# The Measurement of Cultural Influence on Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour using Personal Values and Sensation-Seeking Behaviour:

# A Comparison of Koreans in Korea and Australia

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This work has not been previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by any another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

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# Abstract

Immigration and international "floating populations" have increased in the past decade, arousing marketers' interest in culture. In particular, culture has been used for analysing the direction of market trends, as well as providing a better understanding of consumers' needs, expectations and preferences within and across countries. However, cross-cultural research has been hampered by the common use of nationality as a surrogate for cultural affiliation, even though a variety of ethnic, social class, lifestyle, and subcultures exist, particularly in countries that have been built from large immigrant populations such as the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand (Tan, McCullough, and Teoh, 1987). Furthermore, within the tourism discipline, the study of ethnic minorities has not received as much attention as specific populations of ethnic groups such as black American, Hispanic, and Chinese in the United States.

This study investigated the influences of culture on travel lifestyle and behaviour, through the comparison of Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea. Korean residents who live in Korea (N = 325) and Koreans who live in Australia (N = 306) completed a self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaire sought information in regard to travel lifestyle and behaviour as well as personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour and travel experiences, in order to investigate factors associated with the differences between the two groups in travel lifestyle and behaviour. Socio-demographic characteristics of the sample were also measured. Furthermore, a measure of acculturation was taken for the Korean Australians. Data were analysed using factor analysis, t-test, one-way ANOVA, multiple regression analysis, chi-square and cluster analysis to test the proposed hypotheses.

The results of this study showed differences between the two groups of Koreans in respect of travel lifestyle and behaviour, personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour and travel experiences. Cluster analysis identified five distinct groups: "affluent group travellers", "low resource group travellers", "active independent travellers", "non-active independent travellers", and "low-interest travellers". Korean Australians were more likely than Koreans to be represented in the clusters of "active independent travellers", "non-active independent travellers", and "low-interest travellers". Koreans were more likely to want to travel as part of a group than Korean Australians. Relationships between personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour and travel experiences, as well as travel lifestyle and behaviour were also found. The "low resource group traveller" within Korean Australians was likely to report having low "community values" and "life values", while the same cluster within Koreans was likely to report having low "social values" and "life values" as opposed to the "active independent traveller" for both samples of Koreans. The "active independent traveller" in both Korean groups was more likely to report holding a strong preference for "novelty" seeking than the other cluster travellers. Korean Australians who undertake frequent international travel were more likely to be in the "active independent travellers" cluster, whereas Koreans who are frequent international travellers were more likely to be in the "affluent group travellers" cluster.

Acculturation also predicted, to some extent, the travel lifestyle and behaviour of Korean Australians. Demographic variables were mostly irrelevant to travel lifestyle and behaviour in each group. This study confirmed that personal values and sensation-seeking behaviour seemed to be associated with the different travel

lifestyles and behaviour of Korean Australians compared to Koreans. The differences of travel lifestyle and behaviour may be caused by different cultures.

Findings of the current study reinforce the importance of culture in the tourism market. The results revealed that overall predictability of travel lifestyle and behaviour by sensation-seeking behaviour was stronger than the predictability of travel lifestyle and behaviour by personal values. However, variables such as personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour, travel experiences and demographic characteristics, which were expected to predict travel lifestyle and behaviour, did not appear to explain much variance. Future research is recommended to investigate other factors that may predict travel lifestyle and behaviour among other ethnic groups. This study suggests that marketers should acknowledge that consumers in countries with diverse cultural backgrounds also need differentiated services and products. Cross-cultural insights provide opportunities for marketers to develop and extend markets in multicultural countries.

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# LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

During the course of the research work, the following papers have been published or submitted for publication.

1.  Lee, S. H. and Sparks, B. (2007). Cultural influences on travel lifestyle: A comparison of Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea. *Tourism Management,* 28(2), 505-518.

2.  Lee, S. H. and Tideswell, C. (in press), Acculturation, travel lifestyle and tourist behaviour: A study of Korean immigrants in Australia. Accepted in Aug 2006 by *Tourism, Culture and Communication.*

# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1  Background

Tourism has attracted attention as one of the largest industries in the world. According to the World Tourism Organization (2006), 808 million people travelled to a foreign country in 2005 with total international tourism expenditure of US$682 billion. By the end of 2006, Travel and Tourism, one of the largest and most dynamic industries, is set to account for 10.3% of global GDP and more than 234 million jobs (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2006). Over recent decades, the phenomenon of globalisation has also impacted upon tourism markets across and within countries with not only guests but also hosts from a variety of cultures with different characteristics, expectations and values (Wijesinghe & Lewis, 2003). Interest in the global tourism phenomenon has been reflected in an increasing number of cross-cultural studies in the tourism discipline. The literature on the differences in cultural perspectives and impact on behaviours has been growing over the last 30 years and these studies have found a strong relationship between behaviour and culture, values, beliefs, and traditions (Cherry, 2000). However, cross-cultural research has been hampered by the common use of nationality as a surrogate for cultural affiliation, even though a variety of ethnic groups, social classes, lifestyles, and subcultures exist in countries such as the United States, Canada and Australia which have been built by large immigrant populations (Tan, McCullough & Teoh, 1987).

Because of the diversity of culture across and within countries, consumers' needs, expectations and preferences have changed and become even more diversified. The tourism market in Australia is no exception to this. Australia is a popular international tourist destination, and consists of a wide variety of ethnic groups due to international migration. According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2005), Tourism Gross Domestic Product (GDP) amounted to $32 billion, and contributed 3.9% of total GDP in 2003-04. Domestic visitors generated 76% of tourism industry GDP in 2003-04 while international visitors generated 24%. In terms of an increase in the Australian population, people born overseas increased Australia's population by 250,000 over the five years to 30 June 2002, while people born in Australia increased by 868,000 over the same period. The percentage of people born overseas remained at 23% of the population in 2002.

This migrant population should not go unheeded by marketers. Consumers expect service providers to be aware of their emotions and feelings related to the racial, ethnic, and cultural aspects of their lives (Devore & Schlesinger, 1999). However, research into the interaction of cultures in the tourism industry in Australia is relatively neglected, even though hosts and guests of the tourism industry are multicultural (Wijesinghe & Lewis, 2003). To meet customer needs should be the first priority, and the inability to understand customer needs and changes is the most serious long-term threat (Morrison, 2002). Therefore, understanding the changes of society and of new groups of customers can provide great opportunities to marketers. In order to expand the tourism business to incorporate the migrant market, it is necessary to understand what their expectations and needs are, and how they are different from the mainstream. Even knowing the difference between immigrants and

the population of their home country can help marketers to predict the future trends of a multicultural society as well as the inbound market from their home country.

Market segmentation is the first step of the marketing process and is used to classify consumers in a format to specifically serve the marketing function (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). It is axiomatic that there should be appropriate market segmenting for effective, efficient marketing strategies and developing products and services. Consumers' needs, expectations and preferences have altered and become even more diversified, reflecting the diversity of tourists' culture. This change has led to the development of segmentation in the tourism market through various approaches such as geographic, demographic, socio-economic and psychographic characteristics.

Demographic variables and psychographic variables, which are measured through data collected on lifestyles and on activities, interests and opinion (AIOs), have been widely employed as tools of market segmentation. They provide an enhanced understanding of consumers in terms of their way of living; for instance, how people spend their time (activities, hobbies, entertainment), what they place importance on (interests, community involvement) and their opinions and attitudes towards various products (e.g., types of holidays) (Moutinho, 2000b). In addition, research into personal values has been a popular approach in marketing research, especially in cross-cultural research, because values are central to society, and provide clues about how society operates (Beatty, Homer, & Kahle, 1988). Values can also give marketers an idea of consumers' attitudes for specific market products, especially in a multicultural society.

Marketing research has generally attempted to understand the differences among national or ethnic groups for the purpose of market segmentation. However, previous marketing segmentation research of ethnic groups has focused on major ethnic groups such as the black American, Hispanic, and Chinese groups in the United States. Moreover, market segmentation research within the tourism discipline has not fully investigated the various ethnic groups. Only a few studies (e.g., Kim, 1995) have focused on lifestyles and values in regard to the travel behaviour of a particular minority ethnic group such as Koreans and Korean Australians. According to the annual report of the Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs (2005a), the estimated Australian resident population who were born in the Republic of South Korea was 42,679 as at 30 June 2002. Even though the population of Korean Australians is small, it continues to increase. The number of Korean permanent additions grew by 2,044 (2001-02), 2,336 (2002-03), and 2,742 (2003-04) across a three-year period (Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, 2005b).

Douglas and Craig (1997) indicated that the emergence of ethnic identities has recently become an important factor that impacts on the attitudes and behaviours of specific cultural groupings and customer segments within countries. However, the use of market segmentation to target immigrant populations has received little attention in the tourism discipline, even though the population of immigrants, not only in Australia but also throughout the world, has increased enormously in recent decades. Tourism operators must manage and respond to the cultural differences of not only international tourists, but also those of their domestic customers because globalisation has impacted on the composition of the domestic tourism market (Wijesinghe &

Lewis, 2003).

Immigrants' way of life is different from other members of the nation and may be different from members of their home country because the lifestyle of individuals is constantly changed according to personal, social, economic and political circumstances. That is, immigrants live in biculturalism, which includes a majority and a minority culture (Cherry, 2000), and it may lead to different behaviour in everyday life from the mainstream in both their present and past society. Tracking the differences among these groups may provide a way to predict potential demands in a multicultural society. Marketers continually need to keep pace with those changes to predict market trends and to develop products and services to suit their customers' demands.

## 1.2 Research Problem

To date there has been a lack of research about how the life of immigrants in a new country affects their travel lifestyle and behaviour. A comparison of Korean immigrants' travel lifestyle and behaviour with those in their home country can illustrate the influence the new country has on their travel lifestyle and behaviour. This research will seek to answer the research problem of the lack of understanding about the influence of a new culture on travel lifestyle and behaviour of a minor ethnic group – Korean Australians. Therefore, the key research question to be addressed by the current research is: "What are the differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea?"

## 1.3    Justification of the Study

The role of lifestyle and values has been examined widely in the study of tourism (e.g., Abbey, 1981; Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000; Jafari, 1989; Lawson, Thyne, Young & Juric, 1999; Mazanec, Zins & Dolnicar, 1998; McCleary & Choi, 1999; Muller, 1991; Polunin, 1989; Skidmore & Pyszka, 1987). However, much of this research has been conducted in the USA, with little attention given to Asian countries. More importantly, very few studies have been conducted regarding the values of South Koreans related to their travel lifestyle and behaviour (e.g., Kim, 1995). Second, a limited number of studies have sought to explore immigrants' leisure behaviour including leisure experience, constraints and participation (e.g., Edwards, 1981; Juniu, 2000; Stodolska, 1998; Stodolska, 2000; Yu & Berryman, 1996). However, once again, there is a paucity of studies investigating the travel behaviour of Korean immigrants. Third, a number of studies (e.g., Iverson, 1997; Kozak, 2002; March, 1997; Mykletun, Crotts, & Mykletun, 2001; Pizam & Jeong, 1996) have investigated the relationship between tourists and their nationality. Nevertheless, it seems there have been no studies comparing the behaviour of tourists of the same culture, but who are resident in different countries.

In recent decades the population of immigrants in Australia, as well as in many other parts of the world, has increased. This social phenomenon has resulted in many ethnic subcultures in a great number of countries. Although some researchers refer to and classify certain groups of people as "Asian" as a whole, each Asian country has social, cultural, and other diversities as varied as European countries (Ho, 1976). In the main, market segmentation has been conducted to divide the overall market into homogeneous groups with common characteristics. However, subculture segments

have received little attention from marketers, especially in the tourism industry.

The life of immigrants in a new place with a new culture may present new experiences, especially leisure experiences such as travel. Koreans living in South Korea and those living in Australia are likely to differ in their travel lifestyle and behaviour. Crotts and Litvin (2003) posed the question in their study: "Do travellers more closely reflect the culture of their homeland, their place of residency, or perhaps their nation of citizenship?" Their study suggested that assigning participants' national culture based on their country of residence provides better meaning to account for cultural differences in travellers' attitude and behaviour than does either country of birth or country of citizenship. Penaloza (1989) insisted that consumer acculturation is more subject to the influence of geographical than ideological movement. Moreover, values, lifestyles, other dimensions of psychographic profiles, and behaviour vary by geographic region (Kahle, Liu, & Watkins, 1992). It would seem, then, that geographic region can be a powerful influence on consumer behaviour as well as culture. If this is so, "Can Korean Australians be equally identified as Australian when segmenting the tourism market?" Or, if not, "Can marketers segment them as Korean?" They may have unique characteristics or mixed characteristics, and in that case they may need to be considered separately or as a group in the transition stage between being Korean and Australian. Koreans who live in Korea and those in Australia have the same culture of origin and have lived in the same region; however, they now live in totally different regions. Both groups have been exposed to western culture in many different ways, but Koreans who live in Australia have been more directly exposed to western culture. Thus, Korean Australians may be more acculturated to western culture, including the idiosyncrasies

of Australian society, than Koreans in Korea, and their behaviour would be distinct from Korean and/or Australian behaviour.

As stated above, limited research has been carried out on the influence of Korean values on travel lifestyle and behaviour. In particular, little research has investigated the travel behaviour of Korean immigrants. Most of all, comparative studies looking at Koreans of the same culture, but resident in different countries, can provide understanding of the process of cultural transition, which is called acculturation or assimilation, as well as its effects on lifestyle and behaviour. It will also determine the characteristics of each group, including their interests and needs with regard to travel. Such comparative research will contribute to knowledge of ways to understand and possibly segment tourism markets for ethnic minority groups through identifying their unique differences.

## 1.4    The Study Objectives and Research Questions

This study will explore the proposition that living in a different social environment may change the value systems of Koreans, which, in turn have an influence on travel lifestyle and behaviour. The objective of this study is to investigate how Koreans' values and lifestyle may have been changed by living in Australia, particularly in relation to their attitudes, interests, opinions, and behaviour in regard to travel. Therefore, the subjects of the study will be divided into two different groups to enable comparisons to be made between Koreans who live in South Korea (now referred to as "Korean") and Koreans who live in Australia (referred to as "Korean Australians") (see Table 1). An understanding of attitudes, interests, opinions, and behaviour can be accomplished by the identification of any differences between the

two groups of respondents through the comparison of such variables as values, sensation-seeking behaviour, level of acculturation and travel experiences. Values, travel lifestyle and behaviour may be affected by a number of factors, including new culture as well as demographic variables. Through a review of the existing literature, an understanding of the concepts of market segmentation, travel behaviour, lifestyle, value and culture (acculturation) will be afforded. It is anticipated that the two groups will exhibit different values that are likely to result in different travel lifestyles and behaviour for each group. The ultimate goal of the study will be to provide a better understanding of Koreans' and Korean Australians' travel behaviour and attitudes towards travel. The major research questions of this study are as follows:

*Q1. Are there differences in lifestyle and behaviour in relation to travel depending on whether the respondents live in Korea or in Australia?*

*Q2. What differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour exist according to demographic characteristics (gender, age, education, employment, marital status, etc.) of the two groups of Koreans?*

*Q3. How do the value systems, sensation-seeking behaviour and travel experiences affect the lifestyle (attitudes, interests, and opinions) and behaviour of Koreans and Korean Australians as compared with those of Koreans in respect of leisure travel?*

*Q4. What is a predictor of personal values of Korean Australians?*

*Q5. If the value systems and sensation-seeking behaviour affected the travel lifestyle and behaviour of Koreans and Korean Australians (Q3), could they be called the predictors of travel lifestyle and behaviour for Koreans and Korean Australians?*

*Q6. What are the marketing and product development implications for the travel industry in relation to the Korean market in Australia?*

**Table 1-1    Key Terms of Current Study**

| Term | Meaning |
|---|---|
| Korean Australians | Koreans who have migrated to Australia, and have permanent residentship or citizenship in Australia. In this study, Korean Australians only refers to the first generation of immigrants who were born in Korea. |
| Koreans | Koreans who live in Korea. |
| Acculturation | The assimilation of the host culture, a process of cultural exchange in attitudes, values, and/or behaviours of members of one cultural group toward the other cultural group (Lee & Ro Um, 1992; O'Guinn, Lee, & Faber, 1986; Valencia, 1985). |
| Culture | The social heritage and the distinctive lifestyle of a society, and the way people generally think and behave which is related to people's beliefs and way of life. |
| Lifestyle | A pattern of everyday life, which reflects people's attitudes, interests and opinions. |
| Market segmentation | The process of dividing the total market into relatively homogeneous groups with similar product needs or service interests, based upon such factors as geographic, demographic, socio-economic and psychographic characteristics for effective, efficient marketing strategies and developing products and services |
| Values | The set of beliefs and attitudes that provide guidelines to act and evaluate behaviours. |
| Sensation-seeking behaviour | The seeking behaviour of varied, novel, complex, and intense sensations and experiences, and the willingness to take physical, social, legal, and financial risks for the sake of such experience (Zuckerman, 1994). |
| Tourist (travel) behaviour | The way consumers search, select, use and behave after they have purchased travel services (Morrison, 2002). |

## 1.5   Structure of Thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters as listed below.

Chapter 1 provides the introduction, objectives, and justification of the research, including details of the research problem through a brief review of previous research.

Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature, including a definition of culture, consumer (tourist) behaviour, market segmentation - especially focused on lifestyle and values approaches in tourism, and a general review of Korea and Korean Australians. This review leads to the development of a research model for the study.

Chapter 3 presents a justification of the research method used for this study, including data collection survey instrument, sampling and survey methods.

Chapter 4 presents the results of the data analyses. In particular, descriptive statistics are provided for each section of the research – travel lifestyle and behaviour, personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour, acculturation, and travel experiences, and the two groups of Koreans are compared. The data are refined and analysed using factor analyses, reliability tests, t-tests, ANOVA tests, and chi-square tests. In addition, the results of the data analysis are summarised.

Chapter 5 provides the second part of the data analysis, which includes multiple regression analysis in order to investigate the relationships between personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour, acculturation, and travel lifestyle and behaviour.

In Chapter 6, the results of cluster analysis, chi-square tests and one-way between groups ANOVAs are presented. These analyses are carried out to segment the two groups of Koreans based on travel lifestyle and behaviour, and to analyse the differences between the two groups using personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour, travel experiences and demographic variables for the purpose of market segmentation.

Chapter 7 outlines the outcomes of the research and discusses the implications, contribution, and limitations of this research. It also presents suggestions for further research and conclusions to be drawn from the study

Figure 1-1 provides an overview of the structure of this thesis by chapters.

**Figure 1-1    Structure of Thesis**

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│        Introduction         │
│      (Chapter One)          │
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│     Literature Review       │
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│  Conclusions and Discussion │
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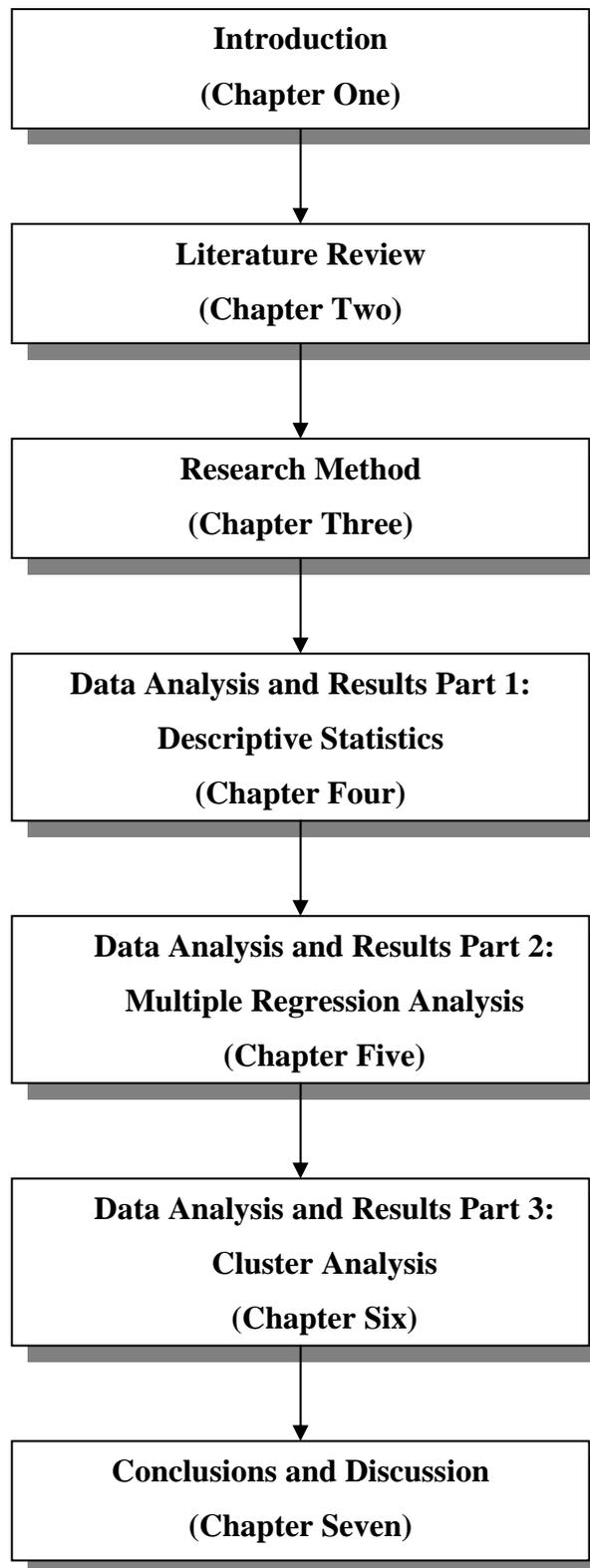
## 1.6　Summary

This chapter has laid the foundations for this research, summarised the justification of the research, introduced the research questions, and presented an outline for the proposed study. The following chapter provides a review of the literature, focusing on the key issues of this study including culture (acculturation), consumer (tourist) behaviour, and market segmentation using personal values and lifestyle in the findings of previous research. A review of Korean society and Korean Australians is also presented.

# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1 Introduction

Considering the continuous rise in the number of immigrants in many countries, the study of ethnic minorities in the tourism discipline has received relatively little attention, while the relationship between culture and consumer behaviour has received increasing attention in marketing research. Sobel (1981, p.47) mentioned that "consumption is the activity that best captures what is meant by lifestyle", and Johansson and Miegel (1992, p.78) stated "the core of lifestyle is located in cultural identity". For those reasons, cultural values have been recognised as a tool in shaping consumers' motivation, lifestyle, and product choices (Tse, Wong, & Tan, 1988). For example, Tse, Wong and Tan (1988) found that consumers from the five Asian regions including South Korea, Japan, Hong Kong, Singapore, and Taiwan possess patterns of consumption values unique to themselves. However, previous research of ethnic groups has focused on major ethnic groups in certain countries such as the black American, Hispanic, and Chinese populations in the United States (e.g., Bowker & Leeworthy, 1998; Ellis, McCullough, Wallendorf, & Tan, 1985; McCullough, Tan, & Wong, 1986; O'Guinn & Faber, 1985; Tan & McCullough, 1985; Valencia, 1985; Walker, Deng, & Dieser, 2001; Zmud & Arce, 1992). This is an issue that needs to be considered by researchers and marketers because of the growth of immigrant populations.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an introduction to the key concepts of this study and to discuss previous research related to the issues of cross-cultural research, travel behaviour, personal values, and lifestyle. Because this study attempts to compare the two groups of Koreans on their values and their influence on travel lifestyle and behaviour, culture was viewed as an important factor in consumer behaviour that may cause the difference between the two groups. This research is bounded by consumer behaviour theory as it relates to the tourism context. A review of culture is discussed, followed by the review of consumer behaviour literature and previous research of travel behaviour. A review of market segmentation is presented, including the patterns of market segmentation approaches, in particular, personal values and lifestyle, which are the key issues of this study. Finally, general information concerning Korean society, culture, travel history, and lifestyle is presented to provide a better understanding of Koreans and Korean Australians as the subjects of current study.

## 2.2    Culture and Tourism

Today, the existence of multiple cultures within a nation's geographical boundaries is a quite common phenomenon (Calantone, Morris, & Johar, 1985). It recognises that "culture" has become the focus of attention in many disciplines. Friedman (1999 cited in Ferraro, 2002, p.5) has indicated that globalisation is not just a passing trend, but rather is a worldwide phenomenon that involves a new type of integration of markets, technology, and information that is oblivious to both national and cultural borders. Importantly, it has been identified that the impact of multiculturalism is a major challenge for the twenty-first century (Bammel & Burrus-Bammel, 1996). In particular, multiculturalism has the potential to pose a significant

challenge to the tourism market. This phenomenon is caused by the change of country of residence between/among nations, and it is possible that travel experiences have also played indirect or direct roles in this phenomenon. In addition, immigration may lead to greater demand for travel, such as the visiting or reunion of family members.

Culture has been a popular issue of market research in the tourism industry because an understanding of culture helps identify new emerging market trends, including the diversified and subdivided international travel market. As a set of cultural values is central to any ethnic group, culture is the social heritage and the distinctive lifestyle of a society. That is to say, culture is the configuration of learned behaviour and results which are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society (Tan & McCullough, 1985; McCullough, Tan & Wong, 1986). In brief, a group of consumers from the same culture has many things in common, not only their outward appearance but also their thoughts and behaviours.

McCracken (1988) stated that consumption is a thoroughly cultural phenomenon, so it is shaped, driven, and constrained by cultural considerations. Therefore, changes resulting from an encounter with another culture (i.e., acculturation) should directly affect consumption activities. For instance, the comparative study between Korean immigrants and Americans in their consumer product evaluation by Lee and Ro Um (1992) showed that ethnic differences were evident in consumers' evaluation of product attributes as a function of acculturation. Previously, Henry (1976) obtained statistical results that provide empirical support for the commonly held theory that culture is one of the underlying determinants of consumer behaviour. The tourism industry is also no exception to this rule. Culture

decides perceptions of service quality and satisfaction of tourists in a process of service delivery through social interaction (Turner, Reisinger, & McQuilken, 2001). Cultural differences in consumers' needs and expectations may cause problems such as generating misunderstanding, increasing of the incidence of product/service failures and repurchasing (Reisinger & Turner, 1998). Consequently, understanding the tourists' culture would be one of the key points to understand or segment today's tourism market as well as for developing efficient market strategies. As tourism is a global phenomenon, cross-cultural research to explore the guest culture is an unavoidable challenge for the contemporary and future tourism market. Thus, various cultures have been widely studied to investigate the influence of tourists' culture on their travel behaviour throughout the world.

In spite of increasing attention on cultural research, many different definitions of culture have been given, because culture has a broad scope of meaning and theorists have different interpretations of the concept of culture. For instance, culture has been defined as "a complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (Tylor, 1889 cited in Wilson, 1971, p.90); "the complex abstract and material elements created by a society" (Moutinho, 1987, p.7); "a combination of the beliefs, values, attitudes, habits, traditions, customs, and forms of behaviour that are shared by a group of people" (Morrison, 2002, p.92); and "everything that people have, think, and do as members of a society" (Ferraro, 2002, p.15). However, a common thread is the importance of beliefs and values.

Culture is neither uniform nor static, and it is a continual synthesis of old and new in the many changes of society as well as the many modes of exchange between societies (Sherry, 1986). Culture is also shared among the members of a society; members learn how to think and behave from those around them. Culture is adaptive to environments, and always changing from within and from outside of the society (Ferraro, 2002). It is presumed that the mass media is a powerful reason for those changes. The mass media, whether in terms of broadcasting, films, print, the web, or, increasingly, multimedia forms, has contributed to the internationalisation of culture over recent decades (Shaw & Williams, 2002). Even though the world has seen the internationalisation of culture through cultural interchange between nations and/or ethnic groups, many countries or races retain their own culture.

In addition, the members of somewhat homogenous groups in most human societies have a tendency to identify with others on the base of human types, religion, or cultural identity (Ibrahim, 1991). Therefore, it is important to understand consumer behaviour through the comprehension of similarities and differences across countries and cultures. Yuksel and Yuksel (2001) considered that specific attributes of destinations, such as food or prestigious places, may have a strong influence on a specific cultural group's destination choice, while other cultural groups may have a strong preference for different attributes. Previously, a great number of studies (e.g., Iverson, 1997; Kim & Lee, 2000; Kozak, 2002, Lee, Lee & Wicks, 2004; March, 1997; Mok & DeFranco, 1999; Park, 2000; Pizam & Jeong, 1996) have demonstrated culture as an important characteristic of tourists. For instance, Bogari, Crowther and Marr (2004) found that the most important push and pull factors of motivation for domestic tourism among Saudi tourists are cultural and religious values. Kang and

Moscardo (2006) also reported that national culture has a great influence on attitudes towards eco-tourism among Korean, British and Australian tourists. The result showed that the Koreans had the highest levels of environmental concern among the three national cultural groups, and the researchers considered that Confucian values which emphasise learning and education may be the reason for this result. O'Connor et al. (1985) also emphasised that the knowledge of cultural values is a prerequisite for development of appropriate marketing strategies.

Although researchers have recognised the importance of cultural values as a characteristic of tourists, they have often overlooked the existence of different cultures in Asian countries. They may consider the culture of Asian countries to be based on collectivism, which came from Confucian ideas, and the culture of western countries to be based on individualism. On the one hand, some researchers (e.g., Ahmed & Krohn, 1992; March, 1997; Pizam & Jeong, 1996) have identified the tendency for group travel as the distinctive characteristic of tourists from Asian culture, while other cultural groups may prefer to travel individually; but, on the other hand, a number of studies have identified cultural difference among the Asian tourists as well as among tourists from western countries. A study of consumption behaviours among tourists in Hawaii established that, unlike Korean and Chinese tourists, Japanese tourists were unique in devoting their leisure time to shopping (Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005). Park (2000) also stated that the unique social and cultural factors of each country accounted for the differences in souvenir-purchasing behaviours between Korean and Japanese tourists. On the other hand, in research into tourist attitudes towards the environment for skiers from three western countries, there were both similarities and differences between the three cultures (Hudson & Ritchie, 2001).

The results of the study showed that the three different cultural groups had a similarity in terms of their perceived environmental consciousness, and two-thirds of each nationality would pay more for an environmentally responsible ski destination. These studies have proved the existence of cultural differences in the area of cross-cultural behavior in tourism within Asian countries as well as western countries.

Contrary to the above, Kim and Lee (2000) in a comparative study of travel motivation on the basis of individualist and collectivist orientations between Japanese and American tourists found that the two groups did not show as big a difference in some cultural contexts as the researchers expected. The researchers considered that this result may be due to the exposure to western culture. Moreover, Kim and Jogaratnam (2003) found that the travel motivation of Asian international and domestic American university students was surprisingly similar, although there were some differences. These may have been caused caused by the change of social environment and lifestyle, the influence of mass media, travel experience, and international cultural exchange. That is, cultures are constantly changing because of many factors, so marketers need to continually monitor the changes of culture.

When people migrate to a new country, they need to start understanding and adopting the norms, values, and cultural behaviour of the new country. But some of the differences occasionally lead to confusion or embarrassment. According to Landis and Brislin (1983 cited in Reisinger and Turner, 2003, p.9), cultural differences can cause differences in interactional behaviours and misunderstanding in their interpretations, and thus may create conflict. As a result of research into Confucian values among Koreans and Korean Americans by Hyun (2001), it was revealed that

Korean immigrants who had experienced adaptive limitations or prejudice and discrimination in the US did not endorse traditional values as strongly as those without such experiences. This supports the idea that there are certain culture threads that people tend to hold on to endure, no matter how severe the pressure to adapt (Morrison, 2002). That is, in cross-cultural contact, people tend to reduce interaction with members of different cultures (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). As a result of the difficulties of adapting to a new culture in a new country, immigrants may prefer to have strong interaction with immigrants from the same culture, and may have less and less chance to harmonise with members of the new country.

Contrary to the above, there is evidence that culture threads may in fact cause people to quickly assimilate into the new culture. According to Alisjahbana (1966), the change of value system is the result of comparison of the two cultures, and is a symptom of the exhaustion of the old value systems. Even though some immigrants may avoid interacting with people from different cultures, immigrants may be gradually changed as long as they live in the new country. Boekestijn (1988) found that most other studies showed that migrants tend to affiliate with co-culturals. Only one study (Alexander, 1969 cited in Boekestijn, 1988) referred to the tendency of some migrants to avoid contact with co-nationals and develop personal relations with the mainstream population in order to assimilate as quickly as possible.

Kalish and Collier (1981) stated that the tendency to tolerate deviation and accept the conflicting values of subcultures can be explained not only by culture, but also by the entire social environment of individuals. Figure 2-1 shows the flow of influence in social environment from the macro social environments - culture,

subculture, and social class - that have broad and powerful influences on the values, beliefs, attitudes, emotions, and behaviours of individual consumers. Furthermore, as shown in the figure, the micro social environments - reference groups and family – also can have strong influences on consumers' knowledge and feelings about products and on their consumption behaviour (Peter & Olson, 2001).

**Figure 2-1    The Flow of Influence in Social Environment**

Figure removed, please consult print copy of the thesis held in Griffith University Library

Source: Peter & Olson (2001, p. 269).

Ibrahim (1991) indicated two main concentric social circles that affect one's socialization and also leisure choices. The first group includes family and school which most affect people's leisure pursuits, and the second group includes associations, clubs, and places of worship. In addition, he stated that demographic variables, personal traits, lifestyle and subculture influence the choices of leisure activities or physical recreation. Therefore, the values, travel lifestyle and behaviour of Korean Australians may also be affected by their social environment, including the new subculture and new lifestyle in Australia.

## 2.2.1 Acculturation

Increasing populations of immigrants in many countries may lead to changes in the market. Immigrants will bring their own particular language, culture, values, lifestyles and behaviour. They come into contact with the new culture, yet, on the other hand, they retain the culture of their home country. The culture of immigrants' home country will be filtered through the culture present around them. Thus, measuring the level of acculturation is one of the prerequisites of market research for immigrant target markets. O'Guinn, Lee and Faber (1986) also indicated that the concept of acculturation is the core of research in ethnic subcultures of immigrants and their interaction with host societies.

Redfield, Linton, and Herskovitz (1936 cited in Salant, & Lauderdale, 2003, p.72) defined acculturation broadly as "those phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact, with subsequent changes in the original cultural patterns of either or both groups". In other words, acculturation is a process of cultural exchange in attitudes, values, and/or

behaviours of members of one cultural group toward the other cultural group (Lee & Ro Um, 1992; O'Guinn, Lee, & Faber, 1986; Valencia, 1985). During the process of acculturation, individuals may experience changes in five modes: physical, biological, cultural, social, and psychological (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987 cited in Kim, 1995a). Cultural change may take place within the political, economic, religious, social and linguistic systems, while social change may occur through interaction with people of different race or ethnicity. Psychological changes include changes in attitude, values, behaviour and lifestyle.

Assimilation is the process of being accepted as a genuine member of a new social group (Berelson & Steine, 1967 cited in Valencia, 1985). Thus, acculturation is the assimilation of the host culture. Cultural assimilation involves changes in the behaviour patterns of the immigrants, such as in clothing, food, language, and types of products purchased (Reilly & Wallendorf, 1984). According to Ellis, McCullough, Wallendorf, and Tan (1985, p.126), there are six components of assimilation into a new culture which are used to determine the extent to which a person has taken on the identity expected in a new culture. These components, which can be used to understand the basis of ethnicity and culture in behaviour, are: 1) adjustment of behaviour patterns such as language, dress, place of residence, and food; 2) associational involvement in the social structure through occupational groups and primary groups; 3) choice of marriage partner; 4) self-identity based on particular culture or ethnic group; 5) being accepted (not discriminated against) by others in the culture or ethnic group, and 6) adopting the values and power structures of the culture or ethnic group.

In addition, several variables have an influence on the nature and magnitude of acculturation: generational status, education, income, gender, age, years of residence in the new country, ethnic density of the neighbourhood, country of birth, job skills, religion, kinship structures, and purpose of immigration (Jun, Ball & Gentry, 1993; Bammel & Burrus-Bammel, 1996). As a matter of course, those variables influence felt needs in regard to most issues, including leisure (Kew, 1979). For instance, Neulinger (1974, p.105) described the characteristics of black Americans' leisure behaviour as follows: 1) their low income keeps them at the lower end of the social class scale, 2) their membership there leads to a low level of education, 3) a lower level of education leads to a low status of occupation, 4) accordingly, they are restricted to certain residential areas, and 5) there develops a historical, cultural heritage that leads to different leisure patterns. Nevertheless, the selected leisure activities of black Americans who live in predominantly white residential areas are similar to the ones favoured by their white neighbours (Edwards, 1981). It is likely that black Americans who live in predominantly white residential areas have the equivalent level of standard of living and education, as well as life environment. Falk (1995) indicated that ethnically inherent or culturally derived characteristics of a particular community may contribute significantly to patterns of leisure behavior. Although black Americans may not be a case to be considered as an ethnic group, in the sense of race and culture, several studies have treated this group as adapting to the U.S. culture and also have often compared their culture and leisure behaviour with that of European Americans or white Americans (e.g., Falk, 1995; Floyd & Shinew, 1999; Philipp, 1999). This group has their own culture and is considered a minority in the U.S. Thus, the results of Neulinger's study as well as others are worthy of notice for the study of ethnic groups in the tourism industry.

Kamo and Zhou (1994, p.544) explained that "the culture of immigrants is significantly altered through acculturation". Depending on individual circumstances, some immigrants have more access to cultural capital than others, and those influences play an important role in the construction of immigrants' values and lifestyle. That is, the level of acculturation can have influence on the central role of immigrants' values and lifestyle. Some lifestyle changes in the participants' socialization patterns, their views about work, and their perception of time were observed by Juniu (2000) in a selected group of South Americans after migrating to the United States. And these changes had an impact on their leisure experience and recreation participation. Among foreign students in the United States Manrai and Manrai (1995) also confirmed that time usage patterns for work versus social/leisure activities differ across individuals originating from low-context cultures of Western Europe and individuals originating from high-context cultures of Asia, Japan, the Middle East, and South America. Thus, it is assumed that the values and lifestyle of Korean Australians may be different from Koreans due to the progress of acculturation in a new country.

Culture changes experienced by immigrants have led to psychological changes, including those in cognitive, affective, and behavioural domains (Kim, Laroche, & Tomiuk, 2001). As previously mentioned, Penaloza (1989) pointed out that consumer acculturation is predominantly related to the effects of geographical rather than ideological movement. This means that most acculturation would result from an extended stay in another country such as immigration, while the least acculturative change would result from a novel experience in a foreign culture such as a holiday.

Koreans have become increasingly westernised in many respects through mass media, industrialization, and the increase in international travel. There is no doubt that Korean Australians have been more directly exposed to western society. Thus, Korean Australians may be more acculturated to western culture than Koreans. However, the values and lifestyles of Korean Australians would not be the same as Australians unless the immigrants were entirely acculturated. Tracking the change of values and lifestyles among immigrants can help marketers to meet the potential demands of the tourism market in multicultural society.

People learn culture from interacting with members of the group sharing that culture (Pengra, 2000). Thus, whether the values and lifestyles of Korean Australians are more like Australian or Korean may depend upon the level of acculturation. O'Guinn and Faber (1985) emphasised that understanding consumer-specific acculturation provides more effective targeting and promotion of products and services to different segments of ethnic markets in the same way as demographics and psychographics are used to segment the general population. Figure 2-2 describes the model of immigrant consumer acculturation.

Putting the results of previous studies together, it is presumed that Korean Australians may have some values and lifestyle changes through acculturation compared with values and lifestyles of Koreans, and those values and lifestyle changes can affect their travel behaviour. Travel behaviour, which is a key variable of the current study, is the concept of consumer behaviour in a tourism context. The

following section will explore the concepts of consumer behaviour, followed by a review of tourist behaviour and the factors that influence this behaviour.

**Figure 2-2    A Model of Immigrant Consumer Acculturation**

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Source: Penaloza (1989, p. 113).

## 2.3   Consumer Behaviour

Consumer behaviour was defined by the American Marketing Association as "the dynamic interaction of affect and cognition, behaviour, and the environment by

which human beings conduct the exchange aspects of their lives" (Bennett, 1995, p.59). It is clear that consumer behaviour is a discipline which has generated a body of knowledge about consumers as buyers, users and decision makers (Sheth, 1981). Research into consumer behaviour regarding product choice and group behaviour in the cross-cultural context has been carried out in diverse markets (e.g., O'Guinn & Faber, 1985; O'Guinn, Lee & Faber, 1986; Tse, Wong & Tan, 1988; Zmud & Arce, 1992). Zielinski and Robertson (1981) stated that consumer behaviour research can be identified and categorised based on the "Human Action System", which is composed of four primary subsystems termed "behavioural organism", "personality system", "social system", and "cultural system". They noted that cultural system is involved with latency or pattern maintenance in the Human Action System. It seems that culture and consumer behaviour are inseperably related.

There are two key reasons why research into the consumer behaviour of ethnic minorities is important (Lefebvre, 1987). First, both ethnicity and, often overlapping, minority group membership appear to have profound effects on consumer behaviour, even after controlling for socio-economic factors. Second, ethnic minorities live in and are spread across a great many nations around the globe, so that such research can provide guidance to international marketers within countries and world regions. Although the importance of culture and ethnicity has been recognised in consumer behaviour research, the numerous ethnic or minority groups have not been observed by market researchers. Maheswaran and Shavitt (2000) also pointed out that little research has examined the interaction of culture and consumer behaviour, even though culture shapes consumer behaviour. Furthermore, ethnic markets should not be overlooked. This research applies consumer behaviour theory as it relates to tourism.

In the tourism context, consumer behaviour is applied as travel behaviour or tourist behaviour. The next section will discuss consumer behaviour focused on tourism, which is the one of the key issues in this study.

## 2.3.1 Tourist Behaviour

The variation of leisure preference tends to differ across socioeconomic groups, so market segmentation with patterns of behaviour is required to target markets more effectively. Consumer behaviour in the tourism context is the way consumers search, select, use and behave after they have purchased travel services (Morrison, 2002). Thus, Ahmed and Krohn (1992) emphasised the importance of understanding consumer behaviour in tourism marketing to meet the expectations and needs of consumers because consumer behaviour is at the heart of contemporary tourism marketing. Moutinho (2000a) developed a vacation tourist behaviour model that consists of three parts: (1) pre-decision and decision process; (2) post-purchase evaluation; and (3) future decision-making. He argued that the tourist's preference structure is based on a group of factors, which are the internalised environmental influences including cultural norms, values, family, and social class. In addition, tourist behaviours are influenced by several factors including economic factors, political factors, industry marketing factors, the influence of the media, experience, technological factors, and social factors such as demographic changes, lifestyle changes, social concerns and the emergence of new subcultures (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999).

A number of previous studies (e.g., Iverson, 1997; Kozak, 2002, Lee, Lee & Wicks, 2004; March, 1997; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Shoham, Schrage & Eeden, 2004)

have investigated the relationship between tourist behaviour, travel motivation, travel preferences, and tourist nationality. For instance, March (1997) examined a number of similarities and differences in the travel behaviour of five outbound Asian markets (Indonesia, Thailand, Taiwan, South Korea, and Japan) to Australia. He found three main similarities: (1) the tendency for group rather than individual travel; (2) the general desire for luxury and brand-name shopping experiences; and (3) the disinclination to give direct feedback to the service provider about service quality. He also identified eight differences: (1) the ability and the desire to speak English; (2) eating patterns based on cultural or religious factors; (3) level of adventurous independent spirit; (4) degree of overall overseas travel experience; (5) consumer expectations and demands about overseas travel; (6) the structure of the travel agent industry (ease and way of doing business with the travel trade); (7) the degree to which the overseas travel market is consumer- or trade-driven; and (8) different travelling patterns, including such things as type of accommodation desired, holiday or visiting friends and relatives (VFR) traffic, seasonality due to different school holiday calendars, as well as shopping behaviour. Similarly, Iverson (1997) compared decision timing for travel planning of Korean and Japanese travellers. This study also confirmed the existence of variations among the groups.

Pizam and Jeong (1996) discovered significant perceived differences between Japanese, American, and Korean tourists in 18 out of 20 behavioural characteristics. According to their research, out of the 20 behavioural characteristics, only two – "interact vs. socialise", and "authenticity vs. staging" – showed no significant differences between the three nationalities. The behavioural characteristics on which the greatest differences by nationality occurred were "trip-length", "food preference",

"adventuresome vs. safe", "novelty vs. familiarity", "photography", and "letter writing". Kozak (2002) also found that variables such as tourist perceptions of a destination or hospitality, levels of satisfaction, demographic profiles and tourist activities vary according to countries of origin. Furthermore, Reisinger and Mavondo (2006) confirmed the existence of differences in travel risk and safety perceptions, as well as anxiety level and intentions to travel, among international tourists from Australia, Canada, Greece, Hong Kong, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

In spite of prior generic research regarding cross-cultural influences in tourism, there is a lack of studies which compare travel behaviour of respondents from a single culture, but who reside in different countries. Dann (1993) criticised the use of "nationality" as a variable to find differences in tourist behaviour, because, for example, the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand have been built from large immigrant populations. Thus, such generating and destination societies are not culturally uniform any more and it becomes more appropriate to employ alternative approaches (personality, role, culture, social class and lifestyle) to the analysis of tourism (Dann, 1993).

Prior to their use in tourism research, cross-cultural studies were widely applied in leisure. Kew (1979) demonstrated that ethnicity significantly influences patterns of leisure involvement because ethnicity is a factor influencing lifestyle. The use of the term "ethnicity" is not always clear and the term overlaps with concepts such as "race", "nationality", "immigration", "minority" and "skin colour". For example, many of the British descendants of Jewish immigrants of the late nineteenth century retain a distinctive sense of ethnic identity as well as being and feeling

"British", and as is the case with groups that have migrated a number of times over the generations and/or those of mixed racial identity (inter-racial marriage), they are not clearly identifiable. Hence, Kew (1979, p.4) defined an ethnic group as "a group whose members have some sense of shared cultural background and identity".

In contrast to most western countries, Korea consists of one nation and uses a unique language with its own phonetic alphabet. Ethnic minority groups or immigrants are rarely found in Korea. Korea has managed to preserve its unique character and cultural identity despite being sandwiched between the vastly more powerful nations of Japan and China (FitzGerald, 1998). Thus, Koreans can be clearly identified as a single ethnic group. However, unlike Koreans, it may be not be as easy to identify Korean Australians as a single ethnic group. For instance, as Kew (1979) indicated earlier, inter-racial marriage causes mixed racial identity, and this may be one factor affecting the travel behaviour of Korean Australians.

Previously Neulinger (1974, p.103) emphasised that "race could be a major factor in shaping leisure behaviour, attitudes, and politics, if not now, then in the near future". Reisinger and Turner (2003, p.10) also suggested that "tourist culture explains tourist behaviour", because the behaviour of tourists is distinct from that of their routine and everyday culture when they travel away from home. In addition, Bammel and Burrus-Bammel (1996) indicated that a previous review of the leisure literature showed that cultural foundations exist for leisure preferences, behaviour, and environmental orientation. Furthermore, Shaw and Williams (2002, p.20) stated that "leisure helps both to shape culture and is culturally contingent".

According to research involving a cross-cultural analysis of English- and French-Canadians' vacation travel patterns, significant differences were found between English- and French-Canadians in terms of the number of vacation trips taken, the number (but not type) of sources consulted before travelling, and the importance assigned to several accommodation and destination attributes (Sussmann & Rashcovsky, 1997). These results showed that subculture or ethnicity has an effect on travel preferences, while Pizam and Jeong (1996) believed that nationality is one of the important effects on tourist behaviour. Therefore, it could be said that tourist behaviour is influenced by both nationality and culture.

The comparative study of cultures has provided many different rational solutions, and it is eminently useful in today's world within a cultural or multicultural context (Ferraro, 2002). Previous studies (e.g., Pizam & Jeong, 1996) showed that Asian people, including Koreans and Japanese, prefer group tour travel rather than individual tours, while Americans prefer to travel alone. Ahmed and Krohn (1992) explained that the motivation of travelling in groups that appears one of the salient traits of Japanese tourists comes from a sense of belongingness, which may be related to the Confucian ideas. Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) indicated that there is a lack of comparative data on national and cultural differences in tourist behaviour, and it is necessary to recognise that tourists' motivations change over time for each individual in response to changes in their personal circumstances. Presumably Korean Australians after some time may no longer hold the same values as those who reside in Korea and may have changed their lifestyles and travel preference as well. A comparison study between Koreans and Korean Australians can give an indication of whether geographic region and social/cultural influence have an effect on travel

behaviour and preference. This study will contribute to the void in tourism research and literature in relation to Korean immigrants by providing quantitative data showing linkages between the psychographics and socio-demographics of Korean Australians, and their travel lifestyle and behaviour. According to research conducted by Stodolska (1998), several important characteristics of constraints on leisure among immigrants included insufficient language skills or not feeling at ease among the mainstream, which may result in immigrants not having access to information. Such research on immigrants' tourism behaviour could help relevant organisations to develop travel marketing strategies. Increasing awareness of their travel needs and interests could also improve immigrants' quality of life. Moreover, Weaver and Opperman (2000) suggested that cross-cultural understanding could lead to promotion of the tourism market as great numbers of people travel abroad and experience other cultures. The promotion of domestic travel for the immigrant population in Australia may encourage them not only to better understand Australian culture but also to harmonise with their new environment and society. Until now, research focused on ethnic minorities has been conducted in many disciplines; however, such studies have focused on specific populations of ethnic groups such as the black American, Hispanic, and Chinese in the United States. It is suggested that future tourism research be conducted on more diverse ethnic minorities. In order to investigate the differences between the two groups of Koreans with respect to their travel lifestyle and behaviour, it may be useful to examine their motivational factors, such as novelty. The following section will present the research into sensation-seeking behaviour in the tourism context.

## 2.3.2 Sensation-Seeking Behaviour

One of the strongest inner forces that leads to exploration of the world is curiosity, which is central to motivation, and motivation drives people to learn, experiment, explore and experience (Tse & Crotts, 2005). Travel refers to the activity of visiting new places and having new experiences away from their home. Novelty is a basic motivation to drive travellers to search for new experience (Duman & Mattila, 2005). Cohen (1972) also explained that novelty and strangeness are essential elements in the tourist experience, and individuals require various degrees of novelty and strangeness. In the same way, Pizam, Reichel and Uriely (2002) proposed that sensation seeking can provide grounds for prediction of travel because some tourism motivation can be explained by people's sensation-seeking trait. This trait can differ in individuals and also in cultures/nations (e.g., Pizam et al., 2004).

For the last decade there has been an increasing interest in the measurement of various seeking behaviours in many fields such as social science, psychology, and health science (e.g., Beurden, Zask, Brooks & Dight, 2005; Mawson, Biundo, Clemmer, Jacobs, Ktsanes & Rice, 1996; Rosenbloom, 2003), as well as leisure and tourism (Duman & Mattila, 2005; Eachus, 2004; Fontaine, 1994; Galloway, 2002; Galloway & Lopez, 1999; Gilchrist, Povey, Dickinson & Povey, 1995). Sensation seeking has been identified as "a trait defined by the seeking of varied, novel, complex, and intense sensations and experiences, and the willingness to take physical, social, legal, and financial risks for the sake of such experience" (Zuckerman, 1994, p.27). The theory of a sensation-seeking trait began with the hypothesis which was consistent with individual differences in optimal levels of stimulation and arousal expressed in certain kinds of human activities and measurable with a self-report

questionnaire (Zuckerman, 1994). Arnett (1994) looked upon sensation seeking not only as a potential for taking risks, but also as a quality of seeking intensity and novelty in sensory experience that may be expressed in multiple areas of a person's life.

Sensation seeking is likely to be related to travel behaviour in relation to the degree of intensity and novelty of the type of travel and activity preferences while travelling. As mentioned previously, one common travel motive of tourists is novelty, such as seeking new experiences, new environments and new activities (Leiper, 2003). Novelty, particularly, has become a factor in tourism related to sports. Sports activity has become an important part of holidays, not only as a means of relaxation but also as an opportunity to discover new sports that tourists have not often had a chance to try in their daily life (d'Estaing, 2001). Intensity may be correlated with tourists' activities such as extreme sports in terms of level of stimulation or thrill. Thus, sensation-seeking behaviour in the population can be related to various activities, for instance, mountain climbing (Cronin, 1991), surfing (Diehm & Armatas, 2004), cruise vacation (Duman & Mattila, 2005), holiday preferences (Eachus, 2004), international travel (Fontaine, 1994), decision-making and responsibility (Franken, 1988), fantasy (Franken & Rowland, 1990), park visiting (Galloway, 2002; Galloway & Lopez, 1999), adventure holidays (Gilchrist, Povey, Dickinson & Povey, 1995), risk behaviour (Hansen & Breivik, 2001), tourist shopping (Hsieh & Chang, 2006), and sports (Jack & Ronan, 1998).

Lee and Crompton (1992, p.734) adopted four propositions about the role of novelty in experience seeking from the study of consumer behaviour by Hirschman

(1984) to develop an instrument for measuring novelty-seeking behaviour in the tourism context. The four propositions of their study are as follows. First, tourists may differ genetically in their overall capacity and desire to obtain and consume novel experiences (Zuckerman, 1979; Jensen, 1980). Thus, inherent differences (which may be manifested by tourists who are novelty seekers and those who are novelty avoiders) may instil in tourists a "ceiling" and a "floor" (Hirschman, 1984) for engaging in certain experiential tourism activities. This suggests that some may desire a high level of novel experiences on a vacation, while others may desire a lower level of novelty. Second, the way tourists view destinations may be influenced by their genetic predispositions toward a certain range of novel experiential consumption. Third, different tourist destinations may serve to satisfy similar desires for novelty experience. Fourth, by determining the relative level of novel experience desired by a given tourist, it may be possible to predict the types of tourist destinations that an individual would visit.

Pizam et al. (2004) suggested that some tourism motivation may be explained by the individual's desire for novelty, arousal, or stimulation. Sensation seekers like to travel and are more willing to travel to less familiar places that may afford uncertainty and risk. As a result of their research, they found that respondents who scored higher on the Risk-taking and Sensation-Seeking (RSS) index preferred more active, spontaneous, fast-paced, and less comfortable vacations than those who scored lower. That is, the characteristics of risk-taking and sensation seeking had a significant effect on travel behaviour and preferred tourist activities. They also found significant differences on the RSS index between the 11 nationalities in the study, which showed higher RSS respondents among Israelis, Irish, and Americans than among Gabonese,

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South African whites, Slovaks, Sicilians and Koreans. If it is so, travel behaviour and preferred tourist activities are affected by sensation-seeking behaviour, and sensation-seeking behaviour is influenced by nationality; that is, nationality is one of the factors that influences travel behaviour and preferred tourist activities. Previously, Faison (1979) also found that there were significant differences in variety-seeking patterns between the cultures of Japanese and Americans. Novelty seeking is an influence with the cultural dimension of high individualism, in combination with reasonably high masculinity and low uncertainty avoidence (Kim & Lee, 2000). Kim and Lee (2000) found that there was cultural difference between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists in terms of individualism and collectivism. That is, previous studies have identified the role of cultural influence on tourists' variety-seeking behaviour. Hofstede's (2001) individual index values (IDV), which range from 0 to 100, with 100 being the highest in individualism, indicated the second highest IDV for Australia and relatively very low IDV for South Korea, which ranked 43rd among 53 countries. If there is a difference in the level of sensation-seeking behaviours between Korean Australians and Koreans, it can be utilised to develop new products in the tourism market for ethnic groups to coincide with consumers' expectations and needs.

In sum, the literature shows that there is a strong relationship between culture and consumer behaviour. However, it is difficult to compare tourist behaviour by large groups due to the variation in consumers as well as the large scale of the tourism market. It is more useful to segment the large groups of Koreans and Korean Australians into a small number of groups with similar characteristics to investigate the differences in their travel behaviour. The next section will provide a review of market segmentation literature, especially focused on lifestyle and values.

## 2.4    Market Segmentation

Market segmentation is usually the first step in the marketing process, which is the process of dividing the total market into relatively homogeneous groups with similar product needs or service interests, based upon such factors as geographic, demographic, socio-economic and psychographic characteristics (Bécherel, 1999; Boote, 1981; Dolnicar, 2004; Gunter & Furnham, 1992; Middleton & Clarke, 2001; Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Middleton and Clarke (2001) indicated that there have been changes in the current market in which consumers have become more heterogeneous and individualistic in their demands and expectations, and also more culturally diverse in regard to ethnic origin as well as in their range of lifestyle choices than previous decades. As a consequence of these changes, psychographic characteristics have been more prevalent as a tool of market segmentation in recent market research, while demographic characteristics have been widely applied to segment markets for a long time. Thus, marketers need to identify upcoming changes based on consumers' diverse lifestyles, values, expectations and culture.

The tourist market has reflected some trends that have influenced market segmentation (see Figure 2-3). In addition, market segmentation research has developed criteria for segmentation. For instance, Sirakaya, Uysal, and Yoshioka (2003) explained that the descriptors of a segmentation basis may include demographics and socioeconomic variables, travel behaviour (e.g., motivations, benefits sought), psychographic variables (e.g., personality), life stages, and situational variables (e.g., origin of visitors). On the other hand, Bécherel (1999) suggested two types of criteria to segment the market: "consumer characteristics"

(proactive segmentation) and "consumer responses" (reactive segmentation). Understanding of consumer characteristics can help the marketer to develop and capitalise on the organization's competitive position in the chosen niches. Those characteristics can be divided into three types – geographic (region, climate, urban and rural areas), demographic (age, sex, social class, ethnic origin and religion), and psychographic (lifestyle and personality). Consumer responses can be used in the marketing strategy, which include benefits sought by buyers (health, attractiveness and quality), occasion and usage (frequency of purchase, rate and volume of usage), attitude towards the product (positive, hostile, and indifferent), and purchase habit (Bécherel, 1999).

**Figure 2-3    The Trends of the Tourist Market**

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Source: Weaver & Opperman (2000, p. 176)

In a different way, Wedel and Kamakura (2000) classified segmentation bases into whether they are observable (i.e., measured directly) or unobservable (i.e., inferred), as shown in Table 2-1. They emphasised that the most effective segmentation bases are found in the class of product-specific unobservable bases (personality, values and lifestyle), which provide a better perspective of the market based on a more lifelike portrait of the consumer.

**Table 2-1     Classification of Segmentation Bases**

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Source: Wedel & Kamakura (2000, p. 7)

As marketing has become more internationalised and cross-cultural business activity more sophisticated, understanding the culture of the consumer has been recognised as being increasingly important. Cross-cultural research in consumer behaviour has obvious marketing application to identify groups of consumers with similar behaviour for segmentation purposes (Tan, McCullough & Teoh, 1987). As mentioned previously, nationality has been widely employed as a tool of market segmentation in the international tourism market. Chen (2003) also pointed out that nationality has been used in previous segmentation studies as a descriptor manifesting the similarities and differences in demographic traits and trip characteristics between or among the categorical groups. Mykletun, Crotts, and Mykletun (2001) found that nationality was a better predictor to identify the destination's most valuable visitor segments than household income, education, age, travel party composition and travel purpose. Therefore, nationality needs to be an alternative tool of market segmentation

for multicultural countries. Market segmentation should be carried out in order to understand consumers' demands and expectations within the framework of societal changes. Segmentation has been identified as providing a means of keeping track of consumer markets through trend analysis, so which segments are growing and which ones are shrinking can be determined (Mehrotra, 1976).

Psychographic characteristics such as cultural values or lifestyle can be a useful base for dividing customers from multicultural society because lifestyle is a pattern of everyday life and reflects their attitudes, interests and opinions; and values are related to culture and also have a strong influence on lifestyle. Lifestyle has been utilised as an effective and popular segmentation basis. For instance, the customers of Hilton Hotels in United States were segmented to develop marketing programs (Stewart & Kamins, 1991). As a result, a new emerging consumer lifestyle trend was found which was that while people travel more often, their trips are of shorter duration. Thus, a marketing strategy was developed to focus on needs of the weekend leisure traveller, which produced good results.

Considering the literature, market segmentation based on lifestyles and values can provide a powerful view of the market and a credible portrait of the consumer. It also provides a better reflection of the differences between Korean tourism markets in Korea and in Australia because those populations have different psychographic characteristics, including lifestyles and values as well as demographic characteristics. These markets should be segmented by relevant characteristics into homogenous and identifiable groups for efficient marketing strategies that provide better products and services to consumers and new opportunities to marketers.

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### 2.4.1 Psychographic Research

Psychographic segmentation was developed in 1978 at the Stanford Research International (SRI) in the United States to divide the US population into nine segments according to the personal identities and values they seek and implement through marketplace behaviour (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel, 2001; Middleton & Clarke, 2001; Novak & Macevoy, 1990; Peter & Olson, 2001; Schmitt, 1997). It has become known as VALS which stands for values, attitudes and lifestyle segmentation. Psychographics involves exploring the psychological makeup or lifestyle of consumers by assessing such lifestyle dimensions as activities, interests, opinions, values, and demographics (Wells, 1974). Thus, psychographics can describe differences in behaviour, so that it is useful to classify consumers into their behavioural types (Leiper, 2003). The advantages of psychographic segmentation are 1) target market identification – it has proved valuable for finding and explaining the market as consumer differences extend beyond demographics; 2) understanding consumer behaviour – it assists in understanding why buyers act the way they do in the marketplace by analysing purchase motives; 3) strategic marketing – the information of marketing, which can be used in planning successful marketing strategies, for instance, improving products or services to better meet segment needs; and 4) minimizing risk – data have shown that by incorporating psychographics into the product-testing stage, project successes are more likely (Weinstein 1994, p.117).

Psychographics have been used to segment the market into distinct groups of individuals by focusing on their reasons for making a particular decision about a product, person, service, ideology, or, alternatively, the reasons for holding an attitude

or using a medium and having specific preferences (Gountas & Gountas, 2001; Piirto, 1991). For instance, Galloway (2002) segmented visitors to parks in Ontario, Canada, in terms of the personality construct "sensation seeking" as a means by which to identify differences in the behaviour and attitudes of park users. In this study, visitors' attitudes relating to park experience were identified through a cluster analysis by three dimensions which were: "active enjoyment of nature", "escape stress", and "sensation seeking".

Even though psychographics have been used as a tool of market segmentation for many years, there are many different interpretations of the concept of psychographics. Wells (1974) found 24 articles on psychographics containing no less than 32 definitions, all somewhat different. Marketing researchers have measured individuals' psychographic attributes using dimensions such as confident or diffident, adventurous or unadventurous, risk taker or risk avoider to identify the type of consumer behaviour (Middleton & Clarke, 2001). On the other hand, Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2001) identified psychographics as an operational technique to measure lifestyles; it presents quantitative measures and can be used with the large samples required for definition of market segments. Psychographic segmentation is also identified as the use of psychological, sociological and anthropological factors, such as benefits desired (from behaviour being studied), self-concept, and lifestyle to determine how the market is segmented by the propensity of groups within the market – and their reason – to make a particular decision about a product, person, or ideology (Piirto, 1991; Weinstein, 1994).

Regarding the terms "life style" and "psychographics", Wells (1974, p.319) noted that "both have sometimes been used interchangeably, and there is much overlap in what these terms are generally thought to mean". He also explained that there is a distinction that may be worth preserving as follows:

1) The term "psychographics" refers to studies that place comparatively heavy emphasis on generalised personality traits,

2) The term "life style" has tended to focus either on broad cultural trends or on needs and values thought to be closely associated with consumer behaviour.

Michman (1991) pointed out that researchers have defined psychographics using variables such as lifestyle, social class, and personality variables. Furthermore, Gountas and Gountas (2001) indicated that "the term psychographics is often used interchangeably with lifestyle which uses activities/attitudes, interests and opinions (AIO) as the research variables" (p.216) and some of the key questions on why tourists choose a destination or type of holiday are only able to be answered by looking at the psychographic factors correlated with the external situational factors. Nevertheless, many researchers limit their focus to lifestyles or AIOs (activities, interests, and opinions) in psychographics, while others include personality and values, because lifestyle factors are considered more important to marketers although there are differences among these concepts (Weinstein, 1994). In this study, lifestyles (AIOs) and values will be employed as a tool of psychographic segmentation to identify the differences between Koreans and Korean Australians in relation to their travel behaviour. A more detailed review of lifestyle as a segmentation variable follows.

## 2.4.2  Lifestyle approach

The term "lifestyle" has been used broadly across the fields, and the concept of lifestyle varies according to the discipline, the time, and the researcher . In general, the term "lifestyle" has been used to involve a segment of individuals for their concern, especially leisure and consumption (Bellah et al., 1985). Previously, Max Weber made mention of the term "lifestyle" in his sociological critique of economics dating back to the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Weber, 1966). In the field of social science, lifestyle was defined as "the system of behaviour patterns of an individual or a group of people which results from the (sometimes involuntary) hierarchy of values recognised by the individual or the group of people" (Przeclawski, 1988, p.36); "a distinctive set of shared patterns of tangible behaviour that is organised around a set of coherent interests or social conditions or both, that is explained and justified by a set of related values, attitudes, and orientations and that, under certain conditions, becomes the basis for a separate, common social identity for its participants" (Stebbins, 1997, p.350); or "a system of individual differences in the usual use of declarative and procedural knowledge structures that interfere between abstract goal states (personal values) and situation-specific product perceptions and behaviours" (Brunsø, Scholderer & Grunert, 2004, p.665). In other words, lifestyle can be simply described as the patterns of time, spending and feelings that form the reality of much of how people live.

Lifestyle is a patterned way of investing certain aspects of everyday life with social values and a form of social map that enables the outlining of the topography of different sorts of audiences for products (Chaney, 1996). Hence, lifestyle has been widely applied as a segmentation tool for measuring people's *activities* in terms of

how individuals spend their time; their *interests*, what they place importance on in their immediate surroundings; their *opinions* on various issues in terms of their view of themselves and the world around them; and some basic characteristics such as their stage in life cycle, income, education, and where they live (Churchill, Jr. & Iacobucci, 2002; Foxall, Goldsmith, & Brown, 1998; Michman, 1991; Plummer, 1974).

The profile of consumer lifestyle allows marketers easy communication with consumers due to an understanding of people's activities, interests and opinions on a variety of everyday matters (Cosmas, 1976), which helps communicators to understand their audiences by providing detailed, multi-faceted descriptions that allow marketers to visualise the people they are seeking to reach (Wells, 1976). In addition, tracking lifestyle changes longitudinally and across groups can provide a continuing source of information about the prospects for classes of products and their markets, and also the subjective side of social change (Hirsch, 1976). That is, the pattern of consumption reflects how people's lifestyle is changing. Such consumer lifestyles play an important role in their behaviour, so can therefore be useful sources for understanding consumer behaviour and for developing new products to market.

Chaney (1996) indicated two points to take notice of in the use of lifestyle in the marketing perspective. First, lifestyle is not a static categorisation but must focus on social trends in structural and attitudinal variables. That is, lifestyle varies from time to time and from place to place, so is continuously changing. Miles (2000) also described lifestyle as being constructed and continuously reproduced through affiliation and negotiation, by the active integration of both the individual and society. Second, lifestyle analysis needs to focus on the cultural implications of social trends.

Figure 2-4 shows determinants of lifestyle that affect lifestyle, such as demographics, values, culture, social class, reference group, family, and individual characteristics such as motives, emotions, and personality.

**Figure 2-4    Determinants of Lifestyle and their Impact on Behaviour**



Source: Neal, Quester, & Hawkins (2002, p. 318)

Plummer (1974) pointed out seven benefits of lifestyle segmentation as follows: 1) definition of the key target, 2) providing a new view of the market, 3) product positioning, 4) communication, 5) helping develop more sound overall marketing and media strategies, 6) suggesting new product opportunities, and 7) helping to explain the "why" of a product or brand situation. To develop practical lifestyle segmentation, a large number of activities/attitudes, interests and opinions (AIO) statements are required for gathering information. Table 2-2 shows examples of

each AIO categories. **AIO** components are defined as: **A**ttitude: a predisposition to evaluate some symbol, object, or aspect of the world in a favourable or unfavourable manner (Mayo and Jarvis, 1981 cited in Morrison, 2002) or an individual's preference, inclination, views, or feelings toward some phenomenon (Churchill, Jr. & Iacobucci, 2002); or **A**ctivity: an action such as bowling, shopping in a store, or talking on the telephone; **I**nterest: the degree of excitement that accompanies both special and continuing attention to an object, event, or topic; **O**pinion: a spoken or written "answer" that a person gives in response to a "question" - such as beliefs about other people's intentions or anticipations concerning future events (Blackwell, Miniard, & Engel, 2001, p.221) or simply verbal expressions of attitudes (Churchill, Jr. & Iacobucci, 2002).

**Table 2-2     Life Style Dimensions (AIO categories of lifestyle studies)**

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Source: Plummer (1974, p. 34)

The importance of lifestyle in tourism marketing research cannot be overemphasised for the reason that people's attitudes/activities, interests, and opinions reflect tourist choice behaviour patterns. According to an early study regarding the effects of consumer lifestyle, demographics and travel activities on foreign and domestic travel behaviour by Woodside and Pitts (1976), lifestyle information may be more important in predicting international and domestic travel behaviour than demographic variables. As a result of their study, they advocated that organisations in travel-related industries should make use of lifestyle data as a market segmentation tool. In addition, Schul and Crompton (1983) concluded that travel search behaviour could be better explained by travel specific psychographic statements. Furthermore, Gladwell (1990) used activities, interests and opinions (AIOs) statements in a study to identify vacation-specific lifestyle and behaviour predispositions of Indiana State Park Inn users. As a result of this study, she found that different types of state park inn users could be identified as sitting into three groups, which were knowledgeable travellers, budget-conscious travellers, and travel planners. She acknowledged that psychographic research including activities, attitudes, interests, opinions, perceptions, needs and daily life routine (or in other words lifestyle characteristics) provided more effective, efficient marketing programs, and better understanding of tourists as consumers. As explained, the study of lifestyle is necessary for market development, and so market segmentation has been researched and developed by many researchers in the travel industry (e.g., Dalen, 1989; Johns & Gyimothy, 2002).

Lifestyle includes most of the social variables that act on people's behaviour, including leisure pursuits (Ibrahim, 1991). In recent times, increased income as well as the expansion of leisure activities such as tourism, shopping, eating out and sports

have changed the lifestyle and the consumption patterns of various social groups in Korea through the development of consumerism as a culture (Kim, 2000). However, many Koreans still consider work is more important than leisure activities in their life (Jeon, 1994). In addition, the travel behaviour of elderly Koreans is strongly influenced by the role of family members and family perceptions of seniors' travel (Lee & Tideswell, 2005). Hence, the rate of increase of overseas travel among younger generations has been growing faster than that of older generations (Kim, 2000). For marketers and researchers, it is necessary to understand the changes over time of Koreans' travel behaviour in order to meet the needs of Koreans. Thus, lifestyle segmentation research would be expected to provide a better understanding of attitudes/activities, interests, and opinions of Koreans in relation to their characteristics of tourist behaviour.

Bellah et al. (1985) described how the massive groups of immigrants who are ethnically and linguistically unfamiliar with their new country may lie behind the phenomenon of lifestyle enclave. However, Zablocki and Kanter (1976) pointed out that lifestyle will proliferate faster than cultural systems of value during cultural transition; hence, the study of lifestyle may be profitable in providing clues as to the direction of emerging culture. On the other hand, Moschis and Bello (1987) suggested lifestyle as a market segmentation tool to supplement geocultural criteria for defining world subcultures and formulating marketing strategy. In summary, lifestyle segmentation is possibly a fruitful way of differentiating the travel market for Korean immigrants from that of the general population. However, a consumer's lifestyle is based on cultural and personal values systems. Thus, the following section will discuss the literature of personal values in consumer behaviour.

## 2.4.3  Personal Values

Many researchers have recognised and emphasised the importance of personal values in the area of marketing and consumer behaviour. Thus, the number of value studies has increased to investigate the relationship between values and consumer behaviour-related dimensions (e.g., leisure versus work choices, cross-cultural and subcultural applications, and values measurement issues) (Munson, 1984). Lifestyle and consumer behaviour also rely strongly on values for the reason that values influence choice criteria and are instrumental in determining benefit segmentation (Carman, 1978; Pitts & Woodside, 1984). In other words, values have been suggested as a means of enriching segment descriptions and also as a substitute for personality traits, lifestyles, and other socio-economic segmentation variables (Pitts & Woodside, 1986).

Vinson, Scott and Lamont (1977, p.44) explained that "conceptualisation of the term 'value' reflects the interest of several disciplines which are 1) Anthropology, with its interest in life styles and cultural patterns, 2) Sociology, focusing on ideologies and customs, and 3) Psychology, which examines values from the standpoint of attitudes and personal motives". Five common features of values suggest that values: 1) are subjective and emotional beliefs; 2) refer to desirable goals and act as modes of conduct that promote these goals; 3) transcend specific actions and situations; 4) serve as guidelines to evaluate behaviours; and 5) differ in how they are prioritised as an ordered system (Smith & Schwartz, 1997 cited in Watson, Lysonski, Gillan & Raymore, 2002, p.924).

In particular, values provide a powerful basis to understand consumer behaviour not only within but also across cultures (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel, 2001). That is, cultural background leads to personal value dimensions, which lead to expectations, which lead to confirmation of expectation (Prakash, 1984), so that these directions may show the impact of values on expectations in a purchase situation. Moreover, Hofstede (1998) noted that nationality (national culture) is relatively strong even though nationality is only one source of differences of values. Other sources of difference include individual personality, life experiences, education, occupation, gender and age. As previously stated by many scholars, Rokeach (1968) also asserted that values may be more useful than attitudes to understand motives and behaviour, because values work to link central beliefs to attitudes. Furthermore, Brangule-Vlagsma, Pieters and Wedel (2002) stated that value systems are central to understanding consumer behaviour, and are an important basis for market segmentation. As stated above, many researchers have emphasised the importance of values. Values have been widely applied as a segmentation tool in the tourism discipline (e.g., Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000; Dalen, 1989; Madrigal, 1995; Madrigal & Kahle, 1994; McCleary & Choi, 1999; Muller, 1991; Pitts & Woodside, 1986; Skidmore & Pyszka, 1987; Thrane, 1997). A number of value scales has been developed and applied in marketing research. The most representative value scales would be the Values and Lifestyles (VALS), the List of Values (LOV), and the Rokeach Value Scale (RVS) which will be discussed further as follows.

## Values and Life Styles (VALS)

The Values and Life Styles (VALS), which was introduced in 1978 by the Stanford Research International (SRI) in the United States, was one of the first

applications of psychographical classification to consumer behaviour (Hansen, 1998). The original VALS, based on Maslow's needs hierarchy, was a typology of the American population defined by their values, lifestyles and demographics using underlying psychological traits correlated with purchase behaviour, which is to say, VALS attempted to combine demographic variables with people's needs, attitudes and wants (Beatty, Homer, & Kahle, 1988; Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, & Wanhill, 1998; Morrison, 2002; O'Connor, 1997). As a result of research on American lifestyle, VALS defined ten lifestyle categories termed "survivor", "sustainer", "belonger", "emulator", "achiever", "I-am-me", "experiential", "societally conscious", "self-directed", and "integrated lifestyle" (Beatty, Homer, & Kahle, 1988; Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, & Wanhill, 1998).

However, VALS was considered to be somewhat simplistic and too general and theoretical to be applicable to consumer behaviour, because most consumers fell into only two of the categories and the others were too small to be significant to marketers (Holman, 1984; O'Connor, 1997; Blackwell, Miniard, & Engel, 2001). Hence, VALS was significantly improved to VALS 2, which also uses concepts of resources (e.g., age, income, education, health, self-confidence, energy) and self-orientation (e.g., principle-oriented, status-oriented, or action-oriented) (Morrison, 2002). It contained eight consumer segments known as "actualizers", "fulfilleds", "believers", "achievers", "strivers", "experiencers", "makers" and "strugglers" who differed in attitudes, behaviour, and decision-making over the original VALS typology (Blackwell, Miniard, & Engel, 2001; Weinstein, 1994).

To give an instance in tourism research, the VALS technique was applied to segment the US international pleasure travel market (Skidmore & Pyszka, 1987). As a result of this research, it was revealed that three bulk groups (achievers, societally conscious, belongers) out of nine different types (survivor, sustainer, belonger, emulator, achiever, inner-directed, I-am-me, experiential, societally conscious) were the upper end segment of the international pleasure travel market, and showed quite different travel styles, motives and goals from any other groups. Achievers are the largest group who travel outside of the United States, and they are more likely to take several short vacations than one long vacation. However, travel is not central to them because of the lack of time or business commitments, or because they spend money on something else. Belongers tie for second place in terms of market share, although they have a low level of interest in travel. However, when they travel, they enjoy it with activities. The societally conscious show the highest travel propensity and they prefer to plan their travel by themselves rather than to consult with travel agents. Nevertheless, VALS has generally been applied to adopt strategies or to create an image for new products, while the List of Values (LOV) and the Rokeach Value Scale (RVS) have been more broadly applied in the tourism discipline.

**The List of Values (LOV)**

The List of Values (LOV) is one alternative to VALS, and is another common tool used to segment consumers based on their values (Kamakura & Novak, 1992). Researchers at the University of Michigan Survey Research Center developed the List of Values (LOV) from a theoretical base of Feather's (1975), Maslow's (1954), and Rokeach's (1973) work on values in order to assess adaptation to various roles through value fulfilment (Kahle, Beatty, & Homer, 1986). Nine values of the LOV,

including 1) self-respect, 2) security, 3) warm relationships with others, 4) sense of accomplishment, 5) self-fulfilment, 6) sense of belonging, 7) being well respected, 8) fun and enjoyment in life, and 9) excitement, are used to classify people, based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

It has been argued that the List of Values (LOV) relates more closely to the values of life's major roles (i.e., marriage, parenting, work, leisure, daily consumption) than do the values in the Rokeach value survey (Beatty et al., 1985 cited in Beatty, Homer, & Kahle, 1988) or in the VALS (Kahle, Beatty, & Homer, 1986). According to the research conducted by the University of Michigan Survey Research Center, the LOV has a greater predictive utility than does the VALS scoring system in consumer behaviour and trends (Novak & Macevoy, 1990; Weinstein, 1994). The results of Novak and Macevoy's comparison study of the LOV and the VALS suggest that the LOV alone is significantly less predictive than the VALS alone; however, there are instances where the superiority of the LOV model used in this study appears to be due largely to demographic variables being included in that model (Novak & Macevoy, 1990).

The List of Values (LOV) has been applied to a number of research studies in the tourism discipline. For instance, Thrane (1997) studied the relationship between a set of vacation motives and personal value systems using the LOV, and the results indicated that importance ratings of vacation motives could be predicted on the basis of personal value system segments in Norway. However, other researchers have argued against this and compared the LOV with the other scales. For example, Madrigal (1995) examined the relationship between the LOV and Plog's traveller

personality type scale, and the ability of each to predict travel styles. The results indicated that Plog's (1972) measure of traveller personality type may more accurately be conceptualised in terms of locus of control, and the dimensional nature of the LOV scale in the situational context of leisure travel needs more research.

## Rokeach Value Scale (RVS)

When values have been conceptualised by researchers, Rokeach's (1973) definition of a value has been popularly used. This definition states that "a value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (Rokeach, 1973, p.5). The Rokeach Value Scale (RSV) is probably known as the best instrument for measuring values (Thrane, 1997). Rokeach's approach to the study of values has been widely employed in diverse studies of social issues to measure the role of human values in social behaviour. Because the role of values is seen as a standard or criterion to influence evaluations or choices in regard to persons, objects and ideas, there is a close relationship of values to behaviour (Vinson, Scott, & Lamont, 1977). In other words, values are determinants of virtually all kinds of behaviour which can be called social behaviour (Rokeach, 1973). In addition, Rokeach (1968) explained that values are culturally derived and define, maintain, and regulate the visible social structure.

The Rokeach Value Scale (RVS) consists of 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values, which significantly differentiate among people with extremely diverse social and economic status characteristics (Rokeach, 1968-69 cited in Clawson & Vinson, 1978). Terminal values are a single belief that represents some end-states of existence

that are personally and socially worth striving for. Instrumental values are related to modes of conduct and represent a single belief, which is personally and socially preferable in all situations with respect to all objects. Table 2-3 presents each of the 18 terminal and instrumental values.

**Table 2-3      The list of 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values**

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Source: Rokeach (1973, p. 28)

Gutman and Vinson (1978) argued that as end-states give expression to human needs, values provide the goals toward which behaviour is motivated, thus behaviour is instrumental to the achievement of a particular value state. That is to say, terminal values (desirable end states) guide consumer behaviour in their daily situations. Furthermore, Pitts and Woodside (1984) have provided empirical support to the strict relationship of terminal values to class preference of deodorant and automobile products, but the relationship of instrumental values to class preference was not supported. Thus, they only selected the terminal values from the Rokeach Value Scale in positing the relationship between values and behaviour in their study.

Munson and McQuarrie (1988) argued that not all 36 value items of the Rokeach Value Scale (RSV) would seem equally relevant to consumption, and that a subset of 24 value items could be identified as maximally relevant to consumption (see Table 2-4). Furthermore, they suggested that the reduction procedure could be a useful approach to studying cross-cultural differences. Different values will be displayed through consumption activities in different societies. For instance, Asian consumers probably have different values from consumers in the United States for consumption of goods. However, those 24 items are not intended to be applicable to every area of consumption study. Circumstantial judgement should be exercised depending on the culture and type of product/service being investigated. It is assumed that the terminal value of "national security" or "a world of peace" would be relevant values with regard to choice of travel destination concerning safety, and may become especially salient in the light of the recent increase in terrorism all over the world such as the 9/11 World Trade Center Attack in New York in 2001, the Bali bomb blasts in October 2002, and the bombings in London in 2005. That is, unlike other value scales,

the Rokeach Value Scale (RVS) includes value items that can reflect people's concerns about safety and security. Although these values are often judged not relevant to consumption of certain goods and services in marketing research (Munson & McQuarrie, 1988), they may be relevant to products and services in the tourism industry. Regardless of the above discussion, products and services in the tourism industry have unique characteristics such as intangibility of products and variability of service. Hence, researchers and marketers in the tourism discipline need to recognise which personal values are relevant to tourist behavior and travel choice criteria.

**Table 2-4      Values judged relevant and irrelevant to consumption**

Source: Munson & McQuarrie (1988, p. 384)

Kamakura and Mazzon (1991) noted that the RVS has been used either to describe the value structure of populations or to explain different value systems among groups of individuals who are defined a priori. In contrast, the List of Values

(LOV) has been used in the role of the construct of the value as the criterion to segment the population into homogeneous groups of individuals who share a common value system for marketing applications (Kahle, Beatty, & Homer, 1986; Novak & Macevoy 1990).

The RVS differentiated successfully from consumers of culturally diverse nationalities in the research by Munson (1977 cited in Clawson & Vinson, 1978). Powell and Valencia (1984) also confirmed the existence of value differences between Hispanic and Anglo groups in the United States through an empirical study using the RVS. Furthermore, Pitts and Woodside (1986) examined the relationship between personal values and travel or leisure decisions using Rokeach Value Scale as a tool of measurement for respondents' values. There were two hypotheses, which were 1) "Groups of individuals with similar leisure/recreation choice criteria may be identified and differentiated on the basis of the personal values of segment members", and 2) "Leisure/travel behaviour may be differentiated on the basis of the individual's personal values". The results of this study showed that values were related to both differences in choice criteria and actual behaviour. Thus, the two hypotheses were strongly supported by the findings. The RVS was also applied to investigate the potential of personal values as a segmenting base for the hotel industry, and to find if values segments differed between the United States and Korea (McCleary & Choi, 1999). This study found that there were significant differences between values segments and hotel choice criteria. Furthermore, Reardon, Hasty and McGowan (1997) studied the differences between Anglo and Hispanic values in the United States using the Rokeach Terminal Values Scale. The results of this study showed differences in specific values between subcultures, and also some differences in

values associated with low and high acculturation. Presumably, then, Koreans and Korean Australians may have different values due to geographic region and the different culture of mainstream; and then those different values may cause different travel lifestyles. Considering the literature of values, the RVS may be appropriate for the current study that aims to measure different value systems among two groups of Koreans. The next section discusses features of Korean society, including culture and lifestyle in Korea as well as the lifestyle of Korean Australians.

## 2.5 Korea

An understanding of Korean society, culture, the history of Korean travel, and the impact of lifestyle on travel are important in the context of this research. Thus, this section presents the characteristics of Korean and Korean Australian societies for better understanding of the subject of study.

### 2.5.1 Korean Society, Culture and Lifestyle

As discussed earlier, historically speaking, Koreans have traditionally believed that work was everything in their life. Korean people showed no overt behaviour indicative of wanting to enjoy leisure time or participate in recreational activities after the Korean War (1950-1953), as they were expected to put all of their effort into rebuilding their country (Jeon, 1994). Until the early 1970s, work and family were the ultimate goals for all Koreans. The result of a survey, which was conducted in Korea in 1967, showed that 79.6% of the age group over 40 years preferred to have more working time rather than leisure time. Of the 30 to 39 years age group 67.4% and of the 20 to 29 years age group 58.1% responded as above (Kim, 1992), indicating that the younger groups were increasingly more leisure-oriented rather than work-oriented.

According to the theories of Maslow (1954), the hierarchy of needs contains five levels of need: (1) survival; (2) safety; (3) human interaction and love; (4) affiliation, and (5) self-actualisation. Each higher-order need is presumed to be largely dormant until lower-level needs, beginning with "survival", are satisfied. However, the result of the above survey in 1967 indicated that Koreans' behaviour did not fit with the theory of Maslow's needs hierarchy (1954) as Koreans exhibited needs in the following order (1) self-actualisation; (2) affiliation; (3) safety; (4) human interaction and love, and (5) survival.

In the post-war period, political, social and cultural conditions were not conducive to the accommodation of leisure and recreational activities (Jeon, 1994). In addition, prior to 1989, the Korean government prevented its citizens travelling overseas in large numbers by imposing restrictions that included age, travel duration limitations, foreign exchange controls, purpose of trip controls and requirements to lodge large deposits of money (e.g., in 1983, over US$2,500) with government agencies (Kim, 1999, p.257). By 1989, the Korean government began to relax restrictions on outbound travel, making it easier for large numbers to engage in international travel (Chen, 2001; Park & Mok, 1998; Prideaux, 2002).

More recently, the way of life of the Korean family and Korean society have been changed through industrialization, urbanization, and western influence (Connor, 2002). Over the last thirty years, Korea has become an industrial giant and now has the fourteenth largest economy in the world (Huntington, 2000). The economic success of Korea led to it being labelled as one of the Four Tigers with three other countries - Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore (Mahbubani, 2002). Huntington

(2000) noted that culture has contributed a large part of the achievement of this dramatic economic growth due to the importance of values such as thrift, investment, hard work, education, organization, and discipline. The rapid economic growth of Korea has lifted the standard of living to a level comparable to Japan and Taiwan (FitzGerald, 1998) and has been associated with the emergence of an affluent middle class (Kim, 1997). Moreover, it also has engendered profound changes in Koreans' values (Chung, 1999).

Change in Korean society such as the economic growth has encouraged a dramatic increase in the demand for leisure travel. According to current research, Koreans have shown a keenness for international travel (Australia Dept of Industry, Science & Tourism, 1998) especially among those seeking leisure travel (Ahmed & Chon, 1994). Similarly, Kim (2000) also pointed out that a central feature of contemporary consumerism in Korea is the expansion of leisure activities such as tourism, shopping, eating out and sports.

Further, the Korean Ministry of Labour announced that the government planned to mandate a five-day workweek beginning gradually in July 2003 and finishing in 2006. Starting from July 2003, Korean government offices, finance and insurance companies, as well as firms with over 1,000 employees, have been forced to use the new five-day workweek (Song, 2002). From July 2005, the five-day workweek policy entered its second stage affecting about 3 million workers, which is 40% of the total workforce (The Korea Times, 2005). The Korean population is now enjoying an unparalleled improvement in lifestyle with increasing leisure and disposable earnings. Shorter working hours, less physically demanding work and

better education have led to an increase in demand for a higher quality tourism product and various ranges of tourist destinations and activities (Martin & Mason, 1987). According to reports by Murakami and Go (1990), the new lifestyle and the contemplated reduction in working hours will result in more demand for recreation facilities such as resorts and a two-day weekend. Therefore, more opportunities to enjoy leisure including travel for Koreans will be available, and this will also provide great opportunities for the tourism industry. Recently, a survey regarding preferred lifestyle with a five-day workweek was conducted through email to 10,000 customers of the Hyundai department store in Korea (Kim, 2004). This survey revealed that for the respondents the first rank of preferred lifestyle was "travelling" (34% of respondents), following by "cultural life" (24%), and "exercise" (21%). Also it is noteworthy that 44% of respondents expect to enjoy more leisure activities and 39% of respondents believe that a five-day workweek will improve their quality of life.

In the meantime, the five-day workweek raises new issues as many Koreans do not know how to handle the extra time, and the lack of entertainment culture and leisure infrastructure has led to the waste of vacationers' energy and money (The Korea Times, 2005). The tourism industry has been at variance with the change of the times and society. For instance, despite high growth of the Korean economy and growth of the tourism industry, there have been few market segmentation studies regarding the relationship of lifestyle and values related to leisure travel. Researchers have only recently begun to consider comparative studies between Koreans' lifestyle and their patterns of travel. For example, Chen and Hsu (2000) identified image attributes measuring the total attractiveness of overseas destinations to Korean tourists' choice behaviour of trip planning time frame, budgeted travel costs, and

length of trip. Chen (2001) also studied Korean outbound travellers' destination images. The results of this study showed that Korean travellers to the Asia/Pacific and North America felt their travel destinations possessed an "adventuresome" image, while those who travelled to Europe perceived it had "many interesting places". Most Koreans prefer to travel overseas as members of tour groups, although the numbers of independent travellers are increasing (March, 1997; Wang, Hsieh & Chen, 2002). In particular, backpacking is emerging as a more popular way to travel among young Koreans (Prideaux, 2002).

The influence of personal values on travel behaviour has been widely studied in many countries (Dalen, 1989; Galloway, 2002; Madrigal, 1995; Pitts & Woodside, 1986). Koreans have been strongly influenced to some extent by values and norms of Confucian philosophy. Since Confucianism has influenced Korea from as early in 682 (Baoyun, 1998), the Confucian philosophy has become the guideline for virtually every aspect of Korean society and has provided solid cultural values over various fields in Korea, such as the placing of great emphasis on education, a secular worldview, work discipline, and an orientation toward achievement (Choi, Kim & Choi, 1993; Chung, 1999; Han, 1999).

Confucianism is a value system that emphasises human relationship for harmony in the lives of people in communities, especially in the family, the central institution of Confucianism (Choi, Kim & Choi, 1993; Clark, 2000; Tan & McCullough, 1985). Lee (1990, cited in Choi, Kim & Choi, 1993, p.199) noted that "according to Confucianism, social relations are nothing more than an expansion of family relationship". Ferraro (2002) reported the distinctive characteristics of the

dominant religion in the United States and East Asia. He noted that Christianity, the dominant religion in the United States, emphasises individualism, work ethics and personal salvation, while Buddhism and Confucianism emphasise humility, duty to parents and elders, and harmony with nature and one's fellow humans. As mentioned before, Korean seniors' travel decisions were strongly influenced by family and other people, and their families' perceptions of seniors' travel (Lee & Tideswell, 2005). It may be influenced by Confucianism. In contrast, younger generations of Koreans placed emphasis on self-fulfilment of the individual (Kamo & Zhou, 1994). Jeon (1994, p.172) argued that "to a large extent the majority of Koreans, particularly the older generation, still think that work is more important than any other activity, even though the younger generation is starting to think leisure and recreation are becoming more important in their life". Because the older generation has been more educated by Confucianism, and more affected by its social ethics,and social customs , they are less likely to adopt extensive travel behaviour than the younger generation, which has been more influenced by western cultures (Jeon, 1994).

Koreans perceive nationality or citizenship as being equivalent to membership of the ethnic group, and have a strong sense of their difference from others (FitzGerald, 1998, p.78). However, a defining characteristic of South Korean culture for the past 30 years has been rapid and pervasive change known as modernization or sometimes westernisation (Harp, Hlavaty, & Horridge, 2000). Modernization brings changes to the social environment that significantly affect lifestyles of the population (Chen, 1976). It has also brought the pursuit of western ideas to many parts of life in South Korea (Park et al., 1993 cited in Harp, Hlavaty, & Horridge, 2000). In addition, modern education has presumably led to changes in values and intellectual

development across generations (Kamo & Zhou, 1994). In the process of modernisation or westernisation, it may be that not all of the western values are adopted into Korean society, and many of the original Korean values may be kept in many parts of society. Lifestyle is definitely influenced by values; thus, the lifestyles of Koreans and westerners may not be alike as long as they have somewhat different values.

## 2.5.2  Korean Australians

A key focus of the present study is to contrast Koreans in their country of origin with those who have migrated to Australia. For better understanding of Korean Australians, who are one of the subjects of this study, it is informative to know why they migrated to Australia and how their life is in Australia. Migration is a process that involves not only leaving a home country and crossing social, psychic, and symbolic borders but also reconstruction of a culture, identity, and worldview in a new settlement (Berger and Luckmann, 1966 cited in Ralston, 1998). One of the factors which affects people's values and lifestyle is culture; hence, acculturation plays an important role in the process of change of immigrants' values and lifestyle. As discussed in the section on acculturation, many variables have an influence on the nature and magnitude of acculturation, such as generational status, education, income, gender, age, length of residence in the new country, ethnic density of the neighbourhood, country of birth, job skills, religion, kinship structures, and purpose of immigration. This section presents the consideration from various angles of Korean Australians including immigration history, purpose of immigration, and their immigrant life in Australia.

## The History of Korean Migration to Australia

The United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand are the most popular countries for Korean emigration (Na, 2003, October). Although it is difficult to define the history of Korean migration to Australia, Lim (1998, cited in Veal & Lynch, 2001) noted evidence of migration to Australia by Korean-born persons as early as the 1920s. However, the major migration has been since the relaxation of the White Australia Policy in the 1970s. In the 1960s, Korean students and others drawn from government offices, universities, high schools and hospitals came to Australia to study English or to pursue technical education under the Colombo Plan, assisted by the Australian government and UN awards. Some of them chose to remain and migrated to Australia (Buzo, 1995 cited in Han, 2000). According to the Korean Overseas Development Newspaper (n.d. cited in Chang, 1988), the first Korean migration to Australia was 37 skilled migrants who arrived in Sydney in 1969. In the mid-1970s after the Vietnam War, many Korean soldiers and workers in Vietnam left for the United States, Australia and other countries seeking employment instead of returning to Korea (Han, 2000). Moreover, the industrialisation process in the 1970s and rapid growth of the economy in the 1980s led to emigration of Koreans, and most Korean migration in the 1980s was conducted under the categories of skilled/independent and family reunion migrants (Castles, 2001; Castles & Miller, 1998). Since then, the settlement of many Korean students in Australia has contributed to the increase of skilled/independent migrants followed by business migrants after 1987 (Han, 2000; Inglis & Wu, 1992). According to the annual report by Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs (2005a), the estimated number of Australian resident population born in the Republic of South Korea was 42,679 in 30 June 2002, and the number of Korean Australians is rising steadily.

## Purpose of Immigration

The purpose of immigration can be strongly influenced by the changes of environment and people's view of life such as personal values and lifestyle. Han (2000, p.66) pointed out that three factors have led to migration from Korea to other countries since the end of the Korean War (1950-53). First, the Korean government migration policy that encouraged Koreans to migrate from Korea to other countries was based on population control, foreign policy and earning foreign currency. The regime's aims were economic development and political control of the people. Second, lack of economic opportunities and political instability, caused by factors within South Korea and by threats from communist North Korea, led a large number of Koreans to migrate overseas. Third, increases in wages since 1987 have made it more difficult to operate a small business. Of course, those from low socioeconomic backgrounds felt the influence of these factors differently from those of the middle and upper classes. With the change of the times, the purpose/motivation for migration has also changed. In the past, most Korean emigrants were from the middle class and were looking for increased economic affluence, but there are increasing signs these days that those in the upper class are also emigrating (Na, 2003, October). Nowadays, political unease, economic hardship such as tough employment conditions and a declining economy, and the highly competitive unstable education system are pushing Koreans to seek a place in order to guarantee a decent life for themselves and their children, and even many old people are considering migrating for a better quality of life in their senescence (Chung, 2004, October).

**The Life of Korean Australians**

It is quite natural for immigrants to face culture shock in the new country. Indeed, Chang (1988) described feelings of stress, isolation, depression, anxiety and insecurity as among the common emotional disorders affecting Korean immigrants. In addition, other culture shock includes language, food, social and political systems, education, mannerisms and communications. In particular, adult immigrants suffer from a lack of proficiency in the English language, while young people easily master English language. Thus, many Korean immigrants have close friendships mostly with other Koreans. Lim (1998, cited in Veal & Lynch, 2001) indicated that although Korean Australians confine many of their leisure activities to their own community, they also make a concerted effort to more fully integrate into Australian society.

In a study of Korean Australians' life and health, Han (2000) divided Korean Australians into three categories of immigrants: amnesty, skilled, and business migrants. Amnesty migrants, who are predominantly from low socioeconomic backgrounds, came to Australia illegally in the 1970s. Many of them worked as temporary contract workers, and they were dissatisfied with their life in Australia. Skilled migrants mostly arrived in Australia after 1985 looking for better opportunities for their career, families and economic affluence. Many felt that language barriers and racial discrimination were the things they had to put up with if they wished to remain in Australia, even though they had better English skills than amnesty migrants. The majority of them were involved in manual labour such as cleaning work. Finally, business migrants came to Australia mainly after 1987, not only for economic, but also noneconomic reasons, primarily to pursue a high standard of "quality of life". They enjoy the lifestyle in Australia such as a spacious house,

better car, the weekend time off (working five days a week), playing golf and fishing, and a good natural environment. However, less than 30% of business migrants are involved in small business. The remainder are often termed "unwanted long sports holiday makers", and are spending money rather than earning because they experienced many difficulties operating their business in Australia. In brief, the study by Han (2000) showed that a large number of Korean Australians were not satisfied with their life due to unstable income, insufficient English skills, cultural differences and racial discrimination.

Noticeably, many researchers have indicated English skill levels are directly associated with satisfaction with life in a new country. According to a statistical report by the Bureau of Immigration, Multicultural and Population Research (1996), poor English speakers had an extremely high unemployment rate. It is presumed that the above-mentioned circumstances have an influence on their lifestyle and values as well as leisure activities including travel. Veal and Lynch (2001) indicated that members of ethnic minority groups face barriers to participation in their leisure activities, and these barriers include English language difficulties, lack of education, isolation within the home, and racial prejudice. They also insisted that the development of products and services for particular ethnic groups is a matter of commercial judgement, but any failure to recognise such market segments will result in profits forgone in the leisure industries. Hence, it is requisite for marketers to understand ethnic minority groups and develop new markets and products to meet their expectations and needs.

Korean society has changed rapidly with respect to its economy, politics, and society during the past decades. Those changes may help to explain Koreans' value

systems that have great influence on lifestyle and consumer behaviour. Therefore, it is important to understand how Korean values have changed. Although both groups of prospective respondents in the current study (i.e., Koreans and Korean Australians) have been exposed to western culture in many ways, a difference in the social environment and change will be expected in relation to Koreans' value systems and lifestyles. Thus, it is assumed that there are values and lifestyle differences between Koreans and Korean Australians.

## Summary

The literature has indicated the important role of psychographic segmentation including lifestyle (attitudes/activities, interests, opinions) and values, which is providing an effective way to understand what consumers need and want, and their behaviour. In brief, lifestyle reflects how people spend their time, and their interests and opinions about their immediate surroundings (Plummer, 1974; Gladwell, 1990). Values reflect the interests of lifestyles, culture patterns, custom, attitudes and personal motives (Vinson, Scott and Lamont, 1977).

A predominant phenomenon in modern societies is the increasing mobility of international populations, which has aroused marketers' interest in culture in order to better understand ethnicity and promote the tourism market. Many researchers have recognised values as a tool for understanding the consumer as well as being the basis for market segmentation within and across culture. In particular, Munson and McIntyre (1979) noted that the RVS may be appropriate to investigate personal values to identify cultural differences for the formation of international market segmentation strategies. A number of studies by Pizam and Jeong (1996), March (1997), and Kozak

(2002) have been conducted to investigate the relationship between tourist behaviour, travel motivation and travel preferences, and the tourist's nationality.

However, cross-cultural research in the tourism discipline has been hampered by the common use of nationality without consideration of existing multicultural countries such as the United States, Australia, New Zealand and Canada, even though the emergence of ethnic identities has recently been identified as an important factor that impacts upon the attitudes and behaviours of specific cultural groupings and customer segments within countries. There is still a lack of studies of minor ethnic groups within multicultural societies and across countries, which compare travel behaviour of respondents who come from a single culture, but who reside in different countries. Such a study can provide information about how subculture influences travel behaviour and preferences.

Carman (1978) proposed a model of values, lifestyles, and consumer behaviour, shown in Figure 2-5, which attempted to extend the line of theoretical development by showing how the link from values to subcultures to consumption patterns is actually a loop that feeds back to values, lifestyles, and subculture. He noted that tracing the development of a lifestyle gives marketers and social scientists clues as to how it might evolve and whether or not it will develop into a new subculture. On the other hand, Etzioni (1972, cited in Carman, 1978, p. 404) suggested that people who find their values not in harmony with the balance of their culture tend to respond with changes of instrumental values, lifestyles, and consumer behaviour. Whether lifestyle develops into a new subculture or culture changes lifestyles, there is no doubt of the relationship between values, lifestyle and culture.

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Although the literature has emphasised the influence of values and culture/subculture on lifestyle and behaviour, its influence has not been demonstrated in tourism research. Thus, the result of this study would be supporting evidence for the relationship between values and travel lifestyle and behaviour, and for the influence of cultural differences on travel lifestyle and behaviour. The demonstrated relationship between values and travel lifestyle and behaviour can be a useful and valuable marketing concept, especially for effective market segmentation.

**Figure 2-5    An Expanded Model of Values, Lifestyles and Consumption**

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Figure removed, please consult print copy of the thesis held in Griffith University Library
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Source: Carman. (1978, p. 405)

Brangule-Vlagsma, Pieters, and Wedel (2002) also noted that values could help to explain and understand consumer behaviour for the reason that values play a central role in consumers' cognitive structures as well as their supposed stability. However, values may be not static, and can be changed under certain circumstances.

In studying the dynamics of value segments in the Netherlands, they applied the modelling which allowed identification of the extent and the nature of change in the value systems of consumers in a robust and parsimonious way using the sample of Dutch consumers across three years. As a result of their research, it was found that consumers' value systems change substantially, even in as short a period as three years, even though the overall value system remains quite stable. Mayton et al. (1994, p.4) also stated that "people can change their value priorities to reflect their goals, and they can change their behaviour to confirm to their values". Certain circumstances such as migration can bring about swift changes of values more than any other situations.

Marketers and researchers have investigated the differences of consumer behaviour by nationality, including research in the tourism industry. In addition, it has been asserted that personal values can be effectively applied by international marketers to discriminate peoples of culturally diverse backgrounds due to the existence of distinguishing cultural differences in personal value structures (Munson & McIntyre, 1978). However, Munson and McIntyre (1979) suggested considering follow-up with more techniques such as AIO (activities/attitudes, interests and opinions), because the approach to segmenting international markets based on values analysis may have limitations if cultural or subcultural groups are initially dissimilar in their basic value orientations. Calantone, Morris, and Johar (1985) indicated that cultural segments using full assimilation approach becomes problematic, however, the marketer can measure segment potential, and develop unique strategies for each group when segment descriptors such as psychographic characteristics are added to

segments. Drawing upon the literature to date, it would appear that the application of both values and lifestyle can better segment target markets within and across cultures.

So then, how could people's value systems change within a country or in circumstances such as migration? Korea has been increasingly exposed to western ideas and practices through the influx of western movies and music, the significant increase in international travel, and the spread of Christianity in Korea (Hyun, 2001). As a result of research by Na and Cha (2000), the value systems of Koreans were found to have changed to self-assertiveness, gender equality, and the pursuit of a full lifestyle. In addition, Hyun (2001) noted that the major changes of culture and value systems could be caused by exposure to foreign cultures. In particular, migration to another country may well cause changes to Korean lifestyle and values. Korean Australians have also been more directly exposed to the life of western society. However, none of the previous studies have focused on Korean Australians with reference to their lifestyle and values.

A comparison between Koreans and Korean Australians will be conducted in this study. Presumably Korean Australians after some time may no longer hold the same values as Koreans, and may have changed their lifestyles and travel preferences as well. Hence, this study will focus on how the lifestyles and values of Koreans differ from Korean Australians in relation to their attitudes, interests, opinions and behaviour with regard to travel. That is to say, the purpose of the study will be to investigate the differences between Koreans and Korean Australians regarding tourist behaviour and lifestyles towards travel in order to provide a better understanding of

the Koreans and provide useful insights for international marketers to extend opportunities in the tourism industry.

## 2.6 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study is to investigate Koreans' travel lifestyles (attitudes, interests, opinions) and behaviour related to leisure travel, and to test the predictability of values, sensation-seeking behaviour and acculturation for the travel lifestyle and behaviour. In addition, whether values, travel lifestyle and behaviour are affected by the country of residence will be examined in the results of this study. Figure 2-6 provides a diagram of the proposed research model with the key variables that were incorporated into the survey. Travel lifestyle and behaviour tend to be influenced by culture, values, sensation-seeking behaviour and demographics. In addition to the above, it is posited that travel lifestyle and behaviour interact with travel experiences of Koreans.

**Figure 2-6    A Diagram of the Research Model**
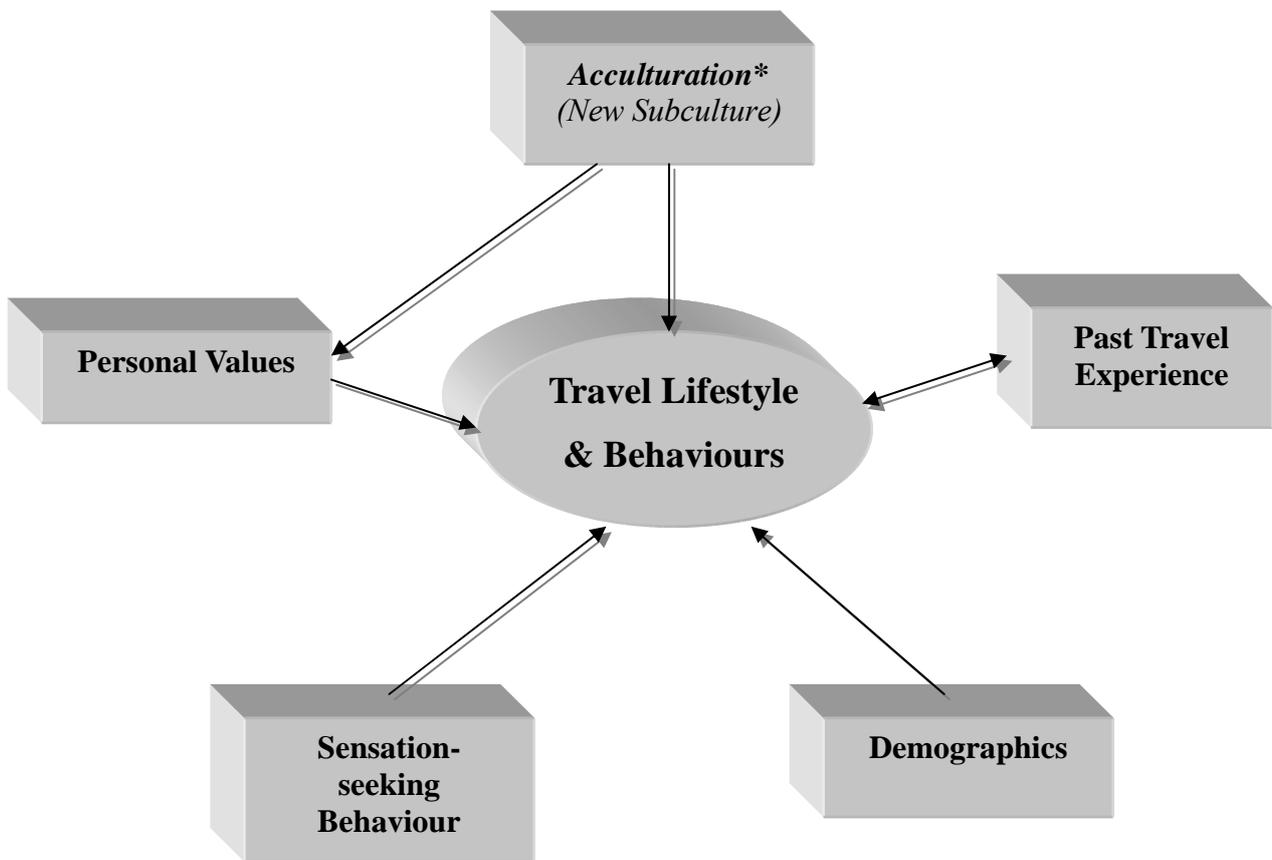


* *Korean-Australian Only*


Based on the findings of earlier research regarding the key issues of the current study through the literature review and the research model, the following research questions and hypotheses are proposed and tested in this study.


Q1. Are there differences in lifestyle and behaviour in relation to travel depending on whether the respondents live in Korea or in Australia?

H1: There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans.

Q2. What differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour exist according to demographic characteristics (gender, age, education, employment, marital status, etc.) of Koreans?

H2: There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour depending on demographic characteristics.

H3: There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans in the effect of demographic characteristics.

Q3. How do the value systems, sensation-seeking behaviour and travel experiences affect the lifestyle (attitudes, interests, and opinions) and behaviour of Korean Australians as compared with those of Koreans in respect of leisure travel?

H4: There are differences in the personal values between Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea.

H5: There are differences in sensation-seeking behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea.

H6: There are differences in travel experiences between Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea.

H7: Travel behaviour in terms of trip frequency has increased for Korean Australians since leaving Korea.

Q4. What is a predictor of the personal values of Korean Australians?

   H8: Acculturation is a predictor of the personal values of Korean Australians.

Q5. If the value systems and sensation-seeking behaviour affect the travel lifestyle and behaviour (Q3), could they be called the predictors of travel lifestyle and behaviour of Koreans?

   H9: Personal values are a predictor of the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour.

   H10: Acculturation is a predictor of the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour of Korean Australians.

   H11: Sensation-seeking behaviour is a predictor of the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour.

Q6. What are the marketing and product development implications for the travel industry in relation to the Korean market in Australia?

   The following chapter provides discussion on research method in general and the method applied in this study.

# CHAPTER THREE

# RESEARCH METHOD

## 3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the outline of the research method, which was applied to explore travel lifestyle and behaviour, values and sensation-seeking behaviour of Koreans and Korean Australians. Chapter 2 reviewed the current literature in regard to cross-cultural research in the area of marketing in general as well as in tourism, and reviewed the relationship between values, lifestyle and consumer behaviour. This chapter justifies the research method used in this study, and outlines the research model, sampling, data collection and survey instrument.

## 3.2 Justification of Research Method

Research methods are generally divided into two types, quantitative and qualitative methods. These methods all provide various ways of gathering and interpreting information or research data. Veal (1997) noted that the relative merits of quantitative and qualitative research have been debated in the literature, and each method is generally considered to be appropriate or inappropriate for the research rather than right or wrong. For instance, it has been argued that qualitative methods are displacing the "outdated" quantitative approach (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994), while research without application of quantitative methods is not considered scientific (Levine, 1993). Thus, it is important to use the appropriate method which provides information best suited to the purpose of research.

A qualitative method involves the collection of non-numerical data; that is, generally large amounts of relatively rich information about relatively few subjects through in-depth interviews, focus groups, participant observation and case studies (Brunt, 1997; Digance & Wilson, 2001; McGivern, 2003; Ryan, 1995; Veal, 1997). Qualitative methods involve inductive, hypothesis generating research, as opposed to hypothesis testing, and tend to emphasise data that supports the researcher's argument without any indication of contrary evidence being sought and reviewed; thus, it varies from researcher to researcher. This association becomes problematic if researchers become fixated on exploratory research and do not progress beyond this to the hypothesis testing stage (Cherry, 2000; Silverman, 2001).

A quantitative method involves statistical analysis based on the collection of numerical data, and requires a great number of respondents to achieve a representative sample and ensure validity and reliability of the data (Brunt, 1997; Digance & Wilson, 2001; Veal, 1997). Quantitative research is appropriate to describe the characteristics of specific population or market, and useful for validating and testing hypotheses or theories; however, it is standardised, which means it does not allow for the collection of the respondent's own words. The meaning of responses may also be slightly different from their actual meaning (McGivern, 2003).

As discussed in Chapter 2, the literature shows the theory of consumer behaviour that indicated the relationship between values, culture, lifestyle and behaviours. This study attempts to investigate these relationships in the tourism context by testing the proposed hypotheses based on the existing theory. A quantitative rather than a qualitative approach was used in the study. A quantitative

approach is appropriate to test and validate hypotheses, as it follows standard procedures which allow rigour in the instruments used and allows statistical data analysis to identify pertinent information, such as acculturation of Korean Australians, and personal values of both Koreans and Korean Australians that would be likely to engage in people's travel lifestyle and behaviours.

Questionnaires have been widely used to collect information for research into the most common contexts in leisure planning and management, such as market profiles, market segmentation or lifestyle research, tourism strategies and forecasting (Veal, 1992). In this study, an on–site survey (face-to-face) with self-administered questionnaire was adopted as the method of data collection. Comparisons of the differences between postal surveys (mail questionnaires), telephone interviews and face-to-face interviews (see Table 3-1) have found that postal surveys are the slowest of the three modes (Frechtling, 1994) and are notorious for resulting in low response rates (Veal, 1997). Telephone interviews are usually completed more quickly, but also have to be short personal interviews or contain a small number of questions (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Frey, 1989). In particular, personal interviews (face-to-face interviews) are the most appropriate method of data collection for questionnaires which contain numerous questions such as the current study does (Cherry, 2000; Neuman, 2003). Personal interviews generally result in a higher response rate than other methods since it is more difficult to refuse someone face-to-face. Moreover, survey-type face-to-face studies can add a great deal of information to the percentages and statistical findings (Cherry, 2000). They also allow the interviewer to visually check whether their respondents fit quota criteria such as age and gender categories (Baines & Chansarkar, 2002). In addition, the advantage of self-administered questionnaires is that the

respondents can complete the questionnaire at their own pace and possibly be more willing and open to respond honestly and candidly. Also a large number of questionnaires can be distributed quickly and cheaply (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Brunt, 1997; Jennings, 2001). The disadvantages of self-completed questionnaires include: lower response rates if the researcher is not present or if a suitable time is not arranged for collection of the completed questionnaire; the quality of answers can be variable; and no probing is possible (Brunt, 1997; Jennings, 2001). Nevertheless, Alreck and Settle (1995) emphasised that self-administered questionnaires are an excellent way to question respondents and obtain information, providing an expert and carefully crafted instrument is used. Considering the strengths and limitations of the research methods listed above, the issue of the current study, and the circumstances of the current study such as a large number of questions needing to be asked, it would appear that the application of an on–site survey through a self-administered questionnaire is appropriate for data collection in the current study.

**Table 3-1** **Types of Survey**

Source: Neuman (2003, p. 290)

Furthermore, on-site surveys have been predominantly used in tourism research (Veal, 1992). It appears that a number of previous studies by Pizam and Jeong (1996), Chen and Hsu (2000), and Chen (2001) have been conducted using on-site surveys in Korea to investigate Korean travellers' destination images and perceptions of Korean tour-guides. As low response rates to mail surveys (less than 10% of response rates) are prevalent in Korea (Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Chen & Hsu, 2000), an on-site survey with self-administered questionnaires was chosen for this study. To minimise the disadvantages of self-completed questionnaires in this study, the survey administrator was present to assist if respondents needed any help to fill out or understand questions. By administering the surveys with the assistance of interviewers it was anticipated that a higher response rate would be achieved for the study.

To examine the hypotheses that living in a different social environment may change the value systems of Koreans and these values may have an effect on their travel lifestyle and behaviour, data were collected both from Koreans and Korean Australians, and compared. Although an on–site survey with self-administered questionnaire was selected as the survey method for this study after due consideration of its strengths, there are limitations of the study. The sampling method is still the greatest limitation of the current study. The samples of this study may not be representative of the broad population of Koreans and Korean Australians due to limited survey locations, particularly in Australia, which was caused by limited accessibility and the limited number of Korean Australians. These limitations can also lead to different socio-demographic data between the two groups of samples.

Hofstede (1998) argued that the sample of respondents for value comparison studies between countries need not be representative samples from the country's population, but they should be matched as functionally equivalent. This study aimed to investigate lifestyles and values of general groups of Koreans in both countries. Therefore, attempts were made to limit differences of both samples from Korea and Australia based on demographic profiles in terms of age and gender categories that can be visually distinguished.

The sample of Koreans also may not be representative because the respondents in Korea were selected to match the respondents in Australia in terms of age and gender. The survey locations in Korea, which were public places such as shopping centres and in the street, also differed from those in Australia. A large number of questions was included in the survey instrument in order to identify the differences between the two groups of samples. This may lead to a decrease in the accuracy of the data and the low response rates, as Veal (1997) indicated that a survey conducted in the street cannot generally be as long as one conducted at someone's home.

To gain an understanding of Koreans, demographic information variables such as age, gender, occupation, marital status, income, and level of education were also collected. Additional questions, including English proficiency and length of stay in Australia, were added to the survey for Korean Australians. This information was used to understand the type of person who would be interested in leisure travel and their ability to participate in travel. As explained above, questions about prior travel experiences also provided some insights into Korean travel, including the relationship

with travel lifestyle and behaviour as well as the difference between the two groups of respondents.

## 3.3 Research Ethics

In addition to the research method, ethical issues involving research participants were considered. Research ethics affect the processes of social research; thus, researchers should follow ethical rules, which are 1) participation should be voluntary; 2) research should protect the anonymity and confidentiality of research subjects; and 3) research should never cause injury to participants (Cherry, 2000; Graziano & Raulin, 2004; Neuman, 2003; Wagenaar & Babbie, 2004). The current study was approved by the Griffith University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) in accordance with the National Statement of Ethical Conduct in Research involving Humans. Participation in the survey of the current study was voluntary, the nature and purpose of the research was disclosed to the participants, and the information collected during the study has been kept confidential.

## 3.4 Data Collection

### 3.4.1 Design of Instrument (Survey Instrument)

Two sets of structured questionnaires, one for Koreans and another for Korean Australians, were constructed and utilised for this study (see Appendix 2). Both of the self-administered questionnaires consisted of the same sections related to respondents' travel lifestyle (activities/attitudes, interests and opinions about travel) and behaviour, sensation-seeking behaviour, personal values, travel experiences including type of travel preferences, and demographics in order to investigate the research questions in

this study. In addition to the above sections, the questionnaire for Korean Australians included a section on acculturation, some additional questions about travel experience such as opinions about and changes in travelling since they migrated to Australia, and more questions in the demographic section including English proficiency, length of stay in Australia and the ethnicity of marriage partner. Table 3-2 provides an overview of the key variables that were incorporated into the survey.

**Table 3-2    Key Variables of Survey**

| *Variables* | *Item* |
| --- | --- |
| **Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour** | Attitudes/Activities<br>Interests<br>Opinions<br>Travel Behaviour |
| **Values** | Terminal Values |
| **Sensation-seeking Behaviour** | Novelty-seeking Behaviour<br>Intensity-seeking Behaviour |
| **Acculturation** | English Language Use<br>Cultural Practice (Food and Traditional Holiday)<br>Australian Mass Media Exposure<br>Australian Social Interaction<br>Australian Identification and Attachment<br>Korean Identification and Attachment<br>English Proficiency<br>Length of Stay in Australia<br>Ethnicity of Marriage Partner |
| **Travel Experiences** | Frequency of Travel<br>Length of Stay<br>Type of Arrangement<br>Type of Accommodation<br>Travel Companions<br>Travel Information Sources |
| **Demographic Characteristics** | Age<br>Gender<br>Marital status<br>Education<br>Income<br>Occupation |

## Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour

The first section asked respondents to indicate their preferred travel lifestyle (activities, interests, and opinions about travel) and behaviour. To assess the activities/attitudes, interests and opinions of respondents, AIO items from the statement developed by Perreault, Darden and Darden (1977) were utilised as a fundamental tool. The Original AIO items by Perreault, Darden and Darden (1977) are provided in Appendix 3. These statements were designed to elicit information about activities/attitudes, interests and opinions (AIOs) concerned with leisure time/vacation activities and general behaviour predispositions. In addition, AIO statements from Schul and Crompton (1983) as well as Silverberg, Backman and Backman (1996) were referred to for use in this study.

Moreover, in order to identify behavioural characteristics of travel, typical tourist behaviour statements by Pizam and Sussmann (1995) were partly modified and applied in the questionnaire section of travel lifestyle. The reason that tourist behaviour statements were combined in the section of travel lifestyle was due to partial duplication of tourist behaviour statements with AIO statements. Tourist behaviours are considered as the expression of their activities/attitudes, interests, and opinions about travel. The statements of the behaviour characteristics of tourists by Pizam and Sussmann (1995) are provided in Appendix 4. The statements in the above instruments needed to be modified because those instruments were mainly developed and used in U.S.A., thus, some words may not be understood by Koreans and some statements may not be suitable for Koreans. Furthermore, a number of questions were developed and added in this section.

The questions were asked using a 7-point Likert scale measuring the degree of agreement/disagreement, from strongly agree to strongly disagree (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Likert-type rating scales provide for a range of responses with various anchors which are numerical scores, and can also be used to obtain information on many topics, although scores in the middle range such as "undecided", "neutral", or "no opinion" may be often difficult to interpret (Thomas, 1999). Likert multipoint scales have been adapted and used in many other studies, especially in psychographic studies (Weinstein, 1994) by researchers such as Schul and Crompton (1983), Madrigal and Kahle (1994), and Silverberg, Backman and Backman (1996). The Likert scale is very popular in survey research because the method is simple to administer and normally ranges from three to nine anchors (Zikmund, 2003). In particular, the Likert scale has been popularly used in many Korean tourism research studies; for instance, segmenting the business travellers' market based on personal values (McCleary & Choi, 1999), analysing Korean outbound travellers' destination images (Chen, 2001), Korean traveller reactions to differential pricing policies of hotels (Mattila & Choi, in press), and exploring the perceptions of Korean travellers in New York City hotels (Heo, Jogaratnam & Buchanan, 2004). Weinstein (1994) indicated that 5- or 7-point scales are more common, although 11-point scales can provide more detail as a method for determining segment formation, although the latter can result in some respondents experiencing confusion. Lissitz and Green (1975) have provided empirical evidence that little gain is achieved beyond 7-point scales. And also there is little gain in reliability from increasing the number of scales after about 11-point scales (Nunnally, 1978, p.521). Hence, a 7-point Likert scale was applied for the section of travel lifestyle and behaviour.

## Sensation-seeking Behaviour

In the second section, the Arnett Inventory of Sensation Seeking (AISS) by Arnett was chosen to examine the level of sensation-seeking behaviour, rather than the Sensation Seeking Scale Form V (SSS-V) by Zuckerman. Even though the Sensation Seeking Scale Form V (SSS-V) by Zuckerman has been widely used, it is not always appropriate to use it in many contexts of research. Ferrando and Chico (2001) indicated that the colloquial words and phrases used in some items no longer hold meaning for young respondents, and some items refer directly to problem behaviours such as alcohol and drug use. Also the AISS does not present the forced choice response format as used in the SSS-V (Gupta & Derevensky, 2001). Most of all, some items are not applicable in this study due to the different social and cultural background of Koreans. For example, items such as "wild party" may not be understandable to Koreans, and also water skiing, surfing and sailing are not common activities in Korea. Compared with the Sensation Seeking Scale Form V (SSS-V) by Zuckerman, the Arnett Inventory of Sensation Seeking (AISS) did not contain items involving physical strength and stamina that would be related to age (Arnett, 1994). In addition, the AISS has shown its validity and reliability in measuring sensation-seeking behaviour (e.g., Arnett, 1996; Gupta & Derevensky, 2001; Roth & Herzberg, 2004). The AISS has 20 items, with two subscales of 10 items each; "Novelty" and "Intensity". The questions to examine sensation-seeking behaviour were asked using a 4-point scale for the reason that the AISS was originally designed with responses in a 4-point Likert-type format, where the item describes the respondent (1 = describes me very well, 2 = describes me somewhat, 3 = does not describe me very well, 4 = does not describe me at all).

Six items of the AISS were originally worded negatively, in order to avoid an affirmation bias. However, the item, "I don't like extremely hot and spicy foods", was replaced by "I like to eat foods from foreign cultures" because hot and spicy foods are very popular among Koreans. The modified items of the AISS which applied in this study are highlighted in Appendix 2.

**<u>Personal Values</u>**

The Rokeach Value Scale (Rokeach, 1973) was chosen to assess personal value priorities. However, the 36 value items of the Rokeach Value Scale (RVS) were not entirely adopted in this study. As previously explained in Chapter 2, as end-states express human needs, values provide the goals toward which behaviour is motivated, and behaviour is instrumental to the achievement of a particular value state (Gutman & Vinson, 1978). That is, terminal values (desirable end-states) play a significant role in leading consumer behaviour. Munson (1984) also suggested using a reduced set of value items that is theoretically adequate to the criterion. The present study is also concerned with consumer behaviour regarding travelling. Hence, the terminal value scale was selected from the Rokeach Value Scale (RVS) in order to examine personal values of Koreans and Korean Australians (see Table 2-3), and further to ascertain whether there is a relationship between values and travel lifestyle and behaviours.

In respect of measuring the priorities of values, the questions were asked using a seven-point Likert scale from very important to very unimportant (1 = very unimportant to 7 = very important). The Rokeach value scale was originally designed to use the ranking method, that is, the respondent ranks the list of values in order of importance by writing in numbers from 1 to 18, as guiding principles in their life

(Rokeach, 1973). However, this has been criticised for the difficulty associated with ranking so many items, and the impossibility of equality in individual rankings; that is, the use of rank orderings is less informative than interval or ratio scaling would be, and also equally attractive values are forced into separate rankings (Clawson & Vinson, 1978; Gutman & Vinson, 1978; Wang & Rao, 1995). Munson and McIntyre (1979) confirmed that when measuring values, a Likert type of scaling approach is not significantly less reliable than the ranking approach. In addition, they noted that scaling may be better suited to marketing applications. Hence, many researchers have employed the direct rating of each value item such as a seven-point Likert scale (Wang & Rao, 1995). Thus, in this study, to remedy this defect of the RSV, a seven-point Likert scale was used to measure the perceived importance of each value.

A subset of 17 of the 18 terminal values was selected from the Rokeach Value Scale (RVS) for the main survey based on pretesting in a pilot study. The value of "salvation" was ruled out of the 18 terminal values as result of the pilot test. During the pilot test a small number of respondents were dubious about the term of "salvation" as a personal value. Probably, the term of "salvation" originated in Christian values, so it may be inappropriate to Koreans, even though the Christian religion has been quite diffused in Korea. Thus, "traditional ideas (Confucian ideas)", which is one of the representative ideas of Koreans, has replaced the value of "salvation". It is supposed that younger generations in Korea and Korean Australians are less likely to have an attachment to the value of traditional ideas (Confucian ideas) than older generations in Korea.

**<u>Acculturation</u>**

In this study the acculturation scale developed by Kim, Laroche and Tomiuk (2001) was applied to measure the level of acculturation of Korean Australians (see Appendix 1). This scale consists of 30 items, which include the measurement items of the level of acculturation, identification and attachment of immigrants. However, three out of 30 items, which were "The TV programs that I watch are always in the English language", "The radio programs that I listen to are always in the English language" and "Most people I go to parties with are Caucasian", were not used in the main survey. This was because Korean TV and radio programs are not available in the survey locations (Gold Coast and Brisbane areas in Australia). So those two questions of "The TV programs that I watch are always in the English language" and "The radio programs that I listen to are always in the English language" were replaced with "I mostly eat Korean food at home" and "I participate in Korean holidays, traditions, and celebrations (e.g., the Korean New Year's Day, the Korean Thanksgiving Day, etc.)" to measure cultural practice in Korean Australians' life in Australia. According to Lim, Heiby, Brislin, and Griffin (2002), these items can demonstrate how much immigrants take part in their mother country's cultural practices and events, and also how much the participants exhibit cultural behaviours.

In addition to the above, there was a further modification of the acculturation scale. The relationships among the items of the acculturation scale were investigated using the Pearson correlation coefficient with the data of the pilot test. As a result of the pilot test, the item "Most of the people I go to parties with are Caucasian" was excluded in the main survey due to high correlation with the item of "Most of the people at the places I go to have fun and relax are Caucasian". There was a strong

positive correlation between these two items (r = .972, n = 30, p < .0005). Thus, in the section of Acculturation, a total of 29 items were adapted to measure the level of acculturation of Korean Australians using a 7-point Likert scale measuring with the degree of agreement/disagreement, from strongly agree to strongly disagree (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

## Travel Experience

To investigate the differences between the two groups of respondents as well as the relationship between travel lifestyle and behaviour and travel experiences, the respondents were asked about their travel experiences. Questions covered the frequency of international/domestic holidays, the average length of stay, preferred type of arrangement and accommodation, travelling companions, and information sources. Presumably, travel lifestyle and behaviour can be reflected in the respondents' travel experiences that include preferences and type of travelling. Additional questions about travel experiences of Korean Australians were asked to capture the change of frequency of travelling since they migrated to Australia, and whether they feel any inconvenience while travelling related to language and cultural difference.

## Demographics

There is no doubt that demographic characteristics have been commonly used to segment markets and have been shown as a great predictor of travel behaviour in many studies: however, demographic characteristics alone may no longer be an effective tool as consumers are becoming diversified. In the 1970s, Woodside and Pitts (1976) found lifestyle information was a better predictor of travel activities on

international and domestic travel behaviour than demographics. In the 1990s, Prentice, Witt, and Hamer (1998) found that demographic variables were mostly irrelevant in the understanding of the Rhondda Heritage Park visitor experiences. Similarly, Milman (1991) found that there was no correlation between demographics and theme park visitation patterns, and Andereck and Caldwell (1994) established that there was little difference between the segments of a zoological park market and demographics. Hence, the hypotheses were proposed to examine the relationship between travel lifestyle and behaviour and demographics. This final section included demographic information including age, gender, marital status, level of education, occupation, employment status, and income. To find out the family cycle stage of the respondents, the respondents were asked whether they had children, and also asked whether they lived with their children. Moreover, as an extension of measuring the level of acculturation, Korean Australians were asked about length of stay in Australia, English proficiency, and the ethnicity of their marriage partner.

## 3.4.2  Language of Survey Instrument

The scales adopted in this study were originally designed in English, but needed to be translated into Korean. Thus, the method of back-translation, which allows for improvement of the quality of translation, was employed (Brislin, 1970; Brislin, 1976; Brislin, Lonner & Thorndike, 1973; Dimanche, 1994). The questionnaire was translated into Korean individually by two Korean-English bilinguals. These two Korean versions were then compared to identify differences in the translation and modified for unification. Back-translation into English was carried out by another bilingual person to ensure the accuracy of the translation. And then, the original questionnaire and the back-translated questionnaire were compared, so as to

minimise language nuances. Based on a comparison between the original English version of questionnaire and the back-translated version of questionnaire, some modifications were made by the two Korean-English bilinguals. In addition, any idiomatic, colloquial English words or phrases in quoted questions from previously established studies were reworded to ensure that the translation would be understandable to Korean Australians as well as Koreans. Finally, a research instrument administered in the Korean language was used for this study in both countries.

### 3.4.3  Refined Survey Instrument (Pilot Test)

Pilot testing (pre-test) is a mandatory part of developing a questionnaire (Oppenheim, 1992). The small-scale "trial runs" of a larger survey are useful in detecting any problems (Veal, 1997) and minimising errors as much as possible before the main survey is distributed. Hence, the aim of the pilot survey is to test the reliability and validity of the survey (Finn, Elliott-White, & Walton, 2000). In addition, the pilot test allows improvement of the readability and clarity of the translated questionnaire in this study. A preliminary version of the questionnaire was pilot tested to modify any detected errors with convenience samples, consisting of 30 Korean university students each from Griffith University on the Gold Coast and Brisbane in Australia, and Kyungnam University in Masan city in Korea. The Korean version of the questionnaire was used for both groups of respondents.

Testing, adaptation and refinement form the major components of the pilot study. After the pilot test, the scales were modified by deleting some of the original items and adding new ones as previously described in the section of design of

instrument (see 3.5.1). In the travel lifestyle and behaviour section, some items that have no correlation with other items were eliminated. And, as mentioned, the item of "salvation" in the section of personal values was removed because Koreans did not make sense of this question. Thus, the item of "salvation" was replaced with "traditional ideas (Confucian ideas)" to examine whether the two groups of Koreans have a difference in terms of core values.

## 3.4.4  Sampling and Survey Method

A survey was administrated to Koreans as well as Korean Australians. Koreans in both countries were approached by researchers and asked to participate in this study. In both countries, the questionnaires were hand-delivered to, and collected from, survey administrators on the spot. Primarily, the size of the sample was aimed at a minimum of 300 each from the Korean and the Australian settings. The surveys were conducted on residents aged over 20 years.

Data in Australia were collected from permanent residents and citizens of Australia, not from temporary residents from Korea. The respondents were also limited to the first generation of immigrants who were born in Korea. According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001), the number of Gold Coast residents who were born in Korea was 1163, including all age groups. Due to the limitation of access and numbers of Korean Australians, convenience sampling (Sommer, & Sommer, 2002) was undertaken to collect the data for this study. Data collection in Australia was conducted from June to July 2004. Korean Australians were mostly contacted through various Korean churches and a temple on the Gold Coast and Brisbane in Australia. The researcher briefed the pastors of the Christian churches, the priest of

the Catholic Church and the priest of the Buddhist temple on the nature of the survey in order to obtain permission, and then the pastors and priests announced to their followers the aim and use of this research, and requested participation in the survey. The Korean Australians who consented to participation in the survey filled in the questionnaire and handed it over to the researcher at the end of the worship. In addition, Korean Australians were contacted through Korean grocery shops on the Gold Coast in Australia. The survey administrator obtained permission from the directors of Korean grocery shops to meet Korean immigrants, and then the purpose of the study and criteria for participation were explained. Questionnaires were hand-delivered to Korean Australians who agreed to participate and collected from survey administrators on the spot. A total of 306 usable questionnaires was collected.

Based on observation, the Koreans who participated ranged in similar categories regarding age and gender as the Korean Australian sample. Data collection in Korea was conducted in September and October 2004 in several cities including Daejeon, Daegue, Masan and Kyungju. In the same way as data collection in Australia, an on–site survey with self-administered questionnaire was used for the survey in Korea. It was initially planned to administer the survey in Korea in public places such as shopping centres and in the street in order to collect representative samples from various groups of Koreans. However, as the questionnaire was considerable in length due to the number of questions (about 110 questions), it was very difficult to administer in the street. Therefore, it was also administered at churches, shops, offices and residential areas including apartments. A total of 325 usable questionnaires were collected. Attempts were made to match the quota of age and gender categories with the respondents in Australia.

## 3.5   Data Treatment

Prior to the data analysis, screening and cleaning the data was conducted according to procedures recommended by Pallant (2001). The frequencies for each of the variables were inspected and any data entry errors were corrected. Normality and outliers, which are discussed further in the following chapters of data analysis, were also inspected.

Several partly completed questionnaires, which were not entirely completed in one or more sections, were discarded. However, the questionnaires that had a minimal missing value were still retained and utilised in the analyses. For instance, demographic variables such as "level of education" and "employment status" had 5 missing responses out of a total of 631 data samples. The question "I usually bargain at shopping when I can" in the section on travel lifestyle had the largest amount of missing data with 13 out of 631, followed by the questions "I like to interact with other tourists", "I often have difficulty getting information on travel", "I like to get my family's approval to travel", and "I think it's best to order something familiar when eating in a restaurant". In the section on sensation-seeking behaviour, there were 10 missing data in the whole sample. The other missing data were smaller in number than the above variables. It was presumed that those missing data were mainly caused by numerous questions which make it more difficult for respondents to concentrate; that is, the questionnaire was considerably lengthy with 110 questions for Koreans and 145 questions for Korean Australians. Therefore, rather than discarding the questionnaires that had a few missing data, those questionnaires were retained in the analysis. Listwise deletion of missing values was used to maximise the incomplete cases where possible.

Although the questionnaires with a few missing data were retained in the analysis, several data that had many missing cases were not used for the data analysis. For example, the survey included a question seeking income per household. However, it seemed that this question caused a problem for respondents and as a result, there was a high degree of missing data: 52 cases. Thus, this data was withdrawn from the data analysis. In addition, the questions which asked whether the respondents have children and if they live with their children were included to find out the family cycle of the respondents. The majority of respondents were in the category of "couple living with children". Thus, family cycle was also not applied as a variable to predict the travel lifestyle and behaviour in this study. The questions for Korean Australians, including length of stay in Australia, were added to the survey with five categories to understand the type of person who would be interested in leisure travel and their ability to participate in travel. The majority of respondents were in the category of "5-9 years", although the category of length of stay in Australia was recoded from five to four groups, due to the short history of Korean immigration in Australia. Thus, this data was also withdrawn from the data analysis.

## 3.6    Method of Analysis

For the data analysis, the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS Version 12) program was used. This study used descriptive analysis, factor analysis, independent samples t-test, one-way between groups ANOVA, two-way between groups ANOVA, chi-square test, multiple regression analyses, and cluster analysis to test the hypotheses. The method of analysis for each hypothesis is summarised in Table 3-3.

In Chapter 4, further description of the preliminary analysis used for detailing frequencies and mean responses of the two groups is provided. Factor analyses were performed for data reduction purposes on travel lifestyle and behaviour, personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour, and acculturation measures. Independent samples t-tests, one-way between groups ANOVA, two-way between groups ANOVA, and chi-square tests were also applied to investigate the differences between the two groups or within demographic characteristics using the factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour.

Chapter 5 is a description of the multiple regression analyses that were conducted to investigate the relationships between independent variables (personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour, and acculturation) and a dependent variable (travel lifestyle and behaviour).

Finally, Chapter 6 is a discussion of the cluster analysis applied to segment the respondents into groups with similar travel lifestyle and behaviour, and then one-way between groups ANOVA and chi-square tests were applied to investigate the characteristics of the clusters within each group of Koreans as well as between the two groups. More detail on the analysis process is presented through Chapters 4, 5, and 6.

**Table 3-3    Summary of Data Analysis Methods**

| No. | Hypothesis | Analysis Method |
|-----|-----------|-----------------|
| H1 | There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans. | Independent samples t-tests |
| H2 | There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour depending on demographic characteristics. | Independent samples t-tests & one-way between group ANOVA tests |
| H3 | There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans in the effect of demographic characteristics. | Two-way between group ANOVA tests |
| H4 | There are differences in the personal values between Korean Australians and Koreans. | Independent samples t-test |
| H5 | There are differences in sensation-seeking behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans. | Independent samples t-test |
| H6 | There are differences in travel experiences between Korean Australians and Koreans. | Chi-square tests |
| H7 | Travel behaviour in terms of trip frequency has increased for Korean Australians since leaving Korea. | Chi-square tests |
| H8 | Acculturation is a predictor of the personal values of Korean Australians. | Multiple regression analyses |
| H9 | Personal values are a predictor of the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour. | Multiple regression analyses |
| H10 | Acculturation is a predictor of the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour of Korean Australians. | Multiple regression analyses |
| H11 | Sensation-seeking behaviour is a predictor of the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour. | Multiple regression analyses |
| H12 | There are differences among the clusters based on travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea. | Cluster analysis, chi-square tests & one-way between groups ANOVA tests |

## 3.7    Summary of Research Method

In summary, the research plan for this thesis provides the justification of the method selection, proposed hypotheses, survey method including sampling, design of questionnaire, pilot test, and the main survey as outlined in Figure 3-1. The selected method of data analysis was briefly presented, including factor analysis, ANOVA, t-test, chi-square, multiple regression analysis, and cluster analysis. The next chapter provides discussion of the descriptive statistics of the two groups of samples in regard to demographic characteristics and the results of factor analysis for each statement including travel lifestyle and behaviour, personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour and acculturation. The factors of each statement were then compared between the two groups using t-tests.

**Figure 3-1    Research Plan for the Thesis**



Definition of Research Questions

Evaluation & Selection of Methods

Questionnaire Design

Pilot Test & Refinement of Questionnaire

Data Collection in Australia

Data Collection in Korea

Data analysis & Evaluation

Conclusion from the Findings
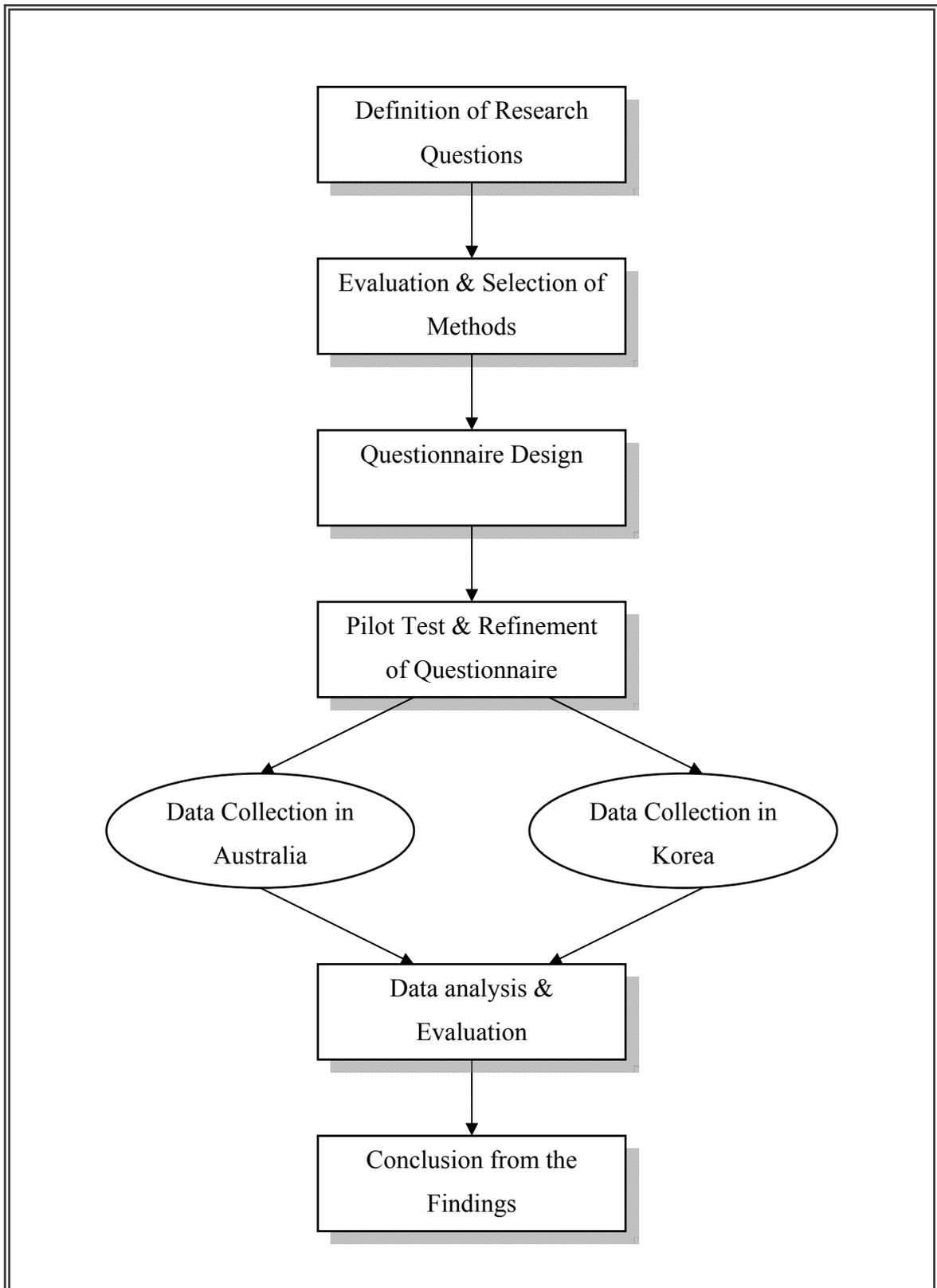
# CHAPTER FOUR

# PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS

## 4.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the data analyses carried out to determine whether Korean Australians and Koreans differ in their travel lifestyle and behaviour. In addition, personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour and travel experiences were examined to identify the differences between the two groups. The chapter is divided into six sections. First, the descriptive statistics of the two groups of respondents are presented and compared on five demographic characteristics using chi-square tests. Second, factor analysis was performed for data reduction purposes on the travel lifestyle and behaviour measures. The travel lifestyle and behaviour factors were explored and compared between the two groups using independent samples t-tests. Demographic characteristics were investigated using t-test and one-way ANOVA tests, in order to validate its influence on the factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour. Next, two-way between groups ANOVA tests were utilised to examine whether the level of influence of demographic characteristics on the factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour was different for Korean Australians and Koreans. Third, factor analysis of personal values was carried out to identify the existence of underlying factors. T-tests were performed to examine the differences on the three factors of personal values between the two groups. Fourth, the two dimensions of sensation-seeking behaviour were compared between the two groups using t-tests. Fifth, the levels of acculturation of Korean Australians were explored based on the result of factor analysis of acculturation. Finally, chi-square tests were utilised to explore the differences in travel

experiences and information sources between the two groups. Table 4-1 presents the list of steps in this study. This chapter presents the analyses of steps 1 to 6.

**Table 4-1    Overview of the Statistical Analyses**

| Step 1 | The first set of analyses was designed to check for the match of the two samples. |
|---|---|
| Step 2 | The second set of analyses was designed to (1) investigate whether the two samples differed in their travel interests/behaviour, with an assumption that differences were at least partially related to culture or the country of residence; (2) more tests were undertaken to investigate whether demographic factors determine differences; and (3) the third set of tests was designed to determine whether there were any interaction effects between country of residence and demographic factors. |
| Step 3 | The third set of analyses sought to investigate (1) whether the two samples hold the same values; and (2) whether the two samples differed in their sensation-seeking behaviour. |
| Step 4 | The fourth set of analyses investigated the sample resident in Australia and sought to determine the self-reported level of acculturation to Australia. This was done based on a recognised scale of acculturation. The acculturation factors were used to predict the values held by the Korean Australians. |
| Step 5 | The fifth set of analyses investigated the differences between the two groups based on travel experiences. |
| Step 6 | The sixth step investigated the information sources used by each sample group. |
| Step 7 | The seventh step involved a series of regression to investigate the relationship between travel lifestyle and behaviour using personal values, acculturation and sensation-seeking as predictors. |
| Step 8 | The final set of analyses sought to further understand the samples in terms of cluster groupings – first for the entire sample combined and then doing further fine-grained analyses across the clusters using the key variables from the study. |

## 4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Samples

A total of 631 usable questionnaires were collected including 306 respondents who are Korean Australians and 325 respondents who are Koreans. A summary of demographic characteristics of the two groups of respondents is presented in this section. The five demographic characteristics of respondents, which are gender, age, marital status, level of education and employment status, are described and compared between Koreans and Korean Australians and are outlined in Table 4-2.

An attempt was made to limit the differences of both samples from Korea and Australia based on demographic profiles in terms of age and gender categories that can be visually distinguished. Chi-square tests were used to test for differences of demographic characteristics of the two groups. It was found that there were no significant differences on age [$\chi^2$ (1, N = 631) = 0.012, $p$ > .05], gender [$\chi^2$ (5, N = 631) = 6.205, $p$ > .05] and marital status [$\chi^2$ (3, N = 630) = 7.769, $p$ > .05] between the two groups of respondents. However, there were significant differences on education [$\chi^2$ (4, N = 626) = 31.94, $p$< .001] and employment status [$\chi^2$ (7, N = 626) = 91.06, $p$ < .001] between the two groups.

**Education** The standardised or adjusted standardised residuals, which allow the researcher to determine which components (cells) of the analysis explain the significant chi-square, showed that the major source of the significant chi-square was derived from the differences in the education level of "bachelor degree" and "senior high school graduate" as the size of the residual is over two (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). Korean Australians were more likely than Koreans to hold a bachelor degree, while Koreans were more likely to have graduated from high school. It is

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presumed that the reason Korean Australians held higher levels of education than Koreans is due to the Australian immigration laws, which allow the highly educated to immigrate with ease. Also those with higher education levels may be attracted to emigrate from Korea to Australia.

**Employment Status** The residual showed that the major source of the significant chi-square in employment status was caused by the differences in the category of "working full time", "unemployed" and "housewife". The "working full time" in Korean samples was overrepresented, while it was underrepresented in Korean Australian samples. And, unlike "working full time", the "unemployed" and "housewife" in Australian samples were relatively overrepresented as compared with Korean samples. It is supposed that the reason why Korean Australians showed fewer people working full time and more numbers of unemployed, even though age and gender categories were not significantly different, may be that they had difficulties in gettings jobs in Australia due to reasons such as the lack of language skills. Alternatively, the survey locations used to collect data in Australia were different from those of Koreans in Korea, which is one of the limitations of this study. In addition, Koreans showed fewer numbers of housewives than Korean Australians, although age, gender and even marital status categories were not significantly different. Presumably, Korean Australians are more likely to be financially better-off than Koreans overall, due to the requirements of immigration. Thus, fewer numbers of Korean Australian housewives have a job compared with housewives in Korea. In summary, the sample was closely matched, with only education and employment status showing any significant differences.

**Table 4-2    Comparison of Demographic Characteristics between Korean**

**Australian and Korean Samples**

| Demographic Characteristics | Category | Korean Australians | | Koreans | | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | N | % | N | % | |
| Gender | Male | 122 | 39.9 | 132 | 40.6 | 0.913 |
| | Female | 184 | 60.1 | 193 | 59.4 | |
| | | | | | | |
| Age | 20-29 years | 62 | 20.3 | 69 | 21.2 | 0.917 |
| | 30-39 years | 102 | 33.3 | 111 | 34.2 | |
| | 40-49 years | 101 | 33.0 | 100 | 30.8 | |
| | 50-59 years | 26 | 8.5 | 32 | 9.8 | |
| | 60 years and over | 15 | 4.9 | 13 | 4.0 | |
| | | | | | | |
| Marital Status | Never married | 60 | 19.6 | 91 | 28.1 | 0.051 |
| | Married/De facto | 240 | 78.4 | 225 | 69.4 | |
| | Widow/Widower | 4 | 1.3 | 3 | 0.9 | |
| | Divorced/Separated | 2 | 0.7 | 5 | 1.5 | |
| | Missing values | | | 1 | | |
| | | | | | | |
| Education | Postgraduate (Masters or PhD) | 41 | 13.6 | 28 | 8.6 | 0.000* |
| | Bachelor Degree | 201 | 66.6 | 165 | 50.9 | |
| | Senior High School | 56 | 18.5 | 123 | 38.0 | |
| | Junior High School | 3 | 1.0 | 7 | 2.2 | |
| | Primary School | 1 | 0.3 | 1 | 0.3 | |
| | Missing values | 4 | | 1 | | |
| | | | | | | |
| Employment Status | Working full time | 59 | 19.6 | 163 | 50.2 | 0.000* |
| | Working part time/Casual | 47 | 15.6 | 40 | 12.3 | |
| | Unemployed | 24 | 8.0 | 3 | 0.9 | |
| | Retired | 10 | 3.3 | 5 | 1.5 | |
| | Housewife | 98 | 32.6 | 41 | 12.6 | |
| | Full time student | 30 | 10.0 | 35 | 10.8 | |
| | Self-employed | 31 | 10.3 | 34 | 10.5 | |
| | Others | 2 | 0.7 | 4 | 1.2 | |
| | Missing values | 5 | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| Total | | 306 | | 325 | | |

*Significant level at $p < .001$
Missing values are not calculated in percentage (%).
Total percentages may not equal 100 due to rounding.

## 4.3   Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour

In this section, several analyses were applied to the data of travel lifestyle and behaviour. First, factor analysis was performed to identify the existence of salient dimensions of travel lifestyle and behaviour of the respondents. Second, the travel lifestyle and behaviour dimensions for the Koreans and Korean Australians were compared using an independent samples t-test to investigate the differences between the two groups. The relationship between travel lifestyle and behaviour dimensions and demographic characteristics was explored using an independent samples t-test and one-way between groups ANOVA. Finally, demographic characteristics were added to explore the contribution of the differences on travel lifestyle and behaviour between the two groups in the two-way between groups ANOVA.

**Factor Analysis of Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour**

The 54 items of travel lifestyle and behaviour statements were subjected to factor analysis to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller set of underlying factors. Prior to performing principal components analysis, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Any item in the correlation matrix that had a coefficient of less than 0.30 with any other items was removed (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1995; Kinnear & Gray, 2004). The communalities table was also examined and any items of less than 0.50 were also removed as low communality values indicate that variables have no relation to other variables in the set (Field, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2000). Factor analysis was conducted using principal components analysis with orthogonal rotation (varimax). Orthogonal rotation was selected as the factor results are to be used in subsequent statistical analysis and this approach minimises collinearity (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). In order to determine the

number of factors to be selected, two sources of information were examined: the size of the eigenvalues for each factor and the scree plot of the eigenvalues. Only factors with an eigenvalue of 1 and above were considered and the scree plot was checked for information on the number of factors. Based on these information sources eight factors were retained. Next, individual items and their factor loadings were inspected. In the final solution, twenty-five out of fifty-four items of travel lifestyle and behaviour variables that had a 0.4 or higher loading on only one factor were retained (Field, 2005), and finally those items were reduced to eight underlying factors.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy, which provides a measure to quantify the degree of intercorrelations among the variables and the appropriateness of factor analysis was 0.751, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 (Coakes & Steed, 1999; Kaiser, 1970, 1974). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance ($p = 0.000$), supporting the suitability of the correlation matrix for factor analysis. The final eight factor solution, with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explained 65.2% of the variance. Table 4-3 presents the results of the factor analysis of travel lifestyle and behaviour.

Reliability analyses were performed to test the internal consistency of each factor obtained from the factor analysis. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is one of the most commonly used indicators of internal consistency (Coakes & Steed, 1999; Pallant, 2001) and is normally recommended to be above 0.6 for exploratory research (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). All eight factors showed Cronbach's alpha of 0.65 or above. Each of the factors consisted of at least three variables or more with two exceptions where the factors consisted of two variables. While it is not ideal to

have factors with only two items, these were retained in this study as the dimensions were judged to be important travel behaviour. The items for each of the factors were summated and averaged to form a new composite variable. Those composite variables were termed "shopping" - the items all about shopping behaviours while travelling; "travel interest" – the items show the respondents' interest in travel; "openness to experiences (new experiences)" – questions show whether the respondents are interested in new experiences; "predictable and planned" – items indicate whether the respondents plan ahead; "group security" – the items show the preference for group tour and convenience (carefree with language); "information" – items about indecisiveness in choosing travel destination due to lack of information; "sports" – the items about sports interests while travelling such as planning participation in or watching sports; and "resources (time/money)" – shows whether the respondents have time or money to afford travel. The eight summated scales were used in further analyses such as t-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), multiple regression and cluster analysis.

## Table 4-3    Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour Factors

| Items | Component | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| Eigenvalues | 18.68 | 11.10 | 7.57 | 6.65 | 6.38 | 5.49 | 5.22 | 4.08 |
| Cronbach's alpha coefficient | .77 | .80 | .79 | .68 | .65 | .67 | .84 | .70 |
| ***Shopping*** | | | | | | | | |
| I like to shop constantly when I am on holiday. | .808 | | | | | | | |
| I usually buy souvenirs. | .737 | | | | | | | |
| I usually buy gifts for friends and relatives. | .671 | | | | | | | |
| I like to visit places where a range of shopping is available. | .655 | | | | | | | |
| I usually bargain at shopping when I can. | .592 | | | | | | | |
| ***Travel Interest*** | | | | | | | | |
| I'd rather take a trip than stay at home. | | .846 | | | | | | |
| Given a windfall of money, I would like to spend it on holiday travel more than something else. | | .822 | | | | | | |
| I am interested in travelling. | | .751 | | | | | | |
| ***Openness to experiences (New experiences)*** | | | | | | | | |
| I like to try local foods & drinks. | | | .823 | | | | | |
| When I have a choice, I would rather travel to a new place with new cultures and new ways of living. | | | .813 | | | | | |
| I am interested in the local people and customs. | | | .777 | | | | | |
| ***Predictable and Planned*** | | | | | | | | |
| The climate of the holiday destination is important. | | | | .737 | | | | |
| I like to choose holiday destinations that are safe. | | | | .735 | | | | |
| I always have a well-defined route and maps of my destination prior to leaving on holiday. | | | | .661 | | | | |
| It is important that everything is organised so that I do not need to care about anything on holiday. | | | | .618 | | | | |
| ***Group Security*** | | | | | | | | |
| I like to go on guided tours. | | | | | .801 | | | |
| I prefer to travel in groups rather than by myself. | | | | | .796 | | | |
| When I take a holiday overseas, I like to visit places where the people speak the Korean language (e.g., Korean restaurant, Korean motel, etc.) | | | | | .633 | | | |
| ***Information*** | | | | | | | | |
| I often have difficulty in deciding where to visit on a holiday. | | | | | | .810 | | |
| I often ask the advice of my friends regarding holiday spots. | | | | | | .757 | | |
| I often have difficulty getting information on travel. | | | | | | .672 | | |
| ***Sports*** | | | | | | | | |
| My holiday is normally planned so that I can participate in my favourite sport. | | | | | | | .907 | |
| I normally plan my holiday around watching my favourite sporting event. | | | | | | | .900 | |
| ***Resources (time/money)*** | | | | | | | | |
| I have enough time to travel. | | | | | | | | .849 |
| I can afford to spend money on travel. | | | | | | | | .840 |

Cumulative variance explained by the eight factors: 65.2%

In addition to reliability analyses, correlation analysis was performed to examine the inter-relationships among the eight factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour using Pearson correlation coefficients. The majority of factors were significantly correlated at the level 0.01 with the exceptions of the relationships between "travel interest", "openness to experiences" and "group security" factors, and between "openness to experiences", "resources" and "information". In general, there were positive correlations between the factors ranging from 0.11 to 0.38 (Cohen, 1988). Table 4-4 presents the correlation matrix to demonstrate the relationships between the factors of the travel lifestyle and behaviour.

**Table 4-4    Correlation between the Factors of Travel Lifestyle**

**and Behaviour**

| Factors | Shopping | Travel Interest | Openness to experiences | Predictable and Planned | Group Security | Information | Sports |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Shopping | | | | | | | |
| Travel Interest | .123* | | | | | | |
| Openness to Experiences | .166* | .440* | | | | | |
| Predictable and Planned | .280* | .241* | .278* | | | | |
| Group Security | .113* | .004 | .059 | .206* | | | |
| Information | .377* | .134* | .053 | .207* | .266* | | |
| Sports | .224* | .161* | .130* | .126* | .145* | .192* | |
| Resources (time/money) | .114* | .195* | .123* | .168* | .136* | .025 | .140* |

* Significant level at $p < .01$

**Independent Samples T-test of Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour**

To identify whether Korean Australians and Koreans exhibit differences based on their reported travel lifestyle and behaviour, independent samples t-tests were performed using the eight factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour. In order to control

for Type 1 error, which is based on the statistical probability of the relationship occurring by chance, the Bonferroni correction was applied (Cherry, 2000; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2000). This was achieved by adjusting the alpha level by dividing overall alpha by the numbers of tests performed (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). In this case eight t-tests were performed; thus, alpha was set at 0.006 (0.05/8). The following hypothesis was proposed for this part of study.

H1: *There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans.*

The result revealed that four factors – "shopping", "group security", "information", and "sports" - were identified as being statistically significant ($p < 0.006$). Table 4-5 presents the results of independent samples t-tests for each factor of travel lifestyle and behaviour. Koreans showed higher mean scores on three of the above factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour than Korean Australians with the exception of the "shopping" factor. More specifically, Koreans were slightly less likely to report engaging in "shopping" behaviour than Korean Australians. In contrast, Koreans, compared to Korean Australians, reported a preference for "group security", seeking "information", and "sports". The largest effect size was for "group security" and "sports", showing these to be of great importance to the Koreans. However, no statistically significant differences were identified between Korean Australians and Koreans in relation to the other four factors of preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour, which were "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", and "resources (time/money)". Hypothesis 1 was, therefore, partially accepted.

**Table 4-5 The Comparison of the Eight Factors of Travel Lifestyle and**

**Behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans**

| Factor | Korean Australians | | | Koreans | | | t (df) | Sig. | η² |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | | | |
| Shopping | 293 | 4.40 | 1.17 | 304 | 4.12 | 1.13 | 2.91 (595) | 0.004* | 0.014 |
| Travel Interest | 301 | 4.88 | 1.26 | 325 | 5.09 | 1.25 | -2.06 (624) | 0.040 | 0.007 |
| Openness to Experiences | 305 | 5.37 | 1.22 | 321 | 5.52 | 1.11 | -1.59 (624) | 0.113 | 0.004 |
| Predictable and Planned | 296 | 5.12 | 1.07 | 318 | 5.04 | 1.02 | 0.96 (612) | 0.340 | 0.002 |
| Group Security | 304 | 3.63 | 1.37 | 320 | 4.52 | 1.23 | -8.52 (622) | 0.000* | 0.101 |
| Information | 298 | 3.95 | 1.11 | 317 | 4.23 | 1.17 | -3.05 (613) | 0.002* | 0.015 |
| Sports | 300 | 2.98 | 1.61 | 321 | 3.37 | 1.44 | -3.20 (600) | 0.001* | 0.016 |
| Resources (time/money) | 300 | 3.89 | 1.34 | 321 | 3.98 | 1.32 | -0.84 (619) | 0.399 | 0.001 |

Mean score was computed on the score of 7 scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

*Significant level at $p < .006$ following Bonferroni correction

## Independent Samples T-test and One-way between Groups ANOVA of Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour based on Demographics

In order to test the influence of demographic characteristics on the respondents' travel lifestyle and behaviour, an independent samples t-test and one-way between groups ANOVA tests were conducted with the eight factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour as the dependent variables and demographic characteristics as independent variables. The Bonferroni correction was applied for each analysis to reduce the risk of Type 1 error by setting a more stringent alpha value. Due to the number of travel lifestyle and behaviour factors, alpha value was set at 0.006 (0.05/8).

**Gender** An independent samples t-test was performed to test the effects of gender on the eight factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour. The proposed hypothesis is as follows.

H2-1:  *There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour depending on gender.*


The result was that two factors of "predictable and planned" and "sports" were identified as being statistically significant ($p < .006$). The results of an independent samples t-test for each travel lifestyle and behaviour factor are shown in Table 4-6. Females were more likely to report a preference for "predictable and planned" well organised travel than males. In contrast, males were more likely to report planning a holiday that includes "sports" activities than their female counterparts. However, no statistically significant differences were identified for gender in relation to the six factors of preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour, which were "shopping", "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "group security", "information", and "resources (time/money)". Hypothesis 2-1 was, therefore, only partially accepted.

**Table 4-6    The Comparison of the Eight Factors of Travel Lifestyle and**

**Behaviour based on Gender**

| Factor | Male | | | Female | | | t (df) | Sig. | η² |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | | | |
| Shopping | 239 | 4.11 | 1.08 | 358 | 4.35 | 1.20 | -2.48 (595) | 0.014 | 0.010 |
| Travel Interest | 253 | 4.91 | 1.23 | 373 | 5.04 | 1.28 | -1.23 (624) | 0.218 | 0.002 |
| Openness to Experiences | 252 | 5.30 | 1.22 | 374 | 5.54 | 1.12 | -2.47 (624) | 0.014 | 0.010 |
| Predictable and Planned | 246 | 4.88 | 1.06 | 368 | 5.20 | 1.01 | -3.78 (612) | 0.000* | 0.023 |
| Group Security | 252 | 3.95 | 1.34 | 372 | 4.17 | 1.38 | -2.00 (622) | 0.046 | 0.006 |
| Information | 245 | 4.08 | 1.14 | 370 | 4.10 | 1.16 | -0.24 (613) | 0.810 | 0.000 |
| Sports | 249 | 3.54 | 1.49 | 372 | 2.95 | 1.51 | 4.76 (619) | 0.000* | 0.035 |
| Resources (time/money) | 252 | 3.99 | 1.25 | 369 | 3.89 | 1.38 | 0.96 (619) | 0.337 | 0.001 |

Mean score was computed on the score of 7 scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)
*Significant level at $p < .006$ following Bonferroni correction

**Age** To assess the influence of age on travel lifestyle and behaviour (hypothesis 2-2), a one-way between-groups ANOVA was performed. The proposed hypothesis is as follows:

H2-2:  *There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour depending on age.*

A one-way ANOVA indicated significant differences on the factors of "shopping", "group security", and "resources (time/money)" across the age groups. Table 4-7 summarises the ANOVA results. In addition, post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test were used to assess the level of differences among the groups. It indicated that the mean score for the 60 years and over age group (M = 3.55, SD = 1.43) was significantly different from the 20-29 years age group (M = 4.46, SD = 1.07) and the 30-39 years age group (M = 4.36, SD = 1.08) in terms of "shopping" (*p*

< .05), which means younger people were more likely to prefer shopping than older people while travelling. The mean score of "group security" for the 60 years and over age group (M = 5.21, SD = 1.31) was significantly different from the 20-29 years age group (M = 3.64, SD = 1.19), the 30-39 years age group (M = 4.03, SD = 1.31) and the 40-49 years age group (M = 4.15, SD = 1.36) at $p < .001$. Similar to "group security", the mean score of "resources (time/money)" for the 60 years and over age group (M = 5.11, SD = 1.20) was significantly different from the 20-29 years age group (M = 3.74, SD = 1.24), the 30-39 years age group (M = 3.79, SD = 1.31) and the 40-49 years age group (M = 3.99, SD = 1.29) at $p < .001$, and was significantly different from the 50-59 years age group (M = 4.15, SD = 1.46) at $p < .05$. It appears that older people were more likely to be concerned about the security of group travel, and to have more resources (time/money) to travel than younger people. However, there was no significant difference on the factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", "information", and "sports" across the age groups at $p < .006$. Thus, hypothesis 2-2 was partially accepted.

**Table 4-7    The Comparison of the Eight Factors of Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour based on Age**

| Factor | 20-29 years | | | 30-39 years | | | 40-49 years | | | 50-59 years | | | 60 years and over | | | F(df) | Sig. | $\eta^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | | | |
| Shopping | 126 | 4.46 [c] | 1.07 | 202 | 4.36 [d] | 1.08 | 189 | 4.12 | 1.16 | 56 | 4.17 | 1.35 | 24 | 3.55 [a] | 1.43 | 4.34 (4, 592) | 0.002* | 0.028 |
| Travel Interest | 131 | 4.86 | 1.19 | 212 | 5.00 | 1.26 | 199 | 5.07 | 1.23 | 56 | 4.95 | 1.31 | 28 | 4.94 | 1.65 | 0.57 (4, 621) | 0.682 | 0.004 |
| Openness to Experiences | 130 | 5.30 | 1.07 | 212 | 5.47 | 1.22 | 198 | 5.53 | 1.12 | 58 | 5.46 | 1.11 | 28 | 5.26 | 1.58 | 0.98 (4, 621) | 0.420 | 0.006 |
| Predictable and Planned | 128 | 4.95 | 0.95 | 210 | 5.10 | 1.09 | 194 | 5.06 | 1.01 | 56 | 5.27 | 1.02 | 26 | 5.19 | 1.35 | 1.10 (4, 609) | 0.354 | 0.007 |
| Group Security | 130 | 3.64 [b] | 1.19 | 211 | 4.03 [b] | 1.31 | 198 | 4.15 [b] | 1.36 | 57 | 4.51 | 1.59 | 28 | 5.21 [a] | 1.31 | 10.38 (4, 619) | 0.000* | 0.063 |
| Information | 127 | 4.27 | 1.11 | 209 | 4.16 | 1.09 | 195 | 4.04 | 1.12 | 58 | 3.84 | 1.22 | 26 | 3.59 | 1.66 | 2.95 (4, 610) | 0.020 | 0.019 |
| Sports | 129 | 3.12 | 1.52 | 208 | 3.19 | 1.60 | 201 | 3.33 | 1.47 | 55 | 3.02 | 1.46 | 28 | 2.64 | 1.63 | 1.57 (4, 616) | 0.181 | 0.010 |
| Resources (time/money) | 130 | 3.74 [b] | 1.24 | 211 | 3.79 [b] | 1.31 | 197 | 3.99 [b] | 1.29 | 56 | 4.15 [d] | 1.46 | 27 | 5.11 [a] | 1.20 | 7.42 (4, 616) | 0.000* | 0.046 |

[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [b] variables at $p < .001$ level
[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [c] variables at $p < .01$ level
[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [d] variables at $p < .05$ level
Mean score was computed on the score of 7 scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)
*Significant level at $p < .006$ following Bonferroni correction

**Marital status** A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of marital status on travel lifestyle and behaviour (hypothesis 2-3).

H2-3: *There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour depending on marital status.*

A one-way ANOVA reported only a statistically significant difference on the factor of "group security" across the groups. Table 4-8 presents the results of the ANOVA test. Post-hoc tests using Tukey HSD indicated that the mean score for the "never married" group (M = 3.83, SD = 1.30) was significantly different from the group "widow/widowers" (M = 5.43, SD = 0.71) at $p < .05$. Never married persons were less likely to prefer group travel, while widow/widowers were more likely to prefer travelling in a group than any other group. However, there were no significant differences on the travel lifestyles and behaviours of "shopping", "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", "information", "sports", and "resources (time/money)" across the groups at $p < .006$. Thus, hypothesis 2-3 was partially supported.

**Table 4-8    The Comparison of the Eight Factors of Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour based on Marital Status**

| Factor | Never married | | | Married/De facto | | | Widow/Widower | | | Divorce/Separated | | | F(df) | Sig. | $\eta^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | | | |
| Shopping | 143 | 4.35 | 1.09 | 441 | 4.21 | 1.17 | 6 | 4.67 | 1.82 | 6 | 4.47 | 1.03 | 0.87 (3, 592) | 0.459 | 0.004 |
| Travel Interest | 150 | 5.04 | 1.16 | 461 | 4.94 | 1.29 | 7 | 5.24 | 1.40 | 7 | 6.29 | 0.62 | 2.90 (3, 621) | 0.034 | 0.014 |
| Openness to Experiences | 149 | 5.39 | 1.06 | 462 | 5.44 | 1.20 | 7 | 6.29 | 0.99 | 7 | 6.05 | 0.97 | 1.96 (3, 621) | 0.119 | 0.009 |
| Predictable and Planned | 146 | 4.95 | 1.03 | 453 | 5.10 | 1.05 | 7 | 5.00 | 1.08 | 7 | 5.96 | 0.34 | 2.59 (3, 609) | 0.052 | 0.013 |
| Group Security | 147 | 3.83 [a] | 1.30 | 462 | 4.14 | 1.38 | 7 | 5.43 [b] | 0.71 | 7 | 4.67 | 1.62 | 4.64 (3, 619) | 0.003* | 0.022 |
| Information | 147 | 4.31 | 1.11 | 454 | 4.02 | 1.14 | 6 | 4.61 | 1.81 | 7 | 3.86 | 1.62 | 2.97 (3, 610) | 0.031 | 0.014 |
| Sports | 148 | 3.05 | 1.56 | 458 | 3.24 | 1.52 | 7 | 3.29 | 1.19 | 7 | 1.79 | 1.07 | 2.56 (3, 616) | 0.054 | 0.012 |
| Resources (time/money) | 149 | 3.72 | 1.30 | 457 | 4.00 | 1.32 | 7 | 3.07 | 1.43 | 7 | 4.57 | 1.54 | 3.29 (3, 616) | 0.020 | 0.016 |

[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [b] variables at $p < .05$ level

Mean score was computed on the score of 7 scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

*Significant level at $p < .006$ following Bonferroni correction

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**Education** A one-way between groups ANOVA was conducted to test the influence of the level of education on travel lifestyle and behaviour (hypothesis 2-4). Prior to performing the ANOVA test, the category of education was recoded from five to three groups because post-hoc tests should only be performed if the group has more than two cases. The number of respondents with the level of education "primary school" was only two; thus, the three categories of senior high school, junior high school and primary school were merged into one category labelled "senior high school or less".

H2-4: *There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour depending on the level of education.*

The results of the test indicated no statistically significant differences on travel lifestyle and behaviour of "shopping", "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", "information", "sports", and "resources (time/money)" at $p < .006$. Table 4-9 provides number of observations (N), mean score, standard deviation (SD), F value, degrees of freedom (df) and significant level ($p$). The travel lifestyle and behaviour of "group security" was the only dimension significantly different depending on the level of education. Post-hoc tests using Tukey HSD indicated that the mean score of "group security" for the group "senior high school or less" (M = 4.52, SD = 1.28) was significantly different from the "postgraduate" group (M = 3.58, SD = 1.41) and the "bachelor degree" group (M = 3.96, SD = 1.34) at $p < .001$, which means less educated people were more likely to prefer travelling in groups than more educated people. Thus, hypothesis 2-4 was partially supported.

**Table 4-9    The Comparison of the Eight Factors of Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour based on Education**

| Factor | Postgraduate | | | Bachelor Degree | | | Senior High School or less | | | F(df) | Sig. | $\eta^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | | | |
| Shopping | 65 | 4.36 | 1.39 | 348 | 4.26 | 1.07 | 179 | 4.21 | 1.22 | 0.42 (2, 589) | 0.657 | 0.001 |
| Travel Interest | 69 | 5.07 | 1.28 | 364 | 4.95 | 1.25 | 189 | 5.04 | 1.24 | 0.54 (2, 619) | 0.585 | 0.002 |
| Openness to Experiences | 69 | 5.57 | 1.06 | 363 | 5.42 | 1.16 | 189 | 5.42 | 1.23 | 0.50 (2, 618) | 0.605 | 0.002 |
| Predictable and Planned | 69 | 5.05 | 1.15 | 357 | 5.10 | 1.01 | 183 | 5.04 | 1.04 | 0.22 (2, 606) | 0.806 | 0.001 |
| Group Security | 68 | 3.58 [b] | 1.41 | 362 | 3.96 [b] | 1.34 | 189 | 4.52 [a] | 1.28 | 16.66 (2, 616) | 0.000* | 0.051 |
| Information | 68 | 4.04 | 1.19 | 357 | 4.10 | 1.08 | 185 | 4.14 | 1.25 | 0.18 (2, 607) | 0.835 | 0.001 |
| Sports | 67 | 3.13 | 1.68 | 362 | 3.18 | 1.48 | 187 | 3.24 | 1.59 | 0.15 (2, 613) | 0.865 | 0.000 |
| Resources (time/money) | 69 | 3.96 | 1.31 | 358 | 3.94 | 1.26 | 189 | 3.91 | 1.43 | 0.04 (2, 613) | 0.961 | 0.000 |

[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [b] variables at $p < .001$ level

Mean score was computed on the score of 7 scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

*Significant level at $p < .006$ following Bonferroni correction

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**Employment Status** To confirm the effect of employment status on travel lifestyle and behaviour one-way between groups ANOVA was performed (hypothesis 2-5).

H2-5: *There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour depending on employment status.*

A one-way ANOVA reported statistically significant differences on the travel lifestyle and behaviour of "group security" and "resources (time/money)" across employment status. Table 4-10 presents the results of one-way ANOVA including number of observations (N), mean score, standard deviation (SD), F value, degrees of freedom (df) and significant level (p). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the "full time worker" group (M = 4.23, SD = 1.35) was significantly different from the "full time student" group (M = 3.60, SD = 1.16) in terms of "group security" ($p < .05$), which means full time students were less likely to prefer travelling in groups, while full time workers were more likely to travel in groups. The mean score of "resources (time/money)" for the "retiree" group (M = 5.11, SD = 1.13) was significantly different from the groups of "full time worker" (M = 3.86, SD = 1.28), "part time/casual worker" (M = 3.78, SD = 1.41), "full time student" (M = 3.70, SD = 1.26) and "the self employed" (M = 3.84, SD = 1.37) at $p < .05$. That is, retirees were more likely to have resources (time/money) for travelling than the other groups. However, there were no significant differences on travel lifestyle and behaviour of "shopping", "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", "information", and "sports" based on employment status at $p < .006$. Thus, hypothesis 2-5 was only partially accepted.

**Table 4-10   The Comparison of the Eight Factors of Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour based on Employment Status**

| Factor | Full time worker | | | Part time/Casual worker | | | Unemployed | | | Retiree | | | Housewife | | | Full time student | | | Self-employed | | | F(df) | Sig. | η² |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | | | |
| Shopping | 211 | 4.06 | 1.12 | 83 | 4.36 | 1.10 | 25 | 4.47 | 1.17 | 13 | 3.69 | 1.29 | 131 | 4.49 | 1.28 | 63 | 4.45 | 1.00 | 61 | 4.06 | 1.06 | 2.83 (7, 584) | 0.007 | 0.033 |
| Travel Interest | 221 | 4.95 | 1.25 | 87 | 4.90 | 1.37 | 27 | 4.25 | 1.30 | 14 | 4.98 | 1.69 | 137 | 5.02 | 1.23 | 65 | 5.15 | 1.14 | 64 | 5.25 | 1.14 | 2.23 (7, 613) | 0.030 | 0.025 |
| Openness to Experiences | 219 | 5.53 | 1.04 | 86 | 5.43 | 1.25 | 27 | 5.20 | 1.35 | 15 | 5.22 | 1.71 | 139 | 5.56 | 1.16 | 64 | 5.38 | 1.06 | 65 | 5.18 | 1.36 | 1.13 (7, 613) | 0.344 | 0.013 |
| Predictable and Planned | 218 | 5.01 | 1.07 | 85 | 5.19 | 0.93 | 27 | 4.71 | 1.08 | 14 | 5.02 | 1.36 | 134 | 5.27 | 1.02 | 63 | 5.00 | 1.04 | 63 | 4.97 | 1.00 | 1.61 (7, 602) | 0.129 | 0.018 |
| Group Security | 219 | 4.23 [a] | 1.35 | 87 | 4.18 | 1.38 | 27 | 3.58 | 1.17 | 15 | 4.76 | 1.81 | 137 | 4.12 | 1.40 | 65 | 3.60 [c] | 1.16 | 64 | 3.88 | 1.43 | 2.91 (7, 611) | 0.005* | 0.032 |
| Information | 219 | 4.12 | 1.13 | 85 | 4.07 | 1.18 | 25 | 4.19 | 1.14 | 14 | 3.36 | 1.57 | 136 | 4.13 | 1.11 | 62 | 4.28 | 1.07 | 63 | 3.89 | 1.18 | 1.42 (7, 602) | 0.196 | 0.016 |
| Sports | 221 | 3.42 | 1.48 | 87 | 2.99 | 1.60 | 27 | 3.15 | 1.75 | 13 | 2.81 | 1.32 | 138 | 2.91 | 1.51 | 62 | 3.31 | 1.51 | 63 | 3.06 | 1.45 | 2.07 (7, 608) | 0.045 | 0.023 |
| Resources (time/money) | 219 | 3.86 [c] | 1.28 | 85 | 3.78 [c] | 1.41 | 27 | 3.80 | 1.22 | 14 | 5.11 [a] | 1.13 | 136 | 4.17 | 1.32 | 65 | 3.70 [b] | 1.26 | 64 | 3.84 [c] | 1.37 | 3.13 (7, 608) | 0.003* | 0.035 |

[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [b] variables at $p < .01$ level

[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [c] variables at $p < .05$ level

Mean score was computed on the score of 7 scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

*Significant level at $p < .006$ following Bonferroni correction

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In addition to testing the importance of demographic characteristics on the factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour, an investigation of country of residence by demographic characteristics for each factor of travel behaviour was conducted (hypothesis 3).

H3: There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans in the effect of demographic characteristics.

No statistically significant differences were found ($p < .006$). The results of ANOVA tests are presented below in Table 4-11

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**Table 4-11    The Results of ANOVA Tests - Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour and Demographic Characteristics**

|  | Gender* Residential Country | | Age* Residential Country | | Marital Status* Residential Country | | Education level* Residential Country | | Employment Status* Residential Country | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | F (df) | Sig. | F (df) | Sig. | F (df) | Sig. | F (df) | Sig. | F (df) | Sig. |
| Shopping | 0.30 (1) | 0.586 | 1.98 (4) | 0.096 | 1.52 (3) | 0.208 | 0.28 (3) | 0.837 | 1.26 (7) | 0.269 |
| Travel Interest | 0.01 (1) | 0.925 | 2.62 (4) | 0.034 | 0.82 (3) | 0.484 | 1.85 (3) | 0.117 | 2.11 (7) | 0.040 |
| Openness to Experiences | 0.85 (1) | 0.356 | 2.39 (4) | 0.050 | 0.56 (3) | 0.640 | 0.61 (4) | 0.655 | 1.53 (7) | 0.154 |
| Predictable and Planned | 0.02 (1) | 0.878 | 0.71 (4) | 0.584 | 0.23 (3) | 0.873 | 2.14 (4) | 0.075 | 1.64 (7) | 0.121 |
| Group Security | 0.00 (1) | 0.948 | 0.25 (4) | 0.912 | 1.23 (3) | 0.298 | 2.22 (4) | 0.065 | 0.80 (7) | 0.590 |
| Information | 0.32 (1) | 0.572 | 0.87 (4) | 0.482 | 1.85 (3) | 0.136 | 0.39 (3) | 0.759 | 0.76 (7) | 0.621 |
| Sports | 4.86 (1) | 0.028 | 1.52 (4) | 0.194 | 1.94 (3) | 0.121 | 1.56 (4) | 0.184 | 1.23 (7) | 0.286 |
| Resources (time/money) | 2.27 (1) | 0.133 | 0.71 (4) | 0.587 | 1.66 (3) | 0.175 | 1.01 (4) | 0.400 | 0.84 (7) | 0.555 |

Significant level at p< 0.006 following Bonferroni correction

The summary of independent samples t-tests and one-way between groups ANOVA tests between travel lifestyle and behaviour and demographic variables, presented in Table 4-12, showed that travel lifestyle and behaviour were more likely to be related to the country of residence rather than the other demographic variables. The factor "group security" consistently showed significant differences for all demographic variables, with the exception of gender, than any other factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour.

**Table 4-12    Summary of the Relationship between Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour and Demographic Variables**

|  | Country of Residence | Gender | Age | Marital Status | Education | Employment Status |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Shopping | + | - | + | - | - | - |
| Travel Interest | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Openness to Experiences | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Predictable and Planned | - | + | - | - | - | - |
| Group Security | + | - | + | + | + | + |
| Information | + | - | - | - | - | - |
| Sports | + | + | - | - | - | - |
| Resources (time/money) | - | - | + | - | - | + |

+ Indicates a significant difference between variables
Significant level at $p < .006$ following Bonferroni correction

## 4.4   Personal Values

This section presents the data analysis of personal values. First, factor analysis of personal values was performed to identify whether groups of prominent personal values exist within the 18 personal value statements. Next, a comparison of personal

values between Korean Australians and Koreans was performed using an independent samples t-test.

**Factor Analysis of Personal Values**

Exploratory factor analysis was performed on the 18 statements of personal values. The suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed using correlation matrix and communalities. The correlation matrix of all 18 items showed correlation coefficients of 0.3 or above. The communalities table was also checked, and one item with a communality less than 0.50 was removed. However, the factor analysis of the 17 remaining items using principal components analysis with orthogonal rotation (varimax) revealed that there were several cross-loaded items loading at 0.4 or more. Thus, items were retained only if they loaded at 0.4 or more on a factor and did not load at more than 0.5 on any two factors. As a result, in the final analysis, 15 of the 18 items were subjected to factor analysis. Principal components analysis with a varimax rotation was conducted on the 15 personal values items, revealing three components. The scree plot was also examined for information on the number of factors. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was 0.914 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance ($p = 0.000$). The three factor solution, with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explained a total of 60.75% of the variance.

Three factors showed Cronbach's alphas of 0.87, 0.83, and 0.72 which conforms to the recommended Cronbach's alpha coefficient for exploratory research (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). The items for each of the factors were summated and averaged to form a new composite variable. The three summated scales were termed "community values", "social values" and "life values". These summated

scales were retained for further analyses such as t-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and multiple regression. Table 4-13 presents the results of factor analysis of personal values.

### Table 4-13    Personal Value Factors

| Items | Component | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Eigenvalues (% of variance explained) | 43.10 | 10.00 | 7.66 |
| Cronbach's alpha coefficient | .87 | .83 | .72 |
| *Community Values* | | | |
| A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts) | .747 | | |
| A world of peace (free of war, terror and conflict) | .744 | | |
| Family security (taking care of loved ones) | .742 | | |
| Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all) | .693 | | |
| Freedom (independence, free choice) | .657 | | |
| National security (protection from attack) | .635 | | |
| Happiness (contentedness) | .623 | | |
| Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisure life) | .556 | | |
| *Social Values* | | | |
| Social recognition (respect, administration) | | .797 | |
| Self-respect (self-esteem) | | .713 | |
| True friendship (close companionship) | | .702 | |
| Wisdom (a mature understanding of life) | | .681 | |
| *Life Values* | | | |
| An exciting life (a stimulating, active life) | | | .808 |
| A comfortable life (a prosperous life) | | | .753 |
| A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution) | | | .679 |

Cumulative variance explained by the eight factors: 60.75%

The relationships among the factors of personal values were examined using Pearson correlation coefficients. As shown in Table 4-14, all three factors were

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significantly correlated at $p < .01$. There were strong and positive correlations between the factors (Cohen, 1988).

**Table 4-14    Correlation between the Factors of Personal Values**

| Factors | Community Values | Social Values |
|---|---|---|
| Community Values | | |
| Social Values | .635* | |
| Life Values | .441* | .502* |

* Significant level at $p < .01$

## An Independent Samples T-Test of Personal Values

An independent samples t-test was performed to test the influence of acculturation on the personal values of Korean Australians using the three dimensions of personal values, on the assumption that those who are Korean Australians are considered as the acculturated group, while Koreans are considered as the unacculturated group, although country of residence may be only one of the factors that has an influence on acculturation. In order to control for Type 1 error, the Bonferroni correction was applied. In this case, three t-tests were performed; thus, alpha was set at 0.017 (0.05/3). Table 4-15 presents the results of t-tests. The following hypothesis was presented to test:

H4:    *There are differences on the personal values between Korean Australians and Koreans.*

The result showed that there was a significant difference in the mean scores of "life values" between Korean Australians and Koreans ($p < .017$), with Koreans showing higher mean scores on the factor of personal values "life values" than Korean

Australians. That is, Koreans were likely to report placing a stronger importance on the values for their own life situation than Korean Australians. However no statistically significant differences were identified between Korean Australians and Koreans in relation to the other two factors of personal values, which were "community values" and "social values". Hypothesis 4 was, therefore, only partially accepted.

**Table 4-15    The Comparison of the Three Factors of Personal Values**

**between Korean Australians and Koreans**

| Factor | Korean Australians | | | Koreans | | | t (df) | Sig. | $\eta^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | | | |
| Community Values | 300 | 6.22 | 0.80 | 310 | 6.24 | 0.95 | -0.31 (563) | 0.759 | 0.000 |
| Social Values | 303 | 5.96 | 0.95 | 322 | 6.04 | 0.81 | -1.13 (623) | 0.258 | 0.002 |
| Life values | 302 | 5.37 | 1.06 | 323 | 5.57 | 0.92 | -2.59 (598) | 0.010* | 0.011 |

Mean score was computed on the score of 7 scale (1 = very unimportant to 7 = very important)
*Significant level at $p < .017$ following Bonferroni correction

## 4.5    Sensation-Seeking Behaviour

The Arnett Inventory of Sensation Seeking (Arnett, 1994) contains 20 items, with two subscales of 10 items each, "novelty" and "intensity". Prior to checking the reliability of the two subscales, factor analysis was performed using principal components analysis with orthogonal rotation (varimax) to confirm whether the underlying factors coincide with the two subscales of the Arnett Inventory of Sensation Seeking (AISS). First of all, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed that 10 out of 20 items present coefficients less than 0.3. Moreover, the communalities table was also examined and 8

items showed communalities less than 0.50. In meeting the suitability of data for factor analysis requirement as above, only 6 items of the sensation-seeking behaviour scale remained to factor analyse. Thus, another approach was attempted to aid in selecting the best factor solution.

Following data screening and examination, factor analysis was performed by setting the number of factors to two, based on the number of original subscales of the Arnett Inventory of Sensation Seeking, which were novelty and intensity. As a result, one factor with seven items appeared with a mix of novelty and intensity items, and another factor with six items appeared only consisting of intensity items. However, the two-factor solution explains only 26.2% of the variance. Therefore, it was subjected to reliability analysis to test internal consistency of the two original subscales of the Arnett Inventory of Sensation Seeking. Cronbach's alphas for "novelty" and "intensity" subscales were 0.53, and 0.64 respectively. As the Cronbach's alpha was low, especially for novelty, the inter-item correlations were inspected and those that were less than 0.20 were deleted. The Cronbach's alphas for the two subscales, which consisted of seven items each then reached 0.63 (novelty), and 0.67 (intensity). Although the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of a scale is normally recommended to be above 0.7 (Coakes & Steed, 1999; Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998; Pallant, 2001), Robinson, Shaver, and Wrightsman (1991) recommended that the criterion rating of coefficient alpha range between 0.60 and 0.70 is acceptable. In addition, Briggs and Cheek (1986) suggested that optimal mean inter-item correlation values range from 0.2 to 0.4 with a small number of items in one factor. The latter Cronbach's alphas for the new composite variables of "novelty" and "intensity" indicated that each of those variables had acceptable internal consistency

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with inter-item correlation values. Thus, the items for the two subscales were summated and averaged to form new composite variables for further analyses (see Table 4-16). These new composite variables were still termed "novelty" and "intensity". In addition to factor analysis and reliability analysis, the relationship between "novelty" and "intensity" was examined using Pearson correlation coefficients. There was a moderate correlation between the two composite variables (r = 0.40) at $p < .01$ (Cohen, 1988).

To investigate the influence of acculturation on sensation-seeking behaviour of Korean Australians, on the assumption that Korean Australians are considered the acculturated group while Koreans are considered the unacculturated group, the mean scores of the selected items for two subscales between Korean Australians and Koreans were compared using an independent samples t-test. The proposed hypothesis is as follows:

H5: *There is a difference on sensation-seeking behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans.*

There were statistically significant differences between Korean Australians and Koreans on the dimension of "intensity" at the 0.025 level following Bonferroni correction to control for Type 1 error. In general, Koreans demonstrated higher mean scores than Korean Australians on the dimension of the sensation-seeking behaviour of "intensity". However, there was no significant difference on the sensation-seeking behaviour of "novelty" between the two groups ($p < .025$). Hypothesis 5 was, therefore, partially accepted. Table 4-16 presents the items of each composite factor, the mean scores of the two variables of sensation-seeking behaviour, and the

significant levels of differences between the two groups as a result of an independent

samples t-test.

**Table 4-16    The Comparison of Sensation-Seeking Behaviour between**

**Korean Australians and Koreans**

|  | Korean Australians | | | Koreans | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | t (df) | Sig. | η² |
| Novelty | 293 | 2.63 | 0.54 | 314 | 2.65 | 0.48 | -0.39 (605) | 0.695 | 0.000 |

*Novelty Items*

When taking a trip, I think it is best to make as few plans as possible and just take it as it comes.

I think it is fun and exciting to perform or speak before a group.

I would like to travel to places that are strange and far away.

I would have enjoyed being one of the first explorers of an unknown land.

I like to eat foods from foreign cultures.

If it were possible to visit another planet or the moon for free, I would be among the first in line to sign up.

I can see how it would be interesting to marry someone from a foreign country.

|  | Korean Australians | | | Koreans | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | t (df) | Sig. | η² |
| Intensity | 299 | 1.90 | 0.55 | 314 | 2.02 | 0.56 | -2.73 (611) | 0.006* | 0.012 |

*Intensity Items*

I stay away from movies that are said to be frightening or highly suspenseful. (R)

If I were to go to an amusement park, I would prefer to ride the roller coaster or other fast rides.

I would never like to gamble with money, even if I could afford it. (R)

I like a movie where there are a lot of explosions and car chases.

It would be interesting to see a car accident happen.

I like the feeling of standing next to the edge on a high place and looking down.

I can see how it must be exciting to be in a battle during a war.

Mean score was computed on the score of 4 scale (1 = describes me very well to 4 = does not describe me at all)
*Significant level at $p < .025$ following Bonferroni correction
(R) indicates the item that was reversed in data coding

## 4.6   Acculturation

The acculturation scale consisting of 29 items, which includes six dimensions regarding "English language use", "food and traditional holiday", "Australian mass media exposure", "Australian social interaction", "Australian identification and attachment", and "Korean identification and attachment", was adopted to measure the level of acculturation of Korean Australians. As stated before, five dimensions of the scale, which were "English language use", "Australian mass media exposure", "Australian social interaction", "Australian identification and attachment", and "Korean identification and attachment", were adapted from the acculturation scale by Kim, Laroche, and Tomiuk (2001) and the dimension "food and traditional holiday" was designed based on the acculturation scale by Lim, Heiby, Brislin, & Griffin (2002). Thus, factor analysis was performed to investigate whether the underlying factors coincide with the original dimensions of the acculturation scale using principal components analysis with orthogonal rotation (varimax). The scree plot was also considered for information on the number of factors. The result of factor analysis revealed six underlying factors, although these did not exactly correspond with the six original dimensions. The three original dimensions, "English language use", "food and traditional holiday", and "Australian identification and attachment", were revealed as factors. However, the two dimensions of "Australian mass media exposure" and "Australian social interaction" became one factor. Finally, the dimension "Korean identification and attachment" was divided into two factors, which were "Korean identification" and "Korean attachment".

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was 0.877 and The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance ($p = 0.000$). The six factor solution explained a total of 71.21% of the variance with eigenvalues exceeding 1. Reliability analyses were performed to test the internal consistency of each of the six factors. Cronbach's alphas for five of the factors were all above 0.7, which satisfies the normally recommended coefficient value. One of the categories, "food and traditional holiday", revealed Cronbach's alpha value 0.49, which is lower than recommended (see Table 4-17). However, as previously indicated, optimal mean inter-item correlation values range from 0.2 to 0.4 in the cases where there is a small number of items in a factor (Briggs & Cheek, 1986). The factor of "food and traditional holiday" consists of two items, and inter-item correlation value is 0.34 which falls between 0.2 and 0.4, so was still used in the study although some caution must be used based on reliability. The items for each of the six factors, including "food and traditional holiday", were summated and averaged for further use in the remaining data analyses. The six summated factors were termed "English language use", "food and traditional holiday", "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure", "Australian attachment and identification", "Korean attachment", and "Korean identification".

## Table 4-17   Acculturation Factors

| Items | Component | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| Eigenvalues | 28.50 | 18.53 | 11.04 | 4.77 | 4.48 | 3.90 |
| Cronbach's alpha coefficient | .92 | .90 | .91 | .88 | .84 | .49 |
| ***English Language Use*** | | | | | | |
| In general, I speak in English. | .824 | | | | | |
| I mostly think in English. | .803 | | | | | |
| I mostly speak in English at family gatherings. | .798 | | | | | |
| I always use English with my friends. | .796 | | | | | |
| I mostly carry on conversations in English every day. | .737 | | | | | |
| I always speak English to my spouse. | .662 | | | | | |
| ***Korean Attachment*** | | | | | | |
| I feel a strong attachment to the Korean culture. | | .858 | | | | |
| I feel most comfortable in the Korean culture. | | .842 | | | | |
| I feel very proud of the Korean culture. | | .842 | | | | |
| I feel very proud to identify with Koreans. | | .775 | | | | |
| I consider the Korean culture rich and precious. | | .724 | | | | |
| The Korean culture has the most positive impact on my life. | | .651 | | | | |
| ***Australian Attachment and Identification*** | | | | | | |
| I feel a strong attachment to the Australian culture. | | | .878 | | | |
| I feel very proud of the Australian culture. | | | .863 | | | |
| I consider the Australian culture rich and precious. | | | .839 | | | |
| I feel most comfortable in the Australian culture. | | | .782 | | | |
| I feel very proud to identify with Australians. | | | .773 | | | |
| The Australian culture has the most positive impact on my life. | | | .618 | | | |
| ***Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure*** | | | | | | |
| I get together with Caucasians very often. | | | | .779 | | |
| I have many Caucasian friends with whom I am very close. | | | | .757 | | |
| Most of the people at the places I go to have fun and relax are Caucasian. | | | | .751 | | |
| Most of my friends are Caucasian. | | | | .750 | | |
| The movies and video/cassettes that I watch are mostly in the English language. | | | | .628 | | |
| The newspapers and magazines that I read are mostly in the English language. | | | | .610 | | |
| ***Korean Identification*** | | | | | | |
| I consider myself to be Korean. | | | | | .835 | |
| I would like to be known as "Korean" by people of Korean descent. | | | | | .713 | |
| I have the sentiment of "Korean". | | | | | .638 | |
| ***Food and Traditional Holiday*** | | | | | | |
| I participate in Korean holidays, traditions, and celebrations (e.g., the Korean New Year's Day, the Korean Thanksgiving Day, etc.) | | | | | | .818 |
| I mostly eat Korean food at home. | | | | | | .724 |

Cumulative variance explained by the eight factors: 71.2%

Descriptive statistics of acculturation are shown in Table 4-18, including mean scores and standard deviations (SD) for each variable, and the summated scales. Korean Australians were very likely to speak Korean rather than English in general, as more than half of Korean Australians responded "strongly disagree" or "moderately disagree" to the questions for "English language use". In terms of "food and traditional holiday", the majority of Korean Australians showed a tendency to eat Korean food at home; however, the proportion of participation in Korean holidays, traditions, and celebrations were similar in each category of 1 to 7 (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). The results showed that Korean Australian respondents were likely to have a low tendency toward "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure". However, there was a higher tendency toward the exposure of the English screen media in comparison with the English print media. The findings demonstrate that the respondents hold a much stronger "Korean attachment and identification" when compared to an "Australian attachment and identification". Thus, it appears that the respondents in this study still have a very strong Korean attachment, even though they are permanent residents or citizens of Australia.

**Table 4-18 Proportion and Mean Score of the Level of Acculturation for Korean Australians**

| Dependent Variable | Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | % | | | | | |
| ***English Language Use*** | | | | | | | | **2.21** | **1.364** |
| I always speak English to my spouse. | 67.8 | 15.3 | 4.1 | 5.1 | 3.4 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 1.77 | 1.449 |
| I always use English with my friends. | 42.8 | 22.7 | 8.9 | 10.9 | 7.9 | 4.3 | 2.6 | 2.42 | 1.685 |
| I mostly think in English. | 42.8 | 21.6 | 13.1 | 11.4 | 5.6 | 3.3 | 2.3 | 2.34 | 1.582 |
| In general, I speak in English. | 40.7 | 21.2 | 11.9 | 13.2 | 6.0 | 5.0 | 2.0 | 2.45 | 1.639 |
| I mostly speak in English at family gatherings. | 62.0 | 19.3 | 6.6 | 4.6 | 3.0 | 2.0 | 2.6 | 1.84 | 1.444 |
| I mostly carry on conversations in English every day. | 41.6 | 19.8 | 8.3 | 11.9 | 7.3 | 5.9 | 5.3 | 2.62 | 1.876 |
| ***Food and Traditional Holiday*** | | | | | | | | **5.04** | **1.381** |
| I mostly eat Korean food at home. | 2.0 | 2.0 | 5.6 | 8.9 | 10.3 | 36.1 | 35.1 | 5.72 | 1.436 |
| I participate in Korean holidays, traditions, and celebrations (e.g., the Korean New Year's Day, the Korean Thanksgiving Day, etc.) | 10.6 | 11.6 | 11.2 | 17.5 | 14.9 | 18.8 | 15.5 | 4.33 | 1.930 |
| ***Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure*** | | | | | | | | **3.17** | **1.419** |
| Most of my friends are Caucasian. | 32.5 | 23.9 | 14.8 | 16.1 | 5.6 | 4.9 | 2.3 | 2.62 | 1.612 |
| Most of the people at the places I go to have fun and relax are Caucasian. | 23.0 | 20.0 | 10.5 | 19.0 | 12.5 | 9.8 | 5.2 | 3.29 | 1.860 |
| I get together with Caucasians very often. | 23.6 | 20.3 | 13.1 | 21.3 | 11.8 | 5.6 | 4.3 | 3.11 | 1.736 |
| I have many Caucasian friends with whom I am very close. | 28.8 | 23.2 | 15.2 | 15.9 | 9.6 | 2.3 | 5.0 | 2.81 | 1.704 |
| The newspapers and magazines that I read are mostly in the English language. | 21.6 | 21.3 | 11.1 | 18.7 | 13.4 | 8.9 | 4.9 | 3.27 | 1.823 |
| The movies and videocassettes that I watch are mostly in the English language. | 14.8 | 15.7 | 11.8 | 14.8 | 13.8 | 20.7 | 8.5 | 3.93 | 1.953 |

| Dependent Variable | Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | % | | | | | |
| ***Australian Attachment and Identification*** | | | | | | | | **3.83** | **1.315** |
| The Australian culture has the most positive impact on my life. | 8.9 | 11.3 | 9.9 | 30.5 | 17.2 | 14.9 | 7.3 | 4.10 | 1.667 |
| I feel very proud of the Australian culture. | 11.1 | 13.4 | 11.5 | 35.4 | 15.7 | 8.9 | 3.9 | 3.73 | 1.568 |
| I feel most comfortable in the Australian culture. | 6.6 | 8.6 | 9.9 | 27.1 | 22.8 | 17.2 | 7.9 | 4.34 | 1.599 |
| I feel a strong attachment to the Australian culture. | 11.5 | 14.1 | 12.8 | 36.8 | 14.8 | 6.9 | 3.0 | 3.62 | 1.511 |
| I feel very proud to identify with Australians. | 19.7 | 15.1 | 9.5 | 31.8 | 13.8 | 8.2 | 2.0 | 3.37 | 1.652 |
| I consider the Australian culture rich and precious. | 9.9 | 13.5 | 10.6 | 36.3 | 15.8 | 10.6 | 3.3 | 3.80 | 1.543 |
| ***Korean Attachment*** | | | | | | | | **5.06** | **1.136** |
| The Korean culture has the most positive impact on my life. | 3.3 | 6.0 | 6.6 | 30.6 | 19.3 | 24.3 | 10.0 | 4.69 | 1.481 |
| I feel very proud of the Korean culture. | 1.7 | 3.3 | 5.0 | 28.1 | 18.8 | 28.1 | 15.2 | 5.04 | 1.390 |
| I feel most comfortable in the Korean culture. | 0.7 | 4.3 | 5.6 | 25.9 | 21.6 | 24.3 | 17.7 | 5.07 | 1.387 |
| I feel a strong attachment to the Korean culture. | 1.3 | 3.3 | 6.6 | 28.2 | 18.7 | 26.2 | 15.7 | 5.01 | 1.395 |
| I feel very proud to identify with Koreans. | 0.7 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 35.0 | 15.8 | 22.1 | 19.5 | 5.07 | 1.372 |
| I consider the Korean culture rich and precious. | 0.7 | 2.3 | 1.6 | 18.1 | 20.4 | 32.6 | 24.3 | 5.50 | 1.269 |
| ***Korean Identification*** | | | | | | | | **6.02** | **1.017** |
| I have the sentiment of "Korean". | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.3 | 12.1 | 16.4 | 34.8 | 33.4 | 5.80 | 1.212 |
| I consider myself to be Korean. | 0.3 | 1.0 | 0.7 | 7.9 | 11.8 | 28.3 | 50.0 | 6.15 | 1.103 |
| I would like to be known as "Korean" by people of Korean descent. | 1.3 | 0.3 | 0.7 | 9.5 | 11.5 | 26.2 | 50.5 | 6.10 | 1.197 |

Scale of 1 to 7: 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree

## 4.7   Travel Experience

This section presents the description of past travel experiences (i.e. the frequency, the length of stay, the type of arrangement and accommodation, and travel companions) and travel information sources for both Korean Australians and Koreans. In addition, a brief description is provided regarding whether Korean Australians feel any inconvenience in their holiday travelling related to language and culture. Chi-square tests for independence were attempted to provide some evidence of the influence of acculturation that may affect Korean Australians' travel behaviour. This statistical test was selected as the data were categorical. Table 4-19 provides the summary of travel experience information for the two groups. The hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

*There are differences in travel experiences between Korean Australians and Koreans in regard to*

H6-1:   *past frequency of international holidays*

H6-2:   *the average length of stay for international holidays*

H6-3:   *preferred type of arrangement for holidays overseas*

H6-4:   *past frequency of domestic holidays*

H6-5:   *the average length of stay for domestic holidays*

H6-6:   *preferred type of arrangement for domestic holidays*

H6-7:   *preferred type of accommodation*

H6-8:   *travel companions.*

The results of chi-square tests revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the two groups in relation to their past frequency of international/domestic holidays, the average length of stay for international/domestic

holidays, preferred type of arrangement for holidays overseas, accommodation, and travel companions ($p < .001$). Therefore, hypotheses 6-1, 6-2, 6-3, 6-4, 6-5, 6-7, 6-8 were accepted. The only variable that was not significantly different between the two groups was "preferred type of arrangement for domestic holidays" at $p < .05$. Hypothesis 6-6, therefore, was rejected.

Of those who have never travelled overseas, Koreans were more highly represented than Korean Australians. Of those who did travel overseas, Korean Australians were much more likely to travel one/two times per year than their Korean counterparts. In respect of overseas travel, Koreans were much more likely to take a holiday of six days or less than Korean Australians. By comparison, Korean Australians were much more likely to take a longer overseas holiday than Koreans. In most cases, Korean Australians were more likely to report higher frequencies and longer lengths of holidays overseas than Koreans. In contrast, Koreans were more likely to report higher frequencies of domestic holidays; however, the average length of stay for domestic holidays was likely to be shorter than Korean Australians. With regard to preferred type of arrangements for holidays overseas, more than half of the Korean respondents answered that they preferred a package tour through a travel agency. In contrast, more than half of Korean Australian respondents replied that "making their own travel plans and bookings themselves" was their preferred type of arrangement. Korean Australians were more likely to stay in a hotel, while Koreans were more likely to stay in a condominium/apartment while travelling. Koreans were more likely to travel with their friends than Korean Australians, although family was the most frequent travel companion of both groups. These differences provide some evidence of the influence of acculturation on travel behaviour.

**Table 4-19    Comparison of Travel Experiences between Korean**

**Australian and Korean Samples**

| Dependent Variables | Category | Korean Australians | | Koreans | | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | N | % | N | % | |
| Frequency of holidays overseas χ² (5) = 75.97 | Never | 39 | 12.9 | 139 | 42.8 | 0.000* |
| | Less than once a year | 118 | 38.9 | 102 | 16.2 | |
| | Once a year | 70 | 23.1 | 36 | 11.1 | |
| | Twice a year | 49 | 16.2 | 25 | 7.7 | |
| | 3 times a year | 15 | 5.0 | 11 | 3.4 | |
| | 4 or more times a year | 12 | 4.0 | 12 | 3.7 | |
| | **Total** | **303** | **100** | **325** | **100** | |
| Average length of holidays overseas χ² (3) = 99.31 | 1 - 2 days | 18 | 6.5 | 27 | 14.0 | 0.000* |
| | 3 - 6 days | 67 | 24.1 | 120 | 62.2 | |
| | 1 - 2 weeks | 102 | 36.7 | 34 | 17.6 | |
| | 3 weeks or more | 91 | 32.7 | 12 | 6.2 | |
| | **Total** | **278** | **100** | **193** | **100** | |
| Arrangement of holidays overseas χ² (3) = 92.76 | Package tour through a travel agency | 54 | 18.6 | 125 | 53.6 | 0.000* |
| | Asking a travel agency to design their own package tour | 22 | 7.6 | 33 | 14.2 | |
| | Making my own travel plans and bookings myself | 159 | 54.6 | 57 | 24.5 | |
| | Only making a booking for transportation and no specific plan for trip | 56 | 19.2 | 18 | 7.7 | |
| | **Total** | **291** | **100** | **233** | **100** | |
| Frequency of domestic holidays χ² (4) = 98.76 | Never | 34 | 11.2 | 12 | 3.7 | 0.000* |
| | Less than once a year | 119 | 39.1 | 42 | 12.9 | |
| | 1-2 times a year | 81 | 26.6 | 100 | 30.8 | |
| | 3-4 times a year | 51 | 16.8 | 88 | 27.1 | |
| | More than 5 times a year | 19 | 6.3 | 83 | 25.5 | |
| | **Total** | **304** | **100** | **325** | **100** | |
| Average length of domestic holidays χ² (2) = 110.34 | 1 - 2 days | 78 | 27.2 | 211 | 66.4 | 0.000* |
| | 3 - 6 days | 148 | 51.6 | 99 | 31.1 | |
| | 1 week or more | 61 | 21.3 | 8 | 2.5 | |
| | **Total** | **287** | **100** | **318** | **100** | |

| Dependent Variables | Category | Korean Australians | | Koreans | | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | N | % | N | % | |
| Arrangement of domestic holidays $\chi^2 (3) = 4.82$ | Package tour through a travel agency | 28 | 9.6 | 22 | 7.1 | 0.185 |
| | Asking a travel agency to design their own package tour | 22 | 7.5 | 13 | 4.2 | |
| | Making my own travel plans and bookings myself | 198 | 67.6 | 229 | 73.9 | |
| | Only making a booking for transportation and no specific plan for trip | 45 | 15.4 | 46 | 14.8 | |
| | **Total** | **293** | **100** | **310** | **100** | |
| Type of accommodation $\chi^2 (3) = 52.19$ | Hotel | 110 | 36.3 | 47 | 14.7 | 0.000* |
| | Motel | 69 | 22.8 | 67 | 20.9 | |
| | Condominium/Apartment | 69 | 22.8 | 145 | 45.3 | |
| | Other (Camping, Backpackers, Friend's House, Tourist Home, etc.) | 55 | 18.2 | 61 | 19.1 | |
| | **Total** | **303** | **100** | **320** | **100** | |
| Travel companion $\chi^2 (3) = 21.97$ | Alone | 21 | 7.0 | 17 | 5.3 | 0.000* |
| | With family | 199 | 66.3 | 180 | 56.4 | |
| | With friends | 43 | 14.3 | 95 | 29.8 | |
| | With partner | 37 | 12.3 | 27 | 8.5 | |
| | **Total** | **300** | **100** | **319** | **100** | |

*Significant level at $p < .001$
Missing values are not calculated in percentage (%).
Total percentages may not equal 100 due to rounding.

To investigate the influence of acculturation in the use of travel information sources, chi-square tests were used to compare Korean Australians, the acculturated group, with Koreans, the unacculturated group in relation to Australian culture. The proposed hypothesis is as follows:

H6-9: *There is a difference in the use of travel information sources between Korean Australians and Koreans.*

Multiple responses were accepted for the question which asked respondents to nominate information sources they used when planning travel. Table 4-20 provides the proportion of information sources of two groups. The results of chi-square tests indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the two groups on their information source about travel. Korean respondents showed that they got more travel information through the Internet than Korean Australians, although both countries are in the top ten countries in the world with the highest Internet penetration rate according to a report by Internet World Stats (2005). Koreans, however, tended to have less information through brochures and travel agencies than Korean Australians did. Therefore, hypothesis 6-9 was partially accepted.

**Table 4-20    Comparison of Travel Information Sources between Korean**

**Australian and Korean Samples**

| Category | Korean Australians | | Koreans | | Sig. | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | % | N | % | | |
| TV/Radio | 42 | 13.7 | 60 | 18.5 | 0.132 | 2.27 |
| Magazines/Newspapers | 90 | 29.4 | 91 | 28.0 | 0.761 | 0.09 |
| Internet | 112 | 36.6 | 179 | 55.1 | 0.000* | 20.91 |
| Brochures | 57 | 18.6 | 27 | 8.3 | 0.000* | 13.66 |
| Family/Friends | 95 | 31.0 | 119 | 36.6 | 0.164 | 1.94 |
| Travel agency | 65 | 21.2 | 37 | 11.4 | 0.001** | 10.59 |

*Significant level at $p < .001$
**Significant level at $p < .01$
Total percentages may not equal 100 due to multiple responses.

Three additional questions were asked of Korean Australians to find out whether there had been any change in the pattern of travelling since they came to Australia and whether they experienced any inconvenience in their holiday travel related to language and culture. The proposed hypothesis is presented below.

H7-1: *There is change in the frequency of travel since Korean Australians came to Australia.*

First, 54.4% of Korean Australians answered that they did not travel more than when they were in Korea. Therefore, hypothesis 7-1 was rejected as more than half of Korean Australians showed no change of frequency of travel in Australia compared with when they were in Korea. Second, 39.0% of Korean Australians reported feeling some inconvenience due to language barriers while travelling in Australia. Finally, 37.4% of Korean Australians felt inconvenienced due to cultural barriers while travelling in Australia (see Table 4-21).

**Table 4-21    Travel Experiences and Inconveniences of Korean Australian**

| Items | Yes<br>N (%) | No<br>N (%) | Total<br>N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Travelling more than when you were in Korea | 139 (45.6) | 166 (54.4) | 305 |
| Feeling inconvenience due to language barriers while travelling in Australia | 119 (39.0) | 186 (61.0) | 305 |
| Feeling inconvenience due to cultural barriers while travelling in Australia | 114 (37.4) | 191 (62.6) | 305 |

There was 1 missing value, which is not calculated in case and percentage (%).

Chi-square tests were conducted to test hypothesis 7-2 and hypothesis 7-3 as below.

H7-2: *The frequency of travel since Korean Australians came to Australia is negatively related to language barriers of Korean Australians.*

H7-3: *The frequency of travel since Korean Australians came to Australia is negatively related to cultural barriers (cultural differences) of Korean Australians.*

Table 4-22 shows the change of the frequency of travelling due to language and cultural barriers of Korean Australians. It was revealed that there were significant differences on language barriers and the frequency of travelling [$\chi^2$ (1, N = 305) = 4.237, $p < 0.05$]. Those Korean Australians who reported no language barriers tended to report substantially more travel than those who reported language barriers. Therefore, hypothesis 7-2 was accepted. However, there was no significant difference on cultural barriers and the frequency of travelling [$\chi^2$ (1, N = 305) = 1.120] at $p < .05$, which means hypothesis 7-3 was rejected.

**Table 4-22    Relationship between the Frequency of Travelling and Language Barrier/Cultural Barrier among Korean Australian**

| Dependent Variables | Category | More Travelling | | Less Travelling | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | N | % | N | % | Sig. |
| Language Barrier | Yes | 45 | 32.4 | 74 | 44.6 | 0.040* |
| | No | 94 | 67.6 | 92 | 55.4 | |
| Cultural Barrier | Yes | 47 | 33.8 | 67 | 40.4 | 0.290 |
| | No | 92 | 66.2 | 99 | 59.6 | |

*Significant level at $p < .05$

## 4.8    Summary of Findings

The summary of findings in this chapter is presented in Table 4-23. The results of analyses indicated that there were differences on travel lifestyle and behaviour between the two groups of samples. However, it was an unexpected result that demographic variables had weak associations with travel lifestyle and behaviour for both groups of respondents. Furthermore, there were no interaction effects of demographic variables and country of residence for travel lifestyle and behaviour.

Only one of the factors of personal values – "life values"- showed a difference between the two groups. Koreans were more likely to hold strong "life values" than Korean Australians. However, there were no differences on "community values" and "social values" between the groups.

In terms of sensation-seeking behaviour, the test indicated a difference on the "intensity"-seeking behaviour between the two groups. However, there was no difference on "novelty"-seeking behaviour. Koreans were more likely to have a higher tendency of "intensity"-seeking behaviour than Korean Australians.

There were noticeable differences on actual travel experiences and information sources between the two groups. Korean Australians were more likely to have frequent international travel with a long stay arranged by themselves. In terms of domestic travel, Koreans were more likely to have frequent travel with a short stay arranged by themselves. The preferred accommodation of Korean Australians was hotels followed by motels and condominium/apartments, while Koreans preferred to stay in condominium/apartments followed by motels. In regard to travel companions,

Koreans showed a higher tendency of travelling with their friends than Korean Australians. The result revealed that language barriers may reduce the frequency of travel of Korean Australians. However, cultural barriers were less likely to have an influence on travel.

In the next chapter, multiple regression analyses are performed to test the majority of hypotheses, where travel lifestyle and behaviour factors were the dependent measures, and sensation-seeking behaviour, personal values and acculturation were the predictor variables.

**Table 4-23    Summary of the Relationship between Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour, Personal Values, Sensation-Seeking Behaviour and Country of Residence**

|  | Country of Residence |
|---|:---:|
| *Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour\** | |
| Shopping | + |
| Travel Interest | - |
| Openness to Experiences | - |
| Predictable and Planned | - |
| Group Security | + |
| Information | + |
| Sports | + |
| Resources (time/money) | - |
| *Personal Values\*\** | |
| Community Values | - |
| Social Values | - |
| Life Values | + |
| *Sensation-seeking Behaviour\*\*\** | |
| Novelty | - |
| Intensity | + |
| *Travel experiences\*\*\*\** | |
| Frequency of holidays overseas | + |
| Average length of holidays overseas | + |
| Arrangement of holidays overseas | + |
| Frequency of domestic holidays | + |
| Average length of domestic holidays | + |
| Arrangement of domestic holidays | - |
| Type of accommodation | + |
| Travel companion | + |

\+ Indicates a significant difference between the two groups
\*Significant level at *p* < .006 following Bonferroni correction
\*\*Significant level at *p* < .017 following Bonferroni correction
\*\*\*Significant level at *p* < .025 following Bonferroni correction
\*\*\*\*Significant level at *p* < .001

# CHAPTER FIVE

# PREDICTION OF TRAVEL LIFESTYLE AND

# BEHAVIOUR

## 5.1   Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to examine whether travel lifestyle and behaviour are related to personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour and acculturation. In order to investigate these relationships, multiple regression analyses were applied. The general purpose of multiple regression analysis is to analyse the relationship between a dependent or criterion variable and several independent or predictor variables (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998; Pedhazur, 1982; Shavelson, 1996). The advantage of multiple regression analysis is that it allows determination of the independent contributions of each predictor variable in a model by allowing for partitioning of variance.

Prior to each multiple regression analysis, assumptions of the analysis were assessed by examining normal probability plots of residuals and scatter diagrams of residuals versus predicted residuals for suitability of data analysis. No violations of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of residuals were detected. Outliers were checked by inspecting the Mahalanobis distances and any detected outliers were deleted. Multicollinearity was examined using variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance which indicates the amount of variability of the selected independent variable not explained by the other independent variables (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). The tolerance values of all variables were acceptable as above 0.45 and the VIF values were less than 2.3. In addition to the variance inflation factor (VIF)

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and the tolerance values, multicollinearity was also examined by testing the correlations between the dependent variables and the independent variables using the Pearson correlation coefficient. These correlations are presented with the results of each regression analysis.

Prior to examining these relationships, the influence of acculturation on personal values was examined to investigate direct and indirect influences of acculturation on travel lifestyle and behaviour through personal values. The previous review of literature specified that acculturation primarily influences personal values, and then personal values influence lifestyle and behaviour, as discussed in Chapter 2. In addition, another key issue of this study is to explore the differences of travel lifestyle and behaviour between Koreans and Korean Australians on the assumption that social environment (the country of residence) influences consumer behaviour in relation to travel. Thus, a set of independent variables such as personal values, acculturation, and sensation-seeking behaviour were applied as the predictors to find out the differences of travel lifestyle and behaviour between the two groups by multiple regression analyses.

## 5.2   Predicting Personal Values by Acculturation

Multiple regressions were performed to investigate whether acculturation had a significant impact on personal values. In the previous chapter, the eighteen statements of personal values were subjected to factor analysis and reduced to three factors, which were termed "community values" – consideration for community; "social values" – concern about social feeling and wants; and "life values" – interest in personal desire and wants. Three separated regressions were conducted using each

factor of personal values (dependent variables) and the six factors of acculturation (independent variables), which were "English language use", "food and traditional holiday", "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure", "Australian attachment and identification", "Korean attachment" and "Korean identification". Prior to regression analysis, as shown in Table 5-1, the correlation between acculturation and personal values was examined.

**Table 5-1     Correlation between Acculturation and Personal Values**

| Factors | English Language Use | Food and Traditional Holiday | Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | Australian Attachment and Identification | Korean Attachment | Korean Identification |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Community Values | .007 | .142* | .079 | .072 | .178** | .249*** |
| Social Values | .097 | .103* | .199** | .040 | .170** | .165** |
| Life Values | .105* | -.013 | .299*** | .173** | .062 | .085 |

\* Significant level at $p < .05$
\*\* Significant level at $p < .01$
\*\*\* Significant level at $p < .001$

The following proposed hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analysis:

H8:     *Acculturation is a predictor of the personal values of Korean Australians.*

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the model for "community values". Table 5-2 displays the result of the test with R square ($R^2$), observed F (F), degrees of freedom (df), the unstandardised regression coefficients (B), the standardised regression coefficients (Beta), and *p* value. The result showed 8.5% (6.3% adjusted) of the variability in the community values was predicted by the six

factors of acculturation. In spite of the fact that the six factors of acculturation significantly predicted "community values", only the independent variable "Korean identification" (t = 2.80, $p < .01$) was found to be a significant variable in the model. The respondents who responded by indicating a high level of Korean identification were more likely to have strong "community values". The other independent variables, which were "English language use", "food and traditional holiday", "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure", "Australian attachment and identification", and "Korean attachment", were not significant at $p < .05$.

**Table 5-2    Standard Multiple Regression Analyses of Acculturation**

**Predicting Community Values**

| Independent Variable | B | SE | Beta | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| $R^2 = 0.085$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.063$, F (df) = 3.98 (6, 258), P = 0.001** | | | | |
| Constant no. | 4.661 | .344 | | .000* |
| English Language Use | -.043 | .049 | -.073 | .379 |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | .064 | .036 | .110 | .075 |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | .081 | .048 | .147 | .092 |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | .009 | .041 | .015 | .825 |
| Korean Attachment | .014 | .055 | .019 | .807 |
| Korean Identification | .166 | .059 | .215 | .006** |

*Significant level at $p < .001$
**Significant level at $p < .01$

Multiple regression analysis was also performed to examine the predictability of the six dimensions of acculturation on "social values". The result indicated that overall 8.9% (6.8% adjusted) of variability in social values was predicted by the six factors of acculturation. Although the six dimensions of acculturation significantly predicted "social values", only one independent variable "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure" (t = 3.34, $p < .01$) was found to be a significant variable in the model. The respondents who responded with a high level of Australian social interaction and mass media exposure were more likely to have high "social values". The other five independent variables, "English language use", "food and traditional holiday", "Australian attachment and identification", "Korean attachment" and "Korean identification" were not significant at $p < .01$. Table 5-3 presents the results of regression analysis.

**Table 5-3    Standard Multiple Regression Analyses of Acculturation Predicting Social Values**

| Independent Variable | B | SE | Beta | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| $R^2 = 0.089$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.068$, F (df) = 4.27 (6, 262), P = 0.000* | | | | |
| Constant no. | 4.404 | .409 | | .000* |
| English Language Use | -.052 | .059 | -.072 | .385 |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | .070 | .043 | .101 | .101 |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | .193 | .058 | .287 | .001** |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | -.059 | .049 | -.079 | .231 |
| Korean Attachment | .066 | .066 | .078 | .322 |
| Korean Identification | .103 | .071 | .111 | .149 |

*Significant level at p < 0.001
**Significant level at p < 0.01

In terms of "life values", the result of multiple regression analysis indicates that overall 12.4% (10.4% adjusted) of variability was significantly predicted by the six factors of acculturation (see Table 5-4). However, two independent variables, "English language use" (t = -2.33, $p < .05$) and "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure" (t = .421, $p < .001$), were significant variables in the model. The respondents who responded with a high level of Australian social interaction and mass media exposure and a high level of English language use were more likely to have strong "life values". The other four independent variables, which were "food and traditional holiday", "Australian attachment and identification", "Korean attachment" and "Korean identification", were not significant at $p < .05$.

As a result of the three multiple regression analyses, a limited number of indicators of acculturation had a relationship to the three value dimensions. First, it appears that "community values" is not affected by acculturation but remains closely aligned with the respondent's sense of "Korean identification". In contrast, the other two values, "social values" and "life values", are associated with some aspects of acculturation. "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure" seems to be strongly associated with both "social values" and "life values". It appears that those who engage in social interaction with other Australians and are exposed to the local mass media also rate higher "social values" and "life values". The use of English language was also positively related to the evaluation of "life values". Furthermore, it is acknowledged that the acculturation variables did not tend to explain a large portion of the variance for any of the three personal values dimensions. Thus, it must be assumed that other factors are likely to determine values. In summary, "Korean identification" predicted "community values", "Australian social interaction and mass

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media exposure" predicted "social values", and "English language use" together with "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure" predicted "life values".

**Table 5-4     Standard Multiple Regression Analyses of Acculturation Predicting Life Values**

| Independent Variable | B | SE | Beta | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| $R^2 = 0.124$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.104$, F (df) = 6.13 (6, 260), P = 0.000* | | | | |
| Constant no. | 4.079 | .439 | | .000* |
| English Language Use | -.149 | .064 | -.189 | .020** |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | .010 | .046 | .013 | .829 |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | .309 | .062 | .421 | .000* |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | .057 | .053 | .070 | .282 |
| Korean Attachment | -.072 | .071 | -.078 | .312 |
| Korean Identification | .129 | .077 | .127 | .095 |

*Significant level at $p < .001$
**Significant level at $p < .05$

## 5.3   Predicting Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour by Personal Values

The eight factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour (dependent variables) and the three factors of personal values (independent variables) were utilised to explore whether personal values have an influence on travel lifestyle and behaviour, using standard multiple regression analysis. The correlation between personal values and travel lifestyle and behaviour was also examined prior to regression analysis. Table 5-5 presents the Pearson correlation coefficients between the variables.

**Table 5-5 Correlation between Personal Values and Travel Lifestyle and**

**Behaviour**

| Factors | Community Values | Social Values | Life Values |
|---|---|---|---|
| Shopping | .068 | .137** | .122** |
| Travel Interest | .183*** | .172*** | .153*** |
| Openness to Experiences | .243*** | .207*** | .247*** |
| Predictable and Planned | .162*** | .106** | .096** |
| Group Security | .053 | .022 | -.010 |
| Information | -.058 | -.003 | .032 |
| Sports | -.018 | .038 | .095** |
| Resources (time/money) | .075* | .106** | .062 |

* Significant level at $p < .05$
** Significant level at $p < .01$
*** Significant level at $p < .001$

The following proposed hypotheses were tested using multiple regression analyses:

*Personal values are predictors of the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour*

*of*

H9-1: *"shopping"*

H9-2: *"travel interest"*

H9-3: *"openness to experiences"*

H9-4: *"predictable and planned"*

H9-5: *"group security"*

H9-6: *"information"*

H9-7: *"sports"*

H9-8: *"resources (time/money)"*.

The result of regression analyses revealed that personal values significantly predicted five factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour, which were "shopping", "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", and "sports". Table 5-6 presents R square ($R^2$), adjusted R square, observed F (F), degrees of freedom (df), the unstandardised regression coefficients (B), the standardised regression coefficients (Beta), and *p* value for each variable. The travel lifestyle and behaviour of "shopping" was only significantly predicted by "social values" (t = 2.24, *p* < .05), and the respondents who responded with a high level of social values were more likely to report engaging in "shopping" behaviour including buying souvenirs for friends and relatives. "Community values" was found to be a significant variable that predicted the travel lifestyle and behaviour of "travel interest" (t = 2.03, *p* < .05) and "predictable and planned" behaviour (t = 2.80, *p* < .01). It showed that the respondents who responded with a high level of community values were more likely to report preferences for both "travel interest" and "predictable and planned". In terms of travel lifestyle and behaviour, "openness to experiences", "community values" (t = 2.95, *p* < .01) and "life values" (t = 3.60, *p* < .001) were found to be significant variables. The respondents who responded with a high level of "community values" and "life values" were more likely to report a tendency toward "openness to experiences". On the other hand, "life values" (t = 2.47, *p* < .05) was found to be the only significant variable that predicted the "sports" travel lifestyle and behaviour. The respondents with a high level of "life values" were more likely to report a preference for "sports" activities while travelling. Therefore, hypotheses 9-1, 9-2, 9-3, 9-4 and 9-7 were supported by the findings. However, the other three factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour did not turn out to be significant in the model. Hypotheses 9-5, 9-6, and 9-8 were, thus, not supported. The regression equations did not explain a large part of

the variance. They suggest factors other than personal values predict travel lifestyle and behaviour. In summary, different aspects of respondents' values predicted different travel lifestyle and behaviour. "Community values" and "life values" seemed to predict more of the variation of travel lifestyle and behaviour than "social values".

**Table 5-6    Standard Multiple Regression of Personal Values on Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour**

| Independent Variable | B | SE | Beta | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Predicting "Shopping"* | | | | |
| [R² = 0.024, Adjusted R² = 0.019, F (df) = 4.60 (3, 565), P = 0.003**] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 3.173 | .442 | | .000*** |
| Community Values | -.076 | .089 | -.047 | .390 |
| Social Values | .174 | .077 | .126 | .025* |
| Life values | .093 | .057 | .080 | .103 |
| *Predicting "Travel Interest"* | | | | |
| [R² = 0.042, Adjusted R² = 0.037, F (df) = 8.71 (3, 591), P = 0.000***] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 2.700 | .462 | | .000*** |
| Community Values | .190 | .094 | .107 | .043* |
| Social Values | .102 | .081 | .069 | .207 |
| Life values | .090 | .060 | .071 | .132 |
| *Predicting "Openness to Experiences"* | | | | |
| [R² = 0.084, Adjusted R² = 0.079, F (df) = 18.11 (3, 592), P = 0.000***] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 2.583 | .420 | | .000*** |
| Community Values | .249 | .084 | .151 | .003** |
| Social Values | .042 | .073 | .031 | .562 |
| Life values | .194 | .054 | .165 | .000*** |
| *Predicting "Predictable and Planned"* | | | | |
| [R² = 0.027, Adjusted R² = 0.022, F (df) = 5.38 (3, 582), P = 0.001**] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 3.510 | .399 | | .000*** |
| Community Values | .222 | .079 | .149 | .005** |
| Social Values | -.001 | .068 | .-001 | .989 |
| Life values | .033 | .051 | .031 | .517 |
| *Predicting "Group Security"* | | | | |
| [R² = 0.004, Adjusted R² = -0.001, F (df) = 0.83 (3, 589), P = 0.476] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 3.530 | .513 | | .000*** |
| Community Values | .142 | .104 | .074 | .173 |
| Social Values | -.007 | .090 | -.004 | .937 |
| Life values | -.057 | .067 | -.041 | .395 |
| *Predicting "Information"* | | | | |
| [R² = 0.008, Adjusted R² = 0.003, F (df) = 1.57 (3, 583), P = 0.196] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 4.490 | .439 | | .000*** |
| Community Values | -.172 | .088 | -.105 | .051 |
| Social Values | .044 | .076 | .032 | .561 |
| Life values | .074 | .057 | .063 | .193 |
| *Predicting "Sports"* | | | | |
| [R² = 0.015, Adjusted R² = 0.010, F (df) = 2.90 (3, 586), P = 0.035*] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 3.045 | .572 | | .000*** |
| Community Values | -.207 | .116 | -.096 | .075 |
| Social Values | .069 | .100 | .038 | .490 |
| Life values | .183 | .074 | .120 | .014* |

| Independent Variable | B | SE | Beta | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **_Predicting "Resources (time/money)"_** | | | | |
| [R² = 0.011, Adjusted R² = 0.006, F (df) = 2.27 (3, 587), P = 0.080] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 2.859 | .494 | | .000*** |
| Community Values | .018 | .100 | .010 | .854 |
| Social Values | .146 | .086 | .094 | .091 |
| Life values | .015 | .064 | .011 | .819 |

*Significant level at $p < .05$
**Significant level at $p < .01$
***Significant level at $p < .001$

# 5.4   Predicting   Travel   Lifestyle   and   Behaviour   by Acculturation

In this section, correlation analysis between acculturation and travel lifestyle and behaviour was conducted to test the relationship between the variables (see Table 5-7), followed by multiple regression analyses to explore the contribution of acculturation in predicting travel lifestyle and behaviour of Korean Australians.

**Table 5-7       Correlation between Acculturation and Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour**

| Factors | English Language Use | Food and Traditional Holiday | Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | Australian Attachment and Identification | Korean Attachment | Korean Identification |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Shopping | .000 | .185** | -.002 | -.013 | -.045 | -.093 |
| Travel Interest | -.053 | -.030 | -.009 | .073 | .093 | .136* |
| Openness to Experiences | .059 | .001 | .145** | .209*** | .152** | .138* |
| Predictable and Planned | .059 | .071 | .013 | .186** | .145** | .154** |
| Group Security | -.197** | .126* | -.350*** | -.113* | .130* | .087 |
| Information | -.111* | .087 | -.159** | -.059 | -.043 | -.036 |
| Sports | .097 | .075 | .071 | .103* | .187** | .063 |
| Resources (time/money) | .025 | .090 | .093 | .088 | .074 | -.034 |

* Significant level at $p < .05$
** Significant level at $p < .01$
*** Significant level at $p < .001$

In the multiple regression analyses, the eight factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour were used as the dependent variables and the six factors of acculturation were used as the independent variables. The proposed hypotheses are as follows.

*Level of acculturation significantly predicts the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour of*

H10-1:     *"shopping"*

H10-2:     *"travel interest"*

H10-3:     *"openness to experiences"*

H10-4:     *"predictable and planned"*

H10-5:     *"group security"*

H10-6:     *"information"*

H10-7:     *"sports"*

H10-8:     *"resources (time/money)"*.

Regression analyses showed that the level of acculturation significantly predicted the five factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour, which were "shopping", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", "group security", and "sports". The results of these regressions are presented in Table 5-8 including R square ($R^2$), adjusted R square, observed F (F), degrees of freedom (df), the unstandardised regression coefficients (B), the standardised regression coefficients (Beta), and *p* value for each variable. In terms of the travel lifestyle and behaviour of "shopping", the independent variable "food and traditional holiday" (t = 3.48, *p* < .01) was found to be the only significant variable to predict behaviour, which means the respondents who responded with a high preference for Korean food and enjoyment of Korean traditional holidays were more likely to report engaging in "shopping" behaviour. The

independent variable "Australian attachment and identification" was found to be the only variable significantly predicting the travel lifestyle and behaviour of "openness to experiences" (t = 2.33, $p$ < .05) and "predictable and planned" (t = 2.82, $p$ < .01). The respondents who reported high levels of Australian attachment and identification were more likely to report a tendency toward "openness to experiences" and a preference for "predictable and planned" travel. It is presumed that the reason for this tendency is due to the traits of immigrants, who are already open to something new such as rebuilding their life in a new country and assimilation into the Australian way of life that leads to high levels of Australian attachment and identification. A preference for "predictable and planned" travel seems to be important for independent travellers who seek to plan their own travel, thus providing more predictable and organised travel. Those with closer ties to Korean culture have a higher tendency toward group tours, similar to Koreans, as follows. The two independent variables "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure" (t = -5.23, $p$ < .001) and "Korean attachment" (t = 3.13, $p$ < .01) were found to be significant variables which predicted the travel lifestyle and behaviour of "group security". Korean Australians who responded with high levels of Korean attachment and low levels of Australian social interaction and mass media exposure were more likely to report a preference for "group security" such as group tours. In respect of the travel lifestyle and behaviour "sports", "Korean attachment" (t = 2.57, $p$ < .05) was the only significant variable, and those who responded with a high level of Korean attachment were more likely to report a preference for "sports" oriented holdidays. Thus, hypotheses 10-1, 10-3, 10-4, 10-5, and 10-7 were supported by the findings. But the six acculturation variables did not predict any significant variance in the other three factors of travel lifestyle and

behaviour – "travel interest", "information" and "resources (time/money)".

Hypotheses 10-2, 10-6, and 10-8 were, therefore, not accepted.

**Table 5-8     Standard Multiple Regression Analysis of Acculturation on**

**Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour**

| Independent Variable | B | SE | Beta | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Predicting "Shopping"* | | | | |
| [$R^2$ = 0.054, Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.032, F (df) = 2.42 (6, 253), P = 0.027*] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 4.296 | .520 | | .000*** |
| English Language Use | .007 | .075 | .008 | .930 |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | .191 | .055 | .221 | .001** |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | .019 | .074 | .023 | .798 |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | .003 | .062 | .003 | .963 |
| Korean Attachment | .014 | .085 | .013 | .873 |
| Korean Identification | -.171 | .091 | -.149 | .063 |
| *Predicting "Travel Interest"* | | | | |
| [$R^2$ = 0.033, Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.010, F (df) = 1.46 (6, 257), P = 0.192] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 4.015 | .563 | | .000*** |
| English Language Use | -.107 | .086 | -.108 | .216 |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | -.069 | .060 | -.074 | .249 |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | .020 | .081 | .023 | .801 |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | .081 | .071 | .079 | .256 |
| Korean Attachment | .018 | .093 | .016 | .849 |
| Korean Identification | .164 | .099 | .133 | .097 |
| *Predicting "Openness to Experiences"* | | | | |
| [$R^2$ = 0.067, Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.045, F (df) = 3.12 (6, 261), P = 0.006**] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 3.785 | .520 | | .000*** |
| English Language Use | -.069 | .076 | -.076 | .360 |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | -.003 | .055 | -.003 | .959 |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | .113 | .074 | .134 | .126 |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | .145 | .062 | .156 | .020* |
| Korean Attachment | .038 | .084 | .036 | .653 |
| Korean Identification | .117 | .091 | .100 | .197 |
| *Predicting "Predictable and Planned"* | | | | |
| [$R^2$ = 0.064, Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.042, F (df) = 2.91 (6, 254), P = 0.009**] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 3.566 | .484 | | .000*** |
| English Language Use | .086 | .069 | .105 | .214 |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | .046 | .050 | .057 | .362 |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | -.092 | .067 | -.122 | .170 |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | .160 | .057 | .191 | .005** |
| Korean Attachment | .024 | .077 | .025 | .754 |
| Korean Identification | .114 | .083 | .107 | .170 |

| Independent Variable | B | SE | Beta | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ***Predicting "Group Security"*** | | | | |
| [R² = 0.169, Adjusted R² = 0.149, F (df) = 8.79 (6, 260), P = 0.000***] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 3.705 | .558 | | .000*** |
| English Language Use | .095 | .082 | .092 | .248 |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | .051 | .059 | .051 | .387 |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | -.424 | .081 | -.441 | .000*** |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | -.019 | .067 | -.018 | .774 |
| Korean Attachment | .286 | .091 | .236 | .002** |
| Korean Identification | -.101 | .098 | -.076 | .300 |
| ***Predicting "Information"*** | | | | |
| [R² = 0.032, Adjusted R² = 0.009, F (df) = 1.41 (6, 256), P = 0.210] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 4.296 | .494 | | .000** |
| English Language Use | .002 | .072 | .003 | .974 |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | .060 | .052 | .074 | .247 |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | -.121 | .070 | -.155 | .087 |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | .009 | .059 | .011 | .879 |
| Korean Attachment | .005 | .080 | .005 | .949 |
| Korean Identification | -.066 | .086 | -.061 | .444 |
| ***Predicting "Sports"*** | | | | |
| [R² = 0.050, Adjusted R² = 0.028, F (df) = 2.25 (6, 257), P = 0.039*] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 1.455 | .703 | | .039* |
| English Language Use | .101 | .108 | .080 | .350 |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | .095 | .076 | .081 | .209 |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | -.025 | .100 | -.022 | .801 |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | .054 | .086 | .043 | .532 |
| Korean Attachment | .295 | .115 | .207 | .011* |
| Korean Identification | -.134 | .123 | -.086 | .276 |
| ***Predicting "Resources (time/money)"*** | | | | |
| [R² = 0.038, Adjusted R² = 0.016, F (df) = 1.70 (6, 258), P = 0.122] | | | | |
| Constant no. | 3.229 | .585 | | .000*** |
| English Language Use | -.079 | .085 | -.079 | .352 |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | .111 | .061 | .115 | .070 |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | .116 | .083 | .124 | .162 |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | .051 | .070 | .050 | .468 |
| Korean Attachment | .140 | .095 | .120 | .139 |
| Korean Identification | -.175 | .102 | -.136 | .086 |

*Significant level at *p* < .05
**Significant level at *p* < .01
***Significant level at *p* < .001

## 5.5 Predicting Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour by Sensation-seeking Behaviour

In order to investigate the relationship between the seven factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour (dependent variables) and the composite variables of sensation-seeking behaviour (independent variables), multiple regression analyses were conducted. Prior to multiple regressions, the correlation between sensation-seeking behaviour and travel lifestyle and behaviour was examined and presented in Table 5-9.

**Table 5-9    Correlation between Sensation-Seeking Behaviour and Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour**

| Factors | Novelty | Intensity |
|---|---|---|
| Shopping | .176** | .099* |
| Travel Interest | .398** | .028 |
| Openness to Experiences | .341** | -.015 |
| Predictable and Planned | .037 | -.178** |
| Group Security | -.066 | -.033 |
| Information | .061 | .049 |
| Sports | .204** | .265** |
| Resources (time/money) | .102* | .095* |

\* Significant level at $p < .01$
\*\* Significant level at $p < .001$

One of the travel lifestyle and behaviour factors "resources (time/money)" was excluded in this analysis as no relationship with sensation-seeking behaviour is presumed. The following are proposed hypotheses:

*Sensation-seeking behaviour is a predictor of the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour*

H11-1:  *"shopping"*

H11-2:  *"travel interest"*

H11-3:  *"openness to experiences"*

H11-4:  *"predictable and planned"*

H11-5:  *"group security"*

H11-6:  *"information"*

H11-7:  *"sports"*

The result of the regression analyses revealed that sensation-seeking behaviour significantly predicted five factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour, which were "shopping", "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", and "sports". Table 5-10 presents the results of multiple regression analyses. The result showed only the independent variable "novelty" (t = 3.59, $p < .001$) as being a significant variable to predict "shopping" behaviour in the model. The respondents who showed a high level of novelty-seeking behaviour were more likely to have a preference for "shopping" while travelling. On the other hand, both "novelty"- and "intensity"-seeking behaviour significantly predicted the four factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour - "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", and "sports". Respondents who showed a high level of novelty-seeking behaviour and a low level of intensity-seeking behaviour were more likely to report preferences for "travel interest", "openness to experiences", and "predictable and planned". Novelty is something that is new and therefore interesting, which is a common desirable feature of travelling. There is no doubt about a connection between

the factor of "travel interest", "openness to experiences", and novelty-seeking behaviour. The respondents with a high level of both novelty- and intensity-seeking behaviour were more likely to report having a preference for "sports" activities. Therefore, hypotheses 11-1, 11-2, 11-3, 11-4, and 11-7 were supported by the findings. However, two factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour – "group security", and "information" - were not significantly predicted by sensation-seeking behaviour. Thus, hypotheses 11-5, and 11-6 were rejected.

**Table 5-10    Standard Multiple Regression of Sensation-Seeking**

**Behaviour on Preferred Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour**

| Independent Variable | B | SE | Beta | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Predicting "Shopping"* | | | | |
| [$R^2$ = 0.032, Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.029, F (df) = 9.29 (2, 561), P = 0.000***] | | | | |
| (Constant) | 3.128 | .266 | | .000*** |
| Novelty | .368 | .103 | .162 | .000*** |
| Intensity | .073 | .093 | .035 | .437 |
| *Predicting "Travel Interest"* | | | | |
| [$R^2$ = 0.180, Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.177, F (df) = 63.88 (2, 584), P = 0.000***] | | | | |
| (Constant) | 2.691 | .258 | | .000*** |
| Novelty | 1.132 | .100 | .462 | .000*** |
| Intensity | -.355 | .092 | -.158 | .000*** |
| *Predicting "Openness to Experiences"* | | | | |
| [$R^2$ = 0.143, Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.140, F (df) = 48.68 (2, 584), P = 0.000***] | | | | |
| (Constant) | 3.731 | .243 | | .000*** |
| Novelty | .927 | .094 | .412 | .000*** |
| Intensity | -.371 | .087 | -.179 | .000*** |
| *Predicting "Predictable and Planned"* | | | | |
| [$R^2$ = 0.045, Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.042, F (df) = 13.61 (2, 575), P = 0.000***] | | | | |
| (Constant) | 5.227 | .234 | | .000*** |
| Novelty | .258 | .091 | .126 | .005** |
| Intensity | -.428 | .083 | -.228 | .000*** |
| *Predicting "Group Security"* | | | | |
| [$R^2$ = 0.004, Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.001, F (df) = 1.28 (2, 583), P = 0.278] | | | | |
| (Constant) | 4.559 | .310 | | .000*** |
| Novelty | -.168 | .121 | -.063 | .165 |
| Intensity | -.018 | .111 | -.007 | .870 |
| *Predicting "Information"* | | | | |
| [$R^2$ = 0.004, Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.001, F (df) = 1.30 (2, 575), P = 0.274] | | | | |
| (Constant) | 3.665 | .263 | | .000*** |
| Novelty | .111 | .102 | .050 | .276 |
| Intensity | .061 | .095 | .029 | .519 |
| *Predicting "Sports"* | | | | |
| [$R^2$ = 0.081, Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.078, F (df) = 25.61 (2, 580), P = 0.000***] | | | | |
| (Constant) | 1.096 | .333 | | .001** |
| Novelty | .344 | .130 | .115 | .009** |
| Intensity | .597 | .119 | .218 | .000*** |

**Significant level at *p* < .01
***Significant level at *p* < .001

## 5.6    Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses Findings

In this chapter, several multiple regression analyses were performed to test the predictability of variables such as personal values, acculturation and sensation-seeking behaviour on the eight factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour. The results of these data analyses are summarised in this section.

First, overall personal values were significantly predicted by the level of acculturation even though a small number of the independent variables (the dimension of personal values) contributed significantly to regression. The factor of acculturation "Korean identification" was the only significant factor to predict the "community values". The variable "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure" was a significant predictor of "social values". And the two factors "English language use" and "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure" were significant in predicting "life values".

Second, the level of acculturation significantly predicted the five factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour – "shopping", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", "group security and "sports".

Third, the five factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour, which were "shopping", "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned" and "sports", were significantly predicted by personal values.

Fourth, sensation-seeking behaviour significantly predicted the five factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour – "shopping", "travel interest", "openness to

experiences", "predictable and planned" and "sports". The results of each predictor variable for travel lifestyle and behaviour are summarised in Table 5-11.

In this chapter, two steps of analyses were attempted to examine the series of effects from acculturation to travel lifestyle and behaviour passing through personal values. It was presumed that the series of effects may decrease in the process of influence from acculturation to travel lifestyle and behaviour through personal values. However, the results revealed that overall predictability of travel lifestyle and behaviour by acculturation was stronger than the predictability of travel lifestyle and behaviour by personal values. It may be that there are many elements of influence on personal values other than acculturation.

Comparing the R square value of three multiple regression analyses using acculturation, personal values and sensation-seeking behaviour as the independent variables, sensation-seeking behaviour generally explained a higher percentage of variance in travel lifestyle and behaviour, followed by acculturation and personal values.

**Table 5-11    Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses Results**

| Factor | Values | | | Acculturation | | | | | | Sensation-seeking Behaviour | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Community Values | Social Values | Life Values | English Language Use | Food and Traditional Holiday | Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | Australian Attachment and Identification | Korean Attachment | Korean Identification | Novelty | Intensity |
| Shopping | - | + | - | - | + + | - | - | - | - | + + + | - |
| Travel Interest | + | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | + + + | + + + |
| Openness to Experiences | + + | - | + + + | - | - | - | + | - | - | + + + | + + + |
| Predictable and Planned | + + | - | - | - | - | - | + | - | - | + + | + + + |
| Group Security | - | - | - | - | - | + + + | - | + + | - | - | - |
| Information | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Sports | - | - | + | - | - | - | - | + | - | - | - |
| Resources (time/money) | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | + + | + + + |

+ Indicates variable that predict the variable of travel lifestyle and behaviour at *p* < .05 level

+ + Indicates variable that predict the variable of travel lifestyle and behaviour at *p* < .01 level

+ + + Indicates variable that predict the variable of travel lifestyle and behaviour at *p* < .001 level

## 5.7    Summary of the Results for the Predicted Hypotheses

In order to test the proposed hypotheses, a number of data analyses were utilised and presented through Chapters 4 and 5. Table 5-12 presents the results of the hypotheses tested in this study.

**Table 5-12    Summary of the Predicted Hypotheses**

| No. | Hypothesis | Result |
|---|---|---|
| H1 | There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans. | Partly accepted |
| H2 | There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour depending on demographic characteristics. | Partly accepted |
| H3 | There are differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans in the effect of demographic characteristics. | Rejected |
| H4 | There are differences in the personal values between Korean Australians and Koreans. | Partly accepted |
| H5 | There are differences in sensation-seeking behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans. | Partly accepted |
| H6 | There are differences in travel experiences between Korean Australians and Koreans. | Accepted |
| H7 | Travel behaviour in terms of trip frequency has increased for Korean Australians since leaving Korea. | Partly accepted |
| H8 | Acculturation is a predictor of the personal values of Korean Australians. | Accepted |
| H9 | Personal values are a predictor of the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour. | Partly accepted |
| H10 | Acculturation is a predictor of the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour of Korean Australians. | Partly accepted |
| H11 | Sensation-seeking behaviour is a predictor of the preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour. | Partly accepted |

# CHAPTER SIX

# CLUSTER ANALYSIS

## 6.1    Introduction

The objective of this study was to identify whether the two groups of Koreans have different travel lifestyle and behaviour. In this chapter, the aim was to segment the two groups of Koreans based on their response patterns to the set of travel lifestyle and behaviour statements, and to investigate the characteristics of the group respondents, which is the first step in the marketing procedure that groups potential customers into specific target markets with common characteristics. Therefore, the proposed hypothesis for this part of the study was: "There are differences among the clusters based on travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans (Hypothesis 12).

Cluster analysis, a term used to describe a group of multivariate techniques for developing meaningful subgroups of individuals or objects based on the similarity or association among the entities (Coakes and Steed, 1999; Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998), was performed to segment the two groups of Koreans into specific groups with similar responses based on the factor scores of eight travel lifestyle and behaviour factors reported in Chapter 4. It is quite common to apply a combined factor-cluster analysis that first reduces the set of variables and then clusters based on the reduced dimensions for segmenting markets (Becken, Simmons, & Frampton, 2003). Afterward, chi-square tests and one-way between groups ANOVAs, which aim to analyse the difference between two or more groups and to use the difference in

variables to classify the members, were performed using personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour, travel experiences and demographic variables with the clusters as the class variables.

In order to segment respondents to groups with similar travel lifestyle and behaviour, two-step cluster analysis was applied to gain the benefits of hierarchical and nonhierarchical methods. Prior to two-step cluster analysis, any outliers in the sample were identified using the Mahalanobis distances due to the substantial impact of outliers on hierarchical methods. Mahalanobis distances were measured by the multiple regression analysis, using the eight factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour as the independent variables, and the country of residence as the dependent variable. Seven cases had significant Mahalanobis distances ($\chi^2 = 26.125$, $p = 0.001$) and those were removed from hierarchical cluster analysis. In addition to these seven cases, eighty five cases, where respondents had not completely responded to all questions on travel lifestyle and behaviour, were excluded from the hierarchical cluster analysis because hierarchical cluster analysis only includes complete cases.

In the first step, hierarchical cluster analysis based on the travel lifestyle and behaviour factor scores was used to identify the appropriate number of clusters using Ward's method. The cluster procedure was undertaken using the aggregated data from both groups of Koreans that could then be used for comparative purposes in later analyses. Ward's method was used to minimise the increase in the total within-cluster error sum of square and to avoid problems with chaining of the observations found in the single linkage method (Everitt, Landau & Leese, 2001; Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). A series of solutions ranging from two clusters to six clusters were

examined to find the best solution. As a result of hierarchical cluster analyses, five clusters were identified with distinctive characteristics.

In the second step, K-mean cluster analysis was conducted to fine-tune using the hierarchical results as a basis for generating the seed points. K-mean cluster analysis resulted in five hundred and thirty nine respondents being grouped into five clusters which were termed "affluent group travellers", "low resource group travellers", "active independent travellers", "non-active independent travellers", and "low-interest travellers". ANOVA tests also indicated that all eight factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour make a significant contribution to differentiate the five clusters ($p < .001$). Table 6-1 presents the profile of the five clusters with the factor scores of travel lifestyle and behaviour and significant level of ANOVA tests.

Cluster 1: Affluent group travellers. This cluster represented 24.7%of the sample, and characterises travel enthusiasts who showed the highest cluster scores on "shopping", "group security", "information", and "resources (time/money)" among the five clusters, with no negative scores through the rest of the four cluster scores. The respondents in this cluster tend to be moderately interested in travel and they are more likely to be able to afford to enjoy shopping while travelling. Furthermore, this group tends to travel in groups, and experiences difficulty in deciding on holiday spots and gathering information on travel. This cluster corresponds with the second largest group among the five clusters.

Cluster 2: Low resource group travellers. This cluster represented 17.1% of the sample. The respondents in this cluster showed the lowest negative cluster score on

"openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", and "resources (time/money)" among the five clusters. The majority of cluster scores were negative, with the exception of the "group security" and "sports" cluster scores. That is, they were likely to not be interested in anything other than sports activities while travelling, and perceived themselves not able to afford to travel. However, when they travel they prefer group travel.

Cluster 3: <u>Active independent travellers</u>. This cluster represented 13.0% of respondents, which is the smallest group among the five clusters. The respondents in this cluster showed the highest cluster score on "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", and "sports". However, the cluster scores on "shopping", "group security", and "information" were negative. This group showed the most interest in travel among the five clusters. The respondents in this cluster were more likely to plan for travel, and be interested in any activities except shopping while travelling, but less likely to travel in a group.

Cluster 4: <u>Non-active independent travellers</u>. This cluster represented 29.5% of the sample, and the respondents in this cluster showed the lowest cluster scores on "shopping", and "sports". In general, this cluster showed negative cluster scores except for the "travel interest" and "information" cluster scores. This suggests that this group tends to be interested in travel, but is not interested in any activities such as new experiences, shopping, or sports activities. Perhaps they cannot afford to travel for some reason even though they are interested in travel, or they prefer to relax and go sightseeing rather than do something active. This cluster represented the largest group of respondents.

Cluster 5: <u>Low-interest travellers</u>. This cluster represented 15.8% of the sample, which is the second smallest cluster. The respondents in this cluster showed the lowest cluster score on "travel interest", and also negative cluster scores on "information" and "sports", but positive scores on "shopping", "openness to experiences" and "predictable". They were relatively neutral about "group security" and "resources (time/money)" factors. The respondents in this cluster were more likely to be disinterested in travel but strangely interested in new experiences. They tended to be well-planned for travel.

**Table 6-1      Cluster Analysis of Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour**

| Factor | Cluster | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Affluent Group Travellers | Low Resource Group Travellers | Active Independent Travellers | Non-active Independent Travellers | Low-interest Travellers | Sig. |
| Percentage of respondents (%) | 24.7 (N = 133) | 17.1 (N = 92) | 13.0 (N = 70) | 29.5 (N = 159) | 15.8 (N = 85) | |
| Shopping | 0.31 | -0.11 | -0.09 | -0.20 | 0.10 | 0.000* |
| Travel Interest | 0.32 | -0.16 | 0.55 | 0.41 | -1.48 | 0.000* |
| Openness to Experiences | 0.36 | -0.92 | 0.59 | -0.24 | 0.43 | 0.000* |
| Predictable and Planned | 0.03 | -0.21 | 0.30 | -0.13 | 0.29 | 0.000* |
| Group Security | 0.61 | 0.47 | -0.68 | -0.51 | 0.05 | 0.000* |
| Information | 0.58 | -0.12 | -0.92 | 0.19 | -0.23 | 0.000* |
| Sports | 0.25 | 0.69 | 0.78 | -0.73 | -0.45 | 0.000* |
| Resources (time/money) | 0.61 | -0.56 | 0.29 | -0.26 | -0.03 | 0.000* |

The cluster descriptors are based on the factor scores, which were derived from travel lifestyle and behaviour data and have a mean of zero, and standard deviation of one.
*Significant level at $p < .001$

In the following section, chi-square tests and ANOVAs were performed using variables such as demographic characteristics, travel experiences, the six factors of

acculturation, the three factors of personal values, and the two dimensions of sensation-seeking behaviour in order to investigate the characteristics of the five clusters.

## 6.2   Profiling the Clusters by Country of Residence

Chi-square tests were used to examine the differences in the clusters between Korean Australians and Koreans (see Table 6-2). The results showed that there were significant differences in the proportion of Korean Australians and Koreans between the five clusters. The higher proportion of Korean Australians was found in the "active independent travellers", "non-active independent travellers", and "low-interest travellers" clusters. Koreans were more likely to report travelling in groups, while Korean Australians were more likely to report travelling by themselves. The preference for group travel may be due to a language barrier or lack of experience of travel abroad. More Korean Australians tended to be less interested in travel than Koreans.

**Table 6-2     Comparison of the Clusters between Korean Australians and Koreans**

| Cluster | Korean Australians | | Koreans | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| $\chi^2 (4) = 24.00, p = 0.000*$ | N | % | N | % |
| Affluent Group Travellers | 45 | 17.1 | 88 | 31.9 |
| Low Resource Group Travellers | 38 | 14.4 | 54 | 19.6 |
| Active Independent Travellers | 42 | 16.0 | 28 | 10.1 |
| Non-active Independent Travellers | 87 | 33.1 | 72 | 26.1 |
| Low-interest Travellers | 51 | 19.4 | 34 | 12.3 |
| Total | 263 | 100 | 276 | 100 |

*Significant level at $p < .001$

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## 6.3    Profiling the Clusters by Demographic Characteristics

Demographic characteristics were utilised to investigate the differences between the five clusters. The data were split into two, based on the country of residence, in order to confirm whether the relationship assumes similar aspects for both groups. As shown in Table 6-3, in terms of Korean Australians, the chi-square tests revealed that the five clusters were significantly different with respect to two demographic characteristics, which were gender and age. The result revealed that the "low resource group travellers" cluster has a greater proportion of males than females. This cluster showed high interest in sports and group travel, but had less resources (time/money). The male respondents in this cluster tend to be interested in sports activity while travelling but they may be time-poor, so cannot afford the time to travel. The other four clusters have a higher proportion of females than males. The age group of 20 - 29 years was relatively dominant in the "non-active independent travellers" and "low-interest travellers" clusters. No statistically significant differences were found between the five clusters and demographic characteristics among the samples of Koreans.

**Table 6-3     The Relationship between Demographic Characteristics and**

**the Clusters**

| | Affluent Group Travellers | Low Resource Group Travellers | Active Independent Travellers | Non-active Independent Travellers | Low-interest Travellers |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N (% within cluster) | | | | |

### Korean Australians

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Gender* ($\chi^2$ = 15.65, df = 4, *p* = 0.004*) | | | | | |
| Male | 14 (31.1) | 25 (65.8) | 18 (42.9) | 30 (34.5) | 15 (29.4) |
| Female | 31 (68.9) | 13 (34.2) | 24 (57.1) | 57 (65.5) | 36 (70.6) |
| *Age* ($\chi^2$ = 21.29, df = 12, *p* = 0.046**) | | | | | |
| 20-29 years | 4 (8.9) | 7 (18.4) | 6 (14.3) | 24 (27.6) | 18 (35.3) |
| 30-39 years | 15 (33.3) | 18 (47.4) | 12 (28.6) | 30 (34.5) | 12 (23.5) |
| 40-49 years | 21 (46.7) | 8 (21.1) | 19 (45.2) | 26 (29.9) | 15 (29.4) |
| 50 years and over | 5 (11.1) | 5 (13.2) | 5 (11.9) | 7 (8.0) | 6 (11.8) |
| *Marital Status* ($\chi^2$ = 7.04, df = 4, *p* = 0.134) | | | | | |
| Single | 7 (15.6) | 7 (18.4) | 5 (11.9) | 25 (28.7) | 14 (27.5) |
| Married/De facto | 38 (84.4) | 31 (81.6) | 37 (88.1) | 62 (71.3) | 37 (72.5) |
| *Education* ($\chi^2$ = 11.05, df = 8, *p* = 0.199) | | | | | |
| Postgraduate (Masters or PhD) | 6 (13.3) | 0 (0.0) | 8 (19.5) | 15 (17.2) | 7 (14.3) |
| Bachelor Degree | 28 (62.2) | 29 (76.3) | 27 (65.9) | 61 (70.1) | 33 (67.3) |
| Senior High School or less | 11 (24.4) | 9 (23.7) | 6 (14.6) | 11 (12.6) | 9 (18.4) |

### Koreans

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Gender* ($\chi^2$ = 3.41, df = 4, *p* = 0.492) | | | | | |
| Male | 36 (40.9) | 24 (44.4) | 8 (28.6) | 32 (44.4) | 11 (32.4) |
| Female | 52 (59.1) | 30 (55.6) | 20 (71.4) | 40 (55.6) | 23 (67.6) |
| *Age* ($\chi^2$ = 13.20, df = 12, *p* = 0.355) | | | | | |
| 20-29 years | 15 (17.0) | 8 (14.8) | 6 (21.4) | 21 (29.2) | 6 (17.6) |
| 30-39 years | 28 (31.8) | 20 (37.0) | 9 (32.1) | 27 (37.5) | 15 (44.1) |
| 40-49 years | 28 (31.8) | 19 (35.2) | 10 (35.7) | 18 (25.0) | 6 (17.6) |
| 50 years and over | 17 (19.3) | 7 (13.0) | 3 (10.7) | 6 (8.3) | 7 (20.6) |
| *Marital Status* ($\chi^2$ = 9.39, df = 4, *p* = 0.052) | | | | | |
| Single | 22 (25.3) | 12 (22.2) | 7 (25.0) | 31 (43.1) | 8 (23.5) |
| Married/De facto | 65 (74.7) | 42 (77.8) | 21 (75.0) | 41 (56.9) | 26 (76.5) |
| *Education* ($\chi^2$ = 9.61, df = 8, *p* = 0.294) | | | | | |
| Postgraduate (Masters or PhD) | 11 (12.5) | 2 (3.7) | 3 (11.1) | 9 (12.5) | 1 (2.9) |
| Bachelor Degree | 39 (44.3) | 33 (61.1) | 16 (59.3) | 35 (48.6) | 16 (47.1) |
| Senior High School or less | 38 (43.2) | 19 (35.2) | 8 (29.6) | 28 (38.9) | 17 (50.0) |

Significant level at *p* < .01*, .05**

## 6.4    Profiling the Clusters by Personal Values

In order to examine the relationship between the three factors of personal values and the five clusters, three separate one-way between groups ANOVAs were applied for the two samples. The Bonferroni correction was applied to control for Type 1 error. The results of ANOVAs revealed that there were significant differences on community values and life values ($p < .017$) across the clusters with respect to the samples of Korean Australians (see Table 6-4). Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the "low resource group travellers" cluster (M = 5.85, SD = 0.89) was significantly different on community values from the "active independent travellers" cluster (M = 6.58, SD = 0.62) at $p < .001$. In terms of life values, the "low resource group travellers" cluster (M = 4.98, SD = 1.17) was significantly different from the "active independent travellers" cluster (M = 5.79, SD = 0.96, $p < 0.01$). The "low resource group travellers" cluster was likely to report having the lowest community values and life values, while the "active independent travellers" cluster was more likely to report holding the highest values of community values and life values than the other clusters.

On the other hand, the respondents in Korea displayed significant differences on social values and life values across the five clusters ($p < .017$). Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the "low resource group travellers" cluster (M = 5.76, SD = 0.92) was significantly different on social values from the clusters of "affluent group travellers" (M = 6.24, SD = 0.61, $p < .01$) and "active independent travellers" (M = 6.32, SD = 0.55, $p < .05$). With respect to life values, the "low resource group travellers" cluster (M = 5.38, SD = 0.95) was significantly different from the "affluent group travellers" cluster (M = 5.81,

SD = 0.76, $p < .05$). The "low resource group travellers" cluster tend to have lower social values and life values than the other clusters, while the "affluent group travellers" cluster tend to have relatively high social values and life values.

**Table 6-4    The Relationship between Personal Values and the Clusters**

| | Affluent Group Travellers | | | Low Resource Group Travellers | | | Active Independent Travellers | | | Non-active Independent Travellers | | | Low-interest Travellers | | | F(df) | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | | |
| **Korean Australians** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Community Values | 44 | 6.20 | 0.84 | 38 | 5.85[a] | 0.89 | 42 | 6.58[b] | 0.62 | 85 | 6.23 | 0.70 | 50 | 6.33 | 0.63 | 5.18 (4, 254) | 0.001* |
| Social Values | 45 | 6.03 | 0.87 | 38 | 5.75 | 0.89 | 42 | 6.21 | 0.78 | 86 | 6.00 | 0.80 | 49 | 6.02 | 0.98 | 1.47 (4, 255) | 0.213 |
| Life Values | 45 | 5.13 | 1.09 | 37 | 4.98[a] | 1.17 | 42 | 5.79[c] | 0.96 | 86 | 5.49 | 0.96 | 50 | 5.38 | 0.93 | 4.12 (4, 255) | 0.003* |
| **Koreans** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Community Values | 85 | 6.38 | 0.48 | 53 | 6.03 | 0.68 | 25 | 6.37 | 0.57 | 71 | 6.24 | 0.69 | 31 | 6.16 | 0.69 | 3.00 (4, 260) | 0.019 |
| Social Values | 88 | 6.24[c] | 0.61 | 53 | 5.76[a] | 0.92 | 28 | 6.32[d] | 0.55 | 71 | 6.03 | 0.83 | 34 | 5.85 | 0.94 | 4.59 (4, 269) | 0.001* |
| Life Values | 88 | 5.81[d] | 0.76 | 54 | 5.38[a] | 0.95 | 28 | 5.89 | 0.75 | 71 | 5.51 | 1.03 | 34 | 5.38 | 0.87 | 3.61 (4, 270) | 0.007* |

[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [b] variables at $p < .001$ level
[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [c] variables at $p < .01$ level
[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [d] variables at $p < .05$ level
Mean score was computed on the score of 7 scale (1 = very unimportant to 7 = very important)
*Significant level at $p < .017$ following Bonferroni correction

## 6.5  Profiling the Cluster by Sensation-seeking Behaviour

The relationships between the two dimensions of sensation-seeking behaviour and the five clusters were tested using a one-way between groups ANOVA for both groups. In regard to Korean Australians, the results showed that there was a significant difference on "novelty" across the five clusters at $p < .025$ after application of the Bonferroni correction to control for Type 1 error. No significant difference, however, was found among the clusters and "intensity"-seeking behaviour as shown in Table 6-5. Post-hoc tests revealed that the mean score for the "low resource group travellers" cluster (M = 2.40, SD = 0.54) was significantly different on social values from the clusters of "affluent group travellers" (M = 2.82, SD = 0.42) and "active independent travellers" (M = 2.84, SD = 0.53) clusters at $p < .01$. The "low resource group travellers" cluster was less likely to hold a preference for "novelty" seeking than the other clusters, while the "affluent group travellers" and "active independent travellers" clusters were more likely to report a preference for "novelty" seeking than the others.

In terms of Koreans, there was a significant difference in the "novelty" behaviour, but no difference in the "intensity" behaviour across the clusters at $p < .025$ in the same way as Korean Australians. Post-hoc tests showed that the mean score for the "active independent travellers" cluster (M = 3.01, SD = 0.47, $p < .05$) was significantly different on "novelty" from the other four clusters. The "active independent travellers" cluster was more likely to have a strong preference for "novelty" seeking than the other clusters, while the "low resource group travellers" cluster was less likely to report a preference for "novelty" seeking.

**Table 6-5     The Relationship between Sensation-Seeking Behaviour and the Clusters**

| | Affluent Group Travellers | | | Low Resource Group Travellers | | | Active Independent Travellers | | | Non-active Independent Travellers | | | Low-interest Travellers | | | F(df) | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | | |
| **Korean Australians** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Novelty | 44 | 2.82[c] | 0.42 | 37 | 2.40[a] | 0.54 | 42 | 2.84[c] | 0.53 | 83 | 2.60 | 0.54 | 49 | 2.52 | 0.49 | 5.81 (4, 250) | 0.000* |
| Intensity | 45 | 2.00 | 0.52 | 36 | 1.92 | 0.58 | 41 | 1.87 | 0.60 | 85 | 1.83 | 0.58 | 51 | 1.84 | 0.56 | 0.78 (4, 253) | 0.542 |
| **Koreans** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Novelty | 83 | 2.71[d] | 0.47 | 53 | 2.47[b] | 0.423 | 27 | 3.01[a] | 0.47 | 71 | 2.70[d] | 0.45 | 34 | 2.55[c] | 0.46 | 7.10 (4, 263) | 0.000* |
| Intensity | 84 | 2.12 | 0.52 | 53 | 2.06 | 0.61 | 27 | 2.05 | 0.56 | 72 | 1.95 | 0.57 | 33 | 1.98 | 0.47 | 1.10 (4, 264) | 0.358 |

[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [b] variables at $p < .001$ level
[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [c] variables at $p < .01$ level
[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [d] variables at $p < .05$ level
Mean score was computed on the score of 4 scale (1 = describes me very well to 4 = does not describe me at all)
*Significant level at $p < .025$ following Bonferroni correction

## 6.6    Profiling the Clusters by Travel Experiences

Chi-square analyses were performed to examine the relationship between the clusters and travel experiences. The tests were conducted separately for each group. With respect to the sample of Korean Australians, as shown in Table 6-6, the results showed significant differences on the number of times a holiday was taken overseas [$\chi^2$ (df) = 21.67 (8), $p < .01$] and the arrangement of overseas holidays [$\chi^2$ (df) = 15.88 (4), $p < .01$] across the clusters. Those Korean Australians who are frequent international travellers were more likely to be in the "active independent travellers" cluster, who also tend to arrange their holidays by themselves rather than through a travel agency, while the respondents in the "low resource group travellers" cluster were less likely to travel overseas than the other clusters. However, there were no significant differences on the frequency of domestic holidays, average length of international and domestic holidays, arrangement of domestic holidays, preferred type of accommodation and travelling companions.

In terms of the sample of Koreans, there were significant differences on the frequency of overseas holidays [$\chi^2$ (df) = 17.63 (8), $p < .05$], the arrangement of overseas holidays [$\chi^2$ (df) = 15.04 (4), $p < .01$], the frequency of domestic holidays [$\chi^2$ (df) = 29.76 (8), $p < .001$], and preferred type of accommodation [$\chi^2$ (df) = 23.60 (12), $p < .05$] across the clusters. Those Koreans who travel overseas once a year or more were more likely to be in the "affluent group travellers" and "non-active independent travellers" clusters. The respondents in the "affluent group travellers" cluster tend to arrange their travel overseas through a travel agency, while the "non-active independent travellers" cluster tend to arrange their travel equally through a travel agency or by themselves. While hotels were nominated as the most preferred

accommodation among the respondents in the "low-interest travellers" cluster, there was no dominant type of accommodation among the people in the "low resource group travellers" cluster. There were no significant differences on the average length of international and domestic holidays, the arrangement of domestic holidays, and travelling companions.

**Table 6-6    The Relationship between Travel Experiences and**

**the Clusters**

| | Korean Australians | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Affluent Group Travellers | Low Resource Group Travellers | Active Independent Travellers | Non-active Independent Travellers | Low-interest Travellers |
| | N (% within cluster) | | | | |
| *Frequency of international holidays* ($\chi^2 = 21.67$, df $= 8$, $p = 0.006**$) | | | | | |
| Less than once a year | 24 (54.5) | 27 (73.0) | 14 (33.3) | 44 (50.6) | 28 (56.0) |
| Once a year | 11 (25.0) | 5 (13.5) | 7 (16.7) | 22 (25.3) | 12 (24.0) |
| Twice a year or more | 9 (20.5) | 5 (13.5) | 21 (50.0) | 21 (24.1) | 10 (20.0) |
| *Average length of holidays overseas* ($\chi^2 = 7.15$, df $= 4$, $p = 0.128$) | | | | | |
| Less than a week | 15 (34.1) | 15 (48.4) | 8 (20.5) | 22 (27.8) | 13 (28.3) |
| 1 week or more | 29 (65.9) | 16 (51.6) | 31 (79.5) | 57 (72.2) | 33 (71.7) |
| *Arrangement of holidays overseas* ($\chi^2 = 15.88$, df $= 4$, $p = 0.003**$) | | | | | |
| Making arrangements through a travel agency | 17 (39.5) | 8 (22.2) | 2 (4.9) | 17 (21.0) | 15 (31.3) |
| Making arrangements by myself | 26 (60.5) | 28 (77.8) | 39 (95.1) | 64 (79.0) | 33 (68.8) |
| *Frequency of domestic holidays* ($\chi^2 = 13.62$, df $= 8$, $p = 0.092$) | | | | | |
| Less than once a year | 19 (42.2) | 22 (57.9) | 20 (47.6) | 38 (44.7) | 31 (60.8) |
| 1-2 times a year | 11 (24.4) | 13 (34.2) | 11 (26.2) | 30 (35.3) | 9 (17.6) |
| 3 times a year or more | 15 (33.3) | 3 (7.9) | 11 (26.2) | 17 (20.0) | 11 (21.6) |
| *Average length of domestic holidays* ($\chi^2 = 8.22$, df $= 8$, $p = 0.412$) | | | | | |
| 1 - 2 days | 10 (22.7) | 8 (22.9) | 16 (41.0) | 16 (19.5) | 13 (28.9) |
| 3-6 days | 22 (50.0) | 20 (57.1) | 16 (41.0) | 49 (59.8) | 23 (51.1) |
| 1 week or more | 12 (27.3) | 7 (20.0) | 7 (17.9) | 17 (20.7) | 9 (20.0) |
| *Arrangement of domestic holidays* ($\chi^2 = 5.31$, df $= 4$, $p = 0.257$) | | | | | |
| Making arrangements through a travel agency | 10 (22.2) | 8 (22.2) | 3 (7.3) | 11 (13.3) | 9 (18.8) |
| Making arrangements by myself | 35 (77.8) | 28 (77.8) | 38 (92.7) | 72 (86.7) | 39 (81.3) |
| *Type of accommodation* ($\chi^2 = 17.89$, df $= 12$, $p = 0.119$) | | | | | |
| Hotel | 16 (35.6) | 11 (29.7) | 16 (39.0) | 35 (40.7) | 16 (31.4) |
| Motel | 14 (31.1) | 11 (29.7) | 9 (22.0) | 13 (15.1) | 9 (17.6) |
| Condominium/Apartment | 9 (20.0) | 10 (27.0) | 11 (26.8) | 22 (25.6) | 8 (15.7) |
| Other (camping, backpackers, etc) | 6 (13.3) | 5 (13.5) | 5 (12.2) | 16 (18.6) | 18 (35.3) |
| *Travelling companion* ($\chi^2 = 11.46$, df $= 8$, $p = 0.177$) | | | | | |
| With family | 36 (80.0) | 22 (59.5) | 27 (65.9) | 55 (64.0) | 34 (68.0) |
| With friends | 5 (11.1) | 6 (16.2) | 2 (4.9) | 16 (18.6) | 8 (16.0) |
| Other (alone, with partner, etc.) | 4 (8.9) | 9 (24.3) | 12 (29.3) | 15 (17.4) | 8 (16.0) |

** Significant level at *p* < .01

| | Koreans | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Affluent Group Travellers | Low Resource Group Travellers | Active Independent Travellers | Non-active Independent Travellers | Low-interest Travellers |
| | N (% within cluster) | | | | |
| **Frequency of international holidays** ($\chi^2$ = 17.63, df = 8, $p$ = 0.024***) | | | | | |
| Less than once a year | 66 (75.0) | 43 (79.6) | 18 (64.3) | 52 (72.2) | 27 (79.4) |
| Once a year | 10 (11.4) | 0 (0.0) | 8 (28.6) | 9 (12.5) | 4 (11.8) |
| Twice a year or more | 12 (13.6) | 11 (20.4) | 2 (7.1) | 11 (15.3) | 3 (8.8) |
| **Average length of holidays overseas** ($\chi^2$ = 7.42, df = 4, $p$ = 0.115) | | | | | |
| Less than a week | 45 (80.4) | 22 (73.3) | 11 (52.4) | 27 (75.0) | 16 (84.2) |
| 1 week or more | 11 (19.6) | 8 (26.7) | 10 (47.6) | 9 (25.0) | 3 (15.8) |
| **Arrangement of holidays overseas** ($\chi^2$ = 15.04, df = 4, $p$ = 0.005**) | | | | | |
| Making arrangements through a travel agency | 56 (84.8) | 23 (65.7) | 16 (66.7) | 27 (51.9) | 14 (66.7) |
| Making arrangements by myself | 10 (15.2) | 12 (34.3) | 8 (33.3) | 25 (48.1) | 7 (33.3) |
| **Frequency of domestic holidays** ($\chi^2$ = 29.76, df = 8, $p$ = 0.000*) | | | | | |
| Less than once a year | 12 (13.6) | 13 (24.1) | 2 (7.1) | 9 (12.5) | 11 (32.4) |
| 1-2 times a year | 18 (20.5) | 21 (38.9) | 4 (14.3) | 28 (38.9) | 12 (35.3) |
| 3 times a year or more | 58 (65.9) | 20 (37.0) | 22 (78.6) | 35 (48.6) | 11 (32.4) |
| **Average length of domestic holidays** ($\chi^2$ = 4.82, df = 8, $p$ = 0.777) | | | | | |
| 1 - 2 days | 60 (69.0) | 34 (65.4) | 18 (64.3) | 47 (66.2) | 22 (66.7) |
| 3 - 6 days | 27 (31.0) | 17 (32.7) | 9 (32.1) | 22 (31.0) | 9 (27.3) |
| 1 week or more | 0 (0.0) | 1 (1.9) | 1 (3.6) | 2 (2.8) | 2 (6.1) |
| **Arrangement of domestic holidays** ($\chi^2$ = 8.29, df = 4, $p$ = 0.082) | | | | | |
| Making arrangements through a travel agency | 10 (11.5) | 9 (18.4) | 1 (3.6) | 4 (5.7) | 6 (19.4) |
| Making arrangements by myself | 77 (88.5) | 40 (81.6) | 27 (96.4) | 66 (94.3) | 25 (80.6) |
| **Type of accommodation** ($\chi^2$ = 23.60, df = 12, $p$ = 0.023***) | | | | | |
| Hotel | 20 (22.7) | 6 (11.3) | 3 (10.7) | 5 (7.0) | 2 (6.1) |
| Motel | 20 (22.7) | 13 (24.5) | 7 (25.0) | 19 (26.8) | 4 (12.1) |
| Condominium/Apartment | 40 (45.5) | 20 (37.7) | 16 (57.1) | 32 (45.1) | 20 (60.6) |
| Other (camping, backpackers, etc) | 8 (9.1) | 14 (26.4) | 2 (7.1) | 15 (21.1) | 7 (21.2) |
| **Travelling companion** ($\chi^2$ = 6.54, df = 8, $p$ = 0.587) | | | | | |
| With family | 54 (61.4) | 31 (57.4) | 20 (71.4) | 35 (48.6) | 17 (51.5) |
| With friends | 21 (23.9) | 17 (31.5) | 5 (17.9) | 24 (33.3) | 11 (33.3) |
| Other (alone, with partner, etc.) | 13 (14.8) | 6 (11.1) | 3 (10.7) | 13 (18.1) | 5 (15.2) |

Significant level at $p$ < .001*
Significant level at $p$ < .01**
Significant level at $p$ < .05***

## 6.7 Profiling the Clusters within Korean Australians by Acculturation

ANOVAs were applied to examine whether a relationship exists between the clusters and the level of acculturation. Thus, the five clusters were independent variables and the six dimensions of acculturation were the dependent variables. In order to control for Type 1 error, the Bonferroni correction was applied, so alpha was set at 0.008 (0.05/6). As shown in Table 6-7, ANOVAs revealed that there were significant differences on the dimensions of acculturation for "English language use" [F (df) = 5.21 (4, 243), $p < .008$], "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure" [F (df) = 4.05 (4, 254), $p < .008$] and "Australian attachment and identification" [F (df) = 6.38 (4, 253), $p < .008$] and no significant differences on the dimensions of "food and traditional holiday", "Korean attachment" and "Korean identification".

In order to assess the level of acculturation differences among the clusters of Korean Australian samples, post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test were used. The results indicated that the mean score for the "active independent travellers" cluster (M = 2.96, SD = 1.73) was significantly different from the clusters of "affluent group travellers" (M = 1.83, SD = 1.13, $p < .01$), "low resource group travellers" (M = 1.91, SD = 1.01, $p < .01$), and "non-active independent travellers" (M = 2.05, SD = 1.23, $p < .01$) with respect to "English language use". The respondents in the "active independent travellers" cluster were more likely to use English in their everyday life.

In terms of "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure", the mean score for the "active independent travellers" cluster (M = 3.81, SD = 1.60) was significantly different from the "affluent group travellers" (M = 2.92, SD = 1.42, $p$ < .05) and "low resource group travellers" (M = 2.67, SD = 1.16, $p$ < .01) clusters. The respondents in the "active independent travellers" cluster were more likely to report having "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure" than the other clusters, so they may get more and easier access to travel information.

The mean score of "Australian attachment and identification" for the "active independent travellers" cluster (M = 4.47, SD = 1.31) was significantly different from the "low resource group travellers" (M = 3.25, SD = 1.25, $p$ < .001) and "non-active independent travellers" (M = 3.63, SD = 1.08, $p$ < .01), which means the respondents in the "active independent travellers" cluster were more likely to report having strong "Australian attachment and identification", while the "low resource group travellers" and "non-active independent travellers" clusters were less likely to have "Australian attachment and identification".

**Table 6-7    The Relationship between Acculturation and the Clusters within Korean Australians**

| | Affluent Group Travellers | | | Low Resource Group Travellers | | | Active Independent Travellers | | | Non-active Independent Travellers | | | Low-interest Travellers | | | F(df) | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | | |
| English Language Use | 43 | 1.83[c] | 1.13 | 35 | 1.91[c] | 1.01 | 40 | 2.96[a] | 1.73 | 82 | 2.05[c] | 1.23 | 48 | 2.40 | 1.36 | 5.21 (4, 243) | 0.000* |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | 43 | 5.28 | 1.24 | 37 | 5.00 | 1.41 | 40 | 4.83 | 1.36 | 87 | 4.89 | 1.35 | 51 | 5.08 | 1.54 | 0.79 (4, 253) | 0.533 |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | 44 | 2.92[d] | 1.42 | 38 | 2.67[c] | 1.16 | 42 | 3.81[a] | 1.60 | 86 | 3.10 | 1.26 | 49 | 3.36 | 1.54 | 4.05 (4, 254) | 0.003* |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | 44 | 4.17 | 1.26 | 38 | 3.25[b] | 1.25 | 42 | 4.47[a] | 1.31 | 85 | 3.63[c] | 1.08 | 49 | 3.84 | 1.38 | 6.38 (4, 253) | 0.000* |
| Korean Attachment | 45 | 5.16 | 0.92 | 38 | 5.03 | 1.12 | 41 | 5.46 | 0.90 | 84 | 4.77 | 1.21 | 49 | 5.16 | 1.14 | 3.08 (4, 252) | 0.017 |
| Korean Identification | 45 | 5.91 | 1.08 | 38 | 6.14 | 0.90 | 41 | 6.28 | 0.92 | 87 | 5.83 | 1.08 | 50 | 6.11 | 0.89 | 1.83 (4, 256) | 0.124 |

[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [b] variables at $p < .001$ level
[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [c] variables at $p < .01$ level
[a] Indicates variable that is significantly different from [d] variables at $p < .05$ level
Mean score was computed on the score of 7 scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)
*Significant level at $p < .008$ following Bonferroni correction

Chi-square tests were performed for the Korean Australian group to examine the relationship between length of stay in Australia, English proficiency and ethnicity of marriage partner for the five clusters. The results are presented in Table 6-8. It was an unexpected result that there were no significant differences on length of stay in Australia and the ethnicity of marriage partner among the five clusters, although previous results showed significant differences on the proportion of five clusters between Korean Australians and Koreans. In particular, Korean Australians were less likely to travel in groups than Koreans. It was presumed that Korean Australians feel less inconvenienced by language and cultural difference than Koreans do while travelling. However, there was a significant difference on English proficiency among the five clusters at $p < .05$. The result revealed that a greater proportion of the respondents in the "active independent travellers" cluster tend to perceive their English is fluent or perfect. But the people in the "affluent group travellers" and "low resource group travellers" clusters tend to have low or intermediate English skill, so they were more likely to travel in groups with a tour guide. Therefore, it is supposed that English proficiency is related to the travel lifestyle and behaviour of Korean Australians, but not strongly related to the length of stay in Australia.

**Table 6-8    The Relationship between Specific Characteristics and the Clusters within Korean Australians**

| | Affluent Group Travellers | Low Resource Group Travellers | Active Independent Travellers | Non-active Independent Travellers | Low-interest Travellers |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N (% within cluster) | | | | |
| **Length of stay in Australia** ($\chi^2$ = 19.28, df = 12, $p$ = 0.082) | | | | | |
| 2 years or less | 8 (17.8) | 5 (13.2) | 9 (21.4) | 15 (17.2) | 14 (27.5) |
| 3 - 4 years | 7 (15..6) | 7 (18.4) | 5 (11.9) | 24 (27.6) | 7 (13.7) |
| 5 - 9 years | 22 (48.9) | 12 (31.6) | 12 (28.6) | 32 (36.8) | 15 (29.4) |
| 10 years or more | 8 (17.8) | 14 (36.8) | 16 (38.1) | 16 (18.4) | 15 (29.4) |
| | | | | | |
| **English proficiency** ($\chi^2$ = 16.13, df = 8, $p$ = 0.041*) | | | | | |
| No English at all / A little | 21 (46.7) | 11 (28.9) | 10 (23.8) | 29 (33.3) | 11 (21.6) |
| Intermediate/Fair | 16 (35.6) | 17 (44.7) | 11 (26.2) | 31 (35.6) | 22 (43.1) |
| Good or very fluent/Perfect | 8 (17.8) | 10 (26.3) | 21 (50.0) | 27 (31.0) | 18 (35.3) |
| | | | | | |
| **Ethnicity of marriage partner** ($\chi^2$ = 1.20, df = 4, $p$ = 0.879) | | | | | |
| Korean | 38 (95.0) | 29 (93.5) | 35 (89.7) | 64 (94.1) | 36 (94.7) |
| Non-Korean | 2 (5.0) | 2 (6.5) | 4 (10.3) | 4 (5.9) | 2 (5.3) |

*Significant level at $p$ < .05

## 6.8    Summary of Cluster Analyses Findings

In order to segment the overall sample into specific groups with similar responses, cluster analysis was performed using the eight travel lifestyle and behaviour factor scores. Afterwards, chi-square tests and one-way between groups ANOVAs were conducted to investigate the characteristics of the five clusters using demographics, personal values, sensation-seeking behaviour, travel experiences and acculturation as the independent variables (see Table 6-9). From the results of above tests, hypothesis 12 was partially accepted.

The proportion of respondents represented in each of the five clusters was significantly different between Korean Australians and Koreans. Korean Australians

showed higher representation in the "active independent travellers", "non-active independent travellers", and "low-interest travellers" clusters, whereas Koreans showed higher representation in the "affluent group travellers" and "low resource group travellers" clusters. Korean Australians were more likely than Koreans to travel by themselves and have a low interest in travelling, while Koreans were more likely than Korean Australians to travel in groups.

Further analyses were conducted for the two samples separately to confirm whether the relationship between the clusters and demographic characteristics, personal values, and sensation-seeking behaviour assume similar patterns for both groups. The following is a summary of analyses for each group.

In terms of demographic variables, there were significant differences on gender and age across the five clusters within the Korean Australian sample. Males appeared to be more dominant in the "low resource group travellers" cluster than females. The 20-29 years age group was dominant in the "non-active independent travellers" and "low-interest travellers" clusters. However, there were no significant differences between the five clusters and demographic characteristics among Koreans.

One-way between groups ANOVAs showed that "community values" and "life values" were significantly different across the five clusters within Korean Australians. In contrast to the "active independent travellers", respondents in the "low resource group travellers" cluster were likely to report having lower "community values" and "life values" than the other clusters. In terms of Koreans, significant differences were found on social values and life values across the five clusters. The

"low resource group travellers" cluster was likely to have lower social values and life values than the other clusters, while the "affluent group travellers" cluster was more likely to have higher social values and life values.

In terms of the relationship between sensation-seeking behaviour and the clusters, there was a significant difference on the "novelty" dimension across the five clusters for both groups. The "active independent travellers" cluster was more likely to report a preference for "novelty" seeking, while the "low resource group travellers" cluster was less likely to report a preference for "novelty" seeking than the other clusters within each sample.

Travel experiences were investigated in relation to the characteristics of the five clusters. The two groups displayed quite different results across the clusters with regard to their travel experiences. Korean Australians showed a significant difference across the clusters on the frequency of overseas holidays and the arrangement of overseas holidays, while Koreans had differences on the frequency of overseas holidays, the arrangement of overseas holidays, the frequency of overseas holidays, and preferred type of accommodation. The "active independent travellers" cluster within the Korean Australian sample was likely to travel overseas often and arrange their holidays by themselves, while the "affluent group travellers" cluster within the Korean sample was more likely to travel overseas often and arrange their overseas travel through a travel agency. In addition, Koreans showed difference on their preferred type of accommodation; particularly, a high proportion of respondents in the "low-interest travellers" cluster tended to stay in hotels as a preferred accommodation.

Finally, there were significant differences on the dimensions of acculturation such as "English language use", "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure", and "Australian attachment and identification" across the five clusters of Korean Australians. In contrast to the "low resource group travellers" cluster, the respondents in the "active independent travellers" cluster tended to use more English in their everyday life and have more "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure" as well as strong "Australian attachment and identification" than the other clusters.

**Table 6-9    Summary of the Relationship between the Clusters and the Key Variables**

| | Clusters within Korean Australians | Clusters within Koreans |
|---|---|---|
| **Demographic Characteristics** | | |
| Gender | + + | - |
| Age | + | - |
| Marital Status | - | - |
| Education | - | - |
| **Personal Values** | | |
| Community Values | + + | - |
| Social Values | - | + + |
| Life Values | + + | + + |
| **Sensation-seeking Behaviour** | | |
| Novelty | + + + | + + + |
| Intensity | - | - |
| **Travel Experiences** | | |
| Frequency of international holidays | + + | + |
| Average length of holidays overseas | - | - |
| Arrangement of holidays overseas | + + | + + |
| Frequency of domestic holidays | - | + + + |
| Average length of domestic holidays | - | - |
| Arrangement of domestic holidays | - | - |
| Type of accommodation | - | + |
| Travelling companion | - | - |
| **Acculturation** | | |
| English Language Use | + + + | |
| Food and Traditional Holiday | - | |
| Australian Social Interaction and Mass Media Exposure | + + | |
| Australian Attachment and Identification | + + + | |
| Korean Attachment | - | |
| Korean Identification | - | |

+ Significant level at $p < .05$
+ + Significant level at $p < .01$
+ + + Significant level at $p < .001$

# CHAPTER SEVEN

# CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

## 7.1 Introduction

In this study, the travel lifestyle and behaviour of Korean Australians and Koreans were explored and compared. The objective of this study was to identify how culture influences immigrants' lifestyle and behaviour related to travel by investigating the relationship between personal values and travel lifestyle and behaviour, and comparing these results between the two groups of respondents. In addition to personal values, various constructs including sensation-seeking behaviour, travel experiences, and acculturation were also employed to assist in identifying differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour between the two groups. This chapter presents conclusions and discussion by examining the links between the review of theories and the findings of this study. Table 7-1 presents the list of steps conducted and the results of the hypotheses tested in this study.

**Table 7-1    Overview of the Statistical Analyses and the Results**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Step 1 | The first set of analyses was designed to check for the match of the two samples. | The results provide evidence of a reasonable sample match. |
| Step 2 | The second set of analyses was designed to (1) investigate whether the two samples differed in their travel interests/behaviour, with an assumption that differences were at least partially related to culture or the country of residence; (2) more tests were undertaken to investigate whether demographic factors determine differences; and (3) the third set of tests was designed to determine whether there were any interaction effects between country of residence and demographic factors. | (1) Some evidence of differences based solely on the country of residence<br>(2) Some demographic differences<br>(3) No interaction effects |
| Step 3 | The third set of analyses sought to investigate (1) whether the two samples held the same values; and (2) whether the two samples differed in their sensation-seeking behaviour. | (1) The samples held similar values for two dimensions but differed on "life values".<br>(2) The two samples held similar sensation-seeking beliefs for "novelty" but differed for "intensity". |
| Step 4 | The fourth set of analyses investigated the sample resident in Australia and sought to determine the self-reported level of acculturation to Australia. This was done based on a recognised scale of acculturation. The acculturation factors were used to predict the values held by the Korean Australians. | (1) The sample did not show a strong level of acculturation on "community values" or "social values"; however, there is support that "life values" were influenced by acculturation variables. |

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| Step 5 | The fifth set of analyses investigated the differences between the two groups based on travel experiences. | (1) The two samples showed differences on their travel experiences. |
|--------|---|---|
| Step 6 | The sixth step investigated the information sources used by each sample group. | (1) Some differences found. |
| Step 7 | The seventh step involved a series of regression to investigate the relationship between travel lifestyle and behaviour using personal values, acculturation and sensation-seeking as predictors. | (1) There is support that personal values, acculturation and sensation seeking were predictors of some travel lifestyle and behaviour. |
| Step 8 | The final set of analyses sought to further understand the samples in terms of cluster groupings – first for the entire sample combined and then doing further fine-grained analyses across the clusters using the key variables from the study. | (1) The clusters of two samples showed some differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour with regard to demographic characteristics, personal values, sensation seeking, acculturation and travel experiences. |

## 7.2 Relationship between the Country of Residence/Culture and Travel lifestyle and Behaviour

Rapid population increase due to migration influx is a quite common phenomenon of modern society, not only in Australia but also in many countries around the world. Previous research (e.g., Pizam & Jeong, 1996; March, 1997; Iverson, 1997; Kozak, 2002) has mainly investigated the differences in tourists' behaviour by way of nationality. However, it is argued that a comparison study in the tourism discipline should consider alternate approaches rather than nationality for those countries whose population consists of various ethnic groups. Nevertheless, no research has yet attempted to examine how immigrants' behaviour differs from people in their home country in terms of travel lifestyle and behaviour.

The findings of this study have highlighted the differences between the two groups of Koreans on the factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour - "shopping", "group security", "information", and "sports". Koreans were less likely than Korean Australians to engage in "shopping" behaviour, but more likely to be concerned about "group security", seeking "information", and "sports" activities while travelling. The previous cross-cultural research into tourist behaviour by Pizam and Jeong (1996) revealed that Koreans were perceived to be more interested in shopping and group travel, but less interested in novelty, local food and people than Americans. On the assumption that those who are Korean Australians are considered as western people based solely on nationality, but not on origin, the results of the current study do not fully coincide with the above-mentioned previous research in terms of "shopping" behaviour. Furthermore, a comparative study of souvenir-purchasing behaviour between Korean and Japanese tourists showed that social and cultural factors

influenced souvenir-purchasing behaviour, as they mainly use souvenirs as a means of supporting relationships with their relatives, friends and colleagues (Park, 2000). From this point of view, depending on the level of acculturation and socialising, Korean Australians may have fewer relatives, friends and colleagues in Australia than when they were in Korea. However, the current study showed that Korean Australians tended to be engaged in "shopping" behaviour more than Koreans. There may be many reasons for these differences. It may be a limitation of the previous cross-cultural study using nationality rather than country of origin as a comparison point, or perhaps a difference in the time of collection and differences in respondents of both studies. At a more speculative level, Korean Australians may engage in more shopping when they travel as it is cheaper outside of Australia.

The point of difference on "group security" between the studies can be explained from the perspective of individualism and collectivism. Individualism, which is one of the dimensions of national culture, reflects the way of living that is also linked with societal norms, and has many implications for values and behaviour (Hofstede, 2001). According to Hofstede's (2001) individual index values (IDV), which range from 0 to 100 with 100 being the highest in individualism, South Korea ranked 43rd with an IDV of 18, and Australia ranked the second highest with an IDV of 90 among 53 countries. This may be the reason Koreans were more concerned about "group security" than Korean Australians. Previous research on Japanese tourists showed that the majority of Japanese tourists travel in groups by purchasing package tours due to the Japanese cultural values for collectivism as they feel comfortable in a group (Ahmed & Krohn, 1992; Pizam, Jansen-Verbeke & Steel, 1997; Mok & Lam, 2000). However, in the case of Koreans, this may be due not only

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to collectivism, but also to some other aspects such as apprehension about visiting unfamiliar places as well as its culture and language. Moreover, Carlile (1996) stated that convenience and enonomy were other reasons for purchasing package tours, which provide transportation, accommodation and tour services at discounted rates. Yu and Weiler (2001) also found that Chinese travellers place less importance on attending theatre, playing sports or watching sports events, and dining in western restaurants, presumably due to cultural differences and language barriers. For Korean Australians, immigration itself could be the evidence that they are somehow more adventurous than the average Korean, so that they were less likely to have a concern about "group security" in their travel lifestyle and behaviour.

According to the Korea Times (Kim, 2003), the number of outbound Koreans taking golf trips hit a record high and reached nearly 100,000 for the first 11 months of the year 2003. This was up 25.7% from 77,071 in the previous year, despite the prolonged economic downturn in Korea. Playing golf in Korea is quite expensive, unlike in Australia, so Koreans, because of their desire to play golf, may show greater interest in "sports" activities while travelling than would Korean Australians. In addition, due to the five-day workweek system in Korea that partially started from 2003, more people now visit neighbouring countries like China, Japan and Southeast Asia for golf trips or sightseeing tours on weekends (Park, 2004). The conclusion was drawn that the country of residence had stronger associations with travel lifestyle and behaviour, than other demographic characteristics.

There were differences among Korean Australians in accordance with the level of acculturation. This was different from the influence of country of residence.

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Level of acculturation was associated with the five factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour such as "shopping", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", "group security" and "sports". The preference for Korean food and traditional holiday was positively associated with "shopping" behaviour. The dimension of acculturation "Australian attachment and identification" was positively associated with the factor of "openness to experiences" and "predictable and planned". The factor of "group security" was negatively related to the "Australian social interaction and mass media exposure", but positively related to "Korean attachment", which is consistent with the comparison between Koreans and Korean Australians. In addition, "Korean attachment" was positively associated with the factor of "sports" activities and this was also consistent with the findings between the two groups. That is, Korean Australians who were more acculturated or open to Australian society have a tendency toward "openness to experience", and the immigrants who were less acculturated or felt a strong attachment to the Korean culture have a high concern about "group security", similar to Koreans.

Synthesis of the two results above for comparison using country of residence and level of acculturation revealed that Koreans were more likely to report having a concern about "group security" and interest in "sports" while travelling in common with Korean Australians who hold a strong "Korean attachment". There appears to be evidence to suggest that some cultural adaptation has occurred in the group of Korean Australians, with responses showing travel lifestyle and behaviour of less acculturated immigrants more consistent with that of Koreans.

During the last decade, leisure research, including tourism, has largely focused on race and ethnicity, although this was limited to certain ethnic groups. Hof and Kaiser (1983) found that race was a significant factor in outdoor recreation participation. Bowker and Leeworthy (1998) also examined ethnicity and individual trip-taking behaviour in terms of the congruency of demand and economic value. They found the differences in price response led to divergent per-trip consumer surplus and price elasticity between Hispanic and white trip takers. Moreover, in a study by Walker, Deng, and Dieser (2001), it was found that ethnicity and acculturation affect motivations for outdoor recreation. According to Stodolska (1998), acculturation may be associated with leisure constraints of minority populations that may be caused by lack of sufficient friendship networks and knowledge of leisure opportunities, language difficulties, their minority status and problems with adaptation to the new cultural and economic environment, and experiences with discrimination. Her study showed that the perceived constraints among immigrants diminish with increasing assimilation level. From these previous studies, it is deduced that less acculturated immigrants may have similar patterns of travel lifestyle and behaviour to the population of their home country rather than the mainstream of their new country. This is reflected in the results of the current study. Marketers developing travel products and more efficient market strategies in a multicultural society should consider that less acculturated ethnic groups may have different travel lifestyles and behaviours.

## 7.3 Relationship between Demographics and Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour

A great number of studies have adopted demographic characteristics as a market segmentation tool in the tourism industry. There is no doubt about the importance of demographic characteristics to differentiate target markets. However, consumers' needs and wants are extremely diverse and can also change suddenly like a passing fad. Hence, nowadays it is common to use demographic characteristics along with other segmentation variables such as geographic, psychographic or behavioural characteristics for market segmentation. Woodside and Pitts (1976) found lifestyle information was more important in predicting travel activities in international and domestic travel than demographics. The results of this study also revealed that demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, education and employment status were not closely connected to the factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour. The current results showed that only age makes a differences for the factors of "shopping", "group security" and "resources (time/money)", but not for the "travel interest", "predictable and planned" or "sports" factors. Surprisingly, only two factors - "predictable and planned" and "sports" factors – differed depending on gender, and gender made no difference to "shopping" and the other factors. Females tended to report a preference for "predictable and planned", well organised travel, which may be due to the meticulous nature of females in Korea.[1] In contrast, males tended to prefer planning a holiday that included "sports" activities, which may be due to an inclination toward activities and social life (business purpose – golf). As expected, marital status, education and employment status commonly had an

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[1] Although not substantialised by research, this is a widely accepted cultural norm in Korea.

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influence on the "group security" factor. Respondents in the categories of widow/widower or lower educated or retired were more likely to be concerned about "group security". Presumably, those people felt more uneasy about unfamiliar places than couples or younger or more highly educated people. Again, surprisingly, marital status and education did not make any difference to the other factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour. Employment status was also related to the factor of "resources (time/money)". The "retiree" group was most able to afford to travel, as opposed to the "full time student" group. There is no doubt that the "full time student" group was less likely to afford to travel than the employee group. In contrast, the "retiree" group may have had some savings or have retired on a pension so they tended to be able to afford to travel more than the others. They may also have had more time available to travel than other groups.

In general, each demographic characteristic had an effect on only one or two out of the eight factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour. Furthermore, there was no interaction effect of demographic variables and country of residence for travel lifestyle and behaviour. Most of all, no significant differences were found between demographic variables and the clusters within the sample of Koreans, while differences in gender and age categories were found within the sample of Korean Australians. Over recent decades, a number of tourism research studies have revealed that demographic characteristics were not strongly relevant to travel behaviours (e.g., Woodside & Pitts, 1976; Milman, 1991; Andereck & Caldwell, 1994; Prentice, Witt, & Hamer, 1998). This leads to the conclusion that single-stage segmentation using demographic variables is no longer an effective approach to segmenting markets within the tourism industry as consumers' demands and wants are more diversified.

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Therefore, the results of this study suggest that the application of a combination of criteria such as psychographics or geographics with demographics would result in more useful market segments.

## 7.4 Relationship between Personal Values and Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour

Personal values have been recognised as playing an important role in the process of decision making in consumer behaviour and everyday life. Cultural values, which influence on personal values, also have an influence on travel behaviour to a large extent (Mok & Lam, 2000). Previous research has found that personal values differed, depending not only on nationality, but also on subculture and the level of acculturation (McCleary & Choi, 1999; Reardon, Hasty & McGowan, 1997). Moreover, many researchers have applied personal values as a segmentation tool for the tourism market (Madrigal & Kahle, 1994; McCleary & Choi, 1999; Muller, 1991). The current study, developed from the synthesis and adaptation of earlier research, attempted to examine the difference in personal values between the two groups of the sample, and how personal values are associated with travel lifestyle and behaviour. First, the 18 terminal values of the Rokeach Value Scale (RVS) were reduced to three factors: "community values", "social values" and "life values". In terms of the comparison of personal values, of the three factors, the "life values" factor, which was all about values for their own life rather than others, was substantially different between the two groups of the sample. The respondents in Korea showed higher "life values" than Korean Australians, which means Koreans were more likely to take a higher interest in themselves than in relationships with other people or society/community issues compared with Korean Australians. At first glance this may

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appear contradictory to the idea of collectivism as proposed by Hofstede (2001). According to Ho (1979 cited in Hofstede, 2001, p.396), "collectivism does not mean a negation of the individual's well-being or interest; it is implicitly assumed that maintaining the group's well-being is the best guarantee for the individual". This may account for the result of the current study in that holding strong life values does not mitigate against holding strong community or social values, and culture may be the cause of the difference in values between the two groups.

Each factor of personal values was related to a different factor of travel lifestyle and behaviour. "Community values" showed an influence on the factors of "travel interest", "openness to experiences" and "predictable and planned". It is presumed that the factors of "travel interest" and "openness to experiences" are related to the statement "a world of beauty" and "pleasure (an enjoyable, leisure life)" of the "community values" factor. The factor of "predictable and planned" would be related to the statement of the "community values" factor - "a world of peace", and "national and family security" – which is being concerned about safety and arrangements for travelling. It sounds reasonable that the "social values" factor, which included the statement "social recognition" and "true friendship", had an effect on the "shopping" factor, because many tourists purchase souvenirs as gifts for friends and relatives as well as for memories of their travel. The travel lifestyle and behaviour of the "sports" factor was likely to be influenced by "life values", which included the statement "an exciting life (a stimulating, active life)". It is obvious that Koreans possess stronger "life values", so their preference for "sports" activities while travelling was also stronger than Korean Australians. The conclusion may be drawn

that the country of residence makes a difference in personal values, and that those values are related to the travel lifestyle and behaviour of respondents.

## 7.5 Relationship between Sensation-seeking Behaviour and Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour

Sensation-seeking behaviour represents seeking intensity and novelty in many areas of everyday life (Arnett, 1994). In particular, this is closely connected with travel, because tourists pursue sightseeing for new experiences including new places, new people, new culture and new activities. Thus, sensation-seeking behaviour has been applied in many tourism research projects, such as motivation for international travel (Fontaine, 1994), adventure holidays (Gilchrist, Povey, Dickinson & Povey, 1995), park visiting (Galloway & Lopez, 1999; Galloway, 2002), holiday preferences (Eachus, 2004), and comparison of travel behaviour with preferred tourist activities between 11 nationalities (Pizam et al., 2004).

In this study, the approach to sensation-seeking behaviour was to find differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour between the two groups. The results showed a difference only on "intensity"-seeking behaviour, not on "novelty"-seeking behaviour. Although both groups were relatively low on "intensity", Koreans were shown to be more likely to seek "intensity" than Korean Australians. One possibility is that Koreans live in a fast-changing social environment with a less stable economy and higher crime rate than Korean Australians experience (NationalMaster.com., 2003), and this may result in more intensity-seeking behaviour. Koreans showed, in general, slightly higher mean scores than Korean Australians for all items, not only of

sensation-seeking behaviour, but also of personal values. This tendency may be due to the different culture.

In another context, Pizam et al. (2004) found that Koreans showed a lower risk-taking and sensation-seeking (RSS) index than respondents among Israelis, Irish, and Americans, who were mostly Caucasian and from more developed countries. Although Australia consists of various ethnic groups, the majority of the population is Caucasian, and its global national income (GNI) is higher than that of Korea, therefore, Australia is more developed than Korea (Finfacts Ireland Business & Personal Finance Portal, n.d). Applying the results of the research by Pizam et al. (2004), Australians may have a higher tendency for sensation-seeking behaviour than Koreans because Australia is a more developed nation. However, a comparison between Koreans and Korean Australians revealed the opposite result, meaning Australians may be unlikely to have a higher RSS index than people in other western countries, or that Korean Australians may be unlike Australians in terms of RSS index. Further research should be considered on the matter of a multiracial nation.

The four factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour - "travel interest", "openness to experiences", "predictable and planned", and "sports" - could be predicted by both "novelty"- and "intensity"-seeking behaviour. Novelty-seeking behaviour was positively related to the "travel interest", "openness to experiences", and "predictable and planned" factors; but "intensity"-seeking behaviour was negatively related. Novelty relates to something new and different that has not been known before, and it is also a desirable feature when travelling. There is, of course, a thread of connection between the factors of "travel interest" and "openness to experiences". Moreover, the

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"predictable and planned" factor included the matter of safety, which is somewhat contrary to "intensity". Conversely, the respondents who responded with a high level of both "novelty" and "intensity"-seeking behaviour appeared to show a preference for "sports" activities. Sports activities, not only extreme sports, usually produce an image of something new, high, speedy, dangerous and spectacular, – attributes commonly linked to "intensity". In this study, Koreans exhibited a preference for "sports" activities while travelling, and they also showed higher "intensity"-seeking behaviour. "Shopping" behaviour was only related to "novelty"-seeking behaviour. As a matter of course, tourists want to buy something new rather than familiar, unless the product is very cheap. Therefore, it is clear that "shopping" behaviour is related to "novelty", not "intensity". The results of multiple regression analyses revealed that sensation-seeking behaviour was a better predictor of travel lifestyle and behaviour than were personal values.

## 7.6 Relationship between Travel Experiences and Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour

Travel experiences may be the most accurate information that reflects consumers' actual travel lifestyle and behaviour. In this study, travel experiences such as the frequency of holidays, the length of the stay, the type of arrangement and accommodation, travel companions and travel information sources were investigated for both groups of Korean Australians and Koreans. All categories of travel experiences, with the exception of arrangement of domestic holidays, were different between the two groups. That is, respondents in each group were quite distinct in their travel preferences.

Korean Australians were more likely to travel overseas often and stay longer than Koreans. Regardless of international and domestic travel, their travelling companions were mainly family. There may be many reasons for the differences, but it is thought that one of the main reasons for this is social environment, such as the number and length of school holidays and annual paid leave. In Australia, there are generally four periods of school holidays each year, but only two in Korea. In addition, there are four weeks of annual paid leave available in Australia (CCH Australia Limited, 2005), while only fifteen days are available in Korea, which has recently increased (Ministry of Labor, Republic of Korea, 2005). In addition, Korean Australians may go back to Korea and stay longer because they have family, friends, or business interests.

In terms of domestic travel, Koreans were likely to travel often and spend mostly 1-2 days, while Korean Australians were likely to travel less within the country, and spend 3-6 days. Korean Australians may prefer to travel to Korea rather than travel within Australia. The difference in length of domestic travel can be explained by comparing the total area of each country. The total area of Australia is 7,659,861 square kilometres (mainland only) (Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, Australian Government, 2005), while the total area of South Korea including its islands is 99,313 square kilometres (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Republic of Korea, 2005). That is, the land area of Australia is about 77 times larger than Korea. During the weekend, Koreans can travel anywhere within the country, and this has been much easier since the five-day workweek system partially commenced in July 2003. For Korean Australians, it may not be as easy to travel within the country during the weekend unless the destination is quite close to home. The influence of

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such social environments is an aspect to consider in the cross-cultural tourism research.

Moreover, the preferred type of accommodation was different between the two groups. Korean Australians preferred to stay at a hotel, followed by a motel and condominium/apartment, while Koreans preferred to stay at a condominium/apartment, followed by a motel. Cultural influences could be one explanation for this difference. Koreans are more used to condominium/apartment living, whereas Korean Australians may have adapted to the Australian travel lifestyle of staying in hotels or motels. Another factor may be cost. In Korea, hotels are much more expensive than condominiums. In regard to travel companions, as mentioned above, both groups were likely to travel with their family; however, Koreans also showed a higher tendency to travel with their friends as well. It is likely that Korean Australians do not have many close friends to travel with them, unlike when they were in Korea. It can also be viewed from a different angle that travelling with friends and colleagues is extremely common in Korean society, regardless of generation, gender and occupation, but is not so common in western countries. For instance, the "Kye", a popular social gathering of friends, colleagues and even neighbours, has widely survived since ancient times in Korea. This gathering is normally organised to cultivate mutual friendship, and much of the domestic and even international travel is arranged at this social gathering. The "Kye" may be affected by Confucianism in which all individuals are considered to be linked to others in a web of inter-relatedness, and society is considered an extension of the family (Kim, 1995a). This way of thinking may also influence the travel lifestyle and behaviour of Koreans, especially the factor of "group security" that Koreans were more concerned about

than Korean Australians. Once again, the results confirm that social environment (residential country) or culture leads to differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour.

## 7.7   Conclusion

This study attempted to examine the travel similarities and differences between Koreans and Korean Australians. It was theorised that the partial acculturation of Korean Australians would lead to different travel preferences and patterns. The results suggested that the travel lifestyle and behaviour of the sample of Korean Australians do differ from the sample of Koreans in several ways. Furthermore, the travel lifestyle and behaviour of the Korean Australians were also different in similar ways to the foregoing, depending on the level of acculturation. Thus, while previous studies have shown differences between nationalities (e.g., Iverson, 1997; Kozak, 2002; March, 1997; Mykletun, Crotts, & Mykletun, 2001; Pizam & Jeong, 1996), this study showed that travel differences may occur as a result of migration and acculturation.

Australia is a multiracial nation whose population is growing through immigration. As previously indicated, the population of Korean Australians is not large, but has been increasing continuously over the last decade. The growing number of Korean Australians should not go unheeded as a potential market segment. As a market segment, Korean Australians should not be considered either as Koreans or as Australians, but as a separate group, reflecting a unique blend of both cultures.

Nowadays, many organisations within the tourism industry have recognised that cross-cultural understanding gives marketers more opportunities to develop

market segments. Kim and Lee (2000) considered that cultural understandings in tourist motivation may encourage more participation of diverse cultural groups in tourism facilities. They also emphasised that the tourism industry should adopt a broad range of users and their cultural values, preferences and behaviour, looking beyond western cultural boundaries. Understanding cultural differences and then providing quality service that meets customer expectations are requisite for tourism marketers (Mok & DeFranco, 1999). Although the size of a number of ethnic minority markets, including the Korean market, may be small now, marketers should not fail to take note of the potential value of those markets within the tourism industry. Although the culture of Asian countries is often classified as a single culture, each country has a unique culture of its own. For instance, Korean and Japanese tourists, who live geographically nearby, showed different souvenir-purchasing behaviours in items and reasons, due to their unique social and cultural factors (Park, 2000). Previously, researchers have found that different nationality and ethnicity evidenced different travel behaviour and preferences. Hence, marketers must consider immigrants' needs and preferences through an understanding of their indigenous culture, values and lifestyle in order to develop and provide better products and services. The finding manifested that there were significant differences on travel lifestyle and behaviour between Korean Australians and Koreans. Korean Australians have definite preferences for shopping and independent tour while travelling. Tourism marketers should take these points into consideration for developing new products and services to extend the current and potential market in the near future, as this market has been increasing steadily. If targeting Korean Australians, marketers could focus on offering options for overseas travel aimed more at independent travellers. Such products and

services may need to be customised for each immigrant ethnic group, and may even depend on the level of acculturation of members of each immigrant group.

Many Koreans emigrate seeking a better quality of life, not just for economic reasons; however, an immigrant's new life does not always come up to their expectations. There are many difficulties to bear and overcome in the new country. The government can make efforts to acclimatise immigrants to their new life in Australia through programs that introduce the history and culture of Australia. If immigrants can be encouraged to travel more, particularly within Australia, this may assist in the acculturation process and also provide benefits for the tourism industry. Depending on the level of acculturation, Korean Australians may also encourage friends and family to travel to Australia.

Unlike Korean Australians, Koreans have strong preferences for group tours and sports activities but less preference for shopping. Group tours will be likely to remain the favourite travel style of Koreans as long as they have language barriers and unique cultural values. However, the itineraries of the majority of tour products provided in Korea are set with many shopping spots and tightly organised activities. Kim and Prideaux (1998) also identified itinerary construction as an inconvenience to Korean tourists to Australia. Nozawa (1992) anticipated that package tours will continue as a major mode of travel among the Japanese, who also have language barriers to travel outside of Japan and a similar culture originating from Confucianism, although the Japanese will be more sophisticated in their travel preferences due to increasing experienced travellers. Such a product, including a flexible schedule that allows tourists to vary the activities including shopping and sports, would better

satisfy various customers' needs. Korean society is changing rapidly due to modern technology and mass media, and changes such as the five-day workweek have affected the lifestyle and social environment of Koreans. Nowadays, Koreans have more opportunities to enjoy travel, and this is also a great opportunity for marketers. The development of new products to meet contemporary needs should be fruitful for both consumers and marketers. The future of the Korean travel market may be predicted by examining the travel behaviour of Korean Australians who already have experience of such a social environment, including western culture.

## 7.8 Contribution of the Study

Tourism is one of the largest industries in Australia as well as many other countries. Cultural research in the tourism industry is requisite to adopt effective strategies for marketing, as guests and even hosts are culturally diverse nowadays. The study contributes to the body of knowledge for the marketing of tourism within a multicultural nation and across nations. The contribution to knowledge through the outcomes of this study is summarised as follows: unlike previous research that compared tourist behaviours simply by nationality, this research compared travel lifestyle and behaviour of the same ethnic group in two different countries. This study attempted to compare Korean Australians with Koreans. The results identified that difference in country of residence had a strong effect on travel lifestyle and behaviour, as had been expected. Geographic region is definitely a variable to be considered for marketing application within the tourism industry.

This study has also made a theoretical contribution by investigating the factors that influence travel lifestyle and behaviour with application of personal values,

sensation-seeking behaviour and acculturation. The results of the study confirm the relationship between these variables and travel lifestyle and behaviour, a relationship that has been emphasised in the marketing literature but has not been applied in tourism research, particularly for Koreans and Korean Australians. In addition to the relationships, the ability of these variables to predict travel lifestyle and behaviour was examined.

First, the relationship between acculturation and personal values was examined, although there are many other factors which influence travel lifestyle and behaviour. Two relationships sought to investigate the series of effects from acculturation to travel lifestyle and behaviour passing through personal values. One was the relationship between personal values and travel lifestyle and behaviour, which was unexpectedly weak, even though personal values partially predicted travel lifestyle and behaviour. Another was the relationship between acculturation and personal values, which exposed the result that personal values were significantly predicted by acculturation, although the connection was not so strong. In particular, the relationship between personal values and travel lifestyle and behaviour appeared different for each group of Koreans.

In addition, the approach of sensation-seeking behaviour clarified the difference between the two groups, and its relationship with travel lifestyle and behaviour. This had a stronger predictability for travel lifestyle and behaviour than personal values. The finding suggests further exploration of sensation-seeking behaviour for application as a basis for market segments within the international tourism market, as well as the multicultural domestic market.

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## 7.9    Implications of the Study

The movement of population among countries for the purpose of not only business or travel but also migration is extremely common world-wide. Ethnic minority groups would be prospective customers for tourism in the near future or even now. The findings indicated that demographic characteristics are no longer a proper tool for segmenting the market. The needs and preferences of immigrants change through the process of acculturation in the new country; thus, new products must be developed to satisfy their various expectations.

Personal values have been widely applied to segment the target market; however, the results of the current study appeared to indicate that personal values were useful, but did not explain a large proportion of the variance of travel lifestyle and behaviour. Indeed, this study revealed that sensation-seeking behaviour was more useful for defining groups of potential customers into specific target markets with common characteristics than were demographics or personal values. It was very clear that the preferences and needs of Korean Australians were different from Koreans. Koreans were more likely to be interested in travel and to prefer group travel, while Korean Australians were less likely to be interested in travel and more likely to travel independently. Marketers would benefit from the knowledge of the influence of social circumstances, including culture, for better understanding of consumers. Such understanding would be beneficial in the development of new products and services to meet the needs of the immigrant population and to predict changes in the tourism market in a multicultural country such as Australia with the steady increase of new immigrants.

Understanding the travel lifestyle and behaviour of immigrants may be useful when there are sudden changes in the tourism market. For example, when the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) outbreak infected China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore and Canada in 2003, tourism arrivals went down, even within largely or totally disease-free countries (McKercher & Chon, 2004). During this period of time, a mass media advertising campaign was extensively carried out in Australia to encourage people to travel within Australia in order to alleviate the problems in the domestic tourism industry. By understanding the barriers to travel and the characteristics of travel lifestyle and behaviour of not only Korean immigrants but also many other ethnic minority groups in Australia, new tourism markets may be activated. Moreover, this will allow migrants to become familiar with their new country. This can encourage other people around the immigrants, such as their families, relatives and friends from their home countries, to visit and travel in Australia.

## 7.10 Limitations of the Study

One of the most common limitations of comparative studies is applicable to this study, which is that the samples of this study may not be representative of the broad population of Korean Australians and Koreans, although the study sought to minimise differences of both samples from Korea and Australia in terms of age and gender that can be visually distinguished.

Moreover, the survey was conducted within limited regions in both countries. Some points of view on travel lifestyle and behaviour in this study may be different depending on the residential areas. For instance, Korean Australians who live in areas

of higher population of the same ethnicity may have convenient and easier access to travel products and services provided by Korean marketers than those living in areas of lower population of the same ethnicity. In addition to regional limitations, survey locations in the two countries were also different because of the limited number of and access to Korean Australians. The respondents in Australia were also limited to those Korean Australians who participated in Korean communities, such as Korean churches and temples. That is to say, Korean Australians who did not make contact with other Koreans in Australia may not have been included in this study. Presumably, Korean Australians who have married members of other ethnic groups and are completely assimilated into Australian society were less likely to be involved with the Korean community in Australia. For those reasons, the respondents in this study may not be fully representative of Korean Australians.

The respondents in Korea may also not be representative of Koreans in many aspects, such as standard of living and level of education, because the respondents in Korea were targeted to adjust to the respondents in Australia in terms of age and gender, as explained above.

Furthermore, McCleary and Choi (1999) indicated the limitation of the RVS in cross-cultural research as even though the RVS has been widely used and tested in different cultures, there is a possibility that different levels on a scale indicate different levels of importance from culture to culture. Although the reason for this is not clear, the respondents in Korea generally appeared to have slightly stronger value systems through the three factors of the RVS than did the respondents in Australia.

In this study, which is totally based on country of residence, cultural influence on the travel lifestyle and behaviour was investigated through the comparison of Korean Australians and Koreans. Although the country of residence was utilised and presented as a factor to measure cultural influence, it may be only one of the factors that has an influence on culture.

In order to identify the differences between the two groups, the survey instrument contained a large number of questions, which may have decreased the accuracy of the data due to respondents' distraction. Conducting individual in-depth interviews or focus groups prior to the survey may have proved useful to reduce the number of questions, and to possibly improve the reliability of the results.

## 7.11  Future Research

Recommendations for future study have been made through the findings and limitations of this study. Although the results of the current study revealed differences between the two groups of Koreans in their travel lifestyle and behaviour, none of the segmented clusters showed a great deal of profile in terms of demographic characteristics. In fact, the differences between Koreans and Korean Australians were smaller than would be expected. This may be due to increasing cultural exchange among nations and exposure to western cultural influences through the mass media in Korea and/or the short history of Korean migration to Australia. In order to identify cultural difference in travel lifestyle and behaviour, triangular comparison among Koreans, Korean Australians and mainstream Australia, such as Caucasian Australians, may clarify more accurately whether Korean Australians have a different lifestyle from Australians as well as Koreans; and, if so, how different. Presumably,

Korean Australians have a different lifestyle from Caucasian Australians, unless they are completely acculturated into Australian society. In addition, comparison between the first and second generations of immigrants may be useful to identify cultural influences on travel lifestyle and behaviour. Moreover, the predictability of values for travel lifestyle and behaviour was quite different in each group, while sensation-seeking behaviour yielded similar results for both groups of Koreans. Therefore, further research is recommended on values and acculturation in the tourism context with diverse ethnic groups, and this may lead to different results from the current study.

In particular, the results of this study revealed distinct differences in travel experiences between the two groups of Koreans. In terms of international travel, Koreans tended to take a holiday overseas in a group and stay less than a week, while Korean Australians demonstrated more frequent trips, independence, arranging their own travel and longer stays. With respect to domestic travel, Koreans tended to travel often, mostly spending 1-2 days; while Korean Australians were likely to travel less, and spend 3-6 days. This can potentially be attributed to different social environments such as work/leisure opportunities (amount of holidays per annum, including the number and length of school holidays, annual paid leave, the five-day workweek system), the gross area of country (Australia: 7,659,861 square kilometres vs. South Korea: 99,313 square kilometres), and the accepted way of arranging travel (through a travel agent). The majority of structured packaged tours available in Korea, based on advertisements in newspapers and magazines, are generally designed for an overseas stay of less than a week. By comparison, Chen and Hsu (2000) suggested that a language barrier frequently makes Korean tourists feel uncomfortable, particularly

with merchants. In a similar manner, it is suggested by the results of the present study that a language barrier may contribute to Koreans' preference for group travel. It is also possible that Korean Australians travel back to Korea when going overseas, and thus have little need of a travel agent to arrange an itinerary. According to Klemm (2002), the promotional methods and selling techniques of travel businesses in the U.K were perceived as negative toward Asian ethnic groups. He suggested a greater awareness of Asian culture would be beneficial for marketers in generating more sales in the Asian community. This is also applicable to tourism in Australia. Future research could extend the present study to look at patterns of overseas travel by immigrants in terms of destination. Moreover, while the most preferred travel companion was family for both groups, Korean Australians had a higher proportion of respondents indicating family as a travelling companion than did Koreans. This may reflect the fact that immigrants have a smaller network of friends and rely more on family as travel companions.

Most previous studies using travel lifestyle and the RVS were conducted within western countries, although the validity of the scales used in this study was confirmed by previous study. Therefore, it is suggested that the scale be further developed through qualitative research in a single culture for a better understanding of ethnic groups. Putting the results of previous research and the current study together, it would appear that there is no absolute or definitive method to segment the market; and the market can be diverse depending on the times, nation or region, culture and so on. Hence, constant and varied marketing approaches should be conducted to meet changing consumer expectations and needs.

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# Appendices

Appendix 1. Measurement items for Italian-Canadian acculturation and Italian identification and attachment.

## *Italian-Canadian acculturation*

**Dimension 1: English language use**

1. I always speak English to my spouse.

2. I always use English with my friends.

3. I mostly think in English.

4. In general, I speak in English.

5. I mostly speak in English at family gatherings.

6. I mostly carry on conversations in English every day.

**Dimension 2: English-Canadian mass media exposure**

1. The TV programs that I watch are always in the English language.

2. The radio programs that I listen to are always in the English language.

3. The newspapers and magazines that I read are always in the English language.

4. The movies and video cassettes that I watch are always in the English language.

**Dimension 3: English-Canadian social interaction**

1. Most of my friends are English-Canadian.

2. Most of the people at the places I go to have fun and relax are English-Canadian.

3. Most of people I go to parties with are English-Canadian.

4. I get together with English Canadians very often.

5. I have many English-Canadian friends with whom I am very close.

**Dimension 4: English-Canadian identification and attachment**

1. The English-Canadian culture has the most positive impact on my life.

2. I feel very proud of the English-Canadian culture.

3. I feel most comfortable in the English-Canadian culture.

4. I feel a strong attachment to the English-Canadian culture.

5. I feel very proud to identify with English Canadians.

6. I consider the English-Canadian culture rich and precious.


## *Italian identification and attachment*

1. The Italian culture has the most positive impact on my life.

2. I feel very proud of the Italian culture.

3. I feel most comfortable in the Italian culture.

4. I feel a strong attachment to the Italian culture.

5. I feel very proud to identify with Italians.

6. I consider the Italian culture rich and precious.

7. I have the sentiment of "italianita".

8. I consider myself to be Italian.

9. I would like to be known as "Italian" by people of Italian descent.


Source: Kim, Laroche, & Tomiuk (2001, p. 633-634)

Appendix 2. Questionnaire

# 'Korean Lifestyles and Values in Leisure Travel'

## Information Sheet & Consent Form

Supervisor:
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Dear Sir/Madam

This survey is conducted as a part of a PhD study on Korean tourism. The project is being supervised by Professor Beverley Sparks in the Department of Tourism, Leisure, Hotel and Sport Management, Griffith University. The aim of this research is to investigate the lifestyles and values of Koreans with particular regard to how their travel behaviours are affected. The results of this study will assist the Australian and Korean travel industry in providing better services to cater for the travel needs of Koreans.

The survey will take approximately 15 minutes. Your responses will be confidential and your name will not be identified at any stage of the research. You may discontinue participation at any time without providing an explanation. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

If you have any complaints concerning the manner in which a research project is conducted it may be given to the researcher, or, if an independent person is preferred, either The University's Research Ethics Officer, Office for Research, Bray Centre, Griffith University, Kessels Road, Nathan, QLD4111, Telephone (07) 3875 6618; or The Pro Vice-Chancellor (Administration), Bray Centre, Griffith University, Kessels Road, Nathan, QLD 4111, Telephone (07) 3875 7343

If you wish to get more information or further inquiry about the results of this research, please contact the researcher. By completing this questionnaire you are indicating your willingness and consent to participate in this research. Thank you for your participation in the survey.

Sun-Hee Lee
Department of Tourism, Leisure, Hotel and Sport Management, Griffith University

## Section A: Travel Preference

These questions are about your preferred activities, interests, and opinions about travel.

Please circle the number that best represents your level of agreement with the following statement.

| | Items | Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I prefer to travel in groups rather than by myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | I like to go on guided tours. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | I like to interact with other tourists. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 | I like to mix with tourists from other nationalities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 | I like holidays that help me relax and relieve the stress of normal life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | When I go on holiday, I look for adventure and an opportunity to escape from the ordinary. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7 | I like to travel to historical locations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8 | I like holidays with lots of fun and entertainment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9 | I like to visit educational places where I am able to learn. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10 | I like to visit places with a large variety of activities and sights. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11 | I like to visit a place that has the scenic beauty of nature. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12 | I like to visit places where a range of shopping is available. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13 | I like to visit places on the occasion of a festival. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14 | I am interested in the local people and customs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15 | I like to try local foods & drinks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16 | When I have a choice, I would rather travel to a new place with new cultures and new ways of living. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17 | I do not care about any costs on holiday. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18 | It is important that everything is organised so that I do not need to care about anything on holiday. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 19 | When I take a holiday overseas, I like to visit places where the people speak the Korean language (e.g., Korean restaurant, Korean motel, etc.) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 20 | It is important that there is plenty to entertain the children at the holiday destination. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 21 | I like to travel with my family. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 22 | I normally plan my holiday around watching my favourite sporting event. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 23 | My holiday is normally planned so that I can participate in my favourite sport. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 24 | I enjoy looking at holiday or travel magazines. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 25 | I often contact a travel agency for information about holiday travel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| | Items | Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 26 | I often have difficulty in deciding where to visit on a holiday. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 27 | I often ask the advice of my friends regarding holiday spots. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 28 | My friends often ask me for advice about holiday spots. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 29 | I often visit places in an unplanned manner. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 30 | I always have a well-defined route and maps of my destination prior to leaving on holiday. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 31 | Given a windfall of money, I would like to spend it on holiday travel more than something else. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 32 | I'd rather take a trip than stay at home. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 33 | I prefer to take several short trips rather than a few longer ones. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 34 | I enjoy camping. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 35 | I like to eat in the more economical restaurants on holiday. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 36 | Having my friends over to see my holiday photos is the best part of my holiday. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 37 | The climate of the holiday destination is important. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 38 | I like to choose holiday destinations that are safe. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 39 | I usually buy souvenirs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 40 | I usually buy gifts for friends and relatives. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 41 | I like to shop constantly when I am on holiday. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 42 | I usually bargain at shopping when I can. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 43 | I prefer to see the "real thing" rather than "staged" attractions/events. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 44 | I prefer activity rather than passiveness. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 45 | I am interested in novelty rather than familiar things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 46 | I usually take photographs when I travel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 47 | I often have difficulty getting information on travel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 48 | I have enough time to travel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 49 | I can afford to spend money on travel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 50 | I am interested in travelling. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 51 | My family is interested in travelling. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 52 | I like to get my family's approval to travel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 53 | I feel guilty about travelling. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 54 | When I plan an overseas holiday, I consider the economic situation of my own country. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**Section B.**

People like different amounts of challenge or excitement in their lives. This set of questions asks you about a range of possible activities and behaviours.

Please circle the number that best describes your own behaviour.

| | Items | Does not describe me at all | Does not describe me very well | Describes me somewhat | Describes me very well |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | When I listen to music, I like it to be loud. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2 | When taking a trip, I think it is best to make as few plans as possible and just take it as it comes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3 | I stay away from movies that are said to be frightening or highly suspenseful. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4 | I think it's fun and exciting to perform or speak before a group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5 | If I were to go to an amusement park, I would prefer to ride the roller coaster or other fast rides. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6 | I would like to travel to places that are strange and far away. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7 | I would never like to gamble with money, even if I could afford it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8 | I would have enjoyed being one of the first explorers of an unknown land. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9 | I like a movie where there are a lot of explosions and car chases. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10 | I like to eat foods from foreign cultures. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11 | In general, I work better when I'm under pressure. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12 | I often like to have the radio or TV on while I'm doing something else, such as reading or cleaning up. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13 | It would be interesting to see a car accident happen. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14 | I think it's best to order something familiar when eating in a restaurant. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15 | I like the feeling of standing next to the edge on a high place and looking down. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16 | If it were possible to visit another planet or the moon for free, I would be among the first in line to sign up. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17 | I can see how it must be exciting to be in a battle during a war. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18 | If I have to wait in a long line, I'm usually patient about it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19 | When the water is very cold, I prefer not to swim even if it is a hot day. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20 | I can see how it would be interesting to marry someone from a foreign country. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

## Section C: Living in Australia (Korean Australian only)

These questions are about your everyday life in Australia.

Please circle the number that best represents your level of agreement with the following statements.

| | Items | Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I always speak English to my spouse. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | I always use English with my friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | I mostly think in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 | In general, I speak in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 | I mostly speak in English at family gatherings. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | I mostly carry on conversations in English every day. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7 | I mostly eat Korean food at home. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8 | I participate in Korean holidays, traditions, and celebrations (e.g., the Korean New Year's Day, the Korean Thanksgiving Day, etc.) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9 | The newspapers and magazines that I read are mostly in the English language. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10 | The movies and videocassettes that I watch are mostly in the English language. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11 | Most of my friends are Caucasian. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12 | Most of the people at the places I go to have fun and relax are Caucasian. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13 | I get together with Caucasians very often. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14 | I have many Caucasian friends with whom I am very close. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15 | The Australian culture has the most positive impact on my life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16 | I feel very proud of the Australian culture. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17 | I feel most comfortable in the Australian culture. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18 | I feel a strong attachment to the Australian culture. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 19 | I feel very proud to identify with Australians. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 20 | I consider the Australian culture rich and precious. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 21 | The Korean culture has the most positive impact on my life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 22 | I feel very proud of the Korean culture. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 23 | I feel most comfortable in the Korean culture. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 24 | I feel a strong attachment to the Korean culture. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 25 | I feel very proud to identify with Koreans. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 26 | I consider the Korean culture rich and precious. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 27 | I have the sentiment of "Korean". | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 28 | I consider myself to be Korean. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 29 | I would like to be known as "Korean" by people of Korean descent. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

## Section D: Personal Values

In this section we are interested to collect information about your personal values. These values may be different for lots of people and we want you to say what is important to you at a personal level. Please circle the number that best represents the level of importance you attach to the following items in your life.

| Items | Very Unimportant | Unimportant | Somewhat Unimportant | Neutral | Somewhat Important | Important | Very Important |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 A comfortable life (a prosperous life) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 An exciting life (a stimulating, active life) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 A world of peace (free of war, terror and conflict) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7 Family security (taking care of loved ones) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8 Freedom (independence, free choice) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9 Happiness (contentedness) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10 Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11 Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12 National security (protection from attack) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13 Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisure life) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14 Traditional ideas (Confucian ideas) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15 Self-respect (self-esteem) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16 Social recognition (respect, administration) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17 True friendship (close companionship) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18 Wisdom (a mature understanding of life) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

## Section E: Travel Experience

These questions are about your holiday experiences.

Please tick the one response per question that best describes your experience.

1.  How often do you take a holiday overseas?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Never | ☐ 1 | (**Please, go to question 4**) |
| Less than once a year | ☐ 2 | (Please, go to question 2) |
| Once a year | ☐ 3 | (Please, go to question 2) |
| Twice a year | ☐ 4 | (Please, go to question 2) |
| 3 times a year | ☐ 5 | (Please, go to question 2) |
| 4 or more times a year | ☐ 6 | (Please, go to question 2) |

2.  What is the average length of your holidays overseas?

| | |
|---|---|
| 1 - 2 days | ☐ 1 |
| 3 - 6 days | ☐ 2 |
| 1 - 2 weeks | ☐ 3 |
| 3 - 4 weeks | ☐ 4 |
| More than a month | ☐ 5 |

3. How would you arrange your holidays overseas?

Choosing a package tour through a travel agency ☐ 1
Asking a travel agency to design the package I want ☐ 2
Making my own travel plans and bookings myself ☐ 3
Only making a booking for transportation (e.g., ☐ 4
airline) and no specific plan for trip
Other ☐ 5 Please specify _____

4. How often do you take a holiday trip within Australia/Korea?

Never ☐ 1 (**Please, go to question 7**)
Less than once a year ☐ 2 (Please, go to question 5)
1-2 times a year ☐ 3 (Please, go to question 5)
3-4 times a year ☐ 4 (Please, go to question 5)
More than 5 times a year ☐ 5 (Please, go to question 5)

5. What is the average length of your holiday trip within Australia/Korea?

1 - 2 days ☐ 1
3 - 6 days ☐ 2
1 - 2 weeks ☐ 3
3 - 4 weeks ☐ 4
More than a month ☐ 5

6. How would you arrange your holiday trip within Australia/Korea?

Choosing a package tour through a travel agency ☐ 1
Asking a travel agency to design the package I ☐ 2
want
Making my own travel plans booking myself ☐ 3
Only making bookings for transportation (e.g., ☐ 4
train, bus) and no specific plan for trip
Other ☐ 5 Please specify _____

7. In what type of accommodation do you normally stay?

Hotel ☐ 1
Motel ☐ 2
Condominium/Apartment ☐ 3
Camping ☐ 4
Backpackers/Youth hostel ☐ 5
Friends/Relatives' place ☐ 6
Other ☐ 7 Please specify _____

8. Who do you normally take a holiday trip with?

Alone   ☐ 1
With family   ☐ 2
With friends   ☐ 3
With partner   ☐ 4
Other   ☐ 5   Please specify _____

9. Where do you collect holiday information from? (Please, tick all that apply)

TV/Radio   ☐ 1
Magazines/Newspapers   ☐ 2
Internet   ☐ 3
Brochures   ☐ 4
Family/Friends   ☐ 5
Travel agency   ☐ 6
Other   ☐ 7   Please specify _____

10. Do you travel more than when you were in Korea?

Yes   ☐ 1
No   ☐ 2

11. Do you feel inconvenience due to language barriers while travelling in Australia?

Yes   ☐ 1
No   ☐ 2

12. Do you feel inconvenience due to cultural barriers while travelling in Australia?

Yes   ☐ 1
No   ☐ 2

**Section F: Demographics**

These questions are about your personal particulars for statistical purposes.

Please tick the appropriate box for each question.

1. What is your gender?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Female | ☐ | 1 |
| Male | ☐ | 2 |

2. What is your age?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 20-29 years | ☐ | 1 |
| 30-39 years | ☐ | 2 |
| 40-49 years | ☐ | 3 |
| 50-59 years | ☐ | 4 |
| 60-69 years | ☐ | 5 |
| 70 years and over | ☐ | 6 |

3. What is your marital status?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Never married | ☐ | 1 |
| Married/De facto | ☐ | 2 |
| Widow/Widower | ☐ | 3 |
| Divorced/Separated | ☐ | 4 |

4. Do you have any children?

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Yes | ☐ | 1 | (Please, go to question 5) |
| No | ☐ | 2 | (Please, go to question 6) |

5. Are your children living with you?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | ☐ | 1 |
| No | ☐ | 2 |

6. What is your highest education level?

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Postgraduate (Masters or PhD) | ☐ | 1 | |
| Bachelor Degree | ☐ | 2 | |
| Senior High School | ☐ | 3 | |
| Junior High School | ☐ | 4 | |
| Primary School | ☐ | 5 | |
| Other | ☐ | 6 | Please specify _____ |

7. What is your occupation?    Please specify _____

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8. How would you describe your current employment situation?

Working full time ☐ 1
Working part time/Casual ☐ 2
Unemployed ☐ 3
Retired ☐ 4
Housewife ☐ 5
Full time student ☐ 6
Self employed ☐ 7
Other ☐ 8   Please specify _____

9. Which of the following categories best describes your yearly household income?

Less than A$ 20,000 ☐ 1
A$ 20,000 – 29,999 ☐ 2
A$ 30,000 – 39,999 ☐ 3
A$ 40,000 – 49,999 ☐ 4
A$ 50,000 – 69,999 ☐ 5
A$ 70,000 – 99,999 ☐ 6
A$ 100,000 – 149,999 ☐ 7
A$ 150,000 or more ☐ 8

10. How long have you been in Australia?

Less than 1 year ☐ 1
1 - 2 years ☐ 2
3 - 4 years ☐ 3
5 - 9 years ☐ 4
10 years or more ☐ 5

11. How would you describe your level of English?

No English at all (cannot speak/read at all) ☐ 1
A little/Poor ☐ 2
Intermediate/Fair ☐ 3
Good ☐ 4
Very fluent/Perfect ☐ 5

12. My marriage partner is Korean.

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Not married ☐ 3

## *Thank you for your participation!*

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## Appendix 3. Vacation-Specific Life Style Measures

| Scale Name | Sample Statement |
|---|---|
| Vacation Travel Interest | I enjoy looking at vacation or travel magazines. |
| Generalized Self-Confidence | I like to be considered a leader. |
| Opinion Leadership | My friends often ask my advice about vacation travel. |
| Plan-Ahead Travel | I would never leave on a vacation without reservations at my destination. |
| Undecided Vacationer | I often have difficulty in deciding where to visit on a vacation. |
| Information Seeker | I often ask the advice of my friends regarding vacation spots to visit. |
| Impersonal Information Seeker | I often contact a travel agency for information about vacation travel. |
| Leisure Time Venturesomeness | I enjoy vacation travel to new places. |
| Money-Oriented Vacationer | Given a windfall of money, I prefer to spend it on vacation travel than something else. |
| Predisposition to Travel | I enjoy vacation travelling away from my hometown. |
| Camper Traveler | My family enjoys camping. |
| Tenter Vacationer | Camping in a tent is the best way for me to get close to nature. |
| Camping Impact | Camping sites are beginning to overcrowd some of the popular vacation areas. |
| Relaxing Traveler | If I can't completely relax, I don't feel that I've had a vacation. |
| Weekend Traveler | I prefer to take several short vacations rather than a few larger ones. |
| Cosmopolitan Traveler | I would not vacation in an area where first class accommodations were not available. |
| First class Travel | I spare no expense in making vacation travel arrangements. |

| Scale Name | Sample Statement |
|---|---|
| One-Up-Manship Travel | Having my friends over to see my vacation slides is the best part of my vacation. |
| Educational Travel | Educational vacations are the most fun and the most rewarding. |
| Sports Participation | My vacation is normally planned so that I can participate in my favorite sport. |
| Jet-Setter or Vagabond Traveler | On vacation, I wound not hesitate to hop on a plane and travel to a more fun location. |
| Economic Traveler | On vacation, I often eat in the more economical restaurants. |
| Historical Vacation | Visiting historical locations is an important consideration in planning my vacation. |
| Town Vacationer | The atmosphere of guided tours is too stifling (reverse score). |
| Sportsman-Spectator | I normally plan my vacation around watching my favorite sporting event. |
| Functional Gregariousness | The most important part of any vacation is meeting new people. |
| Familial Traveler | Families that vacation together are happier. |
| Vacation Gregariousness | When I have a choice, I would rather travel to a new place and meet new people. |

Source: Perreault, Darden, & Darden (1977, p. 213-215)

## Appendix 4. The 20 Behavioural Characteristics of the Tourist

| | |
|---|---|
| Interact with other tourists (5) | Keep to themselves (1) |
| Socialize with other tourists (5) | Avoid socializing (1) |
| Congregate with tourists from other nationalities (5) | Congregate only with tourists from same nationality (1) |
| Travel in groups (5) | Travel by themselves (1) |
| Take long trips (5) | Take short trips (1) |
| Buy souvenirs (5) | Do not buy souvenirs (1) |
| Buy gifts for F&R at home (5) | Do not buy gifts for F&R at home (1) |
| Trust tourist-trade people (5) | Suspicious of tourist-trade people (1) |
| Interested in people (5) | Interested in artifacts (1) |
| Prefer local foods & drinks (5) | Avoid local foods & drinks (1) |
| Visit places in loose and unplanned manner (5) | Plan their tours rigidly (1) |
| Shop constantly (5) | Do not shop at all (1) |
| Bargain at shopping (5) | Pay asking price (1) |
| Want to see the "real thing" (5) | Satisfied with "staged" attractions/events (1) |
| Adventuresome (5) | Safe (1) |
| Active (5) | Passive (1) |
| Interested in novelty (5) | Interested in familiar things (1) |
| Take photographs (5) | Do not take photographs (1) |
| Write letters/postcards (5) | Do not write letters/postcards (1) |
| Knowledgeable about the destination and well prepared (5) | Not knowledgeable about the destination and unprepared (1) |

Source: Pizam & Sussmann (1995, p. 906)

\* The numbers (5) and (1) next to each statement represent a 1-5 scale, where 5 = the left-side statement, 1 = the right-side statement, and 2, 3, 4 are in between.