa-lities	Factor loading	Variance explain.
Search behavior	Travel experience	Self reported travel experience	V1	.598	1.736	.843	.918	58 %
		Often leisure travel	V2a		.984	.853	.924	33 %
		Often leisure other purposes	V2b		.280	.040	.199	9 %
	Online search experience	Travel planning habits leisure	V5a	.511	1.765	.686	.804	35 %
		Travel habits other reasons	V5b		1.036	.378	.590	21 %
		Use of online search engine	V6		.975	.670	.619	20 %
		Frequency journeys planned	V7		.706	.798	.384	14 %
		Self-reported online search experience	V8		.519	.268	.491	10 %
Travel intention	Travel intention before task	Social expectations on travel	V3	.680	2.235	.589	.615	45 %
		Attitude towards travel	V4		1.050	.778	.392	21 %
		Upcoming travel intentions	V10		.685	.707	.775	14 %
		Attitude towards upcoming travel	V11		.575	.631	.745	11 %
		Subjective norms upcoming travel	V12		.455	.580	.740	9 %
	Travel intention after task	Upcoming travel intention	V26a	.517	2.038	.924	.891	41 %
		Upcoming intention to purchase	V26b		1.169	.926	.903	23 %
		Subjective norms traveling this summer	V30a		1.009	.710	.415	20 %
		Travel attitude	V30b		.637	.691	.506	13 %
		Intention to plan vacation online	V30c		.148	.964	-.004	3 %
Momentary mood	Mood at start	Momentary moody	V13	.897	4.367	.513	.716	62 %
		Things work	V14		.950	.528	.726	14 %
		Experiencing ups and downs	V15		.735	.806	.898	10 %
		Accomplishments in life	V16		.368	.730	.854	5 %
		Currently frustrated	V17		.247	.731	.855	4 %
		Feeling good	V18		.205	.739	.859	3 %
		Currently worried	V19		.126	.321	.567	2 %
	Mood at end	Currently happy	V24	.578	2.281	.112	.327	38 %
		Annoyed	V25a		1.485	.767	.867	25 %
		Post task frustration	V25b		.945	.752	.860	16 %
		Time wasted	V25c		.654	.709	.550	11 %
		In better mood	V25d		.357	.785	.095	6 %
		In worst mood	V25e		.279	.641	-.469	4 %
	Changed mood	Mean M2 - Mean M1						
Frustration	Self-reported frustration	Frustrated based on task	V25b	.664		.705	.840	52 %
		Frustration during task	V31			.726	.852	25 %
		Boredom during task	V32			.542	.736	13 %
		Info overwhelming during task	V33			.108	.329	10 %

Table 9

Instrument validation revised scale

Construct / items	**Nr of components**	**Reliability**	**Principal components**		
		α of revised scale	Variance extracted by first factor	Range of factor loadings	Range of Communalities
Search behavior				**.434 - .914**	**.189 - .836**
Self reported travel experience	**3**	**.652**	61 %	.888	.788
Often leisure travel			30 %	.914	.836
Travel planning habits leisure			9 %	.434	.189
Travel intention				**.437 - .801**	**.191 - .642**
Social expectations on travel	**5**	**.684**	45 %	.551	.303
Upcoming travel intentions before treatment			18 %	.801	.642
Attitude towards upcoming travel before treatment			16 %	.759	.575
Subjective norms upcoming travel before treatment			12 %	.742	.551
Upcoming travel intentions after treatment			9 %	.437	.191
Mood at start				**.730 - .908**	**.533 - .824**
Momentary moody	**6**	**.907**	68 %	.742	.551
Things work			15 %	.730	.533
Experiencing ups and downs			6 %	.908	.824
Accomplishments in life			5 %	.847	.718
Currently frustrated			4 %	.855	.731
Feeling good			2 %	.862	.744
Mood at end				**.743 - .862**	**.552 - .742**
Annoyed	**4**	**.787**	64 %	.862	.742
Post task frustration			18 %	.805	.684
Time wasted			12 %	.743	.552
Mood changed			6 %	.772	.595
Changed mood					
Average mood at start			55 %	.739	.546
Average mood at end			45 %	.739	.546
Frustration				**.768 - .848**	**.590 - .720**
Frustrated based on task	**3**	**.753**	67 %	.848	.720
Frustration during task			19 %	.843	.711
Boredom during task			13 %	.768	.590

Appendix 9

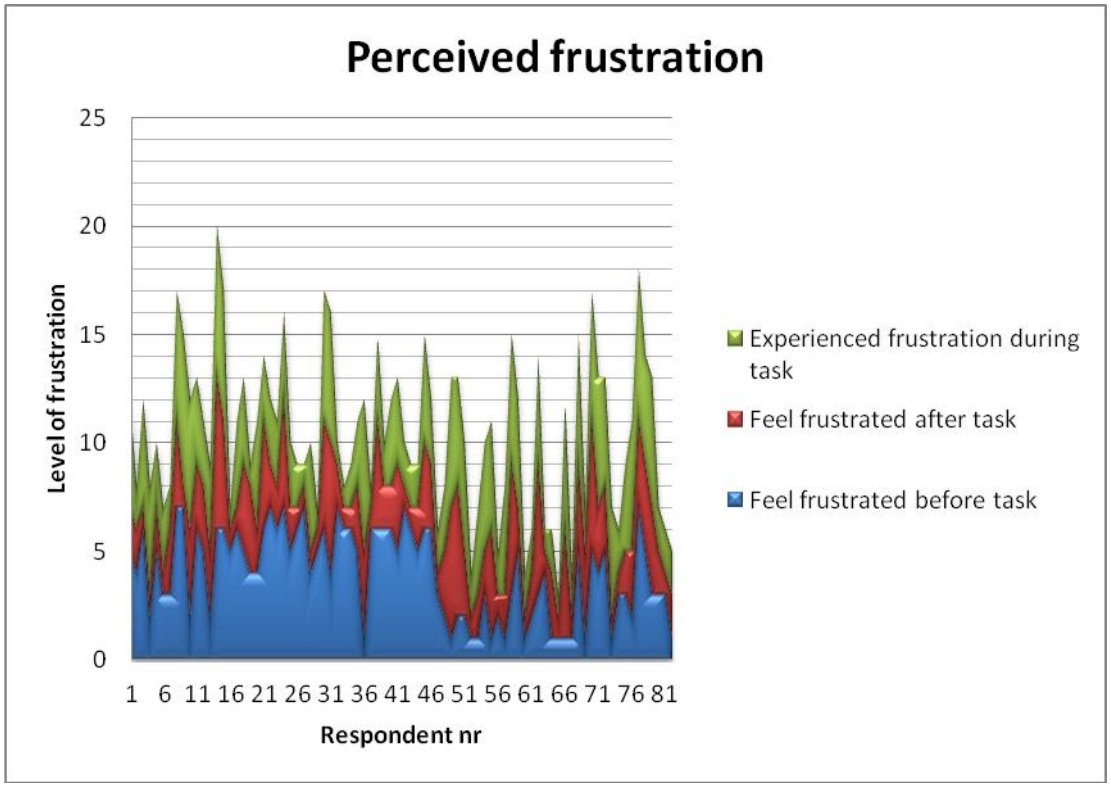
Table 10

Comparing means of self – reported and observed frustration

	Self-reported			Observed	Variances	
Resp. nr	Feel frustrated before task	Feel frustrated after task	Experienced frustration during task		In perceived frustration	Observed vs perceived
2	5	2	5	1	-3	No match
3	4	2	2	1	-2	No match
5	6	1	5	1	-5	No match
6	2	1	5	1	-1	No match
7	5	2	3	1	-3	Match
8	3	1	3	1	-2	No match
9	3	3	2	2	0	Match
10	7	4	6	1	-3	No match
11	7	1	7	1	-6	No match
12	2	4	6	1	2	No match
13	6	3	4	1	-3	No match
14	5	3	3	2	-2	Match
15	2	3	4	1	1	No match
18	6	7	7	1	1	Match
20	6	5	6	1	-1	Match
22	5	1	1	1	-4	No match
25	6	1	4	1	-5	No match
28	5	4	4	1	-1	Match
32	4	4	1	1	0	Match
34	4	2	5	1	-2	No match
35	6	5	3	2	-1	No match
36	7	2	3	2	-5	
37	6	2	3	1	-4	No match
38	7	5	4	2	-2	No match
40	5	2	3	1	-3	No match
43	6	1	2	1	-5	No match
45	7	1	1	2	-6	Match
46	4	1	5	1	-3	No match
48	5	1	1	1	-4	No match
49	6	5	6	2	-1	No match
53	4	6	6	1	2	Match
60	7	2	1	2	-5	Match

61	6	1	1	2	-5	Match
63	6	1	2	2	-5	Match
65	5	3	3	1	-2	Match
68	1	4	7	2	3	Match
78	6	1	1	1	-5	No match
82	6	5	4	2	-1	No match
83	6	2	2	1	-4	No match
84	6	2	4	1	-4	No match
92	5	4	4	2	-1	No match
94	7	1	2	1	-6	No match
97	6	1	2	1	-5	No match
99	5	2	2	1	-3	No match
100	6	4	5	1	-2	No match
117	6	3	3	1	-3	No match
1	3	1	2	2	-2	Match
4	2	3	3	2	1	Match
16	1	6	6	1	5	Match
17	2	6	5	1	4	Match
19	2	3	5	2	1	Match
21	1	1	2	2	0	Match
23	1	2	4	2	1	Match
27	3	2	5	1	-1	No match
29	1	5	5	1	4	No match
30	2	1	2	1	-1	No match
31	1	2	5	1	1	No match
33	3	6	6	2	3	No match
39	5	2	5	2	-3	Match
41	1	1	2	2	0	Match
42	2	2	2	2	0	Match
44	3	6	5	2	3	No match
47	4	1	1	2	-3	Match
50	1	3	2	2	2	Match
51	1	1	1	1	0	No match
52	1	5	6	1	4	Match
54	1	1	2	2	0	Match
59	5	4	6	1	-1	Match
62	1	4	2	1	3	Match
66	5	6	6	2	1	No match
69	4	3	6	2	-1	Match
70	5	3	5	2	-2	Match
85	1	1	5	2	0	Match
87	3	1	2	2	-2	Match

88	3	2	4	2	-1	Match
89	2	3	6	2	1	Match
90	7	4	7	2	-3	No match
91	5	4	5	2	-1	No match
95	3	4	6	2	1	No match
96	3	2	2	2	-1	Match
98	3	1	2	2	-2	Match
118	1	2	2	1	1	No match
Average	4,04878049	2,74390244	3,719512195		-1,304878	



Graph 3

Appendix 10

Table 11

Descriptive statistics of categorical variables

			Frequency *f*	Valid per cent	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Demographics	Geographical area of origin				1.852	1.707	1.575
		Scandinavia	56	68 %			
		Western Europe	8	10 %			
		Eastern Europe	3	4 %			
		Asia	3	4 %			
		Middle East	2	2 %			
		Africa	8	10 %			
		Oceania	1	1 %			
		South America	1	1 %			
	Age				1.133	1.769	2.099
		Under 19	1	1 %			
		19 - 29	58	71 %			
		30 -39	9	11 %			
		40 -49	5	6 %			
		50 -59	6	7 %			
		60 -69	3	4 %			
		Over 70	0	0 %			
	Gender				.610	1.657	9.348
		Male	30	35 %			
		Female	52	65 %			
	Occupation				.819	1.336	.137
		Student UiS	62	76 %			
		Student other university	3	4 %			
		Employee UiS	17	20 %			
Time spent					1.501	.770	.234
		0 - 4 minutes	2	2 %	**STATISTIC MEAN 3.54 ***		
		5 - 9 minutes	19	23 %			
		10 - 14 minutes	**30**	**37 %**			
		15 - 19 minutes	11	13 %			
		20 - 24 minutes	8	10 %			
		25 - 29 minutes	8	10 %			
		More than 30 minutes	4	5 %			

*equals 10 – 14 minutes real time

Table 12

Descriptive statistics of initial measurement scale

Constructs	**Factors**	**Items**	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Skeweness	Kurtosis
Search behavior	Travel experience	Self reported travel experience	4,41	5.00	5	1.507	-.387	-.238
		Often leisure travel	4,57	5.00	5	1.499	-.629	.289
		Often leisure other purposes	1,85	1,50	1	1.079	1.388	2.036
	Online search experience	Travel planning habits leisure	5,57	6.00	6	1.296	-1.281	2.517
		Travel habits other reasons	4,52	5.00	4	1.793	-.370	-.742
		Use of online search engine	5,99	6.00	7	1.444	-1.969	3.966
		Frequency journeys planned	2,89	2.00	2	1.432	1.750	2.194
		Self-reported online search experience	5,2	5.00	5	1.252	-.380	-.238
	Time spent	Time spent on the task *	3,54	3.00	3	1.501	.770	-.234
Travel intention	Travel intention at start (before task)	Social expectations on travel	5,33	5.00	5	1.388	-.956	1.498
		Attitude towards travel	6,12	6,50	7	1.241	-2.143	5.809
		Upcoming travel intentions	5,62	7.00	7	1.992	-1.295	.352
		Attitude towards upcoming travel	6,11	7.00	7	1.491	-1.934	3.428
		Subjective norms upcoming travel	5,01	6.00	7	2.225	-.684	-1.052
	Travel intention at end (after task)	Upcoming travel intention	5,72	6.00	7	1.581	-1.481	1.737
		Upcoming intention to purchase	5,76	6.00	7	1.428	-1.043	.215
		Subjective norms traveling this summer	5,01	6.00	7	2.152	-.687	-.975
		Travel attitude	6,21	7.00	7	1.340	-2.157	4.979
		Intention to plan vacation online	4,91	5.00	5	1.363	-.352	-.475
Momentary mood	Mood at start	Momentary moody	4,15	4.00	4	1.772	-.200	-.898
		Things work	4,39	4,50	6	1.601	-.370	-.685
		Experiencing ups and downs	3,80	4.00	6	1.965	.050	-1.368
		Accomplishments in life	4,33	5.00	5	1.873	-.402	-.860
		Currently frustrated	4,05	4,50	6	2.024	-.205	-1.323
		Feeling good	3,65	3,50	3	1.868	.184	-1.075
		Currently worried	4,38	4,00	4	1.704	-.261	-.741
	Mood at end	Currently happy	3,78	4,00	4	1.810	-.049	-.915
		Annoyed	2,41	2,00	1	1.672	1.052	.154
		Post task frustrated	2,77	2,00	1	1.660	.685	-.584
		Time wasted	2,57	2,00	1	1.904	1.130	.154
		In better mood	2,51	2,00	1	1.534	.792	-.208
		In worst mood	4,09	4,00	3	1.468	.034	-.826
	Changed m	Mean M2 - Mean M1				1.656	.428	.439

Frustration	Self-reported frustration	Frustrated based on task	2,74	2,00	1	1.662	.685	-.584
		Frustration during task	3,72	4,00	2	1.821	.090	-1.267
		Boredom during task	3,26	3,00	1	1.891	.317	-1.110
		Info overwhelming during task	4,39	4,50	6	1.616	-.211	-.995
	Observed frustration	Independently observed frustration	1,50	1,50	1	.503	.000	-2.051

Table 13

Descriptive statistics of revised measurement scale

Constructs		**Items**	Mean	Me-dian	Mode	SD	Skewenes s	Kurtos is
Search behavior		Self reported travel experience	4,41	5.00	5	1.507	-.387	-.238
		Often leisure travel	4,57	5.00	5	1.499	-.629	.289
		Travel planning habits leisure	5,57	6.00	6	1.296	-1.281	2.517
	Time spent	Time spent on the task	**3,54**	3.00	3	1.501	.770	-.234
Travel intention		Social expectations on travel	5,33	5.00	5	1.388	-.956	1.498
		Upcoming travel intentions before task	5,62	7.00	7	1.992	-1.295	.352
		Attitude towards upcoming travel	6,11	7.00	7	1.491	-1.934	3.428
		Subjective norms upcoming travel	5,01	6.00	7	2.225	-.684	-1.052
		Upcoming travel intention after task	5,72	6.00	7	1.581	-1.481	1.737
Momen-tary mood	Mood at start	Momentary moody	4,15	4.00	4	1.772	-.200	-.898
		Things work	4,39	4,50	6	1.601	-.370	-.685
		Experiencing ups and downs	3,80	4.00	6	1.965	.050	-1.368
		Accomplishments in life	4,33	5.00	5	1.873	-.402	-.860
		Currently frustrated	4,05	4,50	6	2.024	-.205	-1.323
		Feeling good	3,65	3,50	3	1.868	.184	-1.075
	Mood at end	Annoyed	2,41	2,00	1	1.672	1.052	.154
		Post task frustrated	2,77	2,00	1	1.660	.685	-.584
		Time wasted	2,57	2,00	1	1.904	1.130	.154
		Mood changed	2,98	3,00	3	.983	.498	.106
	Changed mood	Mean M2 - Mean M1	**-1,38**			1.656	.428	.439
Frustra-tion	Self-reported frustration	Frustrated based on task	2,74	2,00	1	1.662	.685	-.584
		Frustration during task	3,72	4,00	2	1.821	.090	-1.267
		Boredom during task	3,26	3,00	1	1.891	.317	-1.110
		Info overwhelming during task	4,39	4,50	6	1.616	-.211	-.995
	Observed frustration	Independently observed frustration	1,50	1,50	1	.503	.000	-2.051

Appendix 11

Table 14

Descriptive statistics control group

Resp. nr.	Age	Gender	Geographical area of origin	Occupation	Time spent (min.)	Task completed	Reason	Personality traits		
								High level	Low level	Midpoint
1	19 - 29	female	Western Europe	Student UiS	36	yes		Well-organized, not nervous, inventive; extrovert	Introvert	Submissive / Dominant
2	19 - 29	female	Scandinavia	Student UiS	14	no	Overwhelmed with information; got frustrated	Well-organized; Inventive; Not tensed	Introvert; Worried	Submissive / Dominant
3	30 - 39	female	Scandinavia	Employee other institution	26	no	Overwhelmed with information; task too comprehensive	Well-organized; Inventive; Dominant	Inventive; Nervous	Worried
4	19 - 29	male	Scandinavia	Student UiS	13	no	Got frustrated	Not Nervous; Introvert; Not tensed	Well-organized; Submissive	Worried; Inventive
5	40 - 49	male	Scandinavia	Employee other institution	5	no	Task too comprehensive; got frustrated	Well-organized, Not tensed, Inventive	Nervous; Worried	Introvert; Tensed
Average time spent					**18.8 min**					

Appendix 12

Results of one-way between groups ANOVA analysis

Time Spent

The overall Sig. value is .525 ($p \leq .5$), which indicates that the groups are not statistically significantly different from one another: F (1, 80) = .407. The mean scores of 'sad' participants is M = 3.63, SD = 1.597 (n = 46) and of happy participants is M = 3.42, SD = 1.381 (n = 36). The effect size of eta squared = .005 indicated that the mean score for Group 1 was not statistically different from the mean score for Group 2.

Perhaps the actual difference in mean scores would have recorded a statistically significance if the number of respondents that were induced happy mood would have been equal with the number of respondents that were induced sad mood (such as n = 41 for each group). This uneven situation is due to the fact that the experimenter did not control were the participants will sit in the computer lab. Althought the two versions of experiment sheet (sad and happy) were placed in equal number in the computer room, participants chose randomly by which computer to choose and this resulted in the uneven number of experiments completed. Should any other researcher run this experiment again, it is advisable that the participants are assigned to the appropriate computer.

Search Behavior

There was not statistically significant difference at the $p \leq .05$ level for the two groups: F (1, 80) = .431, p = .513. The mean scores of 'happy' participants is M = 4.783, SD = 1.187 (n = 46) and of 'sad' participants is M = 4.94, SD = .997 (n = 36).

The effect size of eta squared = .005 indicated that the mean score for Group 1 was not statistically different from the mean score for Group 2. Considering that item "Travel habits" scored the lower percent of variance explained for this factor, it is considered that the statistical average of time spent by the experimental group ($\bar{x}$ =3.54) is not due to their habit of spending so little time on searching for information.

Travel Intention

There was not statistically significant difference at the $p \leq .05$ level for the two groups: F (1, 80) = .351, p = .555. The mean scores of 'sad' participants is M = 5.359, SD = 1.295 (n = 46) and of happy participants is M = 5.521, SD = 1.139 (n = 36). The effect size of eta squared = .004 indicated that the mean score for Group 1 was not statistically different from the mean score for Group 2. Social expectations on travel weights the most in explaining the total variance of travel intention. Self - reported upcoming travel intention percentage of variance explanation decreased with fifty percent after the treatment. Do we travel because others expect us to travel, no matter which mood we are in?

Momentary mood

There was identified statistical significant difference, at the $p \leq .05$ level for the two groups before treatment: F (1, 80) = 30.412, p = .000. The mean scores of 'sad' participants is M = 2.793, SD = .843 (n = 36) and of happy participants is M = 3.818, SD = .829 (n = 46). The effect size of eta squared = .275 indicated that regardless of reaching statistical significance, the strength of association is rather small. After the treatment, the statistical significance scored an overall Sig. value of .839 (at $p \leq .05$) for the two groups: F (1, 80) = .042, with Group 1 recording a mean score M = 2.536, SD = 1.378 and Group 2 M = 2.601,

SD = 1.528. This indicates no statistical significant difference between groups after the treatment. The effect of eta squared = .001 confirms that the mean score for Group 1 was not statistically different from the mean score for Group 2.

At first look, these results suggest that the better the momentary mood is before starting to plan the vacation online, the more likely is that will spend longer time on it. Once frustration comes into picture during the planning, it is more likely that the time spent shortens down.

Frustration

There was not statistically significant difference at the $p \leq .05$ level for the two groups: F (1, 80) = .659, p = .419. The mean scores of 'happy' participants is M = 3.123, SD = 1.413 (n = 46) and of 'sad' participants is M = 3.389, SD = 1.542 (n = 36). The effect size of eta squared = .008 indicated that the mean score for Group 1 was not statistically different from the mean score for Group 2.

Although the statistical significance was not reached, and the actual difference in mean scores was quite low, we should look at what these numbers can tell us. The overall mean score of frustration M = 3.240 is closed just below the midpoint on the measurement scale. If we consider that point 7 on the scale represents the maximum level of frustration, then point 3.24 represents a level of frustration of 46.28 percent.

Appendix 13

Hypotheses testing using SPSS

1. **H_{0a}**

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Mood_at start	4.0610	82	1.53279	.16927
	Mood at end	2.5650	82	1.43701	.15869

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Mood at start & Mood at end	82	-.036	.750

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Mood at start Mood at end	1.49593	2.13822	.23613	1.02612	1.96575	6.335	81	.000

To test H_{0a}, we run a t-test for paired samples using SPSS version 15.0, to evaluate the impact of the treatment on the Momentary Mood. The results indicate a statistically significant decrease in Momentary Mood scores. Mean score at start (M = 4.06, SD = .17) is significantly higher than mean score at end (M = 2.57, SD = .16), t(81) = 6.34. $p < 0.0005$ (two-tailed). The mean decrease in Momentary Mood scores was 1.49 with a 95 percent of confidence interval ranging from 1.03 to 1.70. The eta squared statistic (.33) suggests a small size effect.

2. H_{0b}

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Time spent	3.54	1.501	82
Momentary_Mood	3.3678	.97540	82

Correlations

		Time spent	Momentary_Mood
Time spent	Pearson Correlation	1	-.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.676
	N	82	82
Momentary_Mood	Pearson Correlation	-.047	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.676	
	N	82	82

The relationship between momentary mood and time spent was investigated using Pearson correlation coefficient, based on the assumption that momentary mood was normally distributed (Pallant, 2007). There was a weak negative correlation between the two variables, r = -.047, n = 82, p > .05). The results indicate that the worse the momentary mood is, the less time one spends on planning the vacation online. The coefficient of determination r^2 = 22.09 suggests that momentary mood accounts for 22 percent of the variance in respondents' scores on the time spent to plan the vacation online. Thus, the second operational null hypothesis **H_{0b} is rejected.** We conclude that momentary mood does have an impact on the time spent online to plan a vacation, even though the strength of the relationship is weak. Given the fact that momentary mood only helps explaining 22 percent of the variance in scores for time spent, confounding factors that accounts for the rest of 78 percent will be assessed in the discussion part.

3. H_{0c}

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Momentary_Mood	3.3678	.97540	82
Travel_Intention	5.4299	1.22492	82

Correlations

		Momentary_Mood	Travel_Intention
Momentary_Mood	Pearson Correlation	1	.062
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.582
	N	82	82
Travel_Intention	Pearson Correlation	.062	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.582	
	N	82	82

The same analysis was used to investigate the relationship between momentary mood and travel intention, based on the assumption that variables were normally distributed (Pallant, 2007). There was a small positive relationship between these variables, $r = .062$, $n = 82$, $p > .05$). The results indicate that the better the momentary mood is, the higher the intention to travel is. The coefficient of determination $r^2 < 1$ suggests that momentary mood accounts for less than one percent of the variance in respondents' scores on the intention to travel. Given that the correlation between the two variables is very small, we decide to **not reject the third null hypothesis H_{0c}.** We conclude that momentary mood does not have a significant impact on travel decision, as it only helps to explain less than one percent of the variance in intention to travel ($r^2 = 0.384$). Reasons for this will be assessed in the discussion chapter.

4. H_{0d}:

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Frustration	3.2398	1.46778	82
Manipulated_mood	3.4775	.90157	82

Correlations

		Frustration	Manipulated_mood
Frustration	Pearson Correlation	1	.342**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002
	N	82	82
Manipulated_mood	Pearson Correlation	.342**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	
	N	82	82

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Using correlation analysis we aimed to identify the strength and direction of the relation between frustration and mood change. Is that frustration generates the change in mood during vacation planning at a level that is significant? Based on the assumption that the two variables presented a normal distribution, we identified that there is a medium positive relationship between frustration and the change in mood, $r = .342$, $n = 82$, $p < .01$, with nearly 12 per cent of shared variance. This is the amount of variance in respondents' scores on the mood change that is explained by frustration. In the discussion part we will try to evaluate what else could explain the variance in mood change scores. Could it be that people get overwhelmed with the amount of information available on the net?

5. H_{0e}:

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Frustration	3.2398	1.46778	82
Time spent	3.54	1.501	82

Correlations

		Frustration	Time spent
Frustration	Pearson Correlation	1	-.304**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.006
	N	82	82
Time spent	Pearson Correlation	-.304**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	
	N	82	82

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The relationship between frustration and the time spent on planning the vacation was also investigated using Pearson correlation coefficient, on the premises that variables were normally distributed (Pallant, 2007). There was a medium, negative correlation between frustration and time spent, r = -.30, n = 82, p < .01. The correlation reached statistical significance at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). These results suggest that the more frustrated people get, the less time will spend searching for information to plan the vacation online. The coefficient of determination r^2 = 9.24 indicates that frustration helps explaining nearly ten per cent of the variance in the scores on the time spent. Therefore, this operational **null hypothesis is rejected**. We conclude that frustration has a direct negative effect on the time spent online to plan a vacation, accounting for the tenth part of the variance.

6. H_{0f}:

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Frustration	3.2398	1.46778	82
Travel_Intention	5.4299	1.22492	82

Correlations

		Frustration	Travel_Intention
Frustration	Pearson Correlation	1	.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.548
	N	82	82
Travel_Intention	Pearson Correlation	.067	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.548	
	N	82	82

Pearson correlation coefficient analysis used to determine the direction and strength of the relationship between frustration and travel intention in vacation planning was based on the assumption that variables are normally distributed (Pallant, 2007). There was identified a small positive relationship between the variables, $r = .067$, $n = 82$, $p > .05$. Although this relationship, has not reached statistically significance, we choose not to reject this null operational hypothesis, because of the sample size. This is too small to defend the statistical significance. In conclusion, H_{0f} is accepted and we suggest that frustration does not have a direct impact on intention to travel when planning a vacation online. This means that even though the consumer gets frustrated (for different reasons!) and spends less time to search for information and / or plan a vacation online, the intention to travel will not be influenced by its inner state (frustration and affective state, as H_{oc} was also accepted).

Appendix 14

Time spent by momentary mood state (experimental group)

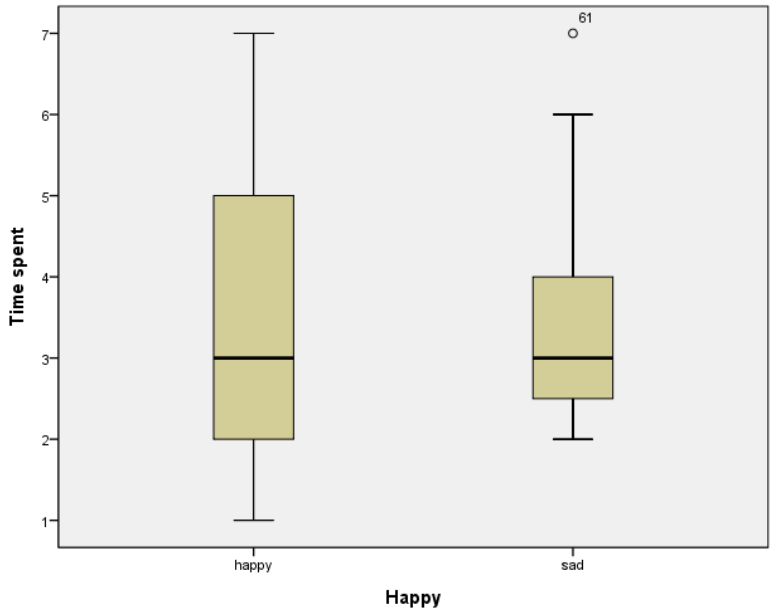


Figure 11. Time spent by momentary mood

Momentary mood correlates with time spent (experimental group)

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Momentary Mood	3.3678	.97540	82
Time spent	3.54	1.501	82

Correlations

		Momentary Mood	Time spent
Momentary Mood	Pearson Correlation	1	-.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.676
	N	82	82
Time spent	Pearson Correlation	-.047	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.676	
	N	82	82

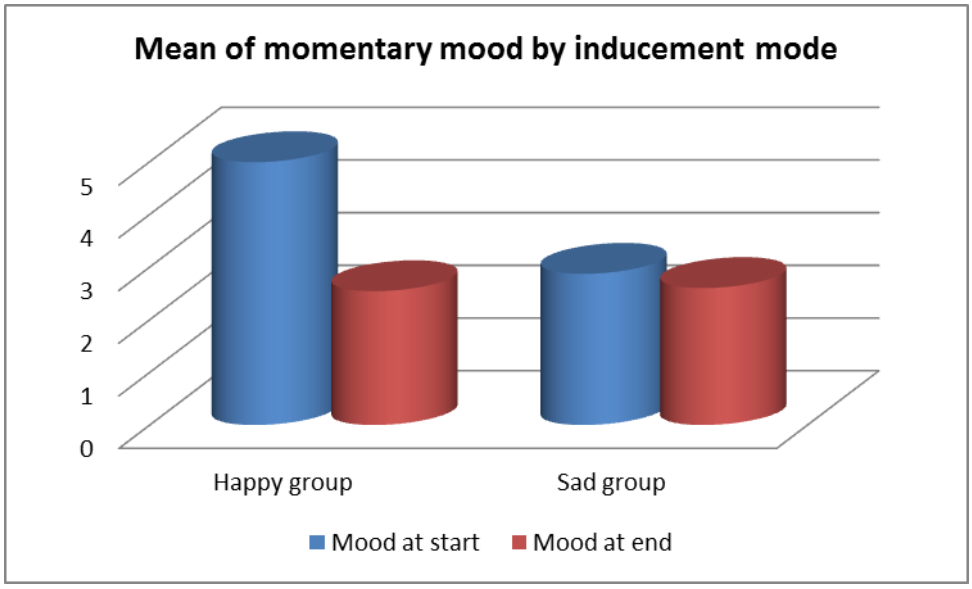
Appendix 15

Table 16

Mean by inducement mode

Group 1 = Happy		Group 2 = Sad	
Mood at start	Mood at end	Mood at start	Mood at end
4,83	2,67	3,83	1
3,67	1,67	3	2
4,5	1,67	2,83	3,33
3,17	1	3,5	4,67
5,33	2	3,33	3
3,33	1,33	2,33	1
3,17	2,33	2,33	3
6,33	3,67	3,5	2
6,67	3,67	2,83	5
3,67	3,33	2,5	1,33
5,17	2	3	2
5,33	3,67	3	6
2,83	1,67	4,5	2
2,83	7	1,17	1
5,5	5,33	1,67	1,67
4	2	2,67	6,33
6,5	1,67	2,33	1
4,5	3,33	1,17	1,67
4,17	3	2,5	1
3,83	2,33	1	5,67
5,83	4	3,33	1
6,67	1,33	4,5	2,33
5,33	2	1	2,67
6,33	5,33	2,5	5
5	2	3,33	1,67
6	1	3,67	2,33
6,17	1	4,17	2
3,33	1	2,83	1,33
3,83	1	2,33	2,33

6	4,67	2,33	2,33
5,33	4,33	4,33	2,67
6,17	1,33	4,17	4
5,5	3	4	4
6	1	2,67	2
4,83	2,33	2,67	1
1,67	4,33	2,5	2,33
6,17	3	***M* = 2,87**	***M* = 2,60**
5,5	2,33		
6	2		
5	1,67		
5	3,33		
7	1		
5,83	1		
5,17	2,33		
5,67	3,33		
5	1,67		
***M* = 4,99**	***M* = 2,54**		



Graph 4

Appendix 16

Table 17

Frustration correlates with search behavior and travel intention

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Frustration	3.2398	1.46778	82
Search behavior	4.8537	1.10380	82
Travel Intention	5.4299	1.22492	82

Correlations

		Frustration	Search behavior	Travel Intention
Frustration	Pearson Correlation	1	-.022	.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.844	.548
	N	82	82	82
Search behavior	Pearson Correlation	-.022	1	.370**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.844		.001
	N	82	82	82
Travel Intention	Pearson Correlation	.067	.370**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.548	.001	
	N	82	82	82

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

There is a weak non-significant negative relationship between frustration and search behavior, r = -.022, n = 82, p < .01. Search behavior encompases self-reported travel experience, frequency of leisure travelling and travel planning habits for leisure. This result suggests that the more frustrated consumers get when searching online, the lower the frequency of trying to achieve the goal is. Or, if we think at this correlation as a commutative relation between two variables, we can also interpret it as such: the lower the knowledge of how to search online are, the greater the changes are that consumers get frustrated quite fast and gives up.

As mentioned in chapter 7 para 3, these are just humble reflections over the findings, from a practical perspective. More empirical work is required, because of the small size of the realized sample.

Furthermore, it is interesting to notice that there is a statistically significant relationship between search behavior and travel intention $r = .370$, $n = 82$, $p < .01$ (2-tailed). This means that the stronger the travel intention, the more likely is that we can predict search behavior passed on it. Knowing that search behavior is a function of self-reported travel experience, frequency of leisure travelling and travel planning habits for leisure, we may suggest that the more experienced in leisure traveller is more likely to have a higher the intention to travel than the less experienced one.

In the end, frustration correlates positively with travel intention $r = .067$, $n = 82$, $p < .01$ (2-tailed). The relationship is small (Pallant, 2007).

Appendix 17

Frequencies

Self-reported travel experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not experienced	4	4,7	4,9	4,9
	2	5	5,9	6,1	11,0
	3	12	14,1	14,6	25,6
	4	18	21,2	22,0	47,6
	5	**24**	**28,2**	**29,3**	76,8
	6	13	15,3	15,9	92,7
	Very experienced	6	7,1	7,3	100,0
	Total	82	96,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	3,5		
Total		85	100,0		

Often leisure travel

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very seldom	5	5,9	6,1	6,1
	2	3	3,5	3,7	9,8
	3	7	8,2	8,5	18,3
	4	20	23,5	24,4	42,7
	5	**26**	**30,6**	**31,7**	74,4
	6	14	16,5	17,1	91,5
	Very often	7	8,2	8,5	100,0
	Total	82	96,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	3,5		
Total		85	100,0		

Often business travel

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**Very seldom**	**41**	**48,2**	**50,0**	50,0
	2	21	24,7	25,6	75,6
	3	14	16,5	17,1	92,7
	4	4	4,7	4,9	97,6
	5	1	1,2	1,2	98,8
	6	1	1,2	1,2	100,0
	Total	82	96,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	3,5		
Total		85	100,0		

Travel planning habits leisure

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	2	2,4	2,4	2,4
	2	1	1,2	1,2	3,7
	4	11	12,9	13,4	17,1
	5	20	23,5	24,4	41,5
	6	**27**	**31,8**	**32,9**	74,4
	Always	21	24,7	25,6	100,0
	Total	82	96,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	3,5		
Total		85	100,0		

Travel planning habits other purposes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	6	7,1	7,3	7,3
	2	8	9,4	9,8	17,1
	3	6	7,1	7,3	24,4
	4	**20**	**23,5**	**24,4**	48,8
	5	14	16,5	17,1	65,9
	6	15	17,6	18,3	84,1
	Always	13	15,3	15,9	100,0
	Total	82	96,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	3,5		
Total		85	100,0		

Use of online search engine

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	3	3,5	3,7	3,7
	2	1	1,2	1,2	4,9
	3	1	1,2	1,2	6,1
	4	5	5,9	6,1	12,2
	5	9	10,6	11,0	23,2
	6	23	27,1	28,0	51,2
	Always	**40**	**47,1**	**48,8**	100,0
	Total	82	96,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	3,5		
Total		85	100,0		

Frequency journeys planned

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**1-19**	**49**	**57,6**	**59,8**	59,8
	20-29	16	18,8	19,5	79,3
	30-39	5	5,9	6,1	85,4
	40-49	6	7,1	7,3	92,7
	50-59	1	1,2	1,2	93,9
	More than 50	5	5,9	6,1	100,0
	Total	82	96,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	3,5		
Total		85	100,0		

Self-reported online search experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2	2	2,4	2,4	2,4
	3	6	7,1	7,3	9,8
	4	13	15,3	15,9	25,6
	5	**28**	**32,9**	**34,1**	59,8
	6	19	22,4	23,2	82,9
	Very high degree	14	16,5	17,1	100,0
	Total	82	96,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	3,5		
Total		85	100,0		

Time spent

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-4	2	2,4	2,4	2,4
	5-9	19	22,4	23,2	25,6
	10-14	**30**	**35,3**	**36,6**	62,2
	15-19	11	12,9	13,4	75,6
	20-24	8	9,4	9,8	85,4
	25-29	8	9,4	9,8	95,1
	More than 30	4	4,7	4,9	100,0
	Total	82	96,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	3,5		
Total		85	100,0		

Upcoming travel intentions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not likely to travel	7	8,2	8,5	8,5
	2	3	3,5	3,7	12,2
	3	4	4,7	4,9	17,1
	4	5	5,9	6,1	23,2
	5	8	9,4	9,8	32,9
	6	9	10,6	11,0	43,9
	Likely to travel	**46**	**54,1**	**56,1**	100,0
	Total	82	96,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	3,5		
Total		85	100,0		

Appendix 18

Table 18

Personality correlate with momentary mood, frustration, search behavior, travel intention

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Personality	4.1725	.82011	82
Frustration	3.2398	1.46778	82
Momentary Mood	3.3678	.97540	82
Travel Intention	5.4299	1.22492	82
Search behavior	4.8537	1.10380	82

Correlations

		Personality	Frustration	Momentary Mood	Travel Intention	Search behavior
Personality	Pearson Correlation	1	.004	-.091	-.189	.126
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.970	.415	.089	.258
	N	82	82	82	82	82
Frustration	Pearson Correlation	.004	1	.445**	.067	-.022
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.970		.000	.548	.844
	N	82	82	82	82	82
Momentary Mood	Pearson Correlation	-.091	.445**	1	.062	-.018
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.415	.000		.582	.874
	N	82	82	82	82	82
Travel Intention	Pearson Correlation	-.189	.067	.062	1	.370**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.089	.548	.582		.001
	N	82	82	82	82	82
Search behavior	Pearson Correlation	.126	-.022	-.018	.370**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.258	.844	.874	.001	
	N	82	82	82	82	82

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on the assumption that all variables are normally distributed, we employed Pearson correlation coefficient to assess how these variables relate with each other. There was a positive weak relationship between personality and frustration, $r = .004$, $n = 82$, $p < .01$ (2-tailed), and between personality traits and search behavior, $r = .126$, $n = 82$, $p < .01$ (2-tailed). On the other hand, there was a weak negative relationship between personality and momentary mood, $r = -.091$, $n = 82$, $p < .01$ (2-tailed), and between personality traits and travel intention, $r = -.181$, $n = 82$, $p < .01$ (2-tailed). Although none of these relationships had reached statistical significance, it is advisable to take it into consideration. Perhaps at a larger sample the size effect of the sample will generate statistically significant relationship between these variables. In this study, *personality* is a variable that we defined by computing different self-reported personality traits. Possibly that there is some error in measuring these traits, as the participants had to report these after they were done with the task itself, thus their mood was not neutral.

Personality correlate with time spent

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Personality	4.1725	.82011	82
Time spent	3.54	1.501	82

Correlations

		Personality	Time spent
Personality	Pearson Correlation	1	.071
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.523
	N	82	82
Time spent	Pearson Correlation	.071	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.523	
	N	82	82

Based on the assumption of normality for personality and time spent, the relationship between the two variables was assessed using Pearson correlation coefficient. There was a weak and positive relationship between personality and time spent, $r = .071$, $n = 82$, $p < 0.01$ (2-tailled). We are only interested in assessing if there is a relationship between the two variables. The sample is not large enough to generalize this finding, however, this is an indication that yes, personality traits might influence the time spent to search online when planning a vacation. Therefore we suggest that further research is conducted regarding this matter. For example, comparing the mean of time spent by all well-organized vs not well-organized; inventive vs non-inventive, etc. As previously mentioned, a submissive person it is more likely to give in easily and pick any given choice than a dominant one.

"Two roads diverged in a wood, and I -
I took the one less traveled by,
And that has made all the difference."
(Robert Frost)

~ THANK YOU! ~