Urban tourist motivations: why visit Ljubljana?

Purpose
The aim of this paper is to develop a new perspective on urban tourist motivations by applying the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) model to help to understand how tourists make decisions about which destinations to visit.

Method
This study was based on 30 1-hour long structured interviews with visitors to Ljubljana, the capital city of Slovenia. Respondents were asked to express their preferences between different pull-factor motives for their visit, using Saaty’s scale, and further qualitative data was collected to examine these preferences in more depth.

Findings
The results of this study indicate that the most relevant criteria and thus predominant factors in motivation for visits to Ljubljana are the Cultural and Nightlife pull-factors, while Religious and Business motives are the lowest ranked factors. The paper argues that the results show the value of applying the AHP model to understand the role of pull-factors in urban tourism destination choice.

Research limitations/implications
As a single-destination case study, it is important that the findings of this research are evaluated against similar studies in other cities. A limitation of this research is the fact that sub motives within major groups of pull-factor motives have not been explored in this study and this should be the subject of future, more detailed research.
Originality/value

This research shows the value of applying, AHP, an under-used method to understand urban tourist motivations. The new knowledge gained through applying this method is of value to destination marketing organisations as well as to researchers conducting future studies, who will be able to replicate it and test its value.

Introduction

In general, human behaviour is both directed to, and results from, unsatisfied needs (Maslow, 1943). To understand motivation in tourism means to understand what motivates tourists to choose a certain destination. Pizam et al (1979: 195) identify the source of tourist motivations as being in human needs which “which predispose a person to participate in a tourist activity”, whilst Dann (1981:205) gives a more purposeful definition by locating motivations in “a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision.” Pearce, et al (1998), however, bring together a range of different intrinsic and extrinsic explanations for motivations to explain tourist motivation “as the global integrating network of biological and cultural forces which gives value and direction to travel choices, behaviour and experience”. People travel for a range of reasons to satisfy their different needs and wants, and to conform to or rebel against social contexts, which in turn influences their choices of destination. Hence, motivations involve a wide range factors that affect people’s choices of destinations in different ways which can be internal, or external in origin. In other words, understanding the motivations of tourists is the prerequisite for the understanding of all travel experiences and research can help us to better comprehend this (Hsu and Huang, 2008). Exploring these motives is the basis for
analysing key trends within the tourism market and the creation of an appropriate program of
tourism marketing activities (Seaton and Bennett, 1996). In this regard, this paper investigates
the travel motives for visiting Ljubljana, with emphasis on pull motives, as motives which are
related to the attributes of a specific destination.

Slovenia has recognised the importance of tourism to the national economy since it gained
independence in 1991 (Sirse and Mihalic 1999) and began to promote itself as westward-looking
independent state (Hall 2002). Since this period, Slovenia has established itself as a member of
the European Union, adopted the Euro, and Ljubljana has become a popular tourism city for
European markets (Konecik and Go 2008). Slovenia’s core tourism product can be broken down
into 4 ‘clusters’: tourism linked to the Alps and winter sports; health resorts; coastal tourism and
urban tourism (Mihalic 1993). The percentage of visitors to Ljubljana visiting for holidays and
leisure purposes has risen from 32% in 2003, to 62%, with the largest markets being Italy (12%,
Germany (8%), China (5.8%) and the United Kingdom (5.4%) (Bresovec and Mavaric 2015).

Ljubljana is the capital and largest city of Slovenia, but is the smallest capital city of Central
Europe (Mihalic 1993), with 500,000 residents spread across twenty-six administrative districts,
holding approximately 25% of Slovenia’s total population (Sali et al 2014). The city is situated
at the middle of a trade route between the northern Adriatic Sea and the Danube region in a
crossroads between Central and South Eastern Europe (Nastran and Regina 2016). It was the
historical capital of Carniola, a Slovene-inhabited part of the Habsburg Monarchy, and it has
been the cultural, educational, economic, political, and administrative centre of independent
Slovenia since 1991 (Culture.si 2016). Its central geographic location within Slovenia, transport
connections, concentration of industry, scientific and research institutions, and cultural traditions are contributing factors to its significant position as a capital city and an important regional hub.

Tourism is a relatively new industry in Ljubljana, and the number of visitors is rising every year. The city is visited throughout the year but it has the highest number of tourists from May till September, and in 2015, August was the most visited month of the year with 102,437 tourist arrivals and 124,511 overnight stays (Ljubljana Tourism Statistics, 2015). Recently, cheap flights have become available from many European cities so Ljubljana is quickly becoming a popular destination for short city breaks. However, it is also visited by backpackers who have added Ljubljana to their check-list of new European capitals. In addition, Ljubljana is also the administrative and business centre of Slovenia, so many new hotels in the city serve business travellers. Some product diversification is beginning to take place in Ljubljana as it matures as an urban tourism destination, in particular through the promotion of sports events such as the Ljubljana marathon (Golob et al. 2015) and Maravic et al. (2015) have shown that this new focus on sport across Slovenia will aid the destination’s attempt to become more competitive in the international tourism market.

The principal aim of this paper is to develop a new perspective on tourist motivations by applying the AHP (Analytic Hierarchy Process) method, a new approach in exploring tourist motivation, to the case of Ljubljana, the capital city of Slovenia. The AHP approach is used to construct an evaluation model and calculate criterion weights in a decision making process. It integrates different measures into a single overall score for ranking decision alternatives. This research provides a ranking of the pull motives for tourist visits to Ljubljana that has been
arrived at using the AHP method, which will be of value to destination marketing organisations as well as to researchers conducting future studies into tourist motivation.

**Literature Review**

*Travel motivation*

Many tourism researchers have claimed that motivation is the fundamental reason for any human behaviour (Mayo and Jarvis 1981; Pearce 1982 and 1991; Pearce and Caltabiano 1983), an essential element for understanding the decision-making process in choosing type of vacation (Dann, 1977; Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005, Pearce 2014) and the basis for assessing the level of satisfaction that is derived from tourism experience (Dann, 1981; Dunn and Iso-Ahola 1991; Ryan, 2002b; Yoon and Uysal, 2005, Correia 2013, Caber and Albayrak 2016, Anton et al 2017). As well as this, from the perspectives of managers in the tourism industry, the study of tourist motivation is crucial for the development of marketing strategy (Ryan, 1995, 2002a) and for the design and planning of tourism activities. These two perspectives emphasize the importance of studying travel motivations in tourism research. Travel motivation is made up of needs that predispose a person towards a certain tourist activity (Pizam et al., 1979). Research on travel motivation has been a subject of many tourism research papers in the past (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Pearce, 1995; Pearce, 2005; Murphy, Benckendorff, and Moscardo, 2007; Jang, Bai, Hu, and Wu, 2009; Huang and Hsu, 2009) and it remains a popular research theme (Li and Cai, 2012; Jiang, 2015; Leong et al, 2015; Li et al., 2015; Wong and Tang, 2016).
Many travel motivation theories have been developed throughout the decades by various authors, often in contention with each other and with no fixed framework emerging from the discussions in this area which have taken place ever since the establishment of the major tourism journals in the 1970s (Pearce 2014). For example, Dann (1981) describes tourist motivation as a content state of mind that drives participants or group of participants to take a journey and which is later interpreted as a valid explanation for that decision. Tourism motivation can alternatively be defined, according to Crompton (1979), as a dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants) that generate a state of tension within individuals. The resulting tension leads to actions designed to restore equilibrium through satisfying these needs and wants. According to Iso-Ahola (1989), people seek neither the absence of stimulation, nor too much stimulation from a tourism experience, but take part in activities which provide stimulation an optimal level, which is different for each individual. Fridgin (1991) develops this theory and explains that a person seeks out a level of stimulation through travel that is best for them as an individual. For example, “If a person’s life is too quiet, the person may seek out stimulation through activity. If too much is happening in a person’s world, then the person seeks to cut-off stimulation and find a quieter environment” (1991: 57-58). Crompton and McKay (1997) provide a more technical definition of tourist motivation that includes the concept of homeostasis, the ability or tendency of an organism to maintain internal equilibrium by adjusting its physiological processes to external influences. These authors also claim that tourist motivation should be conceived as a dynamic process made up from internal psychological factors (needs and desires) that create a state of tension or imbalances within the individual, which then generates the need for the tension to be resolved through a decision to travel, or not to travel, to a particular destination.
The best known theoretical constructs that have been applied to measure travel motivation are Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) theory, Herzberg's motivator-hygien theory (Ghazi, Ali, Shahzad, Khan, and Hukamdad 2010) as well as push-pull theory, Iso-Ahola’s escape-seeking dichotomy (1982) and the travel career ladder (TCL) approach (Pearce 1988). All of these theories agree on one thing - psychological and/or biological needs predispose people to travel. These theories are interrelated in many ways, to greater and lesser degrees. For instance, Iso-Ahola suggested the escape-seeking dichotomy which has a strong relationship to the concept of push-pull factors. Iso-Ahola’s model of tourism motivation consists of two motivational forces, seeking and escaping. Escaping is “the desire to leave the everyday environment behind oneself”, while seeking is “the desire to obtain psychological (intrinsic) rewards through travel in a contrasting (new or old) environment” (1982: 261). Analysing these categories, it is clear that push factors are similar to Iso-Ahola’s escape concept while pull factors in a destination have a clear relationship to the concept of seeking. Push-pull theory is the focus of this paper and is explored in more depth, below.

*Push-Pull theory*

In the tourism literature, push and pull factors in tourist motivation have been widely discussed (Baloglu and Uysal, 1996; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Pizam et al., 1979; Hsu et al., 2007, Uysal and Jurowski, 1994; Prayag and Ryan, 2011, Jeong 2014). The focus of this paper will now be on the application of push-pull theory, with an emphasis on the role of pull factors in motivating tourism to destinations.
Despite the range of different approaches that have developed to explain tourist motivations, push-pull theory tends to be one of the most widely referred to in the tourism motivation literature (Cook et al., 2010, Correia et al 2013, Kassean and Gassita 2014, Wu and Pearce 2014). Indicative of this is the foundational typology of travel motivations that was given by Crompton (1979), where he made distinction between “push” and “pull” motives. Push motives are intrinsic motives or motives which are connected with the individual, whereas pull motives are connected with the destination (Anton et al 2016). Both types of motivations are a mixture of generic concepts that can be widely applied and unique or distinctive motivations that are specific to one individual or one tourism destination. According to Dann (1977), push factors are related to internal forces, such as the social–psychological motivators that drive an individual to travel. Push motivations are conceived as useful for explaining the desire for travel, whilst pull motivations have been thought of as useful for explaining destination choice. Uysal and Jurowski (1994) further developed internal (push) and external (pull) motivators and connected these with travel intentions. According to Uysal and Jurowski (1994), internal motivators include desires for escape, rest, relaxation, prestige, health and fitness, adventure, and social interaction. Pull factors include tangible resources (such as beaches, recreational activities, and cultural attractions), and travellers’ perceptions and expectations of a destination. In fact, many researchers have acknowledged that pull factors are directly related to the features and attributes of a tourist destination (Pan and Ryan, 2007; Prayag and Ryan, 2011; Turnbull and Uysal, 1995). According to Josiam et al. (1999), in the process of tourism destination selection, the pull factors associated with the destination must meet the needs that lie behind the push factors driving the traveller. For example, when the traveller is motivated by “sun, sea and sand”, at a minimum the destination needs to promote the availability of these. However, numerous destinations offer
“sun, sea and sand”. Therefore the additional unique, attributes of the destination, or its pull factors, must be communicated to the traveller to persuade him or her to visit.

An analysis of the key literature on travel motivation indicates that previous studies are rather consistent in putting an emphasis on the push factors in understanding travel motivation (Beard and Ragheb, 1983; Pizam et al., 1979; Crompton, 1979; Foodness, 1994). However, pull factors, even though often neglected, are a key influencing factor in tourists’ destination choice. Although push factors are very important in explaining travel motivation and decision-making in tourism, their intangibility means that it can be difficult to relate them to specific practical implications for destination management and marketing. This is compounded by the fact that push factors are origin-specific attributes, emanating from individual tourists, who can have incredibly diverse psychological drivers for their travel. On the other hand, knowledge about pull factors, specifically those related to one destination in particular, can provide destination managers with a lot of information about why tourists choose visit that destination and how to plan a marketing strategy to influence different segments of the travel market. Although some authors have begun to consider the complex relationships that exist between pull and push factors (Kleonsky 2002, Kim et al 2013, Jeong 2014, Caber and Albayrak 2016), it is generally regarded that push and pull factors relate to two separate tourist decisions made at two separate points in time – one focusing on whether to go, the other on where to go. Therefore, push factors are perceived to be present in the decision making process before pull factors have an impact (Dunn, 2009).
It is evident that push factors have an impact on tourists’ travelling decisions, yet destinations cannot create push motivations for tourists. Destinations can only offer attractions consistent with tourists’ push factors. In other words, pull factors can be influenced and enhanced by destinations as part of how they react to tourist motivations through their marketing strategies and activities such as promotion, segmentation and product development (Hawkes et al 2016, Kassean and Gassita 2014, Jeong 2014). For this reason, this paper focuses on the pull factors of tourist destinations – in this case, for the city of Ljubljana – in order to generate insights that can be useful for destination managers and marketers.

Urban travel motivation

There are many studies focusing on travel motivation for cities. For instance, Blank and Petkovich (1987) developed some important early perspectives on urban tourism and stated that cities are places with high population density, so one of the most important motives associated with their tourism is visiting friends and relatives. Page (1995) investigated travel motivations for visiting cities and found out that main motives were: visiting friends and relatives, shopping, conference and exhibitions, education, culture and heritage. Law (1993) discovered that the primary motivation for visiting cities could often be a visit to a museum or attending a concert. Ashworth and Tunbridge (1990) perceived cities as multidimensional and multi-functional and because of that, declared that travel motivation has to be characterized in a similar way; cities have a large number of factors that influence tourists’ destination choice. Burtenshaw et al. (1991) identified the diverse set of resources in cities that can be linked to pull motives, including historic monuments, museums and galleries, shops, cafes and restaurants. In recent
studies, researchers have also highlighted shopping as powerful motive for travel and choice of
destination (Oh et al 1995, Hanqin and Lam, 1999; Sirakaya, Uysal, Yoshioka, 2003). Quan and
Wang (2004) investigated primary and secondary trip motivations and show that, in addition,
food can be seen as primary trip motive and has a significant influence on the overall image of
destination image and the depth of influence it has on travel motivation, showing the complex
ways in which push factors are combined in influencing destination choice.

The motives identified above can be described as pull factors, influencing tourists’ decisions to
visit cities. This review of the range of these urban motivators indicates that the most widely
mentioned are cultural motives, shopping and gastronomy, all of which are typical motivations
for city tourism. In developing this research, the motives identified in the literature as well as
pull factors identified on the Destination Marketing Organisation for Ljubljana website were
classified and included in this research in order to investigate the influence of a range of pull
motives for tourist visits to Ljubljana.

Method

To develop a method that could be used to evaluate the relative importance of pull factors for the
city of Ljubljana, the authors used the analytic hierarchy process (AHP), a method with
increasing application in the tourism literature (Scholl et al., 2005). The AHP method was
developed by Professor Thomas Saaty of Pittsburgh University in 1977. This mainly
mathematical method also makes use of qualitative data, meaning that respondents are able to
give verbal, qualitative statements about the criteria presented to them by the researcher, rather than being asked to frame their responses solely in more technical or quantitative ways, meaning that the AHP approach can provide greater explanatory depth than other decision analysis methodologies. This combination of quantitative and qualitative data means that the method can be used to develop more detailed knowledge about tourists’ preferences, beyond a simple ranking, which enables more informed decisions to be taken about how to use the information gained using the AHP approach.

Following its emergence as a method in the late 1970s, the AHP model has been slowly adopted as a model within tourism studies and used in a variety of contexts (See, for example: Chen 2006, Choue et al 2008, Chen and Shi 2009, Fabac and Zver 2011, Papic-Blagojevic, Gajić, and Đokić 2011, Lai and Vinh 2013). Mardani et al (2016) carried out a systematic review of the wide range of Multi Criteria Decision Making (MCDM) techniques that have been applied in the tourism and hospitality management literature, which included 106 papers published from 1994 to 2014 in 53 peer reviewed journals. The results of this review indicate that AHP is one of the most frequently used MCDM in tourism and hospitality (in 30.36% of analysed papers), with the most researched areas being: location selection, service quality, ecotourism, marketing and tourist destination development. This indicates the suitability of the approach taken in this study, which is linked to marketing and destination development, but which applies AHP to an area where it has not been frequently used, that of tourist motivations.

The aim of applying AHP is to simplify a multiple criterion problem by breaking it down into a multilevel hierarchical structure (Harker and Vargas, 1987), which then allows for the
identification of a series of criteria that have influenced a final decision. In structural terms, as shown in figure 1, the final decision making goal is at placed at the top of the hierarchy, while the criteria, sub-criteria and alternatives are on the lower level and sub-levels of the hierarchy. Using information gathered from respondents about their decision making processes, AHP incrementally compares alternatives and then measures their impact on the final decision making goal. This then helps to understand the process through decisions have been made in complicated contexts, where there are multiple alternatives (Saaty, 1980).

*Figure 1. The application of hierarchy in AHP*

When a problem such as tourism destination choice is decomposed into this hierarchical structure, the decision maker (in this case, the potential urban tourist) is asked by the researcher to compare the elements in pairs at each level of the hierarchy with elements in the higher level of the hierarchy. The corresponding weight then given to each of these elements in the decision making process is a reflection of the judgements that were made decision making criteria represents a measure of the relative importance of the elements (Jandrić and Srđević, 2000).

The specific comparative technique used with the AHP method determines the preferences for the set of elements at a given level of a decision making hierarchy by employing pair-wise comparisons of these elements, with respect to the elements at the higher level. This uses Saaty’s (1980) scale, given as 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, where 1 denotes equal importance and 9 shows the absolute importance of one element over another. This is shown in more detail in table 1.

*Table 1. Saaty's scale for pair wise comparisons in AHP*
If element \( i \) is more important than element \( y \), then a relevant index value is assigned in the matrix \( A \), but if the judgment is that \( y \) is more important than \( i \), the reciprocal of the relevant index value is assigned to the matrix \( A \). The results of all the comparisons are placed in positive reciprocal quadratic matrices. The next stage in the AHP method is to calculate the eigenvector, using the standard AHP method, for each matrix. The so-called local priority vector is calculated using the principal eigenvector of a comparison matrix, as suggested by Saaty (1980). The section below shows how this takes place in more detail.

To calculate the weights of \( n \) elements, by the comparison of the two elements \((i, y)\), Saaty’s scale is used, as shown in table 1.

The result of the comparison of the element \( i \) and \( y \) is placed in matrix \( A \) in the position \( a \):

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
  a_{11} & a_{12} & \ldots & a_{1n} \\
  a_{21} & a_{22} & \ldots & a_{2n} \\
  \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
  a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \ldots & a_{nn}
\end{array}
\]
The reciprocal value of the results of the comparison is placed on the position $a_{yi}$ to preserve the consistency of the judgment. The respondent is asked to compare $n$ elements and places the results in matrix A (Jandrić and Srđević, 2000). After all the pairwise comparison matrices have been formed, the vector of weights, $w = [w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n]$, is then computed on the basis of Saaty’s eigenvector procedure. For the purposes of this research, the software ‘Expert Choice 2000’ was used to carry out this computation process. Expert Choice is decision-making software that is based on multi-criteria decision making and it implements the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP). Created by Thomas Saaty and Ernest Forman in 1983, the software is supplied by Expert Choice Inc. (Expert Choice 2017). The computation of the weights involves two steps. Firstly, the pairwise comparison matrix, $A = [a_{ij}]_{n\times n}$, is normalized by equation (1), and then the weights are calculated using equation (2).

**Normalization:**

$$a_{ij}^* = \frac{a_{ij}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}} \quad (1)$$

**Weights calculation:**

$$w_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}^*}{n} \quad (2)$$

for all $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. 


Saatay (1980) showed that there is a relationship between the vector weights, $w$, and the pairwise comparison matrix, $A$.

The final stage of the evaluation of the decision making process is to calculate the consistency ratio (CR) in order to determine how consistent the judgments are between respondents, and thus to consider whether the results from multiple respondents are generalizable. The closer $\lambda_{max}$ is to $n$, the more consistent the judgments are between respondents. The difference $\lambda_{max} - n$ can be used to measure the level of inconsistency in responses, but instead of using this, Saaty defined a Consistency Index (CI) which is calculated according to the formula $(\lambda_{max} - n) / (n - 1)$.

Finally, the consistency ratio (CR) can be calculated from the ratio of the consistency index (CI) and the random index (RI) according to formula $CR = CI/RI$, as defined by Saaty (1980). RI represents the random index derived from numerous randomly generated $n \times n$ matrices. If the consistency ratio (CR) is less than 0.10, the result is sufficiently accurate and there is no need for adjustments in comparison or for repeating the calculation. If the CR is much in excess of 0.10 the judgments are untrustworthy and the results should be re-analysed to determine the reasons for inconsistencies.

The AHP method is often applied with small samples and lends itself to the use of in-depth structured interviews, which is useful for research focusing on a specific issue where a large sample is not necessary such as within a tightly bounded situation (Cheng and Li 2002; Lam and Zhao 1998), as in the case of this paper, which looks specifically at the case of Ljubljana as a
single-case within which the AHP method has been applied. A sample of the size used in this paper, and described below, is consistent with previous studies that have applied the AHP model such as Hsu et al (2009) who included the views of 32 respondents in their application of AHP to the destination decision making process and Chen (2014) who used a similar structured interview method with sample size of 23 to evaluate the suitability of festivals for inclusion in Taiwan’s Tourism and Nation Branding programme. In an assessment of the suitability of various sites for inclusion in the development of a cultural heritage tourism product in Trinidad and Tobago, Jordan (2013) used a smaller purposive sample of ten respondents.

Study sample

A total of 30 international tourists who were visiting Ljubljana were included in the study, through hour-long structured interviews. The average age of the study sample was 29.34 years (Std. = 1.284), and only persons over 18 were included in the study. Moreover, the majority of them came from Austria, Germany, and Serbia, and have finished secondary school. More detailed socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. The socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents (N=30)

Procedure

The interviews were conducted by one of the authors, during May 2016. The sample for this study was a convenience sample, which was generated in two ways. The first phase of structured interviews was conducted in several hotels in central Ljubljana (Best Western Hotel Premier
Sloan, Hotel Emonec, City Hotel Ljubljana, Art Hotel, M Hotel) with the support of the reception staff. A general invitation to participate in the study was issued to all guests in the above hotels, during check-in. Seventeen guests in total offered to participate in the research during their stay and all were included in the sample. Secondly, visitors to the Tourist Information Centre of Ljubljana were informed about the research by centre staff, and thirteen people agreed to participate in the study. The interviews were carried out in English, and respondents were asked to express their preferences between different motives of visit, in terms of how important they felt each pull motive was in deciding to visit Ljubljana, by using Saaty’s scale (table 1). The choice of pull motives was based on the literature review, above, as well as destination information for tourists from the Destination Marketing Organisation of Ljubljana website (Visit Ljubljana 2017). Ten main motives were included in the study: Cultural, Business, Education, Nightlife, Events, Sports, Natural Environment, Shopping, Religious motive and Gastronomy. The interview consisted of two sections. The first section collected data on the sociodemographic characteristics of respondents (gender, age, education and country of origin). The second section consisted of the pairwise comparison of 10 identified pull motives for visit Ljubljana. The second section of the interview also involved an open discussion of respondents’ choices, generating additional qualitative data. Respondents were asked to assign corresponding numerical values based on the relative importance of the attribute, but also to elaborate the reasons why they have given a preference to certain attribute. The qualitative elaboration of the answers was used in order to explain the meaning behind numerical rankings. The individual explanations were then summarized and used to inform the discussion of the results of the procedure, and are presented in the discussion below in order to add greater explanatory depth to the findings of this paper.
A sample answer is shown in table 3. For instance, if alternative A (Cultural motive) has absolute dominance compared to alternative B (Entertainment and nightlife), 9 is selected on the left, but if C (Shopping) has the strong dominance compared to B (Entertainment and nightlife), 5 is selected on the right side.

Table 3. Sample answer

In this way, all pull motives are compared to each other. The comparison of pull motives was carried out as shown in table 3. This study compared 10 items so it has $10 \times (10-1)/2 = 45$ comparisons in total for every respondent.

Results and Discussion

Ranking of the pull motives

The quantitative results were inserted and analysed in the statistical software ‘Expert Choice 2000’. Individual group matrices were inputted into the software and the geometric means method was used to analyse the consensus on decisions. Preliminary results of the analysis indicate the most relevant criteria, and thus the predominant motives for tourist visits to Ljubljana. The results of the research are presented in Figure 2, which shows the final ranking of tourist motives for visiting Ljubljana, starting from the most dominant to the least dominant motive. The discussion of these results, below, also incorporates the qualitative data gathered from respondents that help to explain the ranking of the motives.
The study showed that the consistency ratio (CR), according to the AHP method, is 0.01 (CR<0.1), indicating that the study is reliable and accurate and that therefore there is no need for adjustments in the comparison between criteria. From Figure 2, we can see that the values for all of the motives are spread on the scale between 0.069 and 0.165, which means that these ten motives are relatively evenly distributed as a set of pull factors which motivate tourists to visit Ljubljana.

Larger differences can be observed between the first five motives, where the difference between each subsequent motive is greater than 0.01, but after the fifth motive, this difference is reduced. The biggest difference is observed between the first (Cultural motive) and the second motive (Entertainment and nightlife), which is 0.026. The most dominant motive is Cultural motive (visits to museums, galleries, monuments and heritage), which is an expected result, given that Ljubljana is known for its valuable and rich cultural heritage, as well as its rich architectural heritage in the Art Nouveau style. Also, if we study the package tour opportunities available for city breaks in Ljubljana, it can be noticed that operators tend to put an emphasis on its cultural heritage. This motive was rated as the most dominant (0.165). The city of Ljubljana has a lot of cultural monuments, including the Bogenšperk and Snežnik Castles, churches, homesteads, the Robba Fountain and the Cekin Mansion. The Ljubljana Regional Office of the Institute for the Protection of Cultural Heritage of Slovenia, is responsible for cultural heritage in the Ljubljana region, and actively promotes these sites as cultural tourism resources. The second-ranked

Figure 2. Ranking of motives
motive, which was given the ranking (0.139), is *Entertainment and Nightlife*. For this result, there are two possible explanations. Firstly, it should be taken into account that a large percent of respondents represent younger age groups, who have a strong interest in the night time economy and experiences, with a high propensity for socializing, and a city like Ljubljana is attractive to them due to its vivid and dynamic nightlife and various opportunities for entertainment. Another reason for the high ranking of this motive is that, as Ljubljana is the capital city in the centre of the country, commercial entertainment investment decisions mean that that many large Slovenian entertainment venues and businesses are located there, and the biggest music events and festivals in Slovenia are held in Ljubljana.

The next highest ranked motive is *Shopping*, with a criterion weight of (0.121). Ljubljana, as the capital city, has a number of shopping centres, where tourists can find the shops of all domestic and international brands that are available in Slovenia. The motive of *Education* was ranked in fourth place amongst the most dominant motivations for visits (0.107). The University of Ljubljana is the oldest and the biggest educational institution in Slovenia, with high numbers of students studying there from different parts of the country, but also from abroad. It was founded in 1919, and it is among the first 500 or the first 3% of the world's best universities according to the Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) (Universa u Llubljani 2016). With over 63,000 enrolled undergraduate and graduate students, it is among the largest universities in Europe. In addition to Maribor and other cities in Slovenia, which also have numerous faculties, Ljubljana has an excellent location in the centre of the country, which is easily accessible to a large number of students. *Visits to festivals and other cultural events* is ranked in fifth place (0.089). Ljubljana has more than 10,000 cultural events each year, including 14 international
festivals and many other traditional happenings, which attracts visitors from all over the country (Visit Ljubljana 2016). The next motive for visiting Ljubljana was Gastronomy (0.085). The city has a diverse offer of international restaurants with different cuisines ranging from Chinese, Asian, Japanese, Spanish and Mexican to fast food, as well as domestic slow food restaurants with a high level of quality food, service and ambience. Recently, “Odprta kuhna” - Open kitchen, has become a very popular festival in the city, where numerous restaurants from different parts of country present their offer and prepare a variety of foods, demonstrating the visitor focused gastronomy culture of the destination.

The next highest ranked motive is the motive of Natural Environment (0.079). Slovenia is known for its well-preserved natural environment, which is also evident in the approach to sustainable development and green spaces in its cities. It is important to mention that the city of Ljubljana was declared European Green Capital of 2016 and as such it offers great opportunities for green experiences and enjoying in nature. Although Ljubljana has many parks and promenades, in the countryside just a few kilometres outside the city, there are many larger parks, pedestrian and hiking trails and bike tracks. Regarding natural values, Ljubljana Marshes should be mentioned, as wetlands areas, which has been protected as a natural park since 2008. Although there are a higher number of tourists who travel outside of the city when they want to spend time in nature, there are also many of those who come to Ljubljana, primarily motivated by natural values. The next motive in the hierarchy is Sports and Sports Events (0.075). Although Slovenia has a lot successful athletes and sport is very popular in the country, especially among Slovenia’s young people, the city of Ljubljana itself is not so popular amongst sport fans. Recently, Ljubljana saw the construction of a new sport facility (Stožice), which is usually used for major sporting
matches of national importance, but it is not a unique one, since almost every major city has its own hall or stadium of equivalent interest to non-partisan sports tourists. Business tourists are also important for the city, whose dominant motive for visit is Business. Ljubljana, as the capital city, has a lot of companies, large and small enterprises, employing workers from across the country. This motive has criterion weight of 0.072. The least dominant motive for visits to Ljubljana was the Religious motive (0.069). Although, there are still people who travel for this purpose, the majority of significant religious sites in Slovenia are outside of Ljubljana.

*Categorisation of pull motives*

More detailed analysis of the provided hierarchy of travel motives for visit Ljubljana reveals certain combination of pull motives – motivational categories which provide useful information about patterns in the combination of pull motives for tourists visiting Ljubljana. Patterns were based on travel motives weights (group motives with similar weights), and connection has to be logical.

The analysis of the frequency of choice of pull motives reveals several combinations of motives, which are presented in Table 4.

*Table 4. The categories of pull factors*

Based on group decision consensus, tourists who are most frequently interested in Cultural motives are also interested in Education. This combination of motives is named “Self-
improvement”, as it is connected with desire to increase and extend the existing knowledge, learn new things, experience different cultures. Also, tourists who prefer Entertainment and nightlife as important pull motives also rank high Shopping. The content of these two motives is quite similar as they include relaxation and having fun at the destination and thus they can be named “Leisure Activities”. Furthermore, respondents who prefer Festivals and other cultural events also rank with close weight Gastronomy, and this combination of motives can be named “Hedonic Consumption”. Respondents, who choose Natural Environment, often give a high ranking to Sport and Sports Events, which can be connected to “Active vacation”. Business and religious motives are not particularly connected with any other pull motive and they stand as individual motivation factors in this categorization. This can be explained by the fact that business people are in most cases obliged to visit certain destinations because of work, and the other motives associated with visiting the city are often of secondary importance. Also, religious tourists are a specific group of tourist driven by religious motives and pilgrimage to sacred sites, which is often their only motive for travel. Criterion weights for this synthetic categorisation of pull motives indicate that Self-improvement and Leisure Activities are most frequently chosen as the most important motives for tourist visits to Ljubljana.

Conclusion

This paper has applied the Analytic Hierarchy Process method to analyse the motivations of urban tourists, through an investigation of the relative importance of a set of identified pull factors for the city of Ljubljana, Slovenia. In this paper, a number of perspectives on tourist motivations were reviewed, including foundational works in the field that have informed
research over the last four decades. A consideration of the literature led to a focus on the role of pull-factors as a dominant trope in much tourist motivation research and this was used to inform the selection of criteria that were applied in the AHP model in this case.

The primary aim of this paper was to develop a new perspective on urban tourist motivations by applying the Analytic Hierarchy Process model to help to understand how tourists make decisions about which destinations to visit. The research showed that the AHP method has value in understanding how urban tourists rank different pull factors in a city destination. This finding adds to the literature by demonstrating that the AHP model can be useful as an analytical tool for evaluating tourist motivations, when destinations have a number of prominent pull factors and do not rely on one particular attraction for their tourism promotion or destination or image, as is the case in the majority of urban tourism destinations which will contain a rich mix of tourism products and services that appeal to a broad spectrum of potential tourists. When compared to previous research on urban tourist motivations reviewed above, this paper reinforces Ashworth and Tunbridge’s (1990) perspective that cities are multi-dimensional and that categorising tourists motivations for visiting them must be similarly complex. The high ranking for leisure activities supports research that emphasises the importance of retail, nightlife and entrainment in the visitor offer of tourist cities (Oh et al 1995, Hanqin and Lam, 1999; Sirakaya, Uysal, Yoshioka, 2003). For example, in Ljubljana, it is clear that the city’s tourism product is composed of a mixture of mainly heritage, nightlife and business tourism, but that, for the tourists included in this sample, who have a specific demographic composition, the cultural and nightlife pull factors of the destination were the most important for them in their own motivations for visiting the city. Further research should be carried out to establish the
importance of Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR) tourism for the city, as although this was not analysed as part of this study, Page (1995) identified it is a primary motive in other contexts. Knowing the hierarchy of pull factors for tourists visiting Ljubljana provides useful information for tourism destination managers and marketers, which could be used to support the creation of marketing strategies for the city. Marketing communications should put an emphasis on the pull factors which are at the top of the hierarchy, in order to attract the kinds of tourists included in this research. Moreover, knowledge about the combination of the pull factors as motivational categories is even more useful as it helps destination managers and marketers to shape travel packages that would combine those motives and suggests combinations of activities suitable for all motivational groups (Self-improvement, Leisure Activities, Hedonistic Consumption, Active Vacation and Business and Religious categorisations).

This research did not consider a detailed list of possible pull-factors at a level below the broad categorisations indicated by a review of the literature on urban tourism motivations, above. This is a limitation of this study that should be considered in future research, as a more fine-grained approach to the criteria used in the AHP ranking process may deliver further detailed results. A further limitation of this work is the relatively small sample size used in the research. As discussed above, the small sample size is consistent with previous applications of the AHP method in the tourism literature, and the chosen method of hour-long, structured interviews offers opportunities to ensure the rigour of the research process. However, future studies which have a more narrow focus but with a larger sample size would prove beneficial for developing this research area.
References


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Accessed 24th May 2017


Figure 1. The application of hierarchy in AHP
Figure 2. Ranking of motives
Table 1. Saaty’s scale for pair wise comparisons in AHP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Judgment term</th>
<th>Numerical term</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absolute preference (element $A$ over element $B$)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very strong preference ($A$ over $B$)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong preference ($A$ over $B$)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak preference ($A$ over $B$)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifference of $A$ and $B$</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak preference ($B$ over $A$)</td>
<td>1/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong preference ($B$ over $A$)</td>
<td>1/5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Very strong preference ($B$ over $A$)</td>
<td>1/7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absolute preference ($B$ over $A$)</td>
<td>1/9</td>
</tr>
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Table 2. The socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents (N=30)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Country of origin:</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male: 33%</td>
<td>Austria 23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female: 67%</td>
<td>Germany 20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serbia 16.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina 13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Italy 10.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Croatia 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>United Kingdom 6.6%</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average age:</th>
<th>Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29.34 years</td>
<td>Secondary school 46.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Higher school 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Faculty 20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master/PhD degree 13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale items</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. The categories of pull factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Combination of pull factors</th>
<th>Weights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-improvement</strong> (e.g. Cultural motive and Education)</td>
<td>0.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leisure activities</strong> (e.g. Entertainment and nightlife and Shopping)</td>
<td>0.260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hedonic consumption</strong> (e.g. Festivals and other cultural events and Gastronomy)</td>
<td>0.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Active vacation</strong> (e.g. Nature and Sport and sport events)</td>
<td>0.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Business motives</strong></td>
<td>0.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religious motives</strong></td>
<td>0.069</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
About the authors

Sanja Božić is Assistant Professor at Department of geography, tourism and hotel management, Faculty of sciences, University of Novi Sad. Her field of research is marketing, cultural tourism, branding and statistical methods in tourism research.

James Kennell is Principal Lecturer in Tourism, Hospitality and Events in the Business Faculty of the University of Greenwich. His research concentrates on the relationships between culture, tourism and political economy.

Miroslav D. Vujičić is Assistant Professor at Department of geography, tourism and hotel management, Faculty of sciences, University of Novi Sad. His main interests are in cultural tourism, decision-making processes, geotourism and mathematical models in tourism research.

Tamara Jovanović is Assistant Professor at the University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Sciences, Department of Geography, Tourism and Hotel Management. Her primer area of research is Psychology, Psychology in tourism and application of mathematical and statistical methods in tourism practice.