MODELING GENERIC DECISIONS IN THE CONTEXT OF THE OVERSEAS TRAVEL MARKET FOR JAPANESE YOUNG ADULTS

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ABSTRACT. This study concerns the decrease in overseas travel among Japanese young adults and positions the phenomenon as an issue of generic decisions, that is, travel or non-travel decisions. Based on the leisure constraints research, a dynamic feedback model of overseas travel frequency is proposed that consists of fourteen hypotheses. Empirical testing supports most of the hypotheses and the overall model. The study findings reveal the complex and dynamic nature of generic decisions through the workings of multiple components of the model, such as self-efficacy, evaluation of overseas travel and negotiation effort and rather than just motivation and constraints.

KEYWORDS. tourist behavior, non-travel, travel constraints, self-efficacy, path analysis

Ⅰ INTRODUCTION

A gloomy trend in the Japanese outbound travel market during the late 2000s was the decrease in overseas travel by young adults. The number of Japanese in their twenties who went abroad dropped from 4.52 million in 1997 to 2.82 million in 2007 (Ministry of Justice, Japan, 1998, 2008). The market share of this segment also decreased from 27.7% to 16.3%

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between 1996 and 2007 (Japan National Tourism Organization, 1997, 2008). More importantly, the departure ratio of this age group also dropped from 24.2% to 18.8% during the same period (Japan Tourism Marketing, 2007, 2008). While the overall departure ratio of Japanese nationals during the same period has not shown great fluctuations, it was the young segment alone that accounted for the observed change. This may reflect qualitative changes in the demand of young Japanese travelers－not just the country's downsizing population－and this has triggered concern among tourism industry stakeholders. The market trends for Japanese young adults deserve analysis because of both practical and theoretical interests.

This paper takes the view that a decrease in a particular travel market is an accumulation of individuals' decisions not to travel. While travel research has largely shown an interest in particular parts of the travel decision-making process, such as destination choice, theoretical accounts of *generic decisions,* that is, whether one takes a holiday or not, have remained relatively unexplored.

In this respect, the study of travel constraints provides a stepping stone on the path to understanding generic decisions, and such study has been essentially informed by leisure constraint research (see the Literature Review section). Nevertheless, there are still some research gaps to be filled regarding the factors in non-travel and the relationships among them, and these in turn will likely elucidate the nature and mechanism of generic decisions.

Thus, the primary purpose of this paper is to address theoretical justifications regarding generic decisions in the context of the Japanese outbound travel market for young adults. A hypothetical model that is primarily developed through a critical review of the relevant literature is proposed. The second purpose of the paper is then to examine empirically the proposed model and to draw practical implications from it for meeting the industry's needs. Overall, this study should contribute to deepening the understanding of Japanese travel market for young adults as well as to enriching fundamental theories of tourist behavior.

Ⅱ LITERATURE REVIEW AND THE PROPOSED MODEL

Tourism Research on Non-travel

Some research interest in the non-traveling population has emerged since the beginning of the 2000s (Gilbert and Hudson, 2000 ; Nyaupane, Morais, and Graefe, 2004 ; Smith and Carmichael, 2005 ; Fredman and Heberlein, 2005). Existing research that tackles the phenomenon tends to be descriptive and treats non-travelers as a homogeneous group. A small number of studies have been conducted, however, that attempt to conceptualize non-travel

(Haukeland, 1990) and that place non-travel within the broader framework of leisure constraints theory (Nyaupane and Andereck, 2008). Leisure and tourism research have several aspects in common, and one of them is the issue of non-participation. Our ongoing research is in line with that avenue of investigation : we seek to understand current non-travelers among the Japanese young adult population by positioning them within such a theoretical framework.

Leisure Constraint Research

Systematic research on leisure constraints has been in progress since the early 1980s (Jackson, 2005). In the approximately 35-year advancement of leisure constraint research, a work by Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) has been pivotal in largely determining the direction of subsequent studies. Their article "A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints" presents a single integrated model in which leisure participation is understood as the result of negotiations through a sequential, hierarchical series of constraints levels.

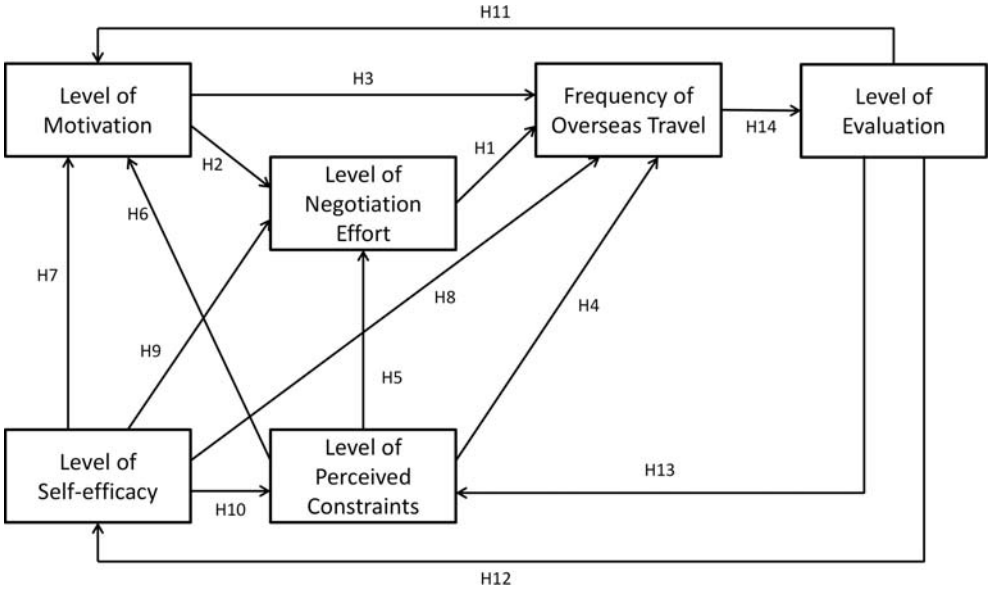
On the basis of that model, Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1993) proposed another model in which the role of negotiation is made more explicit : leisure participation is dependent not on the absence of constraints but on negotiation through them. Thus, such negotiations may modify rather than foreclose participation. That proposition had been partly supported by empirical studies such as Kay and Jackson (1991) and Shaw, Bowen, and McCabe (1991). The study by Kay and Jackson (1991) found that individuals who had experienced constraints actually participated in leisure activities, and Shaw et al. (1991) revealed a positive relation between the reporting of constraints and actual leisure participation.

The introduction of the concept of negotiation into leisure constraint research has altered the perception of constraints. They are not a substantial barrier that eliminates internal and external forces and prevents an individual from participating in leisure activities. Rather, constraints may be overcome when negotiation is performed at a high level, and this may lead to leisure participation.

Dynamic Feedback Model of Overseas Travel Frequency

Based on our review of leisure constraint research, we created a hypothetical model for eventual empirical testing, called the dynamic feedback model of overseas travel frequency (Figure 1). "Dynamic" denotes the elastic relation among components. "Feedback" exemplifies the circulating mechanism of the model ; that is, once an individual has participated in travel, their perception of travel constraints may change as a result of their actual experiences, and thus their future travel behavior may be altered.

Figure 1 Dynamic Feedback Model of Overseas Travel Frequency



The model comprises six components : frequency of overseas travel, level of negotiation effort, level of motivation, level of perceived constraints, level of self-efficacy and level of evaluation of overseas travel. The relations among the components, which correspond to the fourteen hypotheses, are represented by arrows in Figure 1.

Frequency of Overseas Travel

The outcome of generic decisions is operationalized as the frequency of overseas travel in this model. Thus, this component is central to the model, and examining the factors that affect this component is imperative.

Level of Negotiation Effort

The first factor that affects the frequency of overseas travel is assumed to be the degree of negotiation effort. This component is the amount of additional effort that an individual must make to reduce the perceived constraints such that they can undertake overseas travel. As mentioned in the literature review, the concept of negotiation has altered the way in which we view leisure constraints and participation : constraints are not permanent barriers, but can be overcome when negotiation effort is exercised effectively. Thus, the first hypothesis can be summarized as follows.

H 1 : An individual’s level of negotiation effort regarding constraints is positively related

to their frequency of overseas travel.

Level of Motivation

An individual's motivation for participating in a leisure activity is considered to be an intervening variable, affecting the relations among perceived constraints, negotiation effort, and the level of participation in the activity (Jackson et al., 1993). Hence, participation in a leisure activity can be observed as the outcome of dynamic processes involving motivations, constraints, and negotiations. More recently, Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) also emphasized the role of motivation in such processes : high motivation means that an individual's level of negotiation effort will be high, and therefore their participation level will be high. That notion may be formally summarized in the second and third hypotheses below.

H 2 : An individual's level of motivation to travel is positively related to their level of negotiation effort regarding constraints.

H 3 : An individual's level of motivation to travel is positively related to their frequency of overseas travel.

Level of Perceived Constraints

From the propositions made in Jackson et al. (1993), Hubbard and Mannell (2001) proposed and empirically tested four models, each based on a different hypothesis, to examine the relations among leisure constraints, negotiation, motivation, and participation. Among these models, the "Constraints-Effects-Mitigation Model" was best supported by the data. That model is characterized by two constraint functions : on the one hand, when an individual perceives a constraint to be of a high level, the degree of participation in an activity may be negatively affected ; on the other hand, such a high-level constraint may trigger a greater negotiation effort to overcome the constraint. This second function mitigates the negative effects of the perceived constraints. In sum, when an individual has a high level of motivation, constraints not only inhibit but also can facilitate travel through a greater amount of negotiation. Accordingly, we state the fourth and fifth hypotheses as follows.

H 4 : An individual's level of perceived constraints is negatively related to their frequency of overseas travel.

H 5 : When an individual has a high level of motivation to travel, their level of perceived constraints is positively related to their level of negotiation effort.

The next hypothesis can be drawn from the notion of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957). Even if there is a sufficient level of motivation for an activity, it cannot be implemented when constraints to the activity are perceived simultaneously. This state can be understood as an occurrence of cognitive dissonance. To resolve this psychological discomfort, attempts to alleviate or remove the existence of dissonance are usually made－in this case, by altering either constraints or motivation. There are two possible scenarios : one is somehow to reduce the perceived level of constraints, as already proposed as H 5 ; the other is to lower the level of motivation in order to correspond to the non-participation that results from a high level of perceived constraints. This later leads to the sixth hypothesis.

H 6 : An individual's level of perceived constraints is negatively related to their level of motivation to travel.

Level of Self-Efficacy

The concept of negotiation is important to this model in that it interacts with both motivation and perceived constraints and directly and indirectly affects an individual's frequency of overseas travel. This view is consistent with social cognitive theory, which assumes that humans are capable of self-reflection and self-regulation, and that therefore they are active "shapers" of their environment rather than passive "reactors" (Bandura, 1986). Mannell and Iwasaki (2005) put this theory into the context of goal-achieving behavior in leisure participation as "people are active agents in responding to conditions that impede their goals rather than passive bystanders" (p. 261). The dynamic feedback model is constructed by viewing human beings in this way.

A key notion in social cognitive theory is self-efficacy. Perceived self-efficacy is an individual's subjective perception of their capability to perform in a given setting or to attain desired results (American Psychological Association, 2007). Self-efficacy was originally proposed by Bandura (1986) as a primary determinant of emotional and motivational states and behavioral change.

Henderson, Bedini, Hechat, and Schuler (1995) suggested that self-efficacy theory might be able to provide useful insights into understanding the negotiation process. This thought was developed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) into negotiation self-efficacy : confidence in one's own ability to use negotiation resources effectively, such as time management and skills acquisition. They believed this could be a principal factor affecting the success of negotiation efforts. Furthermore, Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) conducted an empirical study of

this matter and found that a high level of negotiation efficacy increased both motivation and negotiation efforts. They proposed that a person with the confidence to use negotiation resources successfully in order to cope with constraints will have greater motivation and will generate a greater effort to negotiate. Therefore, such a person will have a high level of participation in leisure activities.

In our ongoing study, however, self-efficacy in negotiation may not be sufficient. Firstly, leisure studies usually deal with regular recreational activities, such as playing tennis, dancing and bowling. In contrast, individuals usually undertake overseas travel less often than these regular activities. This could heighten the apparent degree of difficulty in determining whether to travel. Secondly, for Japanese overseas travel, the perceived difficulty in communicating in a foreign language plays an important role in deterring a trip. This consideration may be particularly relevant for non-native English speakers, since English is the global language of tourism. Thus, self-efficacy in conducting travel is deemed to be more appropriate for this case. Accordingly, the seventh and eighth hypotheses are stated as follows.

H 7 : An individual's level of self-efficacy in travel is positively related to their level of motivation to travel.

H 8 : An individual's level of self-efficacy in travel is positively related to their frequency of overseas travel.

Regarding the relationships between self-efficacy and perceived constraints, as well as self-efficacy and negotiation efforts, Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) proposed several different models and empirically examined them by path analysis. In brief, the best-supported model for their data indicated that the level of self-efficacy positively affected the level of negotiation effort, whereas a path linking the level of self-efficacy and perceived constraints was not suggested. However, the researchers commented that the latter relationship needs to be re-examined. Therefore, the ninth and tenth hypotheses are as follows.

H 9 : An individual's level of self-efficacy in travel is positively related to their level of negotiation effort.

H 10 : An individual's level of self-efficacy in travel is negatively related to their level of perceived constraints.

Level of Evaluation of Overseas Travel

A number of tourism researchers have investigated the relation between past travel experiences to a given destination and the intention to revisit that destination. The majority of these studies have suggested that past travel (quantitatively measured by the number of visits) positively affects return visits (e.g., Sonmez and Graefe, 1998 ; Huang and Hsu, 2009). Previous studies have indicated that tourist satisfaction derived from previous travel experiences also positively affects the intention to revisit a destination (e.g., Mazursky, 1989 ; Yoon and Uysal, 2005 ; Huang and Hsu, 2009).

The term “evaluation” instead of “satisfaction” is used in our hypothesis since individuals who have never conducted overseas travel are indispensable among our study population. Thus our eleventh hypothesis is formed as follows.

H 11 : An individual’s level of evaluation of overseas travel is positively related to their level of motivation to travel.

According to Bandura (1997), there are four sources of self-efficacy : enactive mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and psychological and affective states. Having a good travel experience and thus deriving a positive evaluation may be regarded as an “enactive mastery experience”, especially when the individual has felt constrained before actually engaging in that activity.

H 12 : An individual’s level of evaluation of overseas travel is positively related to their level of self-efficacy.

In addition to the twelve hypotheses derived from previous studies, as above, the thirteenth and fourteenth hypotheses are proposed based on our own in-depth interviews with young Japanese adults that took place in an earlier phase of this study. It was suggested by interviewees that even if they had a high level of perceived constraints before their first overseas trip, upon having once traveling overseas they were likely to appreciate its value and alter their perceptions toward travel constraints.

H 13 : An individual’s level of evaluation of overseas travel is negatively related to their level of perceived constraints.

Our final hypothesis also derived from interviews and from observing that the more travel experiences the interviewees had, the higher their evaluation of overseas travel in general.

H 14 : An individual's frequency of overseas travel is positively related to their level of evaluation of overseas travel.

Ⅲ STUDY METHODS

To test the dynamic feedback model, an Internet survey was conducted from February 28 to March 5, 2013. Respondents were Japanese people from 18 to 29 years old who have never lived abroad. A total of 1,029 respondents submitted valid responses.

The questionnaire was composed as follows. First, items relating to motivation, self-efficacy, negotiation effort, constraints, and evaluation of overseas travel were measured. Hayashi and Fujiwara (2008) developed 26 items related to motivation for Japanese people to travel overseas, and we used 4 of those 26 items. Self-efficacy (4 items), negotiation effort (3 items), evaluation of overseas travel (5 items), and perceived constraints (22 items) were originally developed based on our literature review and in-depth interviews conducted between 2008 and 2011. All items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Second was the number of past overseas trips respondents had taken both in total in their lives and in the previous five years. Third came demographic questions. The questionnaire was developed and administered in Japanese.

Analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0 and IBM SPSS Amos 20.0.

Ⅳ DATA ANALYSIS

Sample Characteristics

Of the respondents, 48.9% were men and 51.1% were women. Their marital and familial status comprised : single without children (81.5%), married without children (5.3%), and married with children (13.1%). The breakdown of job status was as follows : regular workers (37.4%), married women who were full-time housewives or part-time workers (11.2%), students (33.0%), and single persons who were part-time workers or not employed (18.4%). Their education attainment was junior high school (1.9%), high school (16.8%), vocational school (12.1%), junior college or technical college (4.2%), university (56.9%), graduate school (5.6%), and others (2.5%). Respondents lived in the Kanto region (37.7%), which includes

Tokyo ; the Kansai region (14.8%), which includes Osaka ; the Chukyo region (9.1%), which includes Nagoya ; and other areas (38.4%).

While 49.9% of respondents did not have any experience of overseas travel, 19.0% had been overseas once, 19.0% 2-4 times, 6.6% 5-9 times and 5.2% had more than 10 times. In the past five years (since 2008) 64.2% of respondents had not traveled abroad and 35.8% had.

Items Analysis of Components

Tables 1 to 5 show the results of an item analysis. None of the absolute values for skewness and kurtosis exceed 1, and a ceiling effect and floor effect were not observed. Table 1 shows the results of an item analysis of scale for the construct of constraints to overseas travel. All 22 items have a mean value over the midpoint (3) and this indicates that the respondents perceived constraints to some extent in total. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale is .93, and the mean of the scale score for constraints to overseas travel is 76.64 (SD＝15.11).

Table 2 shows the results of an item analysis of self-efficacy toward overseas travel. The mean score of all 4 items shows a value of around 3 (the midpoint). Cronbach's alpha of the self-efficacy scale is .90, and the mean of the scale score for self-efficacy toward overseas travel is 12.43 (SD＝3.99).

The results of an item analysis of motivation for overseas travel are shown in Table 3. All 4 items show a mean value above 3 (the midpoint) and Cronbach's alpha of the motivation scale is .88. The scale score of the motivation construct was calculated and exhibits 13.53 (SD＝3.73).

Table 4 shows the results of an item analysis of negotiation efforts to overcome the constraints. The mean of the items is above the midpoint (3), and Cronbach's alpha for the scale of the negotiation effort construct is .81. The mean of the scale score is 10.33 (SD＝2.70).

Table 5 shows the results of an item analysis of the evaluation of overseas travel. Three out of 5 items were opposites, and to analyze these items respondents who had positive impressions of overseas travel had a higher value, while respondents who had negative impressions of traveling abroad had a lower value. Three out of 5 items were rated above the midpoint, while the other 2 items were rated below the midpoint. Cronbach's alpha for the scale of evaluation of overseas travel is .86, and the mean of the scale score is 15.88 (SD＝4.35).

One of six components of the dynamic feedback model was frequency of travel. In this analysis, the number times traveled overseas in the previous five years (since 2008) was

Table 1 Item Analysis : Constraints to Overseas Travel

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
I don't have enough money	3.84	1.07	−.70	−.11
Overseas travel costs too much	3.87	.98	−.67	.16
It's hard to take holidays in daily life	3.40	1.18	−.34	−.64
I don't have the spare time for travel	3.51	1.11	−.41	−.44
I'm not confident about foreign languages	3.79	1.06	−.68	−.12
I worry about not communicating in Japanese	3.74	1.07	−.59	−.32
I'm not confident about communicating with foreigners	3.68	1.08	−.58	−.25
I'm not confident about foreign cultures	3.40	1.11	−.34	−.53
I feel insecure in case of troubles occurring while traveling	3.94	.99	−.79	.22
I worry about the food	3.50	1.09	−.41	−.44
I worry about hygiene	3.78	.97	−.57	−.02
I worry about disorder	3.92	.97	−.79	.33
I worry about epidemics	3.57	1.08	−.46	−.38
I can't be bothered to plan a trip	3.11	1.19	−.10	−.78
I can't be bothered to prepare for a trip	3.41	1.16	−.36	−.63
I can't be bothered to collect information about overseas travel	3.07	1.16	−.08	−.73
I don't know what I should do to go on an overseas trip	3.17	1.16	−.12	−.70
I don't know where to go overseas	3.02	1.16	−.06	−.72
It's hard to find mutually available dates with my travel companions	3.34	1.02	−.31	−.14
I can't think of anyone to invite to go overseas with me	3.37	1.16	−.20	−.74
I can't find an overseas travel companion	3.14	1.18	−.13	−.77
Nobody has invited me to travel overseas	3.08	1.14	−.06	−.59
Scale score for constraints to overseas travel	76.64	15.11	−.30	.68

Table 2 Item Analysis : Self-Efficacy toward Overseas Travel

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
I understand in myself what I want to try during travel overseas	3.07	1.09	−.27	−.51
I feel that travel overseas is enjoyable	3.39	1.15	−.42	−.47
I think I can manage overseas travel well somehow	2.99	1.15	−.17	−.72
I think I can manage to do things in some way at places overseas	2.98	1.16	−.21	−.77
Scale score for self-efficacy toward overseas travel	12.43	3.99	−.35	−.33

Table 3 Item Analysis : Motivation for Overseas Travel

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
I want to have new experiences in an environment different from Japan	3.65	1.04	−.69	.16
I want to travel abroad to change my daily life	3.32	1.11	−.34	−.47
I want to travel abroad to escape from my routine life	3.34	1.08	−.34	−.39
I want to travel overseas because always being in the same environment makes me feel bored	3.22	1.12	−.22	−.59
Scale score for motivation for overseas travel	13.53	3.73	−.45	.07

Table 4 Item Analysis : Negotiation Efforts to Overcome Constraints

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
I manage my money so that I can travel overseas	3.37	1.11	−.45	−.40
I find the time or decide a date of departure so that I can travel overseas	3.42	1.06	−.42	−.25
I decide destinations for overseas travel allowing for my time and money	3.54	.98	−.56	.25
Scale score for negotiation effort	10.33	2.70	−.53	.40

Table 5 Item Analysis : Evaluation of Overseas Travel

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
I think traveling abroad is nice	3.72	1.03	−.68	.12
I think travel overseas is valuable	3.77	.99	−.71	.31
I don't feel like traveling overseas for some reason or other [opposite]	3.03	1.22	.02	−.91
I prefer to stay at home or nearby over foreign travel [opposite]	2.88	1.16	.04	−.71
I prefer domestic travel to foreign travel [opposite]	2.48	1.03	.29	−.25
Scale score for satisfaction from previous travel experiences	15.88	4.35	−.13	−.26

employed. The mean number (including persons who had no overseas travel experience) was .93 (SD＝1.99), with the minimum at 0 and the maximum at 20.

Path Analysis

To test the dynamic feedback model and our hypotheses, a path analysis was conducted using maximum likelihood estimation. We assessed the model fit by evaluating the overall pattern of the fit indices, including a chi-square (χ^2), the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), the normed fit index (NFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA).

The model fit indices of the initial analysis results were as follows : $\chi^2(df=1)=22.48$ ($p<.01$, $\chi^2/df=22.48$), GFI＝.99, AGFI＝.85, NFI＝.99, CFI＝.99, RMSEA＝.15. The chi-square was significant because this indicator is sensitive to a large sample. The AGFI was below 0.90 and model modification was necessary. In the initial model, the direct effect of the level of motivation on frequency of travel was not significant ($\beta=-.01$, $t=-.27$, ns) and consequently hypothesis 3 was not supported. Thus the direct effect of the level of motivation on frequency of travel (hypothesis 3) was deleted.

The final results of the analysis (the standardized solution) are displayed in Figure 2. The final model fitted the data well, as can be seen by the values of several fit indices : GFI＝.99, AGFI＝.93, NFI＝.99, CFI＝.99, and RMSEA＝.10. The chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2(df=2)=22.56$, $p<.01$, $\chi^2/df=11.28$) because this indicator is sensitive to a large sample. Table 6 shows a summary of the standardized path coefficients between components and the

Figure 2 Testing the Dynamic Feedback Model of Overseas Travel Frequency (Final Result)

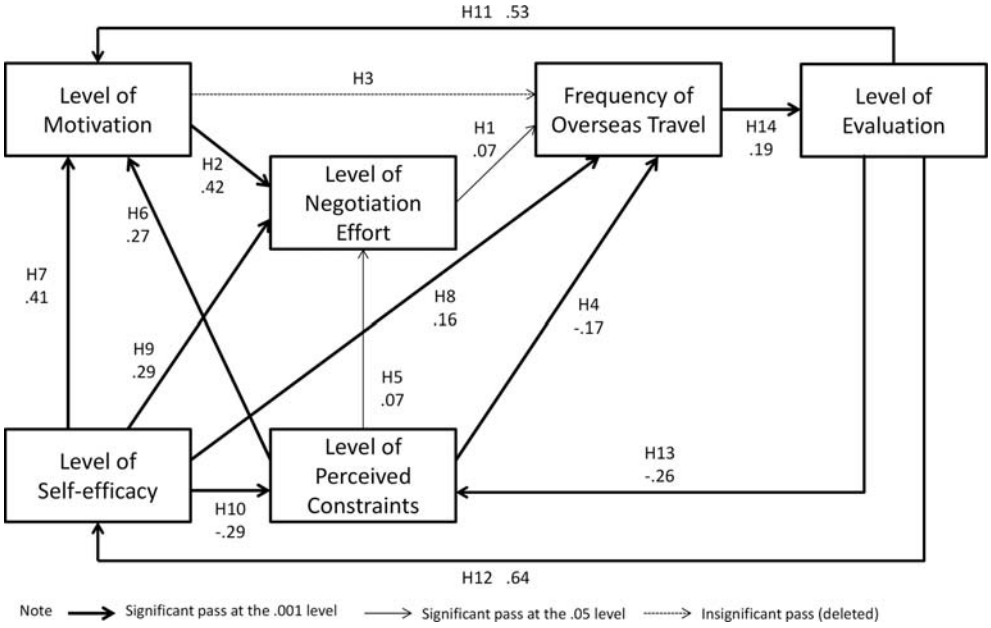


Table 6 Structural Model : Standardized Coefficients, t Values, and Fit Indices

	Hypothesized path	Standardized coefficient path		t value	Hypothesis
H 1	Level of negotiation effort → Frequency of travel （+）	.07	*	2.03	Supported
H 2	Level of motivation → Level of negotiation effort （+）	.42	***	13.10	Supported
H 3	Level of motivation → Frequency of travel （+）	–––		–––	Not supported
H 4	Level of perceived constraints → Frequency of travel (−)	−.17	***	−4.95	Supported
H 5	Level of perceived constraints → Level of negotiation effort （+）	.07	*	2.32	Supported
H 6	Level of perceived constraints → Level of motivation (−)	.27	***	11.17	Not supported
H 7	Level of self−efficacy → Level of motivation （+）	.41	***	14.46	Supported
H 8	Level of self−efficacy → Frequency of travel （+）	.16	***	3.81	Supported
H 9	Level of self−efficacy → Level of negotiation effort （+）	.29	***	8.01	Supported
H 10	Level of self−efficacy → Level of perceived constraints (−)	−.29	***	−7.97	Supported
H 11	Level of evaluation → Level of motivation （+）	.53	***	18.54	Supported
H 12	Level of evaluation → Level of self−efficacy （+）	.64	***	26.90	Supported
H 13	Level of evaluation → Level of perceived constraints (−)	−.26	***	−7.17	Supported
H 14	Frequency of travel → Level of satisfaction （+）	.19	***	4.84	Supported

Note : * p＜.05, ** p＜.01, *** p＜.001 Final model was performed after deleting H 3.

results achieved for the hypotheses.

Test of Hypotheses

The level of negotiation effort had a positive impact on frequency of travel, as was hypothesized. This relation (H 1) was statistically supported ($\beta = .07$, $t = 2.03$, $p < .05$).

The level of motivation had positive effects on both the level of negotiation effort and frequency of travel. The relation between the level of motivation and frequency of travel was significant ($\beta = .42$, $t = 13.10$, $p < .001$), and H 2 was supported. However, the positive relation between the level of motivation and frequency of travel (H 3) was not significant and this relation was deleted from the final model test.

The level of perceived constraints had a negative influence on frequency of travel and this relationship was significant ($\beta = -.17$, $t = -4.95$, $p < .001$). H 5 hypothesized a positive relationship between the level of perceived constraints and the level of negotiation effort, and the test showed a significant relationship ($\beta = .07$, $t = 2.32$, $p < .05$). Thus, H 4 and H 5 were supported.

The relationship between the level of perceived constraints and the level of motivation was significant ($\beta = .27$, $t = 11.17$, $p < .001$). H 6 hypothesized that the level of perceived constraints would have a negative effect on the level of motivation. However, results indicated a positive relationship between the level of perceived constraints and the level of motivation. Therefore H 6 was not supported. The reason why the level of perceived constraints had a positive relation to the level of motivation－contrary to H 6－may be as follows. The level of self-efficacy had a direct impact on the level of motivation and the value of the effect was .41. In addition, the level of self-efficacy had a negative indirect effect on the level of motivation mediated by the level of perceived constraints, and the value was －0.08. This indirect effect caused a positive relation between the level of perceived constraints and the level of motivation.

As hypothesized, the level of self-efficacy had positive effects on the level of motivation ($\beta = .41$, $t = 14.46$, $p < .001$), frequency of travel ($\beta = .16$, $t = 3.81$, $p < .001$), and the level of negotiation effort ($\beta = .29$, $t = 8.01$, $p < .001$) and had a negative effect on the level of perceived constraints ($\beta = -.29$, $t = -7.97$, $p < .001$). These four relationships were significant and H 7, H 8, H 9, and H 10 were supported.

The level of evaluation of overseas travel had a positive impact on the level of motivation ($\beta = .53$, $t = 18.54$, $p < .001$) and the level of self-efficacy ($\beta = .64$, $t = 26.90$, $p < .001$). These relationships were significant, and thus H 11 and H 12 were supported. In contrast, the level of evaluation was negatively related to the level of perceived constraints ($\beta = -.26$, $t = -7.17$, $p < .001$), and this relationship (H 13) was also significant.

Frequency of travel had a positive influence on the level of evaluation of overseas travel and this relationship (H 14) was significant ($\beta = .19$, $t = 4.84$, $p < .001$). The higher the frequency of travel (for the purposes of our research, the number of times traveled overseas in

the previous five years), the higher the level of evaluation.

Total Effect

To uncover which components had positive or negative effects on other components, the total effect was examined. The total effect is sum of the direct and indirect effects.

Table 7 shows the total, direct and indirect effects of six components in the level of perceived constraints. Both the level of evaluation of overseas travel (−.46) and the level of self-efficacy (−.31) had negative total impacts on the level of perceived constraints. Other constructs indicated lower absolute values of coefficients than the level of evaluation and the level of self-efficacy. Table 8 reveals that the level of evaluation had the strongest positive effect on the level of self-efficacy in total out of the six components. The total effect of the level of evaluation on the level of self-efficacy was .67, of which .64 was a direct effect. Table 9 indicates that among the six components the level of evaluation (.70) and the level of self-efficacy (.37) had positive total effects on the level of motivation. The level of perceived constraints also had a positive total effect on the level of motivation, counter to hypothesis 6. Table 10 shows the results of the total effect of the six components on the level of negotiation effort. The total effect of the level of evaluation on the level of negotiation effort was .45, and it was an indirect effect mediated by the level of motivation, the level of self-efficacy and so on. In addition, the results show that the level of self-efficacy (.43) and the level of motivation (.42) had positive total effects on the level of negotiation effort. Table 11 indicates that frequency of travel (.20) had a positive effect on the level of evaluation of overseas travel, while other components had weak impacts on the level of evaluation. Table 12 shows in summary that the level of self-efficacy (.25) and the level of evaluation of overseas travel (.22) had relatively stronger total effects on frequency of travel than did the level of motivation (.03), the level of negotiation effort (.07), and frequency of travel (.04). In contrast, the level of perceived constraints (−.16) had a negative total effect on frequency of travel.

Table 7 Total Effects, Direct Effects and Indirect Effects : Level of Perceived Constraints

Predictor	Total	Direct	Indirect
Level of perceived constraints	.01	.00	.01
Level of self-efficacy	−.31	−.29	−.02
Level of motivation	.00	.00	.00
Level of negotiation effort	−.01	.00	−.01
Frequency of travel	−.09	.00	−.09
Level of evaluation	−.46	−.26	−.20

Table 8 Total Effects, Direct Effects and Indirect Effects : Level of Self-Efficacy

Predictor	Total	Direct	Indirect
Level of perceived constraints	−.02	.00	−.02
Level of self-efficacy	.03	.00	.03
Level of motivation	.00	.00	.00
Level of negotiation effort	.01	.00	.01
Frequency of travel	.13	.00	.13
Level of evaluation	.67	.64	.03

Table 9 Total Effects, Direct Effects and Indirect Effects : Level of Motivation

Predictor	Total	Direct	Indirect
Level of perceived constraints	.25	.27	−.02
Level of self-efficacy	.37	.41	−.04
Level of motivation	.00	.00	.00
Level of negotiation effort	.01	.00	.01
Frequency of travel	.14	.00	.14
Level of evaluation	.70	.53	.17

Table 10 Total Effects, Direct Effects and Indirect Effects : Level of Negotiation Effort

Predictor	Total	Direct	Indirect
Level of perceived constraints	.16	.07	.10
Level of self-efficacy	.43	.29	.14
Level of motivation	.42	.42	.00
Level of negotiation effort	.01	.00	.01
Frequency of travel	.09	.00	.09
Level of evaluation	.45	.00	.45

Table 11 Total Effects, Direct Effects and Indirect Effects : Level of Evaluation

Predictor	Total	Direct	Indirect
Level of perceived constraints	−.03	.00	−.03
Level of self-efficacy	.05	.00	.05
Level of motivation	.01	.00	.01
Level of negotiation effort	.01	.00	.01
Frequency of travel	.20	.19	.01
Level of evaluation	.04	.00	.04

Table 12 Total Effects, Direct Effects and Indirect Effects : Frequency of Travel

Predictor	Total	Direct	Indirect
Level of perceived constraints	−.16	−.17	.01
Level of self-efficacy	.25	.16	.09
Level of motivation	.03	.00	.03
Level of negotiation effort	.07	.07	.00
Frequency of travel	.04	.00	.04
Level of evaluation	.22	.00	.22

Ⅴ DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Relevance of the Model

In this paper, the proposed model and hypotheses have been largely supported by the empirical data used in the study. The results of the empirical test highlight two distinct characteristics of the model.

First, the self-efficacy construct is central to the model. The model suggests powerful roles for self-efficacy as it strengthens the level of motivation, weakens the level of perceived constraints and activates negotiation effort to overcome perceived constraints. Self-efficacy also positively affects the frequency of overseas travel. These relations include both direct and indirect effects.

Second, the model highlights the importance of one's evaluation of overseas travel. As a person accumulates overseas travel experiences his/her level of evaluation also increases, which in turn positively influences the level of self-efficacy.

To put it another way, the study outcome suggests that, once having undertaken an overseas trip and having had a good experience, individuals then enter the "loop", and begin to repeat the process of traveling abroad.

Theoretical Contributions

The study provides two theoretical contributions to our knowledge of tourists' generic decisions.

Firstly, the study suggests that a perception of the constraints involved does not necessarily result in non-travel. It uncovers the dynamic and interactive processes among the multiple psychological constructs which lie behind "travel or non-travel" decisions. Thus, generic decisions may be understood as a complex and interwoven mechanism involving constructs other than perceived constraints. Such decisions are not merely a dichotomous choice.

Secondly, the study reveals the accumulative characteristics of generic decisions rather than their one-off decision-making nature. Feedback loops indicate how an individual's perception of various factors may change over time through the workings of self-efficacy. These sequential changes in perception may alter an individual's future decision-making and associated behavior.

Marketing Implications

Industry practitioners have faced a challenge in encouraging non-participants in overseas travel to go abroad (including those who have traveled abroad before but have not taken an overseas trip for some time). Lowering packaged prices is the typical solution so far adopted by the Japanese travel industry in order to boost the number of young overseas travelers. Yet these efforts may have created worse financial constraints for certain groups of young Japanese adults.

However, through a more essential comprehension of the dynamic and interactive mechanism of generic decisions, alternative approaches can be designed which encourage individuals who have never traveled overseas to embark on their first trip abroad. This will do more than merely place a temporary patch over the problem.

Again, central to the model is self-efficacy. A source of self-efficacy is vicarious experience, and this may be applicable to non-participants in overseas travel. It may serve to boost their self-efficacy with regard to traveling abroad. For example, one way of applying vicarious experience to tourism marketing is to develop instruments, both online and offline, that facilitate exposure of non-participants to others' overseas travel experiences. The application of the model should offer industry practitioners many means by which this process could be developed.

Limitations and Future Research

This study also specifies some limitations in the use of statistical software for executing structural equation modeling (the path analysis in this study) since it needs to assume a linear relationship between variables. On the basis of the relevant literature, all the hypotheses except one were deemed to have linear relationships, but H 14 (the relationship between frequency of overseas travel and the level of evaluation of overseas travel) may not have fitted this case in reality. One possible scenario could be that once frequency of overseas travel reaches a certain level, the level of evaluation of overseas travel may hit a ceiling and cease to continue rising. An investigation into the relationship between these factors remains to be carried out.

The current study was initially triggered by an interest in and concern about the dropping departure ratio of young Japanese adults, although the latest figures indicate some recovery, that is, the departure ratio hit bottom between 2008 and 2009 and since then has started gradually to recover. Does this mean the problem has been solved? Or alternatively, is the bipolarization between repeaters and non-participants in travel progressing? As the departure ratio is an index for the gross percentage of overseas travelers, it cannot really supply an

answer to this question. Thus it still remains important to understand the individual's travel decision-making mechanisms. In this respect, this study has advanced our comprehension of the nature of tourists' generic decisions, and it is expected that the dynamic feedback model should be useful in formulating strategic solutions to the practical challenges faced by the Japanese outbound travel market, as well as by the non-traveling population in any other market.

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