

**Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour Of
New Canadians**

by

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Author's Declaration

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by examiners. I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

Abstract

Immigration has become a common phenomenon of modern society in numerous countries around the world, including Canada. Despite this, tourism research has mainly focused on specific behaviours of travellers from a particular country (nationality) without considering the possibility that a nation may comprise unique sub-cultures of varying ethnic groups as a result of immigration. This study explores the influence of new Canadians' home culture on their travel lifestyle and behaviours. A survey of European (n=128) and Asian (n=99) recent immigrants in Ontario was conducted to explore this relationship. More specifically, the project investigates the connection between the respondents' region of origin and their travel lifestyle preferences in terms of their attitudes and opinions toward travelling as well as their travel interests. The information about the respondents' demographic characteristics, past travel experiences and information search behaviour was also collected. The data were then analyzed using factor analysis, t-test, one-way ANOVA, chi-square test and cluster analysis. The results show that there are differences between the two groups in respect to their travel lifestyle, past travel experiences, and media used for planning a vacation. Cluster analysis based on immigrants' reported travel lifestyle identified four distinct segments: *High Familiarity Seekers*, *Low Interest Travellers*, *Independent Spontaneous Travellers*, and *Highly Engaged Travel Planners*. The study concludes that region of origin has a strong influence on travel lifestyle and behaviour of new Canadians. Hence, the growing migrant population in Canada should not go unheeded as potential market segments, and marketers should acknowledge that consumers in countries with diverse multicultural backgrounds need differentiated services and products.

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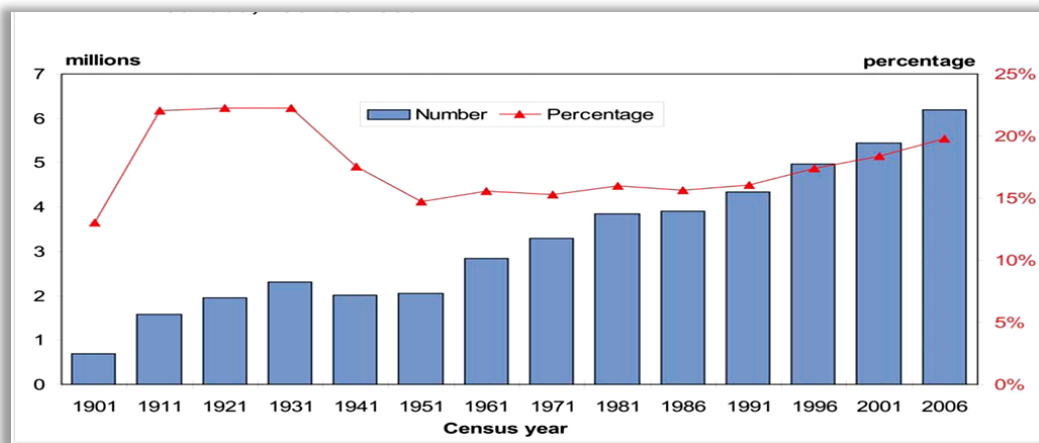
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

As a multicultural country with a large number of immigrants coming every year, Canadian society is in a continuous process of learning to live and work with people from ethnically, culturally, and religiously different homelands. Just as in the past, when immigrants from various parts of Europe settled in the New World, immigrants continue to come to Canada today and are of great importance for both the growth of Canadian population and development of Canadian society in general. The 2006 Census reports that immigrants comprise almost 20% of the total living Canadian population and that immigration has now reached its highest level in 75 years (see Figure 1.1).

This study focuses on the two largest groups of recent immigrants to Canada: those of Asian and European origin which comprise 58% and 16% of all newcomers between 2001 and 2006 respectively. While European immigrants have always contributed to the development of Canada as a nation, immigrants from Asia did not come to Canada in large numbers until a few

Figure 1.1 Numbers and share of the foreign-born population in Canada, 1901 to 2006



Source: Statistics Canada, 2006a

decades ago. In 1971, immigrants born in Europe accounted for 62% of all newcomers. However, since then, the numbers of immigrants from Asia have shown the greatest increases, rising from 12% of the total immigrant flow in 1971 to 58% in 2006 (Statistics Canada, 2006). The predominant origins in the Asian stream currently are China (14%), the Philippines (7%), South Korea (3%), Hong Kong (1%) and Taiwan (1%). Europeans mainly come from the European parts of the former Soviet Union countries (4%), Romania (2%), United Kingdom (2%), and France (2%) (Statistics Canada, 2006b).

It has been noted that the longer immigrants live in a new country, the more they adapt to the behaviour of the dominant culture (Khung, 2003; Juniu, 2000). Some researchers state that after the first ten years immigrants' behaviour approximates that of the Canadian-born population (Beiser et al., 1997; Beiser et al., 1998; deVoretz, 1995). Therefore, only new (or recent) immigrants, defined as immigrants who have been living in Canada for ten years or less (Beiser et al., 1998), present an interest to this study.

The importance of immigrants for Canadian tourism industry is often overlooked and underestimated despite the fact that social scientists frequently point out that immigrants' lifestyle is very different from that of other members of the new home country. Such differences have been attributed to various reasons, such as changes in geographical, social, and economic conditions as well as other circumstances (e.g., Isajiw, Kalbach, & Reitz, 1990; Juniu, 2000). As a result, "the life of immigrants in a new country with a new culture may present new experiences to them ... also with respect of leisure experiences, including travel" (Lee & Sparks, 2007, p.505). This view is supported by many tourism researchers, who report that the differences in travel behaviour are usually associated with the nationality and other socio-demographic and psychographic characteristics of tourists (e.g., Kozak, 2000, Pizam & Jeong,

1996). Thus, it may be assumed that in many cases the travel behaviour of immigrants is different not only from that of Canadian-born residents but that it also differs with respect to the immigrants' country of origin at least for the first several years after their arrival to Canada.

This immigrant population should not be discounted by marketers because consumers expect service providers to be aware of their feelings related to the racial, ethnic and cultural aspects of their lives. Rosen (1997) wrote that "each population must be communicated with on its own terms, and with an open-mind approach to the many sensitivities and possibilities each market place presents. The imperative for marketers is to address each ethnic group and the many subgroups within them in ways they [ethnic groups] find relevant and motivating" (p.16). Despite this, immigration status and place of birth are seldom asked in travel activity surveys, and therefore, existing data and publications on the travel behaviour of immigrants are limited. This study seeks to fill this gap in scholarly research and explores the influence of the immigrants' home culture on their travel lifestyle and behaviours after their arrival to Canada.

1.1 Study Objectives and Research Questions

This study compares the two major groups of new immigrants to Canada (of European and Asian origin) in terms of their travel behaviour, and investigates if new immigrants' home culture has any influence on their travel lifestyle and behaviour in Canada.

The specific research objectives of this study are:

1. To identify the differences and similarities between new immigrants from Europe and from Asia with respect to their travel lifestyle and behaviour in Canada (RQ1).
2. To examine the differences and similarities in travel lifestyle and behaviour among the respondents, which may be attributed to their demographic characteristics (RQ2).

3. To investigate whether past travel experience and media use for planning a vacation of new Canadians from Europe differ from those from Asia (RQ3).
4. To identify categories of immigrants with similar travel lifestyle and behaviour and to compare the resulting groups.
5. To provide implications for the Canadian travel industry in relation to these segments.

The following research questions relate directly to the objectives of this study by seeking to explain the relationship between origin of immigrants and their travel behaviour (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1 Research Questions

1. Are there differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour depending on whether the respondents immigrated to Canada from Europe or from Asia?
2. What differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour exist according to respondents demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, and employment?
3. Do past travel experiences and media use for planning a vacation of new Canadians from Europe differ from those from Asia and, if so, how?
4. What distinct market segments of respondents can be identified depending on their travel lifestyle and behaviour?
5. What are the marketing and product developing implications for the Canadian travel industry in relation to these segments?

1.2 Significance of the Study

This project contributes to (1) understanding the travel behaviour and travel needs of new immigrants for Canadian tourism, (2) facilitates the adoption of specific targeted policies and communication programs to reach these market niches and (3) may have implications for marketers to develop a more suitable marketing mix and create or improve product development

to better suit the needs of immigrants, and to predict changes in these market segments. Understanding the travel lifestyle and behaviour of immigrants may also help improve travel demand forecasting for domestic travel which is an issue of growing importance for the Canadian tourism industry (Hudson and Ritchie, 2002). Moreover, this can encourage other people around the immigrants, such as their friends and families from their home countries to visit and travel in Canada.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Over the past several decades, a number of studies of cultural differences in pleasure travel have emerged. While these studies are not specific to the recent immigrants do not compare different groups of immigrants, they nevertheless provide a necessary theoretical basis for the present study. The purpose of this chapter is to provide an introduction to the key concepts related to this research, and to discuss previous research associated with the issues of cross-cultural research, market segmentation, travel behaviour and lifestyle, as well as with the influence of immigration on travel behaviour.

2.1 The role of Culture and Nationality in Tourism

2.1.1 The concept of culture

Culture is a multivariate concept with no single definition (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). In 1985, Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1985) reported that there existed more than hundred and sixty definition of culture. These ranged from definitions viewing culture as an all-inclusive phenomenon (“it is everything”), to those that attribute the concept a more specific meaning (*e.g.* culture is a system of ideas) (Reisinger & Turner). However, despite these diverse definitions, it has been generally agreed that culture “is a ‘theory’, an ‘abstraction’, or a ‘name’ for a very large category of phenomena” (Reisinger & Turner, p.4)

According to Master and Prideaux (2000a), culture may be viewed from two main perspectives. One perspective is to view culture solely as an ideological entity encompassing

values, norms, conventions and customs that underlie and guide behaviour in a society. The second perspective views culture as a combination of both ideological and material elements, including aspects such as where to travel, what to eat, what to buy, and what to wear.

“Members of similar cultures have similar values, conform to similar rules and norms; develop similar perceptions, attitudes, and stereotypes; use common language; and participate in similar activities” (Reisinger & Turner, 2002a, p. 298). Kim, *et al.* (2002) asserted that culture exerts a strong influence on people by delimiting actions that are either acceptable or not to the majority, by establishing a consensus of appropriate behaviour and lifestyles, and by providing a framework of experiences and beliefs that are held in common. They also stated that “culture is generally acquired by the individual in early childhood, is enriched and reinforced through shared life experiences, and will influence the members of society in many settings including family, social groups, geographical regions, and professions” (Kim *et al.*, p. 514). In other words, if there were no differences, there would be no cultures. Therefore, culture can be also viewed as differences between groups of people who do things differently and perceive the world differently (Reisinger & Turner).

As has been claimed by Pizam (1993), culture exists at various levels of society, for example at the supranational (Western and Eastern civilizations), national (*e.g.*, French and Japanese), and ethnic levels (*e.g.* Black and Hispanics in the USA). In addition, Pizam also stated that culture can exist within occupational groups (lawyers, physicians), corporations (Shell, Disney) and even industries (hotels, restaurants) (Pizam, 1993, p. 206). Some researchers, such as Jafari (1987) and Pizam (1999) have suggested that tourists, too, have a culture of their own because when tourists and hosts mix together, they produce a special and distinguishing type of

culture. Therefore, tourists of various nationality may possess both *touristic* (e.g. the culture of “group-tourists”, “backpackers”, “conventioneers”) as well as *national cultures*.

2.1.2 National culture

The concept of national culture is based on the assumption that there are larger cultural differences between different countries than within a country. According to Reisinger & Tunrer (1997), “most individuals from the same country share a stable and dominant cultural character that is difficult to change; and if it changes, it does so very slowly because of the permanent cultural *mental programming* that those individuals as a nation have in common” (p. 141). However, the same authors pointed out six years later that that each dominant national culture consists of several subcultures based on race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic characteristics (Reisinger & Tunrer, 2003).

National cultures are considered to vary from each other in many respects and in many dimensions. For example, Hofstede (1980) argued that there are four main dimensions that could be used to summarize the core differences between national cultures: 1) power distance dimension, which expresses the degree to which society accepts inequality in power and considers it as normal, and the way in which interpersonal relationships develop in hierarchical societies; 2) uncertainty avoidance dimension illustrating the extent to which culture encourages risk taking and tolerates uncertainty and the extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations; 3) individualism/collectivism dimension, which unveils the degree to which culture encourages individual concerns as opposed to collectivist concerns; and 4) masculinity/femininity dimension, which represents the extent to which people value work and achievement (“masculine” values) versus quality of life and harmonious human relations (“feminine” values).

For example, a group of North American and mostly European countries emerged as high on individualism and low on power distance, whereas another group of mostly Asian and Latin American countries appeared to be low on individualism and high on power distance. Nevertheless, although some researchers have favourably commented on Hofstede's comprehensiveness and simplicity (e.g. Milner et al., 1993; Sivakumar & Nakata, 2001; Sondergaard, 1994) several other scholars (e.g. Ailon, 2008; Chapman, 1996; McSweeney, 2002) argued that indices used in the study were overly broad and were not a true representation of the national cultures from which they were derived.

2.1.3 Culture as a key determinant in consumer behaviour

It has been long recognized that culture influences consumers (Loudon & Bitta, 1993). For example, as early as 1949, Duesenberry observed that all of the activities in which people engage are culturally determined, and that almost all purchases of goods or services were made either to provide physical comfort or to implement the activities that make up the life of a culture (Duesenberry, 1949, p.19). According to Wallace (1994), consumer behaviour is a function of culture (Figure 2.1). The central assumption of Wallace's theory is that culture is an all-encompassing force that forms personality (Samli, 1995). Personality is, therefore, a key factor influencing consumer behaviour. Thus, culture basically not only determines consumer behaviour but also explains it. Wallace states that an understanding of culture is critical to understanding, explaining, and comparing consumer behaviour in different cultures (Samli, 1995).

Figure 2.1 Wallace’s model of the impact of culture on consumer behaviour



Source: Samli, 1995, p.13.

Chung (1991) attempts to compare the key features in Asian and European cultures by contrasting them in terms of individuals’ thinking, decision-making, and behaviour in these cultures (Table 2.1). Table 2.1 shows that Asians think differently from Europeans. According to Chung (1991), the latter think rather in a linear, analytical way, while Asians are brought up to

Table 2.1 A comparison of Asian and European cultures

European	Asian
<i>Modes of thinking</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • causal, functional • linear, absolutely horizontal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • network, whole vision • non-linear, relatively vertical
<i>Decision-making</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to suit controls • individual, free • to suit the majority 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • based on trust • group solidarity • reaching consensus
<i>Behaviour</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • true to principles • based on legal principles • dynamic, facing conflict • open, direct, self- confident • extrovert 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to suit a situation • to suit a community • harmonious, conservative • restrained, indirect, with self-assurance • introvert

Source: Chung, 1996, p.14.

think in non-linear ways, to see things as a whole. While Europeans are individualistic and dependent on legalistic controls, Asians are community-oriented and prepared to build and work on the basis of trust. Also, while Eastern behavioural approach is based on harmony by being restrained and indirect, Western approach is challenging, direct and confrontational. This study

confirmed that “misunderstanding can occur if these two cultures meet without adequate prior preparation” (p. 419). Therefore, to avoid such misunderstanding culture should be a starting point for marketers who wish to better understand the market especially when dealing with a multicultural society.

2.1.4 Cross-cultural differences in tourism

In the last two decades, the attention to the role of national and cultural characteristics in determining tourist behaviour has grown significantly. This may be attributed to several reasons. First of all, tourism has experienced an explosion in international travel (Lee & Sparks, 2007a). Consequently, because international tourism is the industry where people from different countries and nationalities meet and interact (Pizam & Sussmann, 1995), globalization discussion and cultural diversity have also been given considerable attention. Further, cultural characteristics are especially relevant in tourism because they can represent the attractiveness of the product itself (e.g. Chang et al., 2006).

Therefore, there is a need for scholars to adapt a cross-cultural and international perspective in tourism research in order to overcome the bias caused by the “blinder and filters of culture” (Kim, 1999, p.202). Also, cross-cultural research could help analyze cultural differences, determine their impact on tourist behaviour, and identify similarities and differences among tourists and local service providers that, in turn, could contribute to more effective marketing and management strategies (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). In addition, Dimanche (1994) identified three main purposes of cross-cultural research, one of which is tourism and culture-related, and the other two are tourism, culture, and marketing related. The most important purpose of conducting cross-cultural research in relation with tourism is “to test a touristic

phenomenon or construct in various cultural environments, therefore providing different conditions needed to test that phenomenon or construct” (p.126) and gain a better understanding of the construct or phenomenon in question. The second purpose is to test tourist behaviour and marketing models in international settings in order to learn whether the theories can be generalizable or whether they are culture specific. Finally, the third purpose is to explore other cultures, learn about them, and test for cultural differences in tourism marketing.

A very important contribution to cross-cultural research in tourism was made by Pizam who together with his colleagues from many different countries such as the UK (Pizam & Sussmann, 1995), Israel (Pizam & Reichel, 1996), Korea (Pizam & Jeong, 1996), and the Netherlands (Pizam, Jansen-Verbeke, & Steel, 1997a) assessed the explanatory value of nationality in regard to tourist behaviour. These studies showed that nationality has an influence on tourist behaviour and that there are significant differences between the tourist behaviours of the affected nationalities.

Cross-cultural differences have also been found and analyzed by many other researchers in different tourism contexts as depicted in Tables 2.2 and 2.3.

Table 2.2 Selected comparative cross-cultural studies in the context of tourism

Author(s)	Object of Comparison
Armstrong, Mok, Go, & Chan (1997)	Comparison of European, English, and Asian tourists’ expectations of service quality
Chang & Chiang (2006)	Segmenting Japanese and American tourists based on their novelty-seeking motives
Chen (2000)	Comparison among tourists from Pacific-rim countries (Japan, South Korea and Australia) regarding their tourist information search behaviour
Crompton & McKay (1997)	Comparison of motives of visitors (including international visitors) attending cultural and sports festival events at San Antonio Festival, USA

Iverson (1997)	Comparison of Korean and Japanese tourists' time spending during vacation planning
Kang & Moscardo (2006)	Exploring the differences between Koreans, Australians, and British tourists in terms of their attitudes towards responsible tourists behaviour
Kim & Jogaratnam (2003)	Comparison of travel motivations and activities preferences of Asian international and American domestic university students
Kozak (2001)	Comparison of tourist satisfaction with destinations among British and German tourists
Kozak (2002)	Comparison of tourist motivations by nationality and destinations based on British and German tourists
Kozak, Bigne, Gonzalez & Andreu (2004)	Comparison among tourists from Spain, the UK, France, Germany and other countries regarding their destination image of Comunidad Valenciana
Lee & Sparks (2007)	Comparison of travel lifestyle of Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea
Park (2000)	Examining cultural and social factors influencing the souvenir-purchasing behaviour of Japanese and Korean tourists
Pizam & Jeong (1996)	Comparison of Japanese, Korean, and American tourists' behavioural characteristics based on Korean tour guides' perceptions
Pizam, Pine, Mok & Shin (1997)	Comparison of managerial behaviour of hotel managers from Hong Kong, Korea, and Japan
Pizam & Sussmann (1995)	Travel of Japanese, Italian, French and American tourists' behavioural characteristics from point of view of the UK travel guides
Ng, Lee & Soutar (2007)	Influence of culture distance on tourists' destination decisions on the example of Australian consumers' destination choice of 11 countries
Reisinger and Turner (1997)	Comparison of Indonesian tourists and Australian hosts using Hofstede's cultural dimensions

Reisinger and Turner (1998)	Comparison of Korean tourists and Australian hosts based on 8 factors (e.g. display of feelings, competence, idealism, courtesy, responsiveness)
Reisinger & Turner (2002a, 2002b)	Comparison of Asian tourist markets and Australian hosts based on their cultural values, rules of social behaviour, forms of interactions, and satisfaction with interaction
Richardson & Crompton (1988a, 1988b, 1988c)	Vacation travel preferences of French and English Canadians and cultural influences on their perceptions of the vacation attributes of the USA and Canada
Seddigh, Nuttall, & Theocharous, (2001)	Comparison of the perceptions of travel agents from the UK, Germany, France, Italy, Netherlands, and Switzerland concerning the impact of political instability on tourism
Sheldon & Fox (1988)	Comparison of Japanese, American, and Canadian tourists in terms of their foodservice preferences while choosing a vacation.
Sussmann & Rashkovsky (1997)	Comparison of French and English Canadian tourists based on amount of travel, sources of information, ratings of accommodation attributes, ratings of destination attributes
Uysal, McDonald, & Reid (1990)	Comparison of the source of information used by British, French, German, and Japanese visitors to the United States parks and natural areas
Woodside & Lawrence (1985)	Comparison of Canadians, Americans, and Japanese based on benefits derived from traveling to the same destination
Yuan & McDonald (1990)	Comparison of tourists from Japan, France, West Germany, and the UK based on their attitudes towards, preferences for, and motivational determinants of selected vacation travel attributes

According to Pizam, all studies in cultural characteristics are conducted by either direct or indirect methods. Using direct methods, researchers have tried to empirically discover if there are differences in tourism behaviour among various nationalities. Direct methods usually include either diaries, in which tourists record their own behaviour during the vacation, surveys completed by tourists after the trip, or observation by a researcher (Pizam & Sussmann, 1995).

Table 2.3 Selected conceptual cross-cultural tourism studies

Author(s)	Major Issue
Dann (1993)	Limitations in the use of nationality variable in tourism research
Dimanche (1994)	Overview of cross-cultural research in tourism, its limitations and suggestions
Pizam (1999)	Cross-cultural tourist behaviour
Reisinger (1992)	Tourist–host contact as a part of cultural tourism
Reisinger & Turner (2003)	Cross-cultural research in tourism

In studying tourists’ behaviour by indirect methods, scholars usually try to “describe and catalogue the various perceptions that residents in tourism communities and tourism practitioners have of tourists of various nationalities” (Pizam & Sussmann, 1995, p.901). Such studies are usually conducted by surveying or interviewing residents’ and tourism practitioners’ perceptions of tourists.

2.1.4.1. Motivations.

A number of researchers have indicated that travelers with different cultural backgrounds or nationalities have different motivations for travelling (Gnoth et al., 2000; Kim, 1999; Kim & Lee, 2000; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Kozak, 2002; Lee, 2000; Maoz, 2007; Reisinger & Turner, 1997; Seddighi et al., 2001; Yuan & McDonald, 1990). Using surveys completed by travelers from four countries (Japan, France, West Germany and United Kingdom), Yuan & McDonald (1990) analyzed twenty-nine motivational items, and identified five major push factors: escape, novelty, prestige, enhancement of kinship relationships, and relaxation/hobbies. The study showed that the importance attached to each motivational factor varied according to travelers’ nationalities.

Another empirical study (Kim and Lee, 2000) established that Japanese and Anglo-American tourists significantly differed in prestige/status, family togetherness, and novelty, while they were insignificantly different in knowledge and escape. Japanese tourists tended to show more favourable feelings toward family togetherness and prestige/status compared to Anglo-Americans. At the same time, Anglo-American tourists expressed more motivation toward novelty than tourists from Japan. The authors concluded that “Japanese tourists demonstrated collectivism in expressing their travel motivation while Anglos exhibited individualistic characteristics” (Kim & Lee, 2000, p. 164), and proposed that these differences in travel motivations might result from the differences between Anglo-American and Japanese cultures. Similarly, Ritter (1987) from his own structured observations noted a difference between Japanese and Europeans. He reported that the former preferred to travel in groups and to take short holidays only, while the latter were more individualistic travellers. He suggested that Japanese “think of themselves less of individuals and more of being members of the same group” (p.7) and thus, “long vacation away from the group means painful separation and a danger to their psychic well-being” (p.7). Lee (2000) also revealed the existence of significant differences in motivations between Caucasian (American and European) and Asian (Korean and Japanese) tourists.

Similarly to the aforementioned studies, Maoz (2007) compared Israeli backpackers with tourists of other cultural backgrounds and nationalities basing on the results of her own investigation as well as on the studies of other authors. She suggested that young Israeli backpackers were similar to Japanese tourists in distinguishing themselves from other tourists and their collective ‘inward’ orientation, while “Westerners tended to withdraw from their own compatriots” (p.136).

According to Kozak (2002), who compared German and British tourists visiting Turkey and Mallorca, Germans were more likely to have culture- and nature-oriented motivations, whereas tourists from Britain tended to have fun and mix with fellow tourists. At the same time, the motive of relaxation did not differ depending on nationality or tourist destination.

All the studies discussed in this section demonstrated that there indeed exist significant differences in the relative importance of motivational factors between various nationalities.

2.1.4.2. Information search.

A great number of cross-cultural studies in the current tourism literature are focused on information search behaviour (Chen, 2000; Chen & Gursoy, 2000; Gursoy & Chen, 2000; Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Ortega & Rodríguez, 2007; Uysal et al., 1990). For example, Uysal *et al.* (1990) examined the source of information used by British, French, German, and Japanese visitors to the United States parks and natural areas. They found that while planning a vacation, British travelers tended to use travel agents as the main source of information followed by family and friends, brochures and pamphlets, and magazine and newspaper articles. Japanese tourists were more likely to use books and other library materials first, followed by brochures and pamphlets, family and friends, and travel agents. For French and German travelers, family and friends were found to be the most important information sources.

Similar findings were made in Smith's study (1988) who stated that, "when it comes to source of information for trip planning, the French, as most North Americans, rely heavily on word of mouth" (p.152) while "the Japanese use more formal sources, including a very high reliance on library books" (p.152).

An important contribution to the unified European travel market was made by Gursoy and Umbreit (2004) who examined the influence of national culture on European travelers'

external information search behaviour. The authors identified five major segments of national cultures of EU travelers who use similar information sources while making vacation and destination selection decisions. The first segment included tourists from France, Greece, Netherlands, and Spain. This segment was found to be more likely to use travel guides and free tourist information leaflets compared to the other four segments. The second segment consisted of travelers from Denmark and Finland, who turned out to be more likely to utilize written information sources such as newspapers, magazines, and Internet than the other segments. The third segment, which was comprised of travelers from Belgium and Italy, preferred to use “other” information sources that were not included in the study. The fourth segment included travelers from Austria, Germany, Ireland, Luxembourg, Sweden, and the United Kingdom who tended to use travel agents and TV/radio as information sources more frequently than other identified segments. Finally, the fifth segment was the Portuguese who were not likely to use any of the information sources.

Therefore, as can be seen from the works mentioned in this section, the degree of travelers’ utilization of specific external information sources and their information search behaviour are likely to be influenced by the tourist’s national culture.

2.1.4.3. Criticism and limitations.

The increase in the attention given to culture and its effect on tourist behaviour has not been without criticism because conducting cross-cultural research has its own challenges and limitations. A number of issues have been raised with regard to the methods and conceptual foundations of cross-cultural research. For example, by examining cross-cultural consumer studies, Sin *et al.* (1999) indicated that some of the most common methodological concerns were

inaccurate stereotypes, non-equivalence in sampling, over-reliance on surveys as the means of data collection, and problems in establishing conceptual and metric equivalence.

According to Dimanche (1994), language and cross-cultural skills are the greatest barriers researchers face before conducting sound cross-cultural research. He purported that “it is critical to have a minimum understanding of a foreign language because a language is the necessary key to properly perceiving another culture” (p.129). Languages also contribute to a better comprehension of the methodological problems of cultural and translation equivalence. Other impending factors include a misunderstanding of the value and benefits of cross-cultural research and ethnocentrism of researchers. He stated that because most of tourist behaviour research is conducted in the USA, the developed models and practices were limited to white middle-class Western culture and thus there exists a “lack of either generalization or specific applications to other cultural settings” (Dimanche, 1994, p. 127). This is also true for some cross-cultural research, as has been noted by Valentine *et al.* (1999) who stated that eighty-nine percent of the cross-national studies in leisure literature were derived from North America, Western Europe, and Scandinavia. Finally, Dimanche (1994) mentioned that there is a lack of the needed resources for such kind of research because they often require extensive funding, multilingual researchers, or cross-cultural cooperation with research colleagues.

Dann (1993) was particularly concerned with the limitations of using nationality as a sole variable for explaining the differences in the behaviour of tourists, arguing that only few nations are homogenous in terms of culture. He raised several conceptual considerations: first of all, in present-day world people might hold two or more passports that give them multi-national allegiances; further, their country of birth may be different from their country of origin. Second, countries and nationalities are changing with new divisions and amalgamations making the

meaning of nationality more problematic. For example, Dann noted that “the ‘democratization’ of Eastern Europe may well be accompanied by loss of territorial identity as former Soviet satellites madly scramble to join the European community. With factionalism in the former USSR, the European community, Iraq, Canada, Sri Lanka, South Africa and elsewhere, it may no longer make much sense to speak of national identification with such societies...” (p.98). Third, in some tourist generating countries “problems are encountered whenever one begins to speak of nationality, national identity, national consciousness, or even country of residence” (p.100). Fourth, many tourist-receiving countries are pluralistic in their cultures and the question of nationality there can present even more problems. Dann stated that India, for instance, where to speak of homogeneous countries is more than a simple stretch of the imagination, polarization additionally occurs with respect to tribal origin, caste, religion, and language (p. 101).

2.2 Market Segmentation

Market segmentation is an accepted tool in strategic marketing for regional tourism organizations as well as for the tourism industry at large (Dolnicar, 2004). Smith (1956) who introduced the concept of market segmentation to the field of marketing provide the following definition “Market segmentation [...] consists of viewing a heterogeneous market (one characterized by divergent demand) as a number of smaller homogeneous markets in response to differing product preferences among important market segments” (p.6). One reason for the widespread acceptance of this approach is the fact that tourism organizations cannot serve all the customers due to heterogeneous markets (Dibb et al., 2002; Middleton, 1994). Therefore, marketing managers have to divide the total population into homogeneous segments in order to better understand the

needs and desires of each segment and design products specifically for it. Weinstein (2004) lists four major benefits of market segmentation:

- 1) designing responsive products to meet the needs of the market place;
- 2) determining effective and cost-efficient promotional strategies;
- 3) evaluating market competition, in particular the organisation's/destination's market position;
- 4) providing insight on present marketing strategies (pp. 15-16).

Segmentation analysis provides the necessary research base upon which all other marketing strategies can be successfully formulated and executed (Kotler et al., 2003; Weinstein, 2004).

Although market segmentation has numerous advantages, it should satisfy a number of conditions in order to use marketing recourses efficiently. Smith (1995, p. 114) defines the major of them:

- **Accessibility.** The marketer must be able to reach the segments through existing information channels; ideally the channels should allow the message to reach only the target audience. At a minimum, the channels should reach the target audience at a higher rate than other groups not likely to purchase the product.
- **Size.** The segment must be of a size sufficient to make them economical to reach. In other words, it must be big enough to justify the cost and effort of a directed marketing campaign.
- **Measurability.** The segment must be defined in such way that one can obtain adequate information about their market behaviour to monitor the effectiveness of a marketing campaign. This is also a concern when segments

are being defined in order to be used in forecasting models. The characteristics used for defining the segment must be those for which adequate trend data are available for forecasting.

- Appropriateness. Firms might use segmentation procedures to develop specialized products that cater to different markets they could serve.

Table 2.4 Major segmentation variables for tourist markets

Descriptors	Typical Breakdown
Socio-demographic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Age • Sex • Family lifecycle • Income occupation • Education • Religion • Ethnic origin
Geographic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Region • Size of metropolitan area • Population density • Climate
Psychographic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lifestyle • Personality characteristics • Values
Behavioural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Benefits • Loyalty status • Attitude toward product • Usage status • Usage rate

Source: Chahill, 2006; Loudon & Bitta, 1993; Morrison, 1996; Middleton, 1994.

It is important to note that marketing segmentation involves synthetic groupings of consumers constructed to help managers to design and target their strategies (Wedel and Kamakura, 2000).

Therefore, the identification of market segments and their elements is highly dependent on the methods used to define them. In the tourism literature, there exist many different bases of segmenting tourism markets. Seaton (1996) grouped all of them into two broad categories: segmentation based on trip descriptors and on segmentation based on tourist descriptors. The first category divides the total tourism market into four basic trip types: 1) recreational/pleasure; 2) visiting friends and relatives; 3) business; and 4) other.

The second category focuses on the person making the trip but not on the trip itself. There is a wide range of such descriptors, however, they can be grouped into four major categories: sociodemographic, (2) geographic, (3) psychographic, (4) behavioural (Table 2.4). The first two descriptors are the oldest (Cahill, 2006) and the most popular for grouping consumers (Kotler et al., 2002). Socio-demographic segmentation tries to unify population according to common physical or social characteristics including gender, age, income level, family composition, and others. It has been widely used in tourism research (e.g. Hudson, 2000; Lee, 2000; Muller & Cleaver, 2000). Its popularity can be explained with its great potential for targeting audiences at relatively low cost and easiness, with which socio-demographic data can be identified, measured and analyzed (Chahill, 2006). For example, basic descriptive information about buyers of travel products is generally available from national tourist office or commercial surveys of travel and tourism (Middelton, 1994).

Geographic segmentation is based on geographical units such as countries, cities, or climatic regions. This approach is popular for a number of reasons in tourism research. First of all, the concept is simple and speaks for itself (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2004). Also, targeting is very easy due to the fact that advertising and promotion activities are limited to the borders of the nation/or region chosen (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2004). Finally, no advanced expertise in data

analysis is needed. “Once the tourists are split into the countries of origin simple frequency and means computation are sufficient to describe the target segment” (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2004, p.4). Witt and Moutinho (1994) mentioned that “it is highly recommended to concentrate all efforts in a few geographical markets rather than to spread the recourses into many countries/or regions for which we do not have the necessary instruments” (p.306).

One of the major problems with socio-demographic and geographic descriptors is that they usually generate broad segments. Further, while people who share the same demographic and/or geographic characteristics not necessarily behave alike. For example, there are many destinations that appeal to tourists of certain class more than others not only because of income or education level but also due to basic needs of the tourists. For this reason, increased attention is being devoted to behavioural descriptors. They are helpful because they construct segments on the basis of information about tourist service experience and this information is assumed to be of most influence in a decision making process (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2004).

Psychographic segmentation is one of the newest, “most exciting and promising approaches to selecting target markets” (Loundon & Bitt, 2003) that employs an individual mental attitude and psychological makeup rather than physical characteristics of consumers (Bennett & Strydom, 2001). This approach is based on the assumption that common values and lifestyles can be found among groups of consumers and that these values and lifestyles are superior when determining their preferences and purchasing patterns (Middelton, 1994) (for more detail information on lifestyle segmentation please refer to section 2.2). Furthermore, psychographics examines “the actual motives for travel behaviour and offer answers why people travel allowing tourism managers to focus their efforts” (Witt &Moutinho, 1994, p.319).

Because there is no single way to segment the market, “a marketer has to try different segmentation variables, singly and in combination, hoping to find an insightful way to view the market structure” (Kotler, 1984, p.254). Along the same lines, Seaton (1996) states that the secret of successful segmentation is “to identify the most relevant categories of segmentation that account for the principal business of a tourism enterprise. Identifying the relevant dimensions of tourist attributes is itself a creative process because the most important ones may not be immediately obvious” (p.49).

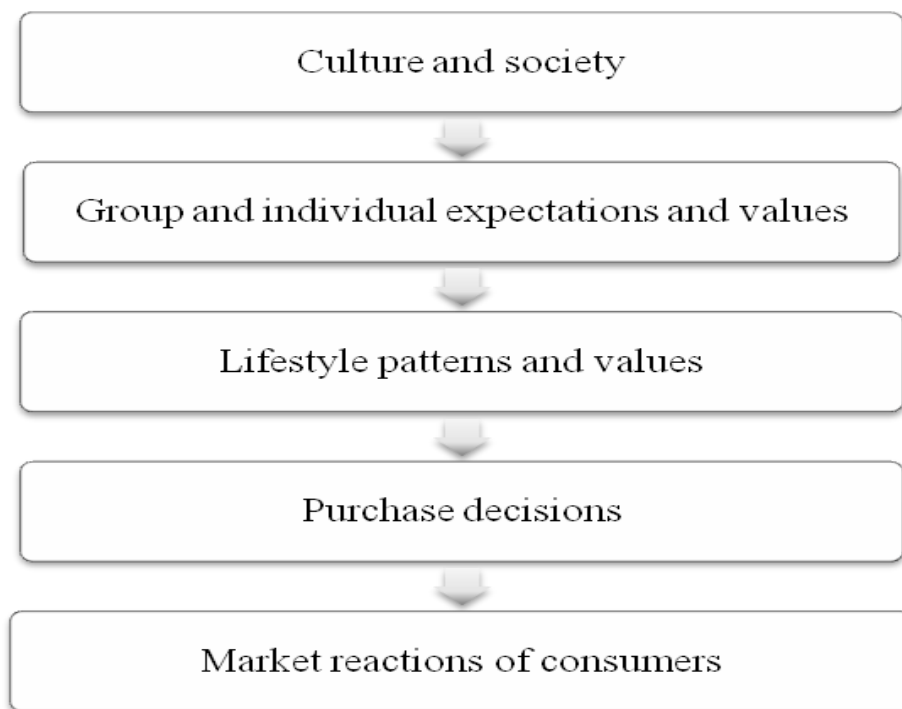
2.2.1 Travel lifestyle segmentation

As the tourism market has been very competitive in recent years, there exists a necessity to sharpen the marketing research tools to generate more accurate data for strategic tourism development. While demographic characteristics are still important, they alone give no indication as to why people consume specific products and services. Therefore, according to a numerous researchers (e.g., Lawson et al., 1999; Shih, 1986; Thyne et al., 2005) better ways in defining additional consumer groups and additional information about them are needed (Lawson et al., 1999; Shih, 1986; Thyne et al., 2005). “One of the most promising approaches to selecting target markets is lifestyle and psychographic segmentation” (Lawson et al., 1999, p. 46). This segmentation provides detailed profiles that “allow the marketer virtually to visualize the people he or she trying to reach” (Schewe & Calantone, 1978, p.15).

The term “style of life” was coined by Alfred Adler over 50 years ago to refer to goals people shape for themselves and the means they employ to reach them (Lazer, 1963). Today this term has been broadly used in many everyday situations, and its concept varies according to the discipline, the time and the researcher. Lazer (1963) was the first who introduced the concept of

lifestyle patterns and the potential for its relationship with marketing. His definition of lifestyle is still one of the most widely used and accepted in the marketing field (Lawson & Todd, 2002). He states that a lifestyle can be defined as “... a systems concept. It refers to the distinctive mode of living, in its aggregative or broadest sense ... It embodies the patterns that develop and emerge from the dynamics of living in a society” (Lazer, 1963 cited in Plummer, 1974, p. 33). Lazer (1963) also proposed a lifestyle hierarchy (Figure 2.2) attempting to show “where the construct emerged in the consumption process, whereby group and individual expectations are derived from a broad cultural framework. These are translated into lifestyle patterns that determine purchase decisions and market reactions” (Lawson & Todd, 2002, p. 269).

Figure 2.2 Lazer’s (1963) lifestyle hierarchy



Source: Plummer, 1974, p. 33.

Since 1963, methods of measuring lifestyles and their relationship to consumer behaviour have been significantly developed and redefined. One of the most common approaches to lifestyle

measurement has been AIO (Activities, Interests, and Opinions) rating statements (Assael, 1995). In general, these statements measure: 1) how people spend their time (their activities); 2) what is of most interest or importance to people in their immediate surroundings (their interests); 3) what people think of themselves and the world around them (their opinions) (Loudon & Bitta, 1993; Plummer, 1974, Wedel & Kamakura, 2000). Table 2.5 indicates the lifestyle dimensions (AIOs) that may be investigated among consumers in order to develop practical lifestyle segmentation.

Table 2.5 Lifestyle dimensions

ACTIVITIES	ITERESTS	OPINIONS	DEMOGRAPHICS
Work	Family	Themselves	Age
Hobbies	Home	Social issues	Education
Social events	Job	Politics	Income
Vacation	Community	Business	Occupation
Entertainment	Recreation	Economics	Family size
Club membership	Fashion	Education	Dwelling
Community	Food	Products	Geography
Shopping	Media	Future	City size
Sports	Achievements	Culture	Stage in life cycle

Source: Plummer, 1974, p.34.

Another common approach to measuring lifestyle patterns is the Value and Lifestyle Survey (VALS). The VALS 1 was developed in 1983 in USA by Mitchel. The VALS is “a way of viewing people based on their attitudes, needs, wants and beliefs, as well as on demographics” (Shih, 1986). This typology consists of a basic system of four categories with nine more detailed segments within them. These categories have been summarized in Table 2.6. However, after over a decade of research of consumer values and lifestyles the VALS 1 segments were found to be too general and tended to be driven by focus on baby boomers and to ignore older and younger customers. Thus a new measure of values was introduced which was called VALS 2 (Assael, 1995). The VALS 2 identifies eight types of consumers, as shown in Figure 2.3. This

classification is based on a theory of value development that subscribes to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Assael, 1995).

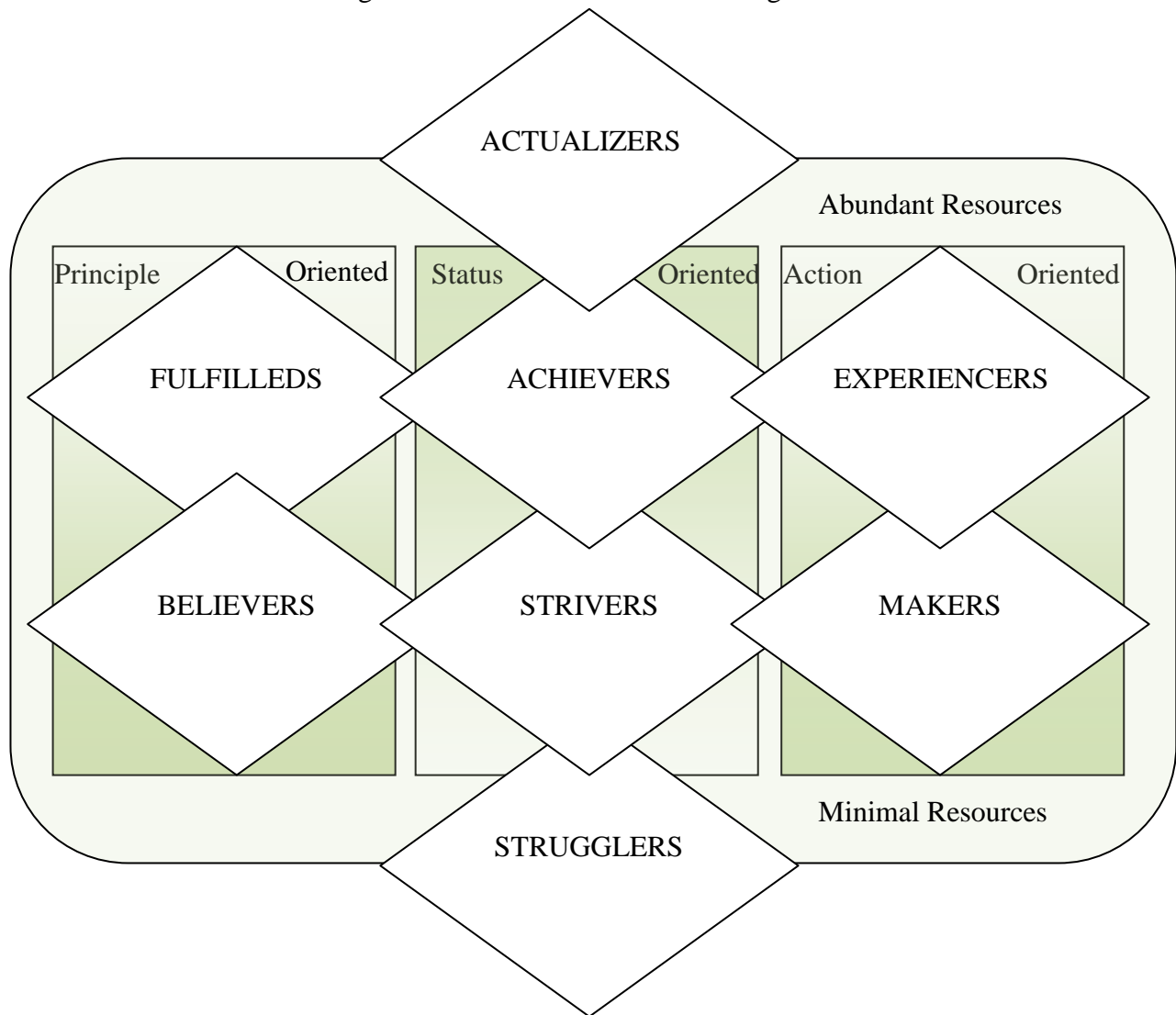
Table 2.6 VALS typology

Basic Categories	Lifestyles
Need-driven	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Survivor • Sustainer
Outer-directed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Belongers • Emulator • Achiever
Inner-directed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I-am-me • Experiential • Societally
Combined outer- and inner-directed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrated

While both VALS are widely known lifestyle typologies in North America, these have been used only a few times in Canada for commercial marketing applications because “experts believe that Canadian values differ from those of Americans” (Berkowitz et al., 2003, p.133).

In tourism research, segmenting the market according to travel lifestyle is often the main focus of the psychographic segmentation process (Michman, 1991). It cannot be over-emphasised for the reason that peoples’ activities, interests and opinions reflect tourist choice behaviour patterns (Michman, 1991). Table 2.7 summarizes the major lifestyle studies specifically focused on tourism.

Figure 2.3 The VALS 2 consumer segments



Source: Assael (1995), p. 401

Table 2.7 Major lifestyle studies in tourism

Author(s)	Study Summary	Main Findings
Abbey (1979)	A comparison of lifestyle and demographic information in tour package design.	Tour travelers prefer tours designed with vacation lifestyle information to those designed with demographic information.
Gladwell (1990)	A psychographic and sociodemographic analysis of state park inn users.	Psychographic research including activities, attitudes, interests, opinions, perceptions, needs, and daily routine provides more effective, efficient marketing programs, and better understanding of tourists as consumers.

Grunert (1996)	Developing travel lifestyles.	Travel lifestyle model is developed. It involves collecting information on basic value orientations, motivations towards a comprehensive set of holiday attributes, and actual behaviours with regard to purchasing, accommodation, transport, sightseeing and other kinds of recreation activities.
Hawes (1988)	Segmentation of elderly women in the tourist market.	There exist three distinct travel-related lifestyle profiles, distinct differences between certain age groups, and managerially useful media preference pattern differences within older American women travelers.
Lee & Cox (2007)	An analysis of travel behaviour and lifestyle of Korean immigrants in Australia.	Acculturation process has a significant influence on the immigrants' travel interests and lifestyles preferences, specifically related to their attitudes and opinions towards travel.
Lee & Sparks (2007)	A comparison of travel lifestyle and behaviour of Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea.	The travel-specific lifestyle segmentation was found to be extremely useful. The two groups differ from each other in a number of ways. Also, results indicate that the patterns of travel behaviour tend to vary depending on the residential country.
Perrault et al. (1977)	Segmentation of tourist market related to different travel predisposition.	The existence of "vacation lifestyle" is confirmed and vacation-specific AIO scales are developed.
Pizam & Celandine (1987)	An analysis of values as determinants of tourist behaviour.	Travel behaviour is determined by a person's general and vacation-specific lifestyle.
Reisinger & Mavondo (2004)	A multiple group comparison in covariance structure to test the equivalence of a psychographic model of the student travel market across the Australian and US markets.	Several models are investigated to compare the two student groups. The psychographic makeup of the student travel market could be described by five factors comprising cultural values, personality, travel motivation, preferences, and lifestyle.
Schewe & Calantone (1978)	Segmentation of tourists to Massachusetts.	A communication program adapted to lifestyle profiles is developed.

Schul & Crompton (1983)	Prediction and explanation of external search behaviour of a sample of international vacationers.	Search behaviour can be better explained by travel-specific lifestyle descriptors than by demographics.
Silverburg et al. (1997)	Segmentation nature-based tourists according to their activities, interests, and opinion.	For a more effective identifying of nature-based tourist markets, a psychographic research that attempts to look at the lifestyle characteristics of tourists should be used.
Solomon and George (1977)	An analysis of lifestyles of the historian segment.	Identified differences between the lifestyles of “historians” (travelers who expressed interest in historical places) and “nonhistorians” (those not interested in history).
Woodside & Pitts (1976)	An analysis of effects of consumer lifestyles, demographics, and travel activities on foreign and domestic travel behaviour.	Lifestyle information may be more important in predicting foreign and domestic travel compares to demographic information.

In the early study by Woodside and Pitts (1976) about the effects of consumer lifestyle, demographics and travel activities on tourists’ behaviour, it was found that “life-style information may be more important in predicting foreign and domestic travel behaviour than demographic variables (p.15). Thus, they suggested that travel-related organizations should use lifestyle data as a major market segmentation tool. “Lifestyle-research may offer particularly useful findings for developing travel products, e.g. packaged tours and theme parks” (p.15).

Similarly, Schul and Crompton (1983) used a number of travel-specific psychographic statements and socio-demographic variables to predict and explain external search behaviour. Their findings also suggest that travel-specific lifestyle descriptors are more effective than socio-demographics in predicting international vacationers’ external search behaviour. The authors state that “two products with very similar demographic profiles sometimes turn out to

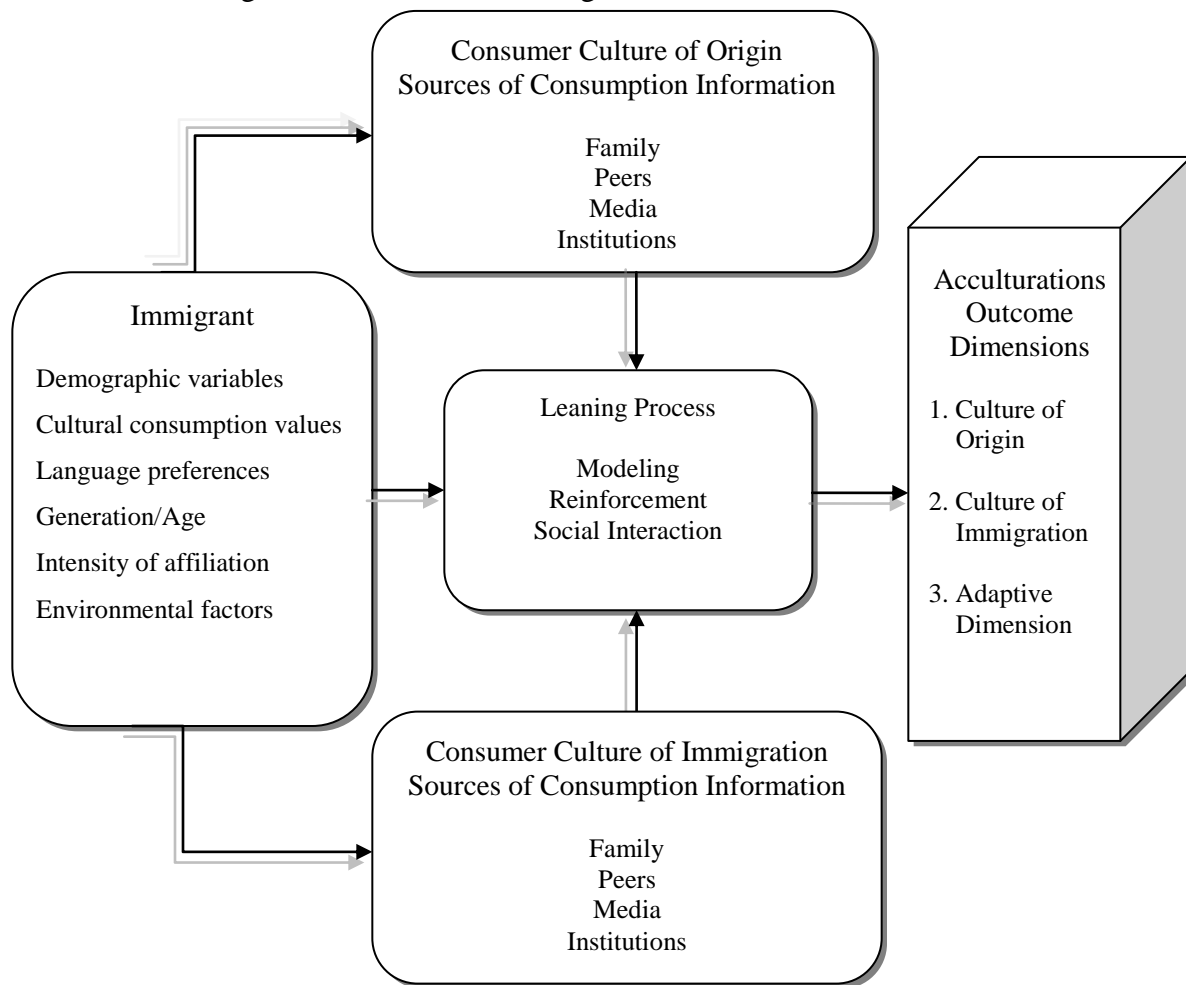
have usefully different psychographic profiles” (p.29). Therefore, tourist suppliers can benefit from the additional consumer information provided in psychographic studies.

In 1977, Perreault *et al.* proposed the existence of a “vacation lifestyle”, based on psychographics.. Their initial model involved 285 vacation-specific statements (for 70 scales) were pre-tested in interviews with members of 149 households. Scale analyses indicated that 105 statements (for 28 scales) were sufficient, and these were used and tested on the final questionnaire. Using the hierarchical cluster procedures, the vacation AIOs were investigated for a general vacation classification. Also, this classification was examined for context and relation to other, more general AIOs, and socio-demographic characteristics. In general, the study suggests that: 1) there exist generalized vacation life-styles; 2) there exist central life-style interests, “and vacation AIOs form such as sphere of interest” (p.208); and 3) vacation life-styles differ according to sociologically relevant variables. Since then, this scale was successfully applied by numerous researchers. For example, Gladwell (1990) used AIO statements in a study to identify vacation-specific lifestyle and behaviour predispositions of Indiana state park users. More recently, Lee and Sparks (2007) used a set of thirty three AIO statements to investigate the differences in travel behaviour of Koreans in Korea and Koreans in Australia. It was acknowledged that travel lifestyle characteristics, such as activities, opinions and interests, provide a researcher with good understanding individuals’ perceptions, needs, wants, and their expectations from the tourism industry’s supply components that, in turn, led to the development of appropriate products as well as marketing techniques. Recreational travel has always been considered a lifestyle choice (Thyne & Laws, 2005). Therefore, viewing these products within the framework of lifestyle segmentation is both logical and insightful.

2.3 The Impact of Immigration and Acculturation on Travel Behaviour

The increasing population of immigrants in Canada might lead to significant changes in the tourism market. Coming to the new home country, immigrants bring with them their own culture, language, values, lifestyle and behaviour. The transition to a new culture, customs, and unfamiliar economic structure is a complicated and long process for most of them. According to

Figure 2.4 A Model of Immigrant Consumer Acculturation



Source: Penalosa, 1989, p. 113.

Lee & Cox (2007), culture is “neither uniform nor statistic and it is a continual synthesis of old and new in many changes of society as well as many modes of exchanges between societies”

(p.186). Therefore, behaviour of immigrants can be changed by acculturation process in their new home country unless they have difficulties in adapting to the culture of the new country for some reason.

Penaloza (1989) developed an Immigrant Consumer Acculturation Model (Figure 2.4). The author suggests that “consumer acculturation is a dynamic process in which consumption behaviors [sic] of one culture are acquired by another culture, but not without a corresponding time lag effect and distortions possibly due to cultural stereotypes” (p. 116). Besides culture, values, and languages, immigrants differ from non-immigrants in terms of many demographic attributes and socio-economic characteristics (e.g. Petersen, 1972). However, in the tourism literature they are very rarely seen as a separate market segment(s) and very little research exists about impact of immigration on leisure experience and travel behaviour of immigrants.

Juniu (2000) explores the impact of immigration on the leisure experiences of South American immigrants living in the USA. The findings show that the process of acculturation and assimilation to a new home country strongly affected the newcomers’ lifestyle and leisure behaviour. Thus, immigrants experienced a decline in social activities, leisure experiences, and recreation participation. The two major barriers that influenced the newcomers’ lives were lack of time and pressing work responsibilities. Juniu also suggests that during the immigrants’ adjustment process social class was the most important indicator of behavioural changes.

Manrai & Manrai (1995) established the difference in time usage patterns for work versus social/leisure activities between 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. Perceptions of work time were higher in high-context cultures and

perceptions of social/leisure time were higher in low-context cultures. It was also found that these differences become less significant with increased acculturation in the US culture.

Stodolska's study explored some characteristics of constraints on leisure experienced by a recent immigrant population in Alberta, Canada. Her findings suggest that immigrants experienced certain constraints that are not commonly found among the general population such as insufficient language skills, or not feeling at ease among the mainstream. Further, the standard dimensions of leisure constraints that typically hold for the general population appear to differ somewhat for minority groups. She suggests, "the evidence points to a conclusion that leisure constraints of immigrants are subject to some distinct dynamic processes" (p.548) and "it is likely that the leisure of immigrants is most severely constrained immediately after their arrival and that some of these constraints have a tendency to decline in significance as people adapt to the new environment" (p.546).

Klimm (2002) sheds light on tourism participation of Asian ethnic minority in Bradford, U.K. The researcher conducted eighty personal interviews with Bradford residents of Asian origin concerning their holiday habits such as frequency and length of their travel, the destinations they visit, their motivations, and the methods of booking holidays. The results of the study found that the participation level in tourism of the minority group was similar to the British population as a whole (55% and 59% correspondingly). However, some differences were found between the destinations and travel lifestyles of ethnic groups as compared to the British population.

Increasing awareness of immigrants' travel and leisure behaviour, their needs and interests could not only help relevant organizations to develop specific marketing strategies but also improve immigrants' quality of life. In addition, the promotion of domestic travel for the

immigrant population in Canada may encourage immigrants to better understand Canadian culture and to harmonize with the new environment and society.

2.4 Conclusions

From the literature review it is evident that culture is a very important phenomenon and should be taken into consideration almost in every tourism industry. Further, the literature suggests that there are considerable differences between tourists from different countries in terms of their behavior, motivations, information search, etc. Therefore, from an industry perspective there is a need to identify the extent and significance of cultural differences as a part of tourist product development.

Knowing these differences should be used for international tourist market segmentation and positioning as well as for developing of domestic tourism markets in culturally diverse countries such as Canada, the USA, and Australia. However, tourist behaviour is a very complex phenomenon that might be influenced by many different variables at the same time. Therefore, cross-cultural differences as a segmentation tool should be used in a combination with other important traditional characteristics (especially with psychographics including lifestyle) because they have to complement each other in order to make market segmentation more efficient.

While many challenges and issues with cross-cultural research were outlined, the benefits of such research (e.g. increasing the understanding of different consumer markets for tourism industries, which leads to the development of a more effective marketing to attract more visitors) should outweigh the costs. Besides attracting international tourist markets, such research could also be of relevance in increasing domestic tourism among different ethnic groups or attracting

new local markets of various cultural backgrounds. This, in turn, will provide a range of tourism experiences designed to maximize visitor satisfaction regardless of cultural background.

Although much detailed investigation has been conducted on both nationality in tourism research, travel lifestyle, and behaviour, very little attention has been paid to sub-cultural segments in multi-cultural countries and there exist no studies investigating the role of these aspects in new Canadians' travel patterns. This study will draw on concepts from each of the above-mentioned areas, and will fill the gap in the scholarly research on immigrants in Canada and their tourism behaviour.

CHAPTER 3 METHODS

3.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research design of the study and to present how the research questions are addressed. It begins with short definitions of key terms and continues with a brief description of the research method used in the study with a justification of chosen method. Then, a survey instrument proposed to collect data is presented followed by a review of the content areas along with a brief overview of the research process including sampling, distribution of the survey instrument, and data analysis.

3.1 Key Terms and Definitions

The main focus of the study is on pleasure overnight trips, which according to Covley *et al.* (2004) are trips involving a stay away from home for at least one night to less than twelve months duration at a place at least 80 km away from home. The subjects of this study were divided into two groups to enable comparison between new Canadians from Europe and from Asia.

Table 3.1 Key terms and definitions

Term	Definition
Immigrant	A person who has been granted the right to live in Canada permanently (Statistics Canada, 2006).
New Immigrant	An immigrant who has been living in Canada for ten years or less (Beiser et al., 1998).
Culture	An umbrella word that encompasses a whole set of implicit widely shared beliefs, traditions, values, and expectations which characterize a particular group of people (Pizam, 1999).

Market Segmentation	The process of portioning the heterogeneous market into segments based on important characteristics. The goal is to facilitate development of unique marketing programs that will be most effective for these specific segments (Lawson et al., 1999).
Lifestyle	Unique patterns of thinking and behaving (including daily life routine, activities, interests, opinions, values, needs and perceptions) that characterize differences among consumers (Decrop, 1999).
Travel Lifestyle	The activities, interests and opinions related with traveling (Acevedo, Elahee, Hermosilla, 2003).
Travel (Tourist) Behaviour	The way consumers search, select, use and behave after they have purchased travel services (Morrison, 2002).

3.2 Research Design

The methods used in tourism research reflect the broad division between quantitative and qualitative methodology. Often this division is represented as a dichotomy with numerous researchers defending one or the other approach as superior. However, as Veal (1997) noted, despite the ongoing debate in the literature each method is generally considered to be appropriate or inappropriate for a specific research rather than right or wrong in general. Therefore, it is important to use the method that provides tools best suited to the purpose of a specific research.

Further, it has been argued that the terms qualitative and quantitative can be misleading (Smith, 2010). For example, quantitative methods sometimes can be used to study ‘qualities’ such as a subject’s attitudes through the use of Likert scales (Smith). Alternatively, qualitative methods may be used to collect quantitative data such as the number of times a person used a given word in an interview (Smith,). Therefore, alternative terms empirical (quantitative) and subjective (qualitative) proposed by Smith will be further used in this study.

Subjective methods use opinions rather than numerical data to generate forecast (Smith, 2010). In other words, subjective methods focus on gathering generally large amount of detailed information about relatively small number of subjects through in-depth personal interview, focus

groups, observations, and case studies (Digance & Wilson, 2001; Smith, 1995; Veal, 1997). On the other hand, empirical methods generate statistically oriented data, and require a great number of respondents to ensure reliability and validity of the data (Digance & Wilson, 2001).

While both methods enable researchers to draw inferences into consumer markets, for the purposes of this study an empirical approach is considered preferable for the following reasons:

1) The main goal of this study is to find out new immigrants' travel lifestyle and behaviour, and to establish if there are any correlations with respect to their regions of origin and socio-demographic characteristics. Therefore, this project attempts to answer the questions *what?*, *how?* and *how much?* and makes no attempt to explain the existence of these phenomena if such phenomena indeed exist; 2) This research works with a relatively large number of participants and their responses are presented as numerical data; 3) Statistical procedures of analysis are employed to analyze the data and the study has yielded empirical results.

3.3 Study Instrument

In order to answer the main research questions of the study, a survey using a self-administered questionnaire was employed. As noted by Smith (1995), the main advantage of using questionnaires is the possibility to reach a large sample size with relatively low cost and good quality of response on evaluation of long list of items. Other reasons for choosing questionnaires as the main tool of the study are: 1) questionnaires permit simultaneous collection of data from a geographically dispersed set of respondents; 2) questionnaires are more cost- and time-efficient than personal interviews; 3) using questionnaires helps maintain uniformity as respondents answer identical questions and are provided with the same range of possible answers (Smith, 2005).

Each questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter that briefly described the project and stressed the confidentiality of the elicited information. The questionnaire consisted of four main sections. The first part focused on the respondents' existing travel experiences after their immigration to Canada and consisted of a set of close-ended questions. These questions explored the frequency of international and domestic pleasure trips, seasons of travelling and length of stay, type of accommodation, etc.

The second section collected information about respondents' travel lifestyle and behaviour using activities, interests and opinions (AIO) statements asking about preferred vacation activities and behaviour inclinations. This scale was based on the studies by Perault, Darden and Darden (1977), Silverberg, Backman and Backman (1996), Schul and Crompton (1983) and Lee (2006).

Each statement was ranked on a 6-point Likert-type scale with the following divisions: (6) strongly agree; (5) mostly agree; (4) slightly agree; (3) slightly disagree; (2) mostly disagree, and (1) strongly disagree. Sometimes researchers choose to have a neutral response in the middle. However, when the Likert scale was first developed it did not include a neutral response because "Likert did not believe that there were "neutral" people walking around and that even if you were not passionate about an issue, you would at least feel a little something one way or the other" (Lodico, Spaulding, Voegtler, 2006, p. 108). While today using neutral response is perfectly acceptable and appropriate, "in cases where a decision may be made based on the data, it is advised not to include the neutral response" (Lodico, Spaulding, Voegtler, p. 108). Therefore, in this research the neutral response will not be used. Employing Likert-type statements has several advantages: 1) they are easy to construct; 2) they are relatively easy for respondents to complete; 3) they give the opportunity to create new composite measures derived

from the combination of several statements; and 4) they produce more reliable results than other scales with the same number of items (Jackson, 1999; Tittle & Hill, 1967).

Table 3.2 Key variables of questionnaire

Variables	Item
Travel Experience	Frequency of domestic and international vacations Length of stay Traveling companion Type of accommodation Type of arrangements
Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour	Activities/Attitudes Interests Opinions Behaviour
Travel Information Sources	Internet (travel websites, etc.) TV advertisements TV programs (not ads) Newspaper advertisements Newspaper articles/stories Magazines Travel agencies or trip organizers Travel catalogues/brochures Guidebooks Friends and family
Demographic Characteristics	Gender Age Year and country of immigration Marital status Education Occupation Income

The third part examined the information sources and types of information used by the respondents while planning a vacation or choosing a destination. A 4-point Likert scale [(4) very important; (3) important, (2) not very important; and (1) not at all important] was employed to rate the importance of the items.

Finally, in the last part, respondents were asked questions about their basic socio-demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, country of origin, year of arrival in Canada, marital status, household income level and the level of education. By collecting this information, possible relationships were detected where tourists with similar demographic characteristics share parallel views about pleasure travel and have similar travel lifestyle.

Prior to launching the project, a draft questionnaire was tested with a convenience sample of 8 new Canadians in the Kitchener-Waterloo area. The purposes of the test was 1) to ensure that wording of questions is clear and understood by the respondents, 2) to test the sequencing of questions in the questionnaire, 3) to gain some familiarity with the respondents' views of the questionnaire, and 4) to obtain an estimate time taken to complete a questionnaire (Veal, 1992). The results of the test were evaluated and some necessary modifications to the questionnaire were made.

Because new Canadians are a heterogeneous group in terms of their countries of origin, and consequently speak a large variety of first languages, translating the questionnaire in most of these languages and then analysing the responses in these languages would be time-consuming and expensive. Since June 2002, all recent independent immigrants are required to possess a good knowledge of at least one of the official languages prior to receiving their landed immigrant status (www.cic.gc.ca), and because the percentage of new Canadians possessing a good knowledge of French in Ontario is extremely small¹ the questionnaire was available in the English language only.

¹ A report by Statistics Canada in 2005 (Catalogue no. 89-624-XIE) shows that six months after their arrival, 58% of immigrants spoke English well or very well and "very few did not speak it at all". At the same time, after six months of their arrival, only 11% of immigrants reported speaking French well or very well, and 76% reported not speaking French at all (p.14)

3.4 Sampling

The final version of the questionnaire was distributed among new Canadians across South-western Ontario using snowball sampling technique. This technique is a type of non-probability method of survey sample selection (Ryan, 1995) and thus does not involve random selection of respondents. Generally, the majority of researchers prefer probabilistic or random sampling methods over non-probabilistic ones as they consider them more rigorous and accurate due to their permit of calculations of possible error estimates because of known sampling distributions (Ryan, 1995). However, snowball (or network) sampling was recognized to be especially useful when reaching hidden or hard to approach parts of population with similar characteristics (Salganik and Heckathrn, 2004). The basic mechanism of the snowball technique is identifying several subjects, surveying these subjects, requesting references of other people for the study, and repeating the survey-reference process (Babbie, 1989; Bailey, 1982). The term *snowball* is used to describe the sample that “begins small but becomes larger as it rolls on” (Bailey, 1982). In order to reach a wider range of participants and to facilitate the data collection process, the questionnaire was also made available online and limited to one participant per ip-address. Therefore, as suggested above, at the beginning of the study, a few participants who meet the characteristics of new Canadians and immigrated to Canada from Asia or Europe were contacted through churches and local cultural centres and asked to fill out the paper version of the questionnaire and were provided with additional paper copies as well as the link to the electronic version to be passed on to other potential participants. The latter respondents were also asked to forward the link to other new immigrants, and so on. All of the respondents were asked to complete the questionnaires individually.

In principle, in survey research, the bigger the sample, the smaller the sampling error, and thus the more accurate result of the survey (Lewis, 1984). According to Boomsma (1983), it is recommended that a sample size of at least 200 respondents is needed to perform “modeling of moderate complexity” (cited in Kelloway, 1998, p. 20). Also, the literature suggests that there is a positive relationship between the number of items (questions in a questionnaire) and the sample size, representing a ratio of at least 1:4 (Hinkin et al. 1997, Tinsley and Tinsley 1987), however, for the better results there should be 10 or more respondents per item (Ryan, 1995).

Although initially it was planned to collect approximately four hundred questionnaires, the snowball sampling technique was not as effective and problem-free as originally thought, and the researcher had to settle for a somewhat lower number of useable questionnaires.

In retrospect, it can be said that generally, snowball sampling worked very well for recruiting participants of European origin, but was not efficient for engaging immigrants from Asia. The author of this study knew a large number of immigrants from Eastern, central, and Western Europe, who were contacted personally and asked to spread the word about this project to their friends, relatives, and acquaintances. These participants were usually very interested in the study, forwarded the link to a number of further potential participants, and provided much feedback about specific questions in the questionnaire.

The situation with the Asian immigrants was very different. Despite much effort, only a few participants, whom the researcher knew personally, took part in the questionnaire, and even a fewer number recommended other potential participants. A trip to Asian Pacific Mall in Toronto, where vendors and visitors were personally asked to fill out the paper version of the questionnaire and offered \$5 for participating in the study, was very disappointing and did not recruit many participants. It is suspected that the European appearance of the researcher as well

as the lack of language skills in any of the Asian languages were mostly responsible for this failure, and that having an Asian research assistant might have led to a much better outcome. Further, contacting Multi-cultural centres in a number of cities in South-Western Ontario, such as Kitchener-Waterloo, Hamilton, and Guelph, was not as successful as expected, and only several participants were recruited through them. At the same time, visiting Christian churches of various ethnic groups, e.g. Chinese Alliance Church, Japanese United Church, and Korean United Church, turned out to be extremely useful despite being quite time-consuming because of the long process of being approved for data collection in each of the churches by their respective church boards.

As a result, the total of 278 questionnaires was collected, from which 227 were usable. It was decided not to use the remaining 51 questionnaires, as a significant part of them (mostly the answers to the AIO statements) were missing, and some were obviously filled out randomly. Nevertheless, the number of usable questionnaires was considered appropriate for the purposes of this project.

3.5 Process of Analysis

After the data have been collected, and the questionnaires were screened for errors (e.g. such as incomplete answers, multiple answers to a single question, etc) the data was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). This software program uses descriptive and inferential statistical tools to analyze quantitative data. A number of statistical analysis methods were employed in this study to fulfill main research objectives. These include basic descriptive statistics, factor analysis, independent samples t-tests, chi-square cross tabulations, one-way and

factorial ANOVA. Table 3.2 presents three main steps that were followed to comprehensively evaluate the data.

Table 3.3 Data analysis methods

	Steps	Statistical techniques
Step I	The first part of analysis includes the description of the sample and compares the demographics of the immigrants depending on their region of origin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • descriptive statistics; • Chi-square cross-tabulations.
Step II	<p>The second part of analysis explores:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the existence of silent dimensions of travel lifestyle and behaviour of the respondents; • whether the two groups of new immigrants differ in their travel lifestyle and behaviour with an assumption that the existing differences are at least partially related to their region of origin; • whether the differences can be attributed to the demographic factors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • factor analysis of travel lifestyle and behaviour measures; • independent samples t-test; • one-way ANOVA tests.
Step III	The third part of analysis searches for the differences between new immigrants based on the reported travel experience and information sources.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chi-square cross-tabulations; • one-way ANOVA
Step IV	The last part tries to shed light on the respondents by clustering them based on the underlying travel lifestyle and behaviour factors and then analyzing these clusters using the key variables of the study.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • K-mean cluster analysis; • Chi-square cross-tabulations; • one-way ANOVA.

The first step involves descriptive analysis of two groups of the respondents, and demographic characteristics of these groups were compared to each other. At the beginning of the second step factor analysis was performed to identify the existence of underlying dimensions of travel lifestyle and behaviour. These factors were explored and compared between the two groups of immigrants using the independent sample t-tests to find out whether reported travel lifestyle and behaviour of new immigrants from Asia exhibit differences compared to new immigrants from Europe (RQ1).

Then, in order to validate the influence of demographic characteristics (RQ 2) on the factors of travel lifestyle and behaviour, an independent sample t-test and one-way between groups ANOVA were performed (the factors as the dependent variables, demographic characteristics as the independent variables). During the third step, chi-square tests and one-way ANOVA were utilized to investigate if there were differences between the two groups of immigrants in relation to how often they take domestic/international holidays, their average length of stay for these holidays, preferred type of arranging trips, accommodation, travel companions, importance of information sources and types of information they use for planning holidays (RQ3). Finally, k-mean cluster analysis was used for developing meaningful subgroups of the respondents based on the scores of travel lifestyle and behavioural factors. After that, chi-square tests and one-way ANOVA, which analyzes the differences between clusters and the differences in variables to classify the members, were performed using demographic variables, past travel experience, and information sources with the clusters (RQ4).

CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter examines the research questions that were presented in Chapter 1:

1. Are there differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour depending on whether the respondents immigrated to Canada from Europe or from Asia?
2. What differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour exist according to respondents' demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, and employment?
3. Do past travel experiences of new Canadians from Europe differ from those from Asia and, if so, how?
4. What distinct market segments of respondents can be identified depending on their travel lifestyle and behaviour?
5. What are the marketing and product developing implications for the Canadian travel industry in relation to these segments?

The chapter begins with a look at descriptive statistics of the two groups of new immigrants based on their demographic characteristics (section 4.1). Then the data are refined and analyzed using factor analysis, reliability tests, independent samples t-tests, ANOVA and chi-square tests. Thus, section 4.2 presents the results of factor analysis on the travel lifestyle and behaviour scale along with the comparison of the resulting factors based on the respondents region of origin, length of residence in Canada and other demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education level, marital status and presence of children under 18, household income level, and employment situation. Further, past travel experiences and travel information sources are

analyzed and compared based on the respondents' region of origin (sections 4.3 and 4.4, respectively). Finally, the results of the data analysis are summarised and the main conclusions are drawn (section 4.5).

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

A total of 278 questionnaires were collected for this project. However, because of the missing responses to some important questions (mostly the answers to the AIO statements) only 227 of them were considered usable for this study. 128 questionnaires (56% of the sample) were filled out by European Canadians and 99 questionnaires (44% of the sample) by Asian Canadians. In this section, these data were analyzed in the SPSS software using frequency distribution and Chi-square tests. A summary of demographic information for both immigrant groups, including information on gender, age, education level, employment situation, household income level, marital status, and immigration period is presented in Table 4.1.

During the data collection process, an effort was made to limit the demographic differences of both samples at least in terms of two visual categories - gender and age - to make samples as much homogenous as possible. Using Chi-square tests, it was found that there were no significant differences on gender ($\chi^2 = 0.181$, $p=0.670$), age ($\chi^2 = 10.792$, $p=0.056$), marital status ($\chi^2 = 0.074$, $p=0.786$) and the length of stay in Canada ($\chi^2 = 9.178$, $p=0.057$) between the two samples.

On the other hand, significant differences among these two groups of new immigrants were found in education ($\chi^2 = 9.925$, $p=0.019$), employment situation ($\chi^2 = 15.662$, $p = 0.016$) and household income level ($\chi^2 = 36.434$, $p < 0.001$). These factors were very difficult to control during the data collection process because they are not visible distinctions. Therefore, the Asian

Table 4.1 Demographic characteristics of European and Asian respondents (n=227)

Demographics	Category	Europeans		Asians		Sig.
		n	%	n	%	
Gender	Male	67	52.3	49	49.5	0.670
	Female	61	47.7	50	50.5	
Age	18-29 years	32	25.0	27	27.3	0.056
	30-39 years	45	32.2	32	32.3	
	40-49 years	44	34.4	25	25.3	
	50 or over	7	5.5	15	15.1	
Highest education level completed	High School or less	7	5.5	3	3.0	0.019*
	College, trade, or technical school	16	12.5	25	25.3	
	University undergraduate degree	31	24.2	30	30.3	
	University graduate degree	74	57.8	40	40.4	
Employment situation	Working full-time	86	67.2	54	54.5	0.016*
	Working part-time	3	2.3	11	11.1	
	Self-employed	19	14.8	20	20.2	
	Unemployed	9	7.0	6	6.1	
	Full-time student	8	6.3	2	2.0	
	Retired	1	0.8	5	5.0	
	Other	2	1.6	1	1.0	
Household income	Under \$20,000	5	3.9	9	9.1	<0.001*
	\$20,000-39,999	12	9.4	19	19.2	
	\$ 40,000-59,999	18	14.1	22	22.2	
	\$60,000-79,999	27	21.1	34	34.3	
	\$80,000-99,999	28	21.9	11	11.1	
	\$100,000-149,999	25	19.5	4	4	
	\$150,000 or over	13	10.2	0	0	
Marital status	Married or equivalent	91	71.1	72	72.7	0.786
	Not married	37	28.9	27	27.3	
Children under 18	Yes	43	33.6	48	48.5	0.057
	No	84	65.6	51	51.5	
Immigration period	2 years or less	18	14.1	6	6.1	0.057
	3-4 years	23	18.0	28	28.6	
	5.6 years	25	19.5	22	22.4	
	More than 6 years	62	48.4	42	42.9	

*Level of significance at p<0.05

respondents as a rule had a lower level of education compared to the European participants: while only 18.0% of Europeans did not graduate from a university, this number among the Asian immigrants was significantly higher (28.3%). Further, 67.2% of the European respondents indicated that they have been working full-time whereas this percentage for the Asian respondents was noticeably lower and comprised 54.5%. Part-time and self-employment rates were higher among the Asian respondents (11.1% and 20.2% respectively) compared to the European participants (2.3% and 14.8% respectively).

Further, it is interesting to note that the household income for the majority (72.7%) of the European respondents was above \$60,000. For example, 21.1% of the Europeans reported earning \$60,000-\$79,999, 21.9% earned \$80,000-\$99,999, and 19.5% declared income between \$100,000 and \$149,999. This was significantly higher than the income reported by the Asian respondents, only 49.4% of who earned above \$60,000. At the same time 19.2% of Asian immigrants reported the family income from \$20,000 to \$39,999, and 22.2% between \$40,000 and \$59,999. Furthermore, more than 10% of Europeans reported family income of \$150,000 or more but none of Asian participants fell into this income category.

4.2 Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour

This section starts by presenting the results of the factor analysis on the travel lifestyle and behaviour scale which was performed in order to identify the underlying structure of the responses and for the data reduction purposes. Then, the resulting travel lifestyle and behaviour factors were compared between two groups of new immigrants using an independent samples t-test. Further, independent samples t-tests and one-way between groups ANOVA were used to

explore the relationships between the travel lifestyle and behaviour dimensions and the demographic characteristics.

4.2.1 Factor analysis of travel lifestyle and behaviour

The respondents were initially given forty travel lifestyle and behaviour statements that were to be rated on 6-point Likert-type scales, ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree (Table 4.2). These data then were subjected to factor analysis using principal components analysis with orthogonal rotation (varimax) in order to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller set of underlying factors. An orthogonal rotation was chosen for this project because it determines the final factors which are uncorrelated as possible with each other. As a result, the information explained by each factor is independent of the other factors (Leech, 2005). Further, orthogonal rotation explains or predicts various items by different underlying factors, and each factor explains more than one item (Leech). The varimax rotation was considered most suitable because it tends to minimize the number of variables that load strongly on a factor and tends to equalize the proportion of variance explained by each factor (Diekhoff, 1992). Because of the small sample size of the sample it was decided to run factor analysis for both groups of immigrants together rather than independently. Prior to the analysis, the suitability of the data for the factor analysis was assessed. First of all, the correlation matrix was examined and all items that had a correlation coefficient of 0.30 or smaller were omitted. Then, the table of communalities was scanned and only items with high communalities (0.50 or higher) were retained. Further, the factor loadings were analyzed. It is known that the larger the absolute size of the factor loading, the more significant the loading is interpreted in the factor matrix (Hair, Anderson, Tashakkori & Black, 1998). Although factor loadings greater than 0.50 are usually

Table 4.2 Travel lifestyle and behaviour statements

1. I prefer to travel in a group rather than by myself
 2. When I travel abroad, I prefer to be on a guided tour
 3. It is very important to meet new people on vacation
 4. I like to mix with tourists from other cultures
 5. The nicest vacation is one where I can just relax and do nothing (reverse coding)
 6. When I go on holiday, I look for adventure and an opportunity to escape from the ordinary
 7. The best vacations are those that have a lot of night life
 8. I like to travel to historical locations
 9. I like holidays with lots of fun and entertainment
 10. I like to visit educational places where I am able to learn
 11. I like to visit places with large variety of activities and sights
 12. I like to visit a place that has a scenic beauty of nature
 13. I like to visit places where a range of shopping is available
 14. I like to visit places of the occasion of a festival
 15. One of the best parts of travelling is to visit new cultures and new ways of living
 16. I like to try local foods and drinks
 17. I prefer to travel to new places with new cultures and new ways of living
 18. It is important to have friends or relatives living there
 19. I do not worry about costs when I am on holiday
 20. It is important that everything is organized so that I do not need to care about anything on holiday
 21. I like to visit places where the people speak the same language as me (reverse coding)
 22. It is important that there is plenty to entertain the children at the holiday destination
 23. I like to travel with my family
 24. I normally plan my holiday around watching my favorite sporting event
 25. My holiday is usually planned so that I can participate in my favorite sport
 26. I would have little interest in a vacation that did not include some sports activity
 27. When given a choice, I prefer to vacation in an outdoor area
 28. I often go to different places spontaneously
 29. I usually plan all the details (including routes, activities, etc.) prior to leaving on holiday (reverse coding)
 30. Given a lot of money, I would like to spend it on holiday travel more than something else
 31. Planning a trip is more trouble than it's worth
 32. I prefer to take several short trips than a few longer ones
 33. The climate of the holiday destination is important
 34. I usually buy souvenirs or gifts
 35. I like to shop when I am on holiday
 36. I prefer to see the "real thing" rather than "staged" attractions/events
 37. I prefer activity rather than passiveness
 38. I am interested in novelty rather than familiar things
 39. Canada offers great variety of vacation activities
 40. There are many places I want to visit in Canada
-

considered to be significant (e.g. Hair et al., 1998), in this study, only factor loadings that were greater than 0.60 were employed to illustrate the high level of significance of the correlation between the variable and the factor.

Next, the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was performed to quantify the degree of intercorrelations among the variables. The KMO value for the data was 0.669, which suggested that these data were suitable for factor analysis as the coefficient exceeded the recommended value of 0.6 (Coakes & Steed, 1999). Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance ($p < 0.001$) and thus supported the appropriateness of the data set for the factor analysis. The final solution of the 27 travel lifestyle and behaviour variables resulted in nine factors with an eigenvalue exceeding 1 and explained 72.46% of the total variance. Each of the nine factors showed a Cronbach alpha of 0.65 or above. A summary of dropped statements is provided in Table 4.3

Table 4.3 A summary listing of dropped travel lifestyle and behaviour statements

-
- 6. When I go on holiday, I look for adventure and an opportunity to escape from the ordinary
 - 9. I like holidays with lots of fun and entertainment
 - 12. I like to visit a place that has a scenic beauty of nature
 - 18. It is important to have friends or relatives living there
 - 19. I do not worry about costs when I am on holiday
 - 20. It is important that everything is organized so that I do not need to care about anything on holiday
 - 21. I like to visit places where the people speak the same language as me (reverse coding)
 - 22. It is important that there is plenty to entertain the children at the holiday destination
 - 23. I like to travel with my family
 - 27. When given a choice, I prefer to vacation in an outdoor area
 - 30. Given a lot of money, I would like to spend it on holiday travel more than something else
 - 32. I prefer to take several short trips than a few longer ones
 - 33. The climate of the holiday destination is important
-

The final factors were labelled based on the main themes of travel lifestyle and behaviour statements contained in the survey:

- Factor 1 contains four items and was named *New Experiences* since all its statements deal with the participants' openness to novelty and new experiences in travel. This factor explains 13.8 % of the variance with an eigenvalue of 3.71.
- Factor 2 consists of four items that emphasize shopping behaviours while travelling and was called *Shopping*. It accounts for 12.2% of variance with an eigenvalue of 3.29.
- Factor 3 is made up of three variables which are based on how the respondents plan their vacations. This factor explains 10.62% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 2.87 and was labelled *Spontaneous Travel*.
- Factor 4 has three items and reflects new immigrants' interest in sports while travelling and was called *Sport Interests*. It explains 9.12% of variance and has an eigenvalue of 2.46.
- Factor 5 was named *Educational Interests*. Its three elements emphasize the interest of the respondents in educational elements during vacations. This factor accounts for 7.06% with an eigenvalue after rotation of 1.91.
- Factor 6 was labelled *Active* and contains three items which indicate whether the respondents prefer to be active while on vacation. It explains 5.54% of variance and has an eigenvalue of 1.50.
- Factor 7 has three variables which reflect respondents' interests in socializing with other people while on vacation. It was called *Socializing* and accounts for 5% of variance with an eigenvalue of 1.35.

- Factor 8 contains two items reflecting the respondents' attitudes towards travelling within Canada and was named *Interest in Canada*. This factor explains 4.80% of variance with an eigenvalue of 1.30.
- The two variables from Factor 9 deal with the participants' preference to travel alone or in groups. This factor explains 4.40% of variance with an eigenvalue of 1.19.

Table 4.4 summarizes the results of the factor analysis of travel lifestyle and behaviour and includes variables, factor loadings, eigenvalues, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients (please see Appendix for the Communalities and Rotation Components Matrix output).

Table 4.4 Factor analysis of travel lifestyle

Factors and Items	Factor Loadings	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Factor 1: New Experiences</i>		3.71	13.80	0.83
I prefer to travel to new places with new cultures and new ways of living	.885			
I like to try local foods and drinks	.844			
One of the best parts of travelling is to visit new cultures and new ways of living	.821			
I am interested in novelty rather than familiar things	.617			
<i>Factor 2: Shopping</i>		3.29	12.20	0.75
I like to shop when I am on holiday	.858			
I like to visit places where a range of shopping is available	.820			
I like to visit places of the occasion of a festival	.667			
I usually buy souvenirs or gifts	.601			
<i>Factor 3: Spontaneous Travel</i>		2.87	10.62	0.86
I usually plan all the details (including routes, activities, etc.) prior to leaving on holiday (reverse coding)	.888			
Planning a trip is more trouble than it's worth	.884			
I often go to different places spontaneously	.777			

Factor 4: Sport Interests		2.46	9.12	0.82
My holiday is usually planned so that I can participate in my favourite sport	.884			
I would have little interest in a vacation that did not include some sports activity	.816			
I normally plan my holiday around watching my favourite sporting event	.806			
Factor 5: Educational Interests		1.91	7.06	0.75
I like to visit educational places where I am able to learn	.836			
I like to visit places with large variety of sights	.789			
I like to travel to historical locations	.784			
Factor 6: Active		1.50	5.54	0.68
I prefer activity rather than passiveness	.857			
The nicest vacation is one where I can just relax and do nothing (reverse coding)	.747			
I prefer to see the “real thing” rather than “staged” attractions/events	.685			
Factor 7: Socializing		1.35	5.00	0.70
It is very important to meet new people on vacation	.812			
I like to mix with tourists from other cultures	.803			
The best vacations are those that have a lot of night life	.645			
Factor 8: Interest in Canada		1.30	4.80	0.74
There are many places I want to visit in Canada	.881			
Canada offers great variety of vacation activities	.844			
Factor 9: Group Travel		1.19	4.40	0.65
I prefer to travel in a group rather than by myself	.839			
When I travel abroad, I prefer to be on a guided tour	.791			
Total variance explained			72.46	

4.2.2 Comparison of new immigrants in terms of their travel lifestyle and behaviour

4.2.2.1 Travel lifestyle and behaviour factors comparison based on new immigrants' region of origin. In order to identify whether there is a sufficient evidence to suggest that new Canadians from Europe and new Canadians from Asia are significantly different in terms of their reported travel lifestyle and behaviour, an independent samples t-test was used. The results of the t-test are presented in Table 4.5. Significant differences between the two sample groups were noticed in five travel lifestyle and behaviour factors. The Europeans showed significantly higher mean scores on the *New Experiences* variable than the Asians ($t=3.988$, $p<0.001$) and the mean score for the *Group Travel* factor was found to be considerably higher for Asian respondents compared to the Europeans ($t=-4.825$, $p<0.001$). Asians were also significantly more likely to report engaging in shopping than the Europeans ($t=-2.559$, $p=0.011$). Both groups of new immigrants demonstrated low *Sport Interests* scores while travelling. However, Europeans were less likely to report planning a vacation that includes some sports activities rather than Asians ($t=-2.320$, $p=0.021$). Finally, it is very important to note that the *Socializing* factor turned to be of a greater importance for Asian immigrants compared to Europeans ($t=-2.067$, $p=0.040$).

No statistically significant differences ($p<0.05$) were found between European and Asian respondents in relation to four factors of preferred travel lifestyle and behaviour. These were *Spontaneous Travel* ($t=-0.174$, $p=0.862$), *Educational Interests* ($t=0.625$, $p=0.533$), *Active* ($t=1.797$, $p=0.074$), and *Interest in Canada* ($t=-1.016$, $p=0.311$).

Table 4.5 Travel lifestyle and behaviour factors comparison based on region of origin

Factor	Immigrants from Europe (n=128)		Immigrants from Asia (n=99)		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
New Experiences	4.99	0.870	4.48	1.020	3.988	<0.001*
Shopping	3.75	1.103	4.12	1.118	-2.559	0.011*
Spontaneous Travel	2.80	1.281	2.82	0.918	-0.174	0.862
Sport Interests	2.13	1.040	2.49	1.240	-2.320	0.021*
Educational Interests	4.74	0.865	4.67	0.881	0.625	0.533
Active	4.34	1.017	4.12	0.828	1.797	0.074
Socializing	3.52	1.216	3.84	1.066	-2.067	0.040*
Interest in Canada	4.83	1.049	4.97	0.963	-1.016	0.311
Group Travel	3.08	1.379	3.97	1.358	-4.825	<0.001*

Mean scores could range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree)

*Level of significance at $p < 0.05$

4.2.2.2 Travel lifestyle and behaviour factors comparison based on demographics. In

order to explore the influence of demographic characteristics on the new immigrants' travel lifestyle and behaviour independent samples t-tests and one-way between groups ANOVA were conducted with the nine travel lifestyle factors as the dependent variables and demographic characteristics as independent variables. Due to a small sample size of the sample it was decided to run all the analysis for both groups of immigrants together rather than the two groups separately.

Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour Factors Comparison Based on Gender

An independent samples t-test was used to look for differences in travel lifestyle and behaviour based on gender of the respondents. Table 4.6 presents the results of the t-test. The analysis showed that gender had a significant effect on the four following factors: *Shopping*, *Spontaneous*

Travel, Sport and Educational Interests factor. More specifically, male respondents were significantly more likely to prefer *Spontaneous Travel* behaviour ($t=4.528$, $p<0.001$) and demonstrated higher interests in sports ($t=3.081$, $p=0.002$). Not surprisingly, female respondents reported significantly higher interests in shopping while on vacation. Also, female immigrants were more likely than males to choose vacations with an educational hint ($t=-2.483$, $p=0.014$). However, no significant differences were found for gender in relation to the *New Experiences* ($t=-1.415$, $p=0.159$), *Active* ($t=1.063$, $p=0.289$), *Socializing* ($t=1.271$, $p=0.205$), *Interest in Canada* ($t=-0.915$, $p=0.361$), and *Group Travel* ($t=0.583$, $p=0.561$) factors.

Table 4.6 Travel lifestyle and behaviour factors comparison based on gender

Factor	Male (n=116)		Female (n=111)		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
New Experiences	4.68	1.002	4.86	0.928	-1.415	0.159
Shopping	3.59	0.989	4.26	1.067	-4.929	<0.001*
Spontaneous Travel	3.13	1.195	2.48	0.967	4.528	<0.001*
Sport Interests	2.51	1.126	2.05	1.118	3.081	0.002*
Educational Interests	4.57	0.908	4.85	0.809	-2.483	0.014*
Active	4.31	0.918	4.18	0.970	1.063	0.289
Socializing	3.76	1.154	3.56	1.165	1.271	0.205
Interest in Canada	4.83	1.075	4.95	0.943	-0.915	0.361
Group Travel	3.53	1.497	3.42	1.374	0.583	0.561

Mean scores could range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree)

*Level of significance at $p<0.05$

Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour Factors Comparison Based on Age

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of age of the respondents on their reported travel lifestyle and behaviour. In addition, the Scheffé post-hoc comparison procedure was used to assess the level of differences among the groups. Prior to performing ANOVA,

seven age categories were recoded to four groups due to a very small number of participants in the age categories of 60 - 69 years and 70 and over. Therefore these categories of respondents were merged with the respondents from 50 to 59 years of age. The resulting category was called *50 years or over*. Also there were no participants younger than 21 in the entire sample.

The results of the analysis indicate that seven factors failed (see Table 4.7) to demonstrate any significant differences among the respondents divided into four age categories.

Table 4.7 travel lifestyle and behaviour factors comparison based on age

Factor	21-29 years (n=59)		30-39 years (n=77)		40-49years (n=69)		50 years and over (n=22)		F	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
New Experiences	4.65	1.108	4.74	1.023	4.38	0.826	4.85	0.789	0.709	0.548
Shopping	3.89	1.078	3.39	1.019	3.96	1.185	3.77	0.997	0.184	0.907
Spontaneous Travel	3.12 ^a	1.246	2.92 ^{a/b}	1.171	2.42 ^b	0.964	2.83 ^{a/b}	0.877	4.748	0.003 [*]
Sport Interests	2.52	1.243	2.16	0.994	2.17	1.138	2.45	1.320	1.533	0.207
Educational	4.73	0.818	4.63	0.874	4.75	0.925	4.77	0.184	0.337	0.799
Active	4.25	0.984	4.17	0.902	4.33	0.951	4.23	0.999	0.320	0.805
Socializing	4.14 ^a	1.006	3.64 ^{a/b}	1.231	3.20 ^b	1.068	3.88 ^a	1.072	7.866	<0.001 [*]
Interest in Canada	4.90	1.163	4.86	0.884	4.82	1.057	5.23	0.841	0.955	0.415
Group Travel	3.45	1.184	3.62	1.379	3.36	1.695	3.39	1.414	0.447	0.720

Mean scores could range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree)

*Level of significance at p<0.05

On the other hand, the variables *Socializing* and *Spontaneous Travel* showed some differences based on age. The mean score for the 40 to 49 years age group was significantly lower (M=3.20, SD=1.068) than the mean scores for the youngest (M=4.14, SD=1.006) and for the oldest (M=3.88, SD=1.072) participants in terms of *Socializing* (F=7.866, p<0.001). This indicates that

the youngest and the oldest respondents were more likely to prefer vacation where they can meet and interact with other people than did respondents between 40 and 49 years of age. The mean score for *Spontaneous Travel* for the 20 to 29 years group (M=3.12, SD=1.246) was significantly higher mean than were mean scores of new immigrants between 40 and 49 years (M=2.42, SD=0.964) at $F=4.748$, $p=0.003$. It appears that younger people were more likely to go on a trip without planning it in advance than all the other categories.

Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour Factors Comparison based on Highest Education Level

Completed

A one-way ANOVA and Scheffé post-hoc tests were utilized to determine whether respondents' level of education had an effect on their reported travel lifestyle and behaviour. Before performing the ANOVA analysis, the five categories of education were recoded to three because some categories contained only one or no responses whereas more than two cases in the group are necessary for performing post-hoc tests. Because there was only one respondent whose level of education was less than high school, and several participants with just high school education level only, it was decided to group these categories together with the category, *College, Trade, or Technical School*. The new category was labelled as *College Diploma or Less*.

As illustrated in Table 4.8, the ANOVA results showed significant differences in the *Active, Educational Interests, Interest in Canada, and Socializing* factors based on the educational level. Scheffé tests indicated that the respondents who finished universities with either graduate (M=4.37, SD=0.969) or undergraduate degrees (M=4.38, SD=0.836) had significantly higher mean scores on the *Active* factor than the respondents with college diploma or less (M=3.80, SD=0.885), $F=7.853$, $p=0.001$. This means that more educated immigrants were

more likely to prefer active lifestyle on vacation. It is interesting that the respondents with college diploma and less (M=4.35, SD=0.816) and the respondents with graduate degrees (M=4.68, SD=0.921) had significantly lower mean scores on *Educational Interests* factor compared to the participants with undergraduate degrees (M=5.07, SD=0.669) at $F=10.405$, $p<0.001$. The travel lifestyle and behaviour of *Socializing* factor for the respondents with completed graduate education (M=3.44, SD=1.140) was significantly different from the respondents with college diploma and less (M=3.95, SD=1.182), $F=4.320$, $p=0.014$. Therefore, people with lower education level tended to prefer vacation with more social interactions. These two groups were also found to differ significantly in terms of *Interest in Canada*. The group with the highest education level (M=4.69, SD=1.065) was less interested in travelling within Canada than were the respondents with college diploma or less (M=5.19, SD=0.787), $F=5.298$, $p=0.006$.

However, no significant differences were found among the respondents based on their education level in relation to *New Experiences*, *Shopping*, *Spontaneous Travel*, *Sport Interests*, and *Group Travel* behaviour ($p>0.05$).

Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour Factors Comparison Based on Marital Status and Presence of Children under 18 Years

To find out whether marital status and presence of children under 18 have an effect on travel lifestyle and behaviour of new immigrants one-way ANOVA was performed. Prior to conducting the ANOVA test, all respondents were grouped into three categories because of a very small number of not married participants with children under 18. These were not married without children, married without children, and married/not married with children. The results of ANOVA are presented in Table 4.9. It was found that reported travel lifestyle and behaviour varied significantly in regards to marital status and presence of children under 18. There were

only three factors that did not approach the level of significance. These were: *Sport Interests* (F=0.193, p=0.824), *Active* (F=1.082, p=0.341), and *Interest in Canada* (F=1.009, p=0.366).

The remaining six factors showed statistically significant differences among the three groups of respondents: *New Experiences* (F=6.656, p=0.002), *Shopping* (F=5.532, p=0.005), *Spontaneous Travel* (F=6.063, p=0.003), *Educational Interests* (F=4.281, p=0.015), *Socializing* (F=7.240, p=0.001), *Group Travel* (F=9.180, p<0.001).

Table 4.8 Travel lifestyle and behaviour factors comparison based on education level

	College Diploma and less (n=51)		Undergraduate Degree (n=61)		Graduate Degree (n=115)		F	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
New Experiences	4.67	0.914	4.69	1.029	4.85	0.960	0.893	0.411
Shopping	4.23	1.085	3.81	1.072	3.83	1.064	2.855	0.060
Spontaneous Travel	2.88	1.351	2.89	1.001	2.73	1.101	0.538	0.585
Sport Interests	2.12	1.224	2.45	1.322	2.27	0.993	1.182	0.308
Educational Interests	4.35 ^a	0.816	5.07 ^b	0.669	4.68 ^a	0.921	10.405	<0.001 [*]
Active	3.80 ^a	0.885	4.38 ^b	0.836	4.37 ^b	0.969	7.853	0.001 [*]
Socializing	3.95 ^a	1.182	3.83 ^{a/b}	1.120	3.44 ^b	1.140	4.320	0.014 [*]
Interest in Canada	5.19 ^a	0.787	5.03 ^{a/b}	1.008	4.69 ^b	1.065	5.298	0.006 [*]
Group Travel	3.06	1.392	3.62	1.251	3.58	1.520	2.833	0.061

Mean scores could range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree)

*Level of significance at p<0.05

The Scheffé tests suggested that in terms of *Group Travel* behaviour respondents with children (M=3.95, SD=1.488) reported higher preference to travel in groups and to be on guided tours compared to the not married (M=3.09, SD=1.240) and married (M=3.20, SD=1.367)

respondents without children. The mean score of *New Experiences* factor for married respondents without children (M=5.09, SD=0.863) was significantly higher than the mean scores for the married respondents without children (M=4.59, SD=1.092) and for the respondents with children (M=4.62, SD=0.909). This means that the former were much more open to new experiences while on vacation than any other group. In terms of *Spontaneous Travel* behaviour new immigrants with children (M=2.54, SD=0.986) had significantly lower scores compared to not married new Canadians without children (M=3.18, SD=1.280). Significant differences were also found between the not-married respondents without children (M=3.53, SD=1.141) and the other two groups of respondents in terms of *Shopping*. The former were less likely to engage in shopping than the respondents with children (M=4.09, SD=0.991) and married respondents without children (M=4.01, SD=1.072). In contrast, the groups of respondents with children (M=3.41, SD=1.184) and married respondents without children (M=3.62, SD=1.126) reported significantly lower preferences on the *Socializing* factor than the group of not married respondents without children (M=4.12, SD=1.046). Finally, married respondents without children (M=4.90, SD=0.818) tended to have significantly higher scores on *Education Interests* factor compared to not-married people without children (M=4.46, SD=0.886).

Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour Factors Comparison Based on Household Income Level

To investigate the influence of household income level on travel lifestyle and behaviour of new immigrants one-way between groups ANOVA was conducted. The results revealed significant differences in the factors of *Socializing* and *Sport Interests* across the income level groups (Table 4.10). The group with the lowest income level demonstrated the highest interest (M=4.07, SD=1.050) in terms of *Socializing* behaviour during vacation as compared to any other group. However, the Scheffé tests suggested that the mean score for this group differed statistically

only from the group of respondents whose household income fell into the range \$100,000 - \$149,999 (M=3.05, SD=0.942) at F=3.549, p=0.004.

Table 4.9 Travel lifestyle and behaviour factors comparison based on marital status and presence of children under 18

Factor	Not married without Children (n=59)		Married without children (n=76)		Married/not married with children (n=92)		F	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
New Experiences	4.59 ^a	1.092	5.09 ^b	0.863	4.62 ^a	0.909	6.656	0.002 [*]
Shopping	3.53 ^a	1.141	4.01 ^b	1.072	4.09 ^b	0.991	5.532	0.005 [*]
Spontaneous Travel	3.18 ^a	1.280	2.86 ^{a/b}	1.112	2.54 ^b	0.986	6.063	0.003 [*]
Sport Interests	2.31	1.164	2.22	0.997	2.32	1.247	0.193	0.824
Educational Interests	4.46 ^a	0.886	4.90 ^b	0.818	4.71 ^{a/b}	0.873	4.281	0.015 [*]
Active	4.40	0.904	4.16	1.012	4.22	0.909	1.082	0.341
Socializing	4.12 ^a	1.046	3.62 ^b	1.126	3.41 ^b	1.184	7.240	0.001 [*]
Interest in Canada	4.92	0.992	4.76	1.079	4.98	0.968	1.009	0.366
Group Travel	3.09 ^a	1.240	3.20 ^a	1.367	3.95 ^b	1.488	9.180	<0.001 [*]

Mean scores could range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree)

^{*}Level of significance at p<0.05

When it comes to *Sport Interests*, the mean scores for all groups of new immigrants were very low. Nevertheless, the participants with the income between \$40,000 - \$59,999 had significantly higher score (M=2.74, SD=1.034) compared to those with the income of \$80,000- \$99,999 (M=1.85, SD=0.927), F=3.592, p=0.004. No statistically significant differences were identified for the other eight travel lifestyle and behaviour factors (see Table 4.10).

Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour Factors Comparison based on Employment Situation

To test the effect of employment situation on reported travel lifestyle and behaviour of new Canadians, a one-way ANOVA was performed. However, no significant differences were identified ($p < 0.05$). The ANOVA test results are presented in Table 4.11.

Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour Factors Comparison based on Length of Residence in Canada

In addition to examining the influence of demographic characteristics on the travel lifestyle and behaviour factors, an influence of the effect of length of residence in Canada on these factors was analyzed using one-way ANOVA.

The results of the analysis indicated that *Socializing*, *Spontaneous Travel* and *Group Travel* factors varied significantly by length of residence of immigrants in Canada. In regard to *Spontaneous Travel*, post-hoc tests identified that the newest immigrants (2 years of residence or less) ($M=3.19$, $SD=1.242$) were significantly more likely to go on vacation spontaneously compared to the immigrants who have been living in Canada for 5 to 6 years ($M=2.45$, $SD=1.137$). The immigrants who came to Canada between 6 to 10 years ago had significantly lower mean scores for *Socializing* ($M=3.38$, $SD=1.230$) and *Group Travel* ($M=3.12$, $SD=1.478$) behaviour factors in contrast to the new Canadians who resided in Canada for a shorter period of time (3 to 4 years) (*Socializing* $F=3.746$, $p=0.012$; *Group Travel* $F=3.702$, $p=0.012$). The remaining travel lifestyle and behaviour factors were not approaching the level of significance ($p > 0.05$) (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.10 Travel lifestyle and behaviour factors comparison based on household income level

Factor	\$39,999 and under (n=45)		\$40,000 - \$59,999 (n=40)		\$60,000- \$79,999 (n=61)		\$80,000- \$99,999 (n=39)		\$100,000- \$149,999 (n=29)		\$200,000 and more (n=13)		F	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
New Experiences	4.67	1.134	4.84	0.821	4.77	0.897	4.88	1.000	4.72	1.021	4.65	1.018	0.285	0.921
Shopping	4.02	1.028	4.03	1.026	3.95	1.156	3.87	1.040	3.82	1.169	3.42	0.992	0.781	0.565
Spontaneous Travel	2.73	1.186	3.18	1.222	2.78	0.825	2.43	1.152	2.93	1.334	2.95	1.208	1.946	0.088
Sport Interests	2.53 ^{a/b}	1.390	2.74 ^a	1.034	2.14 ^{a/b}	1.082	1.85 ^b	0.927	2.03 ^{a/b}	1.001	2.54 ^{a/b}	1.135	3.592	0.004*
Educational Interests	4.61	0.862	4.74	0.875	4.62	0.926	4.97	0.759	4.72	0.841	4.51	0.978	1.113	0.354
Active	4.14	1.040	4.31	0.557	4.15	0.912	4.46	0.926	4.21	1.096	4.28	1.380	0.681	0.638
Socializing	4.07 ^a	1.050	3.93 ^{a/b}	1.287	3.52 ^{a/b}	1.193	3.62 ^{a/b}	0.989	3.05 ^b	0.942	3.59 ^{a/b}	1.341	3.549	0.004*
Interest in Canada	5.24	0.773	4.98	0.920	4.68	1.158	4.99	1.156	4.67	0.869	4.62	0.845	2.17	0.051
Group Travel	3.58	1.310	3.46	1.447	3.45	1.480	3.09	1.555	4.03	1.224	3.19	1.507	1.614	0.157

Mean scores could range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree)

*Level of significance at p<0.05

Table 4.11 Travel lifestyle and behaviour factors comparison based on employment situation

Factor	Working full-time (n=140)		Working part-time (n=14)		Self-employed (n=39)		Unemployed (n=15)		Full-time student (n=10)		Other (n=9)		F	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
New Experiences	4.74	0.958	4.13	1.463	4.97	0.843	5.18	0.555	4.68	1.061	4.78	0.785	2.215	0.054
Shopping	3.86	1.020	3.91	1.412	3.72	1.102	4.68	0.821	4.10	1.232	4.22	1.208	2.120	0.064
Spontaneous Travel	2.82	1.065	3.12	1.251	2.88	1.276	2.89	1.484	2.27	1.086	2.37	0.655	0.982	0.430
Sport Interests	2.34	1.129	2.55	1.099	2.28	1.257	2.29	1.038	1.33	0.629	2.15	1.281	1.641	0.150
Educational Interests	4.74	0.886	4.62	0.726	4.47	0.752	4.76	0.972	5.067	1.086	4.69	0.857	1.146	0.337
Active	4.25	0.962	4.45	1.091	4.15	0.958	4.09	0.868	4.37	0.693	4.33	0.866	0.351	0.881
Socializing	3.58	1.148	3.69	1.180	3.76	1.24	3.57	1.073	4.37	0.853	3.78	1.404	0.960	0.443
Interest in Canada	4.80	1.051	5.54	0.796	5.08	0.839	4.63	1.141	4.65	1.081	5.28	0.618	2.206	0.051
Group Travel	3.53	1.549	3.11	1.347	3.58	1.403	2.83	0.724	3.30	1.111	4.11	0.601	1.245	0.289

Mean scores could range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree)
 Level of significance at p<0.05

Table 4.12 Travel lifestyle and behaviour factors comparison based on length of residence in Canada

	2 years and less (n=28)		3-4 years (n=51)		5-6 years (n=47)		More than 6 years (n=100)		F	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
New Experiences	4.63	1.185	4.74	1.142	4.73	0.901	4.85	0.844	0.429	0.733
Shopping	4.02	0.964	3.87	1.150	3.84	0.909	3.94	1.160	0.215	0.886
Spontaneous Travel	3.19 ^a	1.242	3.10 ^{a/b}	1.165	2.45 ^b	1.137	2.72 ^{a/b}	1.037	4.112	0.007*
Sport Interests	2.35	0.909	2.32	1.015	2.24	1.205	2.26	1.244	0.077	0.972
Educational Interests	4.52	0.705	4.72	0.829	4.74	0.895	4.73	0.925	0.453	0.715
Active	4.58	0.950	4.15	0.841	4.15	0.914	4.25	0.999	1.540	0.205
Socializing	3.71 ^{a/b}	0.901	3.94 ^a	1.220	3.90 ^{a/b}	0.958	3.38 ^b	1.230	3.746	0.012*
Interest in Canada	4.68	1.218	4.98	1.010	5.07	0.897	4.81	0.997	1.276	0.283
Group Travel	3.68 ^{a/b}	1.293	3.83 ^a	1.437	3.69 ^{a/b}	1.304	3.12 ^b	1.478	3.702	0.012*

Mean scores could range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree)

*Level of significance at $p < 0.05$

The summary of independent sample t-tests and one-way ANOVA tests between travel lifestyle and behaviour factors and demographic variables (Table 4.13) showed that travel lifestyle and behaviour were very likely to be related to the region of origin. The only demographic characteristic (marital status and presence of children under 18) was shown to have more significant influence on travel lifestyle and behaviour than the region of origin. The factor *Socializing* consistently showed significant differences for almost all demographic characteristics with the exception of gender and employment situation than any other factors.

Table 4.13 Summary of the relationships between travel lifestyle and behaviour factors and demographic characteristics

	Gender	Age	Education	Marital Status & Children	Employment Situation	Household Income	Immigration Period	Region of Origin
New Experiences	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
Shopping	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
Spontaneous Travel	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	-
Sport Interests	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+
Educational Interests	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-
Active	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Socializing	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
Interest in Canada	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Group Travel	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+

“+” indicates statistically significant differences

“-” indicates the lack of statistically significant differences

4.3 Travel Experiences

This section presents the description of past travel experiences for European and Asian respondents. Chi-square tests were conducted to determine whether respondents’ cultural background has an effect on their travel experiences after immigration to Canada. Table 4.14 provides the summary of travel experiences reported by both groups of respondents in questions with single responses. Multiple responses were accepted for the questions about Canadian provinces the respondents have visited since their immigration, about planning domestic and international vacations, and about their preferred types of accommodation. The responses for these questions are summarized in Table 4.15.

Table 4.14 Travel experiences and preferences of immigrants (single answer)

	European Immigrants		Asian Immigrants		Sig.
	n	%	n	%	
<i>Frequency of domestic holiday trips</i> $\chi^2(5)=14.164$					0.015*
Never	15	11.7	9	9.1	
Less than once a year	16	12.5	12	12.1	
Once per year	24	18.8	28	28.3	
Two times per year	34	26.6	33	33.3	
Three times per year	14	10.9	13	13.1	
Four or more times per year	25	19.5	4	4.0	
<i>Total</i>	<i>128</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>99</i>	<i>100</i>	
<i>Length of domestic holiday trips</i> $\chi^2(4)=9.008$					0.061
1 - 2 nights	68	59.1	39	43.3	
3 - 6 nights	36	31.3	31	34.4	
1 - 2 weeks	11	9.6	18	20.0	
3 - 4 weeks	0	0	1	1.1	
More than 4 weeks	0	0	1	1.1	
<i>Total</i>	<i>115</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>90</i>	<i>100</i>	
<i>Domestic holiday trips booking</i> $\chi^2(4)=15.310$					0.004*
Call or meet with a travel agent	4	3.4	15	16.7	
Direct through a company's website	34	29.3	27	30.0	
Online travel agency	38	32.8	15	16.7	
Make all the arrangements at the destination	24	20.7	17	18.9	
Other	16	13.8	16	17.8	
<i>Total</i>	<i>116</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>90</i>	<i>100</i>	
<i>Frequency of international vacations</i> $\chi^2(5)=22.678$					<0.001*
Never	12	9.4	8	8.1	
Less than once a year	21	16.5	37	37.4	
Once per year	48	38.7	38	28.4	
Two times per year	31	24.4	14	14.1	
Three times per year	13	10.2	0	0.0	
Four or more times per year	2	1.6	2	2.0	
<i>Total</i>	<i>127</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>99</i>	<i>100</i>	

Length of international vacations $\chi^2(3)=31.776$					<0.001*
Less than a week	10	8.4	2	2.2	
1 – 2 weeks	84	70.6	39	42.4	
3 – 4 weeks	22	18.5	33	35.9	
More than 4 weeks	3	2.5	18	19.6	
<i>Total</i>	<i>119</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>92</i>	<i>100</i>	
International holiday trips booking $\chi^2(4)=27.337$					<0.001*
Call or meet with a travel agent	23	19.3	40	43.5	
Direct with a company's website	25	21.0	14	15.2	
Online travel agency	58	48.7	18	19.6	
Make all the arrangements at the destination	7	5.9	12	13.0	
Other	6	5.0	8	8.7	
<i>Total</i>	<i>119</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>92</i>	<i>100</i>	
Typical destination for international vacation $\chi^2(2)=28.548$					<0.001*
Country of origin	11	9.2	37	40.2	
Only other country than my country of origin	19	16.0	8	8.7	
Both	89	74.8	47	51.1	
<i>Total</i>	<i>119</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>92</i>	<i>100</i>	
Travel companion $\chi^2(4)=4.605$					0.330
Alone	20	16.5	14	14.3	
With spouse	42	34.7	24	24.5	
With spouse and children	43	35.5	48	49.0	
With friends	13	10.7	9	9.2	
Other	3	2.5	3	3.1	
<i>Total</i>	<i>121</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>98</i>	<i>100</i>	

The results of chi-square tests revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the groups in relation to the frequency with which the respondents took domestic and international holidays, made holiday bookings, their average length of stay, preferred destination for international vacations, and the type of travel companion ($p < 0.05$) (Table 4.14). The only two variables that were not significantly different between the two groups were found to be the length of domestic holiday trips ($\chi^2=9.008$, $p=0.061$) and the type of travel companion ($\chi^2=4.605$, $p=0.330$).

When it comes to domestic pleasure holidays, almost 90% of the respondents from both groups reported taking at least one overnight trip within Canada since their immigration. Of those who took domestic trips, Asian participants were much more likely to travel once or twice per year than the European Canadians (61.6% and 45.4%, respectively). In contrast, 30.4% of Europeans reported to have three and more holiday trips per year whereas only 17.1% of Asians travelled so frequently. Despite the fact that the length of domestic trips did not cause statistically significant differences among the two groups, it should be mentioned that generally European respondents tended to take shorter vacations than Asian immigrants. For example, for 59.1% of Europeans the average length of a trip within Canada was 1-2 nights as compared to 43.3% of Asian respondents. Also, one week and longer was reported to be the average length of domestic vacation by 22.2% of Asians, but only by 9.6% of Europeans. Therefore, Europeans were more likely to take more frequent but somewhat shorter domestic holidays. In contrast, Asians went on vacation less frequently but stayed slightly longer.

In regard to booking domestic holidays, the majority of European travellers reported to use Internet to book their vacations either through an online travel agency (32.8%) or directly through a company's website (29.3%). 30% of Asians also replied that they prefer to use companies websites directly. In this regard they were found to be similar to Europeans. However, in terms of using online travel agencies for booking domestic vacations the percentage of the Asian respondents was much lower than their Europeans counterparts and comprised 16.7%. However, noticeably more Asians reported to prefer having a contact with a travel agent as compared to Europeans (16.7% and 3.4%, respectively).

Not surprisingly, the top two Canadian provinces for pleasure vacation for European and Asian immigrants were found to be Ontario (82.7% and 79.8% of respondents, respectively) and

Quebec (69.5% and 76.8% of respondents, respectively) as illustrated in Table 4.15. The third top destination within Canada for both groups was British Columbia. However, the percentage of Asian participants who have visited this province comprised 39.4% whereas only 25.8% of Europeans had a vacation there. Almost a third part of Asian respondents reported visiting Canada's Atlantic coast while only approximately 15% of Europeans did. On the other hand, nearly 4% of Europeans travelled to the northern territories of Canada but none of the Asian respondents did so. As can be seen from Table 4.15, overall Asian respondents visited more provinces than the European immigrants.

With regard to international pleasure trips about 90% of the respondents from both groups traveled to another country at least once after their immigration to Canada. Similar to taking domestic holidays, Europeans revealed a trend toward more frequent international vacations. However, on average Asians showed a longer length of holidays outside of Canada. That is, 70.6% of European respondents reported to stay on a trip from 1 to 2 weeks, whereas more than half of Asian participants were likely to take international vacations for 3 weeks or longer. In terms of booking international trips, 43.5% of Asian respondents preferred to call or meet with travel agents directly while almost 50% of Europeans, preferred to arrange their holidays through online travel companies. Furthermore, only 5.9% of European immigrants made all the arrangements at the destination while twice as many Asians did this.

It is important to note that while traveling outside of Canada, more than 40% of Asian respondents reported to travel exclusively to their countries of origin as compared to less than 10% of Europeans. It can be explained by the relatively small size of countries and the openness of borders in Europe. However, the majority of the new immigrants (74.8% of Europeans and 51.1% of Asians) showed a trend to travel to their countries of origin as well as to some other

countries. Family such as spouse, or spouse and children was the most frequent travel companion for both groups of newcomers.

When making domestic or international vacation plans over half of the respondents in both groups started with desired destination in mind (see Table 4.15). Close to a half of the European respondents also considered specific activities they would like to do on a vacation while Asians tended to pay more attention to a specific type of vacation experience. Less than a quarter of the respondents from either group planned both types of their pleasure trips based on best package deals only.

The respondents used a variety of accommodations (Table 4.15) but more often than not, both segments stayed at hotels, or at a friend's and relative's place. European immigrants were significantly more likely than Asian respondents (75.8% as opposed to 60.6%) to stay at hotels. For Asians the top accommodation type was friends' and relatives' places. At 75.5% that was only slightly above the European respondents at 71.7%. It is interesting to mention that the Europeans were much more likely to choose camping as an accommodation option than the Asians (32.8% and 17.2%, respectively).

4.4 Travel Information Sources

In order to determine whether the respondents' region of origin had an effect on the importance they placed on different information sources while planning a vacation one-way ANOVA tests were performed. The results of the analysis showed that the importance of the different information sources varied significantly by the region of immigration (Table 4.16). Significant differences were found in the majority of the variables ($p < 0.05$) with the exception of *Internet*

($F= 3.416$, $p=0.066$), *TV programs* ($F= 2.872$, $p=0.092$), and *Friends and family/Word of mouth* ($F=2.309$, $p=0.130$) information sources.

Table 4.15 Travel experiences and preferences of immigrants (multiple answers)

	European Immigrants		Asian Immigrants		Sig.
	n	%	n	%	
	Provinces				
Ontario	105	82.7	79	79.8	0.581
Quebec	89	69.5	76	76.8	0.225
British Columbia	33	25.8	39	39.4	0.029*
Manitoba / Saskatchewan	13	10.2	14	14.1	0.358
Alberta	21	16.4	20	20.2	0.461
Nova Scotia / Newfoundland and Labrador / New Brunswick / Prince Edward Island	20	15.6	29	29.3	0.013*
Yukon/ Nunavut / Northwest Territories	5	3.9	0	0.0	0.047*
Planning domestic vacation					
Start with a desired destination in mind	81	63.3	50	50.5	0.053
Start by considering certain specific activities	60	46.9	25	25.3	0.001*
Start with the idea of a certain type of vacation experience	54	42.2	45	45.5	0.623
Look for the best package deal	11	8.6	16	16.2	0.081
Planning international vacation					
Start with a desired destination in mind	86	69.4	61	61.6	0.226
Start by considering certain specific activities	54	42.2	12	12.2	<0.001*
Start with the idea of a certain type of vacation experience	53	41.4	48	48.5	0.287
Look for the best package deal	30	23.4	22	22.2	0.829
Accommodation type					
Hotel	97	75.8	60	60.6	0.014*
Motel	35	27.3	17	17.2	0.071
Bed and Breakfast	40	31.3	14	14.1	0.003*
Hostel	13	10.2	4	4.0	0.083
Condominium/Apartment	17	13.3	1	1.0	0.001*
Friends/Relatives' place	91	71.7	74	75.5	0.459
Camping	42	32.8	17	17.2	0.008*

*Level of significance at $p<0.05$

Both groups showed similar results in terms of the most important information sources while planning a pleasure vacation. These were Internet (for Europeans $M=3.73$, $SD=0.585$ and for Asian $M= 3.58$, $SD=0.640$) and information from friends and families (for Europeans $M=3.44$, $SD=0.649$ and for Asian $M=3.32$, $SD=0.793$). In other words, 96% of Europeans and 84% of Asians perceived Internet as an important or very important source of information.

Approximately the same percentage of Europeans and Asians (93% and 85%, respectively) also tended to place a high degree of importance on friends' and families' advice. Guidebooks also played an important role in holiday planning of newcomers from both regions of origin ($M=2.86$, $SD=0.876$ for Europeans and $M= 2.79$, $SD=0.763$ for Asians). This is evident from the fact that almost 70% of respondents in both groups rated this source of information as 'important' or 'very important'.

On those variables, where significant differences were found, Asian respondents tended to have significantly higher importance scores compared to the Europeans. For example, more than half of the participants from Asia ($M=2.54$, $SD=0.861$) perceived the information provided by travel agencies or trip organizers as 'important' or 'very important' in contrast to only a quarter of European participants ($M=2.02$, $SD=0.832$) at $F=21.126$, $p<0.001$. Not surprisingly, the least important information sources were reported to be TV advertisements ($M=1.68$, $SD=0.803$ for Europeans and $M=2.19$, $SD=0.900$ for Asians) and newspaper and magazine advertisements ($M=1.85$, $SD=0.785$ for Europeans and $M=2.21$, $SD=0.799$ for Asians). However, as was mentioned above, Asian respondents had significantly higher mean scores ($p<0.05$) for both variables than Europeans.

Table 4.16 Travel information sources of European and Asian immigrants

Sources of Information	European Immigrants			Asian Immigrants			F	p
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD		
Internet	128	3.73	0.585	99	3.58	0.640	3.416	0.066
TV advertisements	128	1.68	0.803	99	2.19	0.900	20.442	<0.001*
TV programs	128	2.20	0.934	99	2.40	0.820	2.872	0.092
Newspaper and magazine advertisements	128	1.85	0.785	99	2.21	0.799	11.603	0.001*
Newspaper and magazine articles/stories	128	2.23	0.900	99	2.63	0.852	11.077	0.001*
Travel agencies or trip organizers	128	2.02	0.832	99	2.54	0.861	21.126	<0.001*
Travel catalogues/brochures	128	2.27	0.953	99	2.58	0.797	6.463	0.012*
Guidebooks	128	2.86	0.876	98	2.79	0.763	0.438	0.509
Friends and family/Word of mouth	128	3.44	0.649	98	3.30	0.749	2.309	0.130

Mean scores could range from 1 (Not at all important) to 4 (Very important)

*Level of significance at $p < 0.05$

In addition, one-way ANOVA was performed to test the importance of different types of information about a destination among the two groups of respondents. No significant differences were found ($p < 0.05$) as is evident from ANOVA test results presented in Table 4.17. Although all information types were found to be of high importance, the general information about a destination had the highest importance scores.

Table 4.17 Types of information about a destination

Information	European Immigrants (n=128)		Asian Immigrants (n=99)		F	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Information about a destination	3.53	0.531	3.54	0.611	0.002	0.961
Accommodation information	3.46	0.601	3.39	0.652	0.645	0.423
Attractions information	3.30	0.714	3.47	0.690	3.567	0.060
Transportation information	3.36	0.673	3.48	0.595	2.145	0.144
Cultural information	3.25	0.699	3.27	0.726	0.057	0.811

Mean scores could range from 1 (Not at all important) to 4 (Very important)
 Level of significance at $p < 0.05$

4.5 Cluster Analysis

In order to classify the respondents into mutually exclusive groups based on the travel lifestyle and behaviour factors, a k-means cluster analysis was applied. Due to the small sample size of the sample it was decided to run this analysis for both groups of immigrants together rather separately. Ward's hierarchical clustering method with squared Euclidean distances was used to obtain initial cluster solution. This initial analysis suggested three to six clusters. Then the elbow-criterion² was applied to identify the best solution, which yielded four clusters. All nine factor scores made a significant contribution to differentiating the four clusters ($p < 0.05$).

Therefore, a four-cluster solution appeared to be appropriate and the participants were divided into six segments. Based on the mean score characteristics, these segments were labelled *High Familiarity Seekers*, *Low Interest Travellers*, *Independent Spontaneous Travellers*, and *Highly*

² Elbow criterion is a common approach to determine a number of clusters (Green, Carmone, & Kim, 1990). More precisely, the average within-cluster sums of squares for each clustering level are plotted against the number of clusters to see if an "elbow" appears. At this point, little can be gained in reducing the average within-cluster sums of squares by obtaining additional clusters (Green, Carmone, & Kim).

Engaged Travel Planners. Table 4.18 and Figure 4.1 present the final cluster solution based on derived factor scores and the percentage of each cluster.

Table 4.19 Profiling the travel lifestyle and behaviour segments

Factors	High Familiarity Seekers	Low Interest Travellers	Independent Spontaneous Travellers	Highly Engaged Travel Planners
Percentages of the respondents	27.5	32.9	18.5	21.2
New Experiences	-0.611	0.143	0.243	0.359
Shopping	0.430	-0.411	-0.208	0.262
Spontaneous Travel	-0.581	-0.058	1.322	-0.309
Sport Interests	-0.668	-0.221	0.131	1.097
Educational	-0.065	0.030	-0.332	0.327
Active	0.236	-0.426	0.405	0.001
Socializing	-0.257	0.183	-0.149	0.181
Interest in Canada	0.391	-0.871	0.401	0.496
Group Travel	-0.075	0.010	-0.642	0.643

The cluster descriptors are based on the factor scores of travel lifestyle and behaviour factors and have a mean of 0, and a standard deviation of 1

Cluster 1: *High Familiarity Seekers*. This cluster comprises 27.5% of the sample, and the respondents in it showed the lowest mean scores in *New Experiences*, *Spontaneous Travel* and *Sport Interests* factors. However, this group had the highest score for *Shopping* among the clusters. The score for *Interest in Canada* factor also seemed to be very high. Therefore, the respondents in this cluster were very likely to travel mostly to familiar places, to plan their vacations in advance, and to enjoy shopping while travelling.

Cluster 2: *Low Interest Travellers*. This is the biggest cluster which comprises 32.9% of the sample. The respondents showed negative or close to zero mean scores on all nine factors.

This suggests that in general this group has low interest in travelling. The lowest cluster scores were found to be in *Interest in Canada*, *Active*, and *Shopping factors*.

Cluster 3: Independent Spontaneous Travellers. This cluster represents 18.5% of the respondents and is the smallest group among the clusters. Its respondents have the highest scores on *Spontaneous Travel* and *Active* factors and at the same time have the lowest negative score on *Group Travel* factor. In other words, the respondents in this cluster were very likely to travel independently without planning vacations in advance and preferred to be active on their trips.

Cluster 4: Highly Engaged Travel Planners. This cluster is made up of 21.2% of the sample. Its respondents demonstrated positive cluster scores in all factors with the exception of *Spontaneous Travel*. This segment showed a preference for travelling in groups and pre-planning their trips. Furthermore, the respondents from this cluster had the most interest in sport activities on vacation.

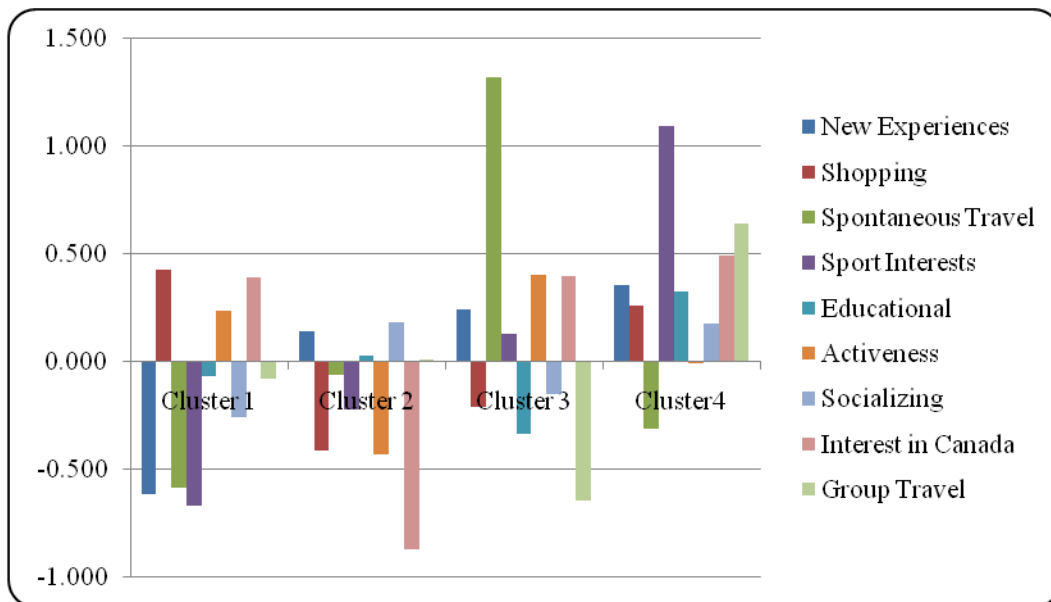


Figure 4.1 Profiling the travel lifestyle and behaviour segments

4.5.1 Profiling of the clusters by region of origin and demographic characteristics

The results of chi-square test indicated that the travel lifestyle clusters were significantly different with respect to the respondents' region of origin ($\chi^2(3) = 15.038, p = 0.002$) (see Table 4.19). The *Independent Spontaneous Travellers* had much stronger presence of Europeans than the Asians (80.5% versus 19.5% within cluster, respectively), who comprised a larger part of the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* cluster (59.6% of Asians versus 40.4% of Europeans within cluster). The division of the respondents among the other two clusters (*High Familiarity Seekers* and *Low Interest Travellers*) showed a fairly even distribution between both regions of origin.

Table 4.19 Profiling of the clusters by region of origin

Clusters	Immigrants from Europe		Immigrants from Asia		χ^2	P		
	%	%	%	%				
	n	within region	n	within region				
Cluster 1: High Familiarity Seekers	32	26.0	52.5	29	29.3	47.5	15.038	0.002*
Cluster 2: Low Interest Travellers	39	31.7	53.4	34	34.3	46.6		
Cluster 3: Independent Spontaneous Travellers	33	26.8	80.5	8	8.1	19.5		
Cluster 4: Highly Engaged Travel Planners	19	15.4	40.4	28	28.3	59.6		

* Level of significance at $p < 0.05$

The significant differences among the clusters were found in three demographic characteristics, which were *Gender, Marital Status and Presence of Children under 18, and Household Income Level* ($p < 0.05$) (Table 4.20). More specifically, the *High Familiarity Seekers* cluster had a greater proportion of females than males (70.5% and 29.5, respectively). The female respondents in this cluster showed high interest in shopping and planned their vacations in advance. The *Independent Spontaneous Travellers* cluster was made up by 73.2% of males, who on the contrary preferred to take trips spontaneously. The proportion of males was also slightly higher

than females in the cluster of *Low Interest Travellers* (57.5% and 42.5%, respectively). More than a half of *High Familiarity Seekers* (54.1%) and *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* (57.4%) reported that they had children under 18. Both clusters had a high interest in travelling within Canada and preferred to pre-plan their trips. As one may expect, the majority of *Independent Spontaneous Travellers* (75.6%) reported to have no children under 18 and 41.5% of participants from this cluster were not married. The cluster with the lowest income level was found to be the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners*. 58.6 % of this cluster reported to have an annual income of less than \$60,000. Among the remaining three clusters the income distribution was rather even.

4.5.2 Profiling of the clusters by travel experiences

Chi-square analyses were performed to examine the relationships between the clusters and their past travel experiences. Table 4.20 provides the summary of travel experiences reported by four clusters in questions with single responses. Multiple responses were accepted for the questions about Canadian provinces the respondents have visited since their immigration, about planning domestic and international vacations, and about their preferred types of accommodation. The responses for these questions are summarized in Table 4.21.

The results of chi-square tests revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the clusters in relation to the average length of the respondents' domestic holidays, their domestic holiday planning and bookings, preferred destinations for international vacations, the type of travel companion and the accommodation type ($p < 0.05$) (Tables 4.21 and 4.22). More specifically, the respondents in the *Low Interest Travellers* cluster were likely to take the shortest domestic vacations as compared to the other clusters. Almost 70% of the respondents of this cluster reported the length of their vacations in Canada between one and two nights on average.

At the same time, the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* were found to take the longest vacations among the clusters. Slightly less than 30% of its respondents took their trips in Canada for one week or longer.

Table 4.20 Profiling of the clusters by demographic characteristics

	High Familiarity Seekers	Low Interest Travellers	Independent Spontaneous Travellers	Highly Engaged Travel Planners	Sig.
n (% within cluster)					
Gender $\chi^2(3)=20.664$					<0.001*
Male	18 (29.5%)	42 (57.5%)	30 (73.2%)	23 (48.9%)	
Female	43 (70.5%)	31 (42.5%)	11 (26.8%)	24 (51.1%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>61 (100%)</i>	<i>73 (100%)</i>	<i>41 (100%)</i>	<i>47 (100%)</i>	
Age $\chi^2(9)=3.874$					0.920
21-29 years	16 (26.2%)	18 (24.7%)	13 (31.7%)	12 (25.5%)	
30-39 years	19 (31.1%)	26 (35.6%)	15 (36.6%)	15 (31.9%)	
40-49 years	21 (34.4%)	23 (31.2%)	9 (22.0%)	13 (27.7%)	
50 and over	5 (2.8%)	6 (8.2%)	4 (9.8%)	7 (14.9%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>61 (100%)</i>	<i>73 (100%)</i>	<i>41 (100%)</i>	<i>47 (100%)</i>	
Highest education level completed $\chi^2(6)=6.893$					0.331
College diploma or less	20 (32.8%)	13 (17.8%)	11 (26.8%)	7 (14.9%)	
Undergraduate degree	16 (26.2%)	21 (28.8%)	11 (26.8%)	13 (27.7%)	
Graduate degree	25 (41.0%)	39 (53.4%)	19 (26.3%)	27 (57.4%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>61 (100%)</i>	<i>73 (100%)</i>	<i>41 (100%)</i>	<i>47 (100%)</i>	
Marital Status and Presence of Children $\chi^2(6)=24.655$					<0.001*
Not married without Children	14 (23.0%)	22 (30.1%)	17 (41.5%)	6 (12.8%)	
Married without children	14 (23.0%)	32 (43.8%)	14 (34.1%)	14 (29.8%)	
Married/not married with children	33 (54.1%)	19 (26.0%)	10 (24.4%)	27 (57.4%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>61 (100%)</i>	<i>73 (100%)</i>	<i>41 (100%)</i>	<i>47 (100%)</i>	
Household income $\chi^2(15)=36.005$					0.002*
\$39,999 and under	13 (23.1%)	11 (15.1%)	5 (12.2%)	15 (31.9%)	
\$ 40,000-59,999	4 (6.6%)	11 (15.1%)	12 (29.3%)	13 (27.7%)	
\$60,000-79,999	19 (31.1%)	28 (38.4%)	8 (19.5%)	5 (10.6%)	
\$80,000-99,999	17 (27.9%)	7 (9.6%)	7 (17.1%)	5 (10.6%)	
\$100,000-149,999	6 (9.8%)	12 (16.4%)	5 (12.2%)	6 (12.8%)	
\$150,000 and more	2 (3.3%)	4 (5.5%)	4 (9.8%)	3 (6.4%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>61 (100%)</i>	<i>73 (100%)</i>	<i>41 (100%)</i>	<i>47 (100%)</i>	

	High Familiarity Seekers	Low Interest Travellers	Independent Spontaneous Travellers	Highly Engaged Travel Planners	Sig.
n (% within cluster)					
Employment situation $\chi^2(15)=21.773$					0.114
Working full-time	32 (52.5%)	49 (67.1%)	27 (65.9%)	29 (61.7%)	
Working part-time	8 (13.1%)	0 (0%)	3 (7.3%)	3 (6.4%)	
Self-employed	7 (11.5%)	12 (16.4%)	7 (17.1%)	12 (25.5%)	
Unemployed	6 (9.8%)	5 (6.8%)	3 (7.3%)	1 (2.1%)	
Full-time student	3 (4.9%)	4 (5.5%)	1 (2.4%)	1 (2.1%)	
Other	5 (8.2%)	3 (4.1%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.1%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>61 (100%)</i>	<i>73 (100%)</i>	<i>41 (100%)</i>	<i>47 (100%)</i>	
Length of residence in Canada $\chi^2(9)=4.270$					0.893
2 years or less	8 (13.1%)	7 (9.6%)	5 (12.2%)	7 (15.2%)	
3-4 years	13 (21.3%)	16 (21.9%)	12 (29.3%)	10 (21.7%)	
5-6 years	15 (24.6%)	12 (16.2%)	8 (19.5%)	10 (21.7%)	
More than 6 years	25 (41.0%)	28 (52.1%)	16 (39.0%)	19 (41.3%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>61 (100%)</i>	<i>73 (100%)</i>	<i>41 (100%)</i>	<i>46 (100%)</i>	

*Level of significance at p<0.05

When it comes to planning a domestic trip, the *High Familiarity Seekers* and the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* were found to be significantly different from the *Low Interest Travellers* and the *Independent Spontaneous Travellers*. More than 50% of the new immigrants in the first two clusters reported to start planning their vacations with the idea of a certain type of vacation experiences whereas only 30.1% of *Low Interest Travellers* and 43.9% of *Independent Spontaneous Travellers* did so (Table 4.22).

Further, approximately a quarter of the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* were more likely to call or meet with a travel agent while arranging a domestic vacation. This was significantly higher than the respondents from any other clusters (less than 10%). As one may assume, the *Independent Spontaneous Travellers* had a noticeably higher percentage (31.4%) of the

Table 4.21 Profiling of the clusters by travel experiences (single answer)

	High Familiarity Seekers	Low Interest Travellers	Independent Spontaneous Travellers	Highly Engaged Travel Planners	Sig.
	n (% within cluster)				
Frequency of domestic holiday trips $\chi^2(15)=21.541$					0.120
Never	2 (3.3%)	12 (16.4%)	16 (14.6%)	2 (4.3%)	
Less than once a year	8 (13.1%)	11 (15.1%)	3 (7.3%)	5 (10.6%)	
Once per year	15 (24.6%)	17 (23.3%)	8 (19.5%)	12 (25.5%)	
Two times per year	21 (34.4%)	18 (24.7%)	11 (26.9%)	16 (34.0%)	
Three times per year	9 (14.8%)	9 (12.3%)	2 (4.9%)	6 (12.8%)	
Four or more times per year	6 (9.8%)	6 (8.2%)	11 (26.8%)	6 (12.8%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>61 (100%)</i>	<i>73 (100%)</i>	<i>41 (100%)</i>	<i>47(100%)</i>	
Length of domestic holiday trips $\chi^2(12)=22.166$					0.036*
1 - 2 nights	29 (48.3%)	43 (69.4%)	16 (45.7%)	17 (37.8%)	
3 - 6 nights	25 (41.7%)	13 (21.0%)	13 (37.1%)	15 (33.3%)	
1 - 2 weeks	6 (10.0%)	6 (9.7%)	6 (17.1%)	11 (24.4%)	
3 - 4 weeks	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (2.2%)	
More than 4 weeks	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (2.2%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>60 (100%)</i>	<i>62 (100%)</i>	<i>35 (100%)</i>	<i>45 (100%)</i>	
Domestic holiday trips booking $\chi^2(12)=24.734$					0.016*
Call or meet with a travel agent	4 (6.7%)	2 (3.2%)	3 (8.6%)	10 (22.2%)	
Direct through a company's website	15 (25.0%)	20 (31.7%)	11 (31.4%)	14 (31.1%)	
Online travel agency	18 (30.0%)	14 (22.2%)	9 (25.7%)	11 (24.4%)	
Make all the arrangements at the destination	10 (16.7%)	13 (20.6%)	11 (31.4%)	7 (15.6%)	
Other	13 (21.7%)	14 (22.2%)	1 (2.9%)	3 (6.7%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>60 (100%)</i>	<i>63 (100%)</i>	<i>35(100%)</i>	<i>45 (100%)</i>	
Frequency of international vacations $\chi^2(15)=20.387$					0.158
Never	4 (6.6%)	7 (9.7%)	3 (7.3%)	5 (10.6%)	
Less than once a year	25 (41.0%)	14 (19.4%)	8 (19.5%)	9 (19.1%)	
Once per year	21 (34.4%)	31 (43.1%)	18 (43.9%)	16 (34.0%)	
Two times per year	8 (13.1%)	15 (20.8%)	8 (19.5%)	14 (29.8%)	
Three times per year	3 (4.9%)	2 (2.8%)	4 (9.8%)	2 (4.3%)	
Four or more times per year	0 (0.0%)	3 (4.2%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (2.1%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>61 (100%)</i>	<i>72 (100%)</i>	<i>41 (100%)</i>	<i>47 (100%)</i>	

	High Familiarity Seekers	Low Interest Travellers	Independent Spontaneous Travellers	Highly Engaged Travel Planners	Sig.
	n(% within clusters)				
Length of international vacations $\chi^2(9)=9.716$					0.374
Less than a week	5 (8.8%)	5 (7.1%)	1 (2.6%)	0 (0.0%)	
1 – 2 weeks	38 (66.6%)	38 (54.3%)	21 (55.3%)	23 (54.8%)	
3 – 4 weeks	11 (19.3%)	18 (25.7%)	12 (31.6%)	14 (33.3%)	
More than 4 weeks	3 (5.3%)	9 (12.9%)	4 (10.5%)	5 (11.9%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>57 (100%)</i>	<i>70 (100%)</i>	<i>38 (100%)</i>	<i>42 (100%)</i>	
International holiday trips booking $\chi^2(12)=18.178$					0.110
Call or meet with a travel agent	20 (35.1%)	17 (24.3%)	10 (26.3%)	15 (35.7%)	
Direct with a company's website	8 (14.0%)	12 (17.1%)	9 (23.7%)	10 (23.8%)	
Online travel agency	19 (33.3%)	28 (40.0%)	12 (31.6%)	14 (33.3%)	
Make all the arrangements at the destination	3 (5.3%)	6 (8.6%)	7 (18.4%)	3 (7.1%)	
Other	7 (12.3%)	7 (10.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>57 (100%)</i>	<i>70 (100%)</i>	<i>38 (100%)</i>	<i>42 (100%)</i>	
Typical destination for international vacation $\chi^2(6)=12.771$					0.047*
Country of origin	20 (35.1%)	17 (24.3%)	7 (18.4%)	4 (9.5%)	
Only other country than my country of origin	6 (10.5%)	7 (10.0%)	3 (7.9%)	9 (21.4%)	
Both	31(54.4%)	46 (65.7%)	28 (73.7%)	29 (69.0%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>57 (100%)</i>	<i>70 (100%)</i>	<i>38 (100%)</i>	<i>42 (100%)</i>	
Travel companion $\chi^2(12)=43.675$					<0.001*
Alone	3 (5.2%)	22 (31.0%)	9 (23.1%)	0 (0.0%)	
With spouse	12 (20.7%)	24 (33.8%)	14 (35.9%)	15 (23.1%)	
With spouse and the children	32 (55.2%)	19(26.8%)	10 (25.6%)	27 (57.4%)	
With friends	8 (13.8)	5 (7.0%)	6 (15.4%)	3 (6.4%)	
Other	3 (5.2%)	1 (1.4%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (4.3%)	
<i>Total</i>	<i>58 (100%)</i>	<i>71 (100%)</i>	<i>39 (100%)</i>	<i>47 (100%)</i>	

*Level of significance at p<0.05

respondents who prefer to make all the arrangements at the destination as compared to the other clusters (Table 4.22).

In regard to a typical destination for international vacation more than 35% of *High Familiarity Seekers* reported to travel exclusively to their countries of origin. In their turn, 21.4%

Table 4.22 Profiling of the clusters by travel experiences (multiple answers)

	High Familiarity Seekers	Low Interest Travellers	Independent Spontaneous Travellers	Highly Engaged Travel Planners	Sig.
n (% within cluster)					
Provinces					
Ontario	49 (80.3%)	57 (79.2%)	32 (78.0%)	43 (91.5%)	0.285
Quebec	43 (70.5%)	49 (67.1%)	33 (80.5%)	38 (80.9%)	0.248
British Columbia	20 (32.8%)	22 (30.1%)	15 (36.6%)	14 (29.8%)	0.888
Manitoba / Saskatchewan	6 (9.8%)	10 (13.7%)	6 (14.6%)	4 (8.5%)	0.731
Alberta	10 (16.4%)	14 (19.2%)	10 (24.4%)	5 (10.6%)	0.382
Nova Scotia / Newfoundland and Labrador / New Brunswick / Prince Edward Island	11 (18.0%)	19 (26.0%)	10 (24.4%)	9 (19.1%)	0.658
Yukon/ Nunavut / Northwest Territories	1 (1.6%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (9.8%)	0 (0.0%)	0.004*
Planning domestic vacation					
Start with a desired destination in mind	41 (67.2%)	43 (58.9%)	19 (46.3%)	26 (55.3%)	0.205
Start by considering certain specific activities	22 (36.1%)	22 (30.1%)	18 (43.9%)	21 (44.7%)	0.321
Start with the idea of a certain type of vacation experience	32 (52.5%)	22 (30.1%)	18 (43.9%)	26 (55.3%)	0.019*
Look for the best package deal	6 (9.8%)	9 (12.3%)	6 (14.6%)	6 (12.8%)	0.905
Planning international vacation					
Start with a desired destination in mind	39 (63.9%)	56 (78.9%)	25 (65.2%)	24 (52.2%)	0.023*
Start by considering certain specific activities	13 (21.3%)	22 (30.1%)	12 (29.3%)	15 (31.9%)	0.591
Start with the idea of a certain type of vacation experience	27 (44.3%)	29 (39.7%)	17 (41.5%)	27 (57.4%)	0.263
Look for the best package deal	11 (18.0%)	20 (27.4%)	12(29.3%)	9 (19.1%)	0.409
Accommodation type					
Hotel	43 (70.5%)	50 (68.5%)	22 (53.7%)	40 (85.1%)	0.016*
Motel	11 (18.0%)	12 (16.4%)	14 (34.1%)	14 (29.8%)	0.081
Bed and Breakfast	16 (26.2%)	15 (20.5%)	9 (22.0%)	12 (25.5%)	0.857
Hostel	3 (4.9%)	2 (2.7%)	11 (26.8%)	1 (2.1%)	<0.001*
Condominium/Apartment	3 (4.9%)	4 (5.5%)	6 (14.6%)	4 (8.5%)	0.261
Friends/Relatives' place	46 (76.8%)	58 (79.5%)	28 (68.3%)	30 (63.8%)	0.218
Camping	14 (23.0%)	14 (19.2%)	16 (39.0%)	15 (31.9%)	0.094

*Level of significance at p<0.05

of the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* traveled to countries other than their countries of origin, which is much higher than any other cluster (less than 10%). However, the majority of the respondents from all four clusters were very likely to travel to their countries of origin as well as to some other countries.

Next, the *High Familiarity Seekers* and the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* clusters were found to be similar in terms of their travel companions. While more than half of the immigrants in these clusters were likely to choose spouse and the children as their travel companions (55.2% and 57.4%, respectively), the majority of the immigrants in the other two clusters (*Low Interest Travellers* and *Independent Spontaneous Travellers*) preferred to travel alone or with spouse only (64.8% and 59.0%, respectively).

Finally, while hotels were nominated as one of the most preferred types of accommodation by 85.1% of the respondents in the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* cluster, only 53.7% of the respondents in the *Independent Spontaneous Travellers* marked them as such. Furthermore, almost 27% of the latter cluster reported staying at a hostel on vacation whereas less than 5% of the respondents of any other cluster did so.

4.5.3 Profiling the clusters by information seeking behaviour

One-way ANOVA tests were performed to look for differences between clusters in their information seeking behaviour. Table 4.23 presents the results of the ANOVA tests. Significant differences were found in almost all information sources used for planning a pleasure vacation ($p < 0.05$) with the exception of *Guidebooks* ($F=1.103$, $p=0.34$) and *Friends and family/Word of mouth* ($F=1.276$, $p=0.284$) information sources.

In general, the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* placed a higher importance on all sources of information than the other clusters. For instance, almost half of the respondents from this cluster perceived the information provided by newspaper and magazine advertisements as ‘important’ or ‘very important’ as opposed to only about one fifth of the respondents from the other clusters ($F=11.264$, $p<0.001$). Not surprisingly, the least important information sources for the *Independent Spontaneous Travellers* were travel agencies or trip organizers ($M=1.68$, $SD=0.756$). Their score here was significantly lower than that of any other cluster ($F=14.530$, $p<0.001$). It is interesting to note that TV advertisements had the lowest mean scores for the three remaining clusters. The top information source for all clusters was found to be the Internet. However, the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* and the *Independent Spontaneous Travellers* clusters placed significantly higher degree of importance on the Internet than the *Low Interest Travellers* cluster. Also, high importance was placed on the information received from friends and relatives.

In terms of different types of information about a destination, all information types were found to be of a high importance for all four clusters. However, the significant differences were found in all variables ($p<0.5$) with the exception of *Cultural Information* ($F=1.034$, $p=0.378$). Again, the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* had the highest scores on all information types whereas the *Independent Spontaneous Travellers* had the lowest scores. These two clusters were significantly different in all types of information variables (except for *Cultural Information*). However, the most important information for them and for the *High Familiarity Seekers* was general information about a destination. On the other hand, information about transportation was the most important for the *Low Interest Travellers*.

Table 4.23 Profiling the clusters by information seeking behaviour

	High Familiarity		Low Interest		Independent		Highly Engaged		F	p
	Seekers		Travellers		Spontaneous		Travel Planners			
	(n=61)		(n=73)		Travellers (n=41)		(n=47)			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Sources of Information										
Internet	3.72 ^{a/b}	0.552	3.44 ^a	0.745	3.78 ^b	0.525	3.79 ^b	0.068	4.740	0.003 [*]
TV advertisements	1.74 ^a	0.705	1.71 ^a	0.808	1.88 ^a	0.900	2.43 ^b	1.016	7.969	<0.001 [*]
TV programs	2.23	0.783	2.16	0.898	2.22	0.936	2.62	0.945	2.807	0.041 [*]
Newspaper and magazine advertisements	1.93 ^a	0.750	1.84 ^a	0.707	1.76 ^a	0.699	2.55 ^b	0.855	11.264	<0.001 [*]
Newspaper and magazine articles/stories	2.43 ^{a/b}	0.763	2.26 ^a	0.898	2.24 ^a	0.916	2.77 ^b	0.960	3.758	<0.001 [*]
Travel agencies or trip organizers	2.34 ^a	0.814	2.14 ^a	0.839	1.68 ^b	0.756	2.79 ^b	0.778	14.530	<0.001 [*]
Travel catalogues/brochures	2.59 ^{a/b}	0.844	2.22 ^{b/c}	0.870	2.05 ^c	0.921	2.77 ^a	0.840	7.080	<0.001 [*]
Guidebooks	2.92	0.640	2.74	0.769	2.73	1.073	2.96	0.884	1.103	0.349
Friends and family/Word of mouth	3.34	0.750	3.26	0.650	3.41	0.774	3.51	0.621	1.276	0.284
Types of Information										
General information about a destination	3.66 ^{b/c}	0.513	3.42 ^{a/b}	0.622	3.29 ^a	0.559	3.74 ^c	0.441	6.983	<0.001 [*]
Accommodation information	3.54 ^a	0.594	3.41 ^a	0.549	3.05 ^b	0.631	3.62 ^a	0.644	7.816	<0.001 [*]
Attractions information	3.52 ^{a/b}	0.648	3.18 ^a	0.733	3.20 ^a	0.641	3.66 ^b	0.635	6.853	<0.001 [*]
Transportation information	3.48 ^a	0.698	3.44 ^a	0.577	3.07 ^b	0.685	3.55 ^a	0.544	5.035	0.002 [*]
Cultural information	3.33	0.747	3.21	0.665	3.12	0.640	3.34	0.788	1.034	0.378

Mean scores could range from 1 (Not at all important) to 4 (Very important)

*Level of significance at p<0.05

4.6 Summary

The results of the analysis indicated that region of origin and the majority of demographic variables had strong influence on travel lifestyle and behaviour of the new Canadians.

Furthermore, the noticeable differences in the past travel experiences and on the information sources used for planning a trip were established. However, no significant differences between the samples based on the importance of specific types of information about a destination were found. A brief summary of the findings is presented in table 4.24. A more detailed summary and the implications of the findings are discussed in the following chapter.

Table 4.24 Summary of the Relationships between the Travel Lifestyle Factors, Travel Experiences, Sources of Information, and Types of Information about a Destination and a Region of Residence

	Region of Origin
<i>Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour Factors</i>	
New Experiences	+
Shopping	+
Spontaneous Travel	-
Sport Interests	+
Educational Interests	-
Active	-
Socializing	+
Interest in Canada	-
Group Travel	+
<i>Travel Experiences</i>	
Frequency of international vacations	+
Domestic holiday trips booking	-
Length of domestic holiday trips	+
Frequency of domestic holiday trips	+
Length of international vacations	+
International holiday trips booking	+
Typical destination for international vacation	+
Travel companion	-
Canadian Provinces	+/-
Planning domestic vacation	+/-
Planning international vacation	+/-
Accommodation type	+/-

Sources of Information

Internet	-
TV advertisements	+
TV programs	-
Newspaper and magazine advertisements	+
Newspaper and magazine articles/stories	+
Travel agencies or trip organizers	+
Travel catalogues/brochures	+
Guidebooks	-
Friends and family/Word of mouth	-

Types of Information about a Destination

General information about a destination	-
Accommodation information	-
Attractions information	-
Transportation information	-
Cultural information	-

“+” indicates statistically significant differences between Asian and European participants

“-” indicates the lack of statistically significant differences between Asian and European participants

“+/-” is used for questions with multiple responses and indicates that there were some statistical differences between Asians and Europeans

In addition, cluster analysis was performed in order to segment the overall sample into specific groups with similar responses on nine travel lifestyle and behaviour factors. Afterwards, chi-square tests and one-way ANOVAs were conducted to investigate the characteristics of the four clusters using regions of origin, demographic characteristics, travel experiences, and information seeking behaviour variables. The four segments are summarized here:

Cluster 1: High Familiarity Seekers

The respondents of this cluster have a fairly even distribution between Europeans and Asians.

Over two-thirds of the subjects were female and more than half of them were made up of immigrants with children under 18. Their average age mainly ranged between 30 and 49 years and more than 50% of the respondents had household income between \$60,000 and \$99,999.

High Familiarity Seekers did not like to experience new things and looked for familiarity in their holiday experiences. They enjoyed pre-planned trips with lots of shopping activities.

Three quarters of the cluster traveled overseas once per year or less for about a week or two, and

more than a third traveled only to their countries of origin. The majority of them preferred a spouse and children as travel companions. This group stayed predominantly at friends or relatives' places or at hotels.

While planning a domestic vacation more than half of the respondents from the cluster started with a desired destination or certain type of vacation experiences in mind. Their most important sources of information were Internet and the word of mouth. They also paid attention to guidebooks, travel catalogues, and brochures.

Cluster 2: Low Interest Travellers

This cluster has a fairly even distribution between the regions of origin of the immigrants. The proportion of males was slightly higher than females. Over half of the respondents of this cluster had completed a graduate degree and almost 70% were employed full-time. However, the household income level for more than half of the respondents fell into the range between \$40,000 and \$80,000. The subjects of this cluster resided in Canada longer than the others. More than half of them have been living in Canada for 6 years or longer and maybe this is why this cluster had the lowest interest in Canada among the other groups. Although this cluster showed a very low interest in travelling overall, almost two-thirds of its respondents reported to take international vacations and also more than half of them took domestic pleasure trips once or twice per year alone or with spouses. The domestic trips however were very short (1 or 2 nights per trip). The international trips the subjects started to plan with a desired destination in mind and usually traveled to the countries of origin as well as to some other countries. The top accommodation type for them were friends and relatives' places. Generally, this cluster placed lower importance on information sources than any other segment.

Cluster 3: *Independent Spontaneous Travellers*

The lion's share of the respondents (80.5%) from this cluster were Europeans and almost three quarters of them were males. This was the youngest group as more than 30% of the immigrants were younger than 30 years of age and approximately 40% of them were not married and had no children. The respondents from this cluster were very likely to take trips spontaneously and did not plan them in advance. They also preferred to travel independently alone or with their spouses and to be active on their trips. More than a quarter of the *Independent Spontaneous Travellers* had their domestic pleasure vacations four times per year or even more often, and approximately one-third of them chose to make all the arrangements for these trips at the destination. The respondents from this cluster were less likely to stay at hotels as compared to any other cluster. Alternatively, more than a quarter of the respondents of this segment stayed at hostels and almost 40% stayed at campgrounds. When seeking information, they tended to check Internet websites and to ask their friends rather than to contact a travel agency.

Cluster 4: *Highly Engaged Travel Planners*

Approximately 60% of *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* were Asians. The division of the respondents according to gender was fairly even. Most of them were married and had children under 18. Even though more than half of the subjects had completed a graduate degree, this cluster was the one with the lowest income. As almost 60% of the respondents from this cluster reported to have an annual household income of less than \$60,000

The respondents in this cluster were extremely likely to be involved in pre-planned trips with lots of sport activities. They preferred to travel in groups and were looking for new experiences on vacation. *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* took the longest domestic vacations and were more likely to contact travel agents than the other clusters. In terms of international

vacations about a quarter of them choose to travel to the countries other than their countries of origin. None of the respondents reported traveling alone. The majority travelled with their spouses and the children. Hotels were the top accommodation type for this segment. While planning a vacation, *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* placed a higher importance on all sources and types of information than the other clusters.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

Immigration has become a common phenomenon of modern society in numerous countries around the world, including Canada. There has been substantial interest in the experiences and perceptions of immigrants by scholars. One area that, however, has received relatively little scholarly attention has been to role or manifestation of cultural differences in pleasure travel. The few studies that have been done have tended to investigate cross-cultural differences in tourists' behaviour on the basis of national origins. (e.g Kozak, 2002; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Pizam & Sussmann, 1995). On the other hand, it has been argued that "a comparison study in the tourism discipline should consider alternative approaches rather than nationality for those countries whose population consists of various ethnic groups" (Lee, 2000). Nevertheless, immigration status, place of birth and year of immigration are rarely used in travel activity surveys, and hence, existing data and publications on the travel behaviour of immigrants are limited. This study attempted to fill this gap in scholarly research and compared the two largest groups of recent immigrants to Canada (those of Asian and European origin) in terms of their travel behaviour.

The analysis consisted of the following steps: first, descriptive statistics of European and Asian new Canadians were presented and compared on main demographic characteristics. Next, the factor analysis on travel lifestyle and behavior measures was run and identified nine underlying dimensions. These travel lifestyle dimensions were then explored and compared between the two groups of immigrants. Further, the influence of demographic characteristics of the respondents on their travel lifestyle and behavior were investigated. Then, the past travel

experiences and information sources used for planning vacations were compared between Europeans and Asians. Finally, respondents were clustered based on the lifestyle and behaviour factors, which were then analyzed using the key variables of the study.

The analyses of the data produced useful results, which sheds some light on understanding the relationship between immigrants' home culture and their travel behaviour after the arrival to Canada. This section reflects on these patterns in relation to the research questions and objectives of the project presented in Chapter 1 (section 1.2). In addition, contributions to the field of study are acknowledged, along with some of the limitations and suggestions for future research.

5.1 Comparison of Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour of European and Asian New Canadians

The main objective of this study was to explore whether the region of origin (Europe or Asia) has an influence on travel behaviour of immigrants. The results suggest that the travel behaviours of the sample of European immigrants do differ from the sample of Asian immigrants in a number of ways.

5.1.1 Relationship between the Region of Origin and Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour

Factor analysis of travel lifestyle and behaviour statements identified nine underlying dimensions. These were *New Experience*, *Shopping*, *Spontaneous Travel*, *Sport Interests*, *Educational Interests*, *Active*, *Socializing*, *Interest in Canada*, and *Group Travel*.

Significant differences between the two groups of immigrants were found on five of them - *New Experiences*, *Shopping*, *Sport Interests*, *Socializing*, and *Group Travel*. European participants were more likely to prefer new experiences on vacation, but were less likely to engage in shopping, socializing, sport activities and group travelling. In terms of *New Experiences*, these

results thus conform to the findings of Lee (2000) who showed that Europeans were significantly more interested in novelty on vacation than the Asian tourists. The new experience seeking exhibited by Europeans in this study can be attributed to the fact that in the sample there more Europeans than Asians without children under 18. Thus, it was easier for them to be more exposed to new experiences.

The differences in terms of group travelling and socializing may be explained by the *perspective* of collectivism and individualism. It has been hypothesized that Asian peoples belong to collectivistic cultures and their social relations are characterised by group activities, dependence on each other, sharing and doing things together (Chung, 1991; Hofstede, 1980; Reisinger & Turner, 2003). Numerous researchers emphasized the importance of group travelling and social interactions for Asian tourists. For example, Kim & Prideaux (2005) and Prideaux (1998) stated that Koreans preferred to travel in groups. Similarly, Ahmed & Krohn (1992) identified a number of characteristic elements in Japanese behaviour, one of which was also travelling in groups. Furthermore, in terms of socializing, Mouer & Sugimoto (1979) emphasized the importance of socialization for Japanese culture, and later Reisinger & Turner (2003) indicated that social interactions significantly influenced the satisfaction of Japanese tourists. In contrast, Europeans as members of individualistic cultures are known to be more concerned with individuals' interests (Chung, 1991; Hofstede, 1980). Pizam & Sussmann (1995) claimed that when it comes to comparing Japanese and French tourists, the former tended to travel in groups and the latter preferred to travel alone.

Shopping was another factor that differed significantly depending on the respondents' region of origin. It is generally been acknowledged that shopping is becoming an increasingly popular tourist activity (Ko, 1999, Rosenbaum & Spears, 2006). According to McCleary,

Weaver and Hsu (2006) national culture of tourists has a strong impact on their shopping behaviour. For instance, Japanese tourists were found to treat shopping as an extremely important element of their vacation activities as well as to be the highest spenders among all international tourists (Hobson & Christen, 2001). Park (2002) stated that for Korean and Japanese tourists major parts of vacation shopping behaviour is buying souvenirs as they use these purchases to support their relationships with relatives, friends, and colleagues. This pattern may also be reflective of the collectivistic values typical to Asian cultures. At the same time, Europeans are usually not as engaged in shopping as Asians. For example, Pizam and Sussmann (1995) reported that French and Italian tourists bought significantly fewer souvenirs than did Japanese tourists. Furthermore, French tourists were thought to shop the least (Pizam and Sussmann, 1995). The results of the current study are consistent the previous research and also show that shopping was significantly more important for Asian immigrants, whereas European-born Canadians placed much less emphasis on this activity while on vacation.

With regard to sports, it is interesting to compare the results of this project to those of TAMS (2007). In it, both Asian-born immigrants and the immigrants born in Eastern and Southern Europe were found less likely to be engaged in sport-related activities than immigrants from Western and Northern Europe and the other groups³ used in the study. In the current project, however, Asians had significantly higher interest in sports in general than Europeans. This discrepancy may be attributed to the fact that in TAMS, immigrants were grouped in very broad categories that combined immigrants from a number of various cultures.

³Group1 - 3rd+ GS residents (3rd or more Generation Canadian residents);

Group2 - 2nd GC residents (2nd Generation Canadian residents);

Group 3 - WEOCUSA-born residents: Ontario residents who were born in Western or Northern Europe, Australia, New Zealand, or the USA;

Group 4 - Asian-born Torontonians: Ontario residents who were born in Asia and who live in the Toronto Census Metropolitan Area;

Group 5 - OC-born residents: Ontarion residents who were born in all other countries, including Southern or Central America, the Caribbean, Eastern od Southern Europe, Africa, other Oceania and Antarctica.

5.1.2 Relationship between length of the residence in Canada and travel lifestyle and behaviour

This study indicated that the length of residence in Canada had significant influence on travel lifestyle factors such as *Socializing*, *Spontaneous Travel* and *Group Travel*. In terms of *Spontaneous Travel* the newest immigrants, those living in Canada for 2 years or less, were more likely to go on vacation spontaneously than the immigrants who have been living in Canada longer. One of the possible explanations of this may be that the newer immigrants usually have more time available because they have fewer ties to their new places of residence, and hence, they may travel more freely. However, it does not necessarily mean that newer immigrants travel more. The data used in this study showed that the frequency of the newest immigrants' domestic and international trips was not significantly different from that of the immigrants who have stayed in Canada for longer periods of time.

Immigrants who came to Canada between 6 to 10 years ago had lower scores for *Socializing* and *Group Travel* behaviour factors in contrast to new Canadians who resided in Canada for a shorter period of time. The cause of the differences in *Socializing* can be that newer immigrants may have smaller social networks in Canada, and therefore, it is more important for them to meet new people on vacation. When it comes to differences in group travelling, newer immigrants may also be less familiar with Canadian culture and may have some language barriers, and thus can seek some group security in their travel behaviours after the immigration. Furthermore, it can also be due to economic reasons. For example, Carlile (1996) stated that economy and convenience were important reasons for purchasing grouped packaged tours, which provide accommodation, transportation, and tour services at discounted rates.

5.1.3 Relationships between demographic characteristics and travel lifestyle and behaviour

Demographic characteristics are often used by researchers as a useful market segmentation tool (e.g. Lee, 2000; Muller & Cleaver, 2000). However, there are some problems with using demographics as an explanatory variable for consumer behaviour. For instance, demographic characteristics usually generate broad segments and people sharing the same characteristics do not necessarily behave alike. Further, consumer needs are diverse and volatile. Hence, it is better to use demographic characteristics in combination with other variables for segmentation.

Although this study demonstrates that demographics are correlated with aspects of travel lifestyle and behaviour, region of origin was found to be even more closely related to the travel lifestyle factors. The only demographic characteristic shown to have more significant influence on travel lifestyle than region of origin was *Marital Status and Presence of Children under 18*. This variable showed significant differences on almost all travel lifestyle factors with the exception of *Sport Interests, Active, and Interest in Canada*. While *Education Level* was the only demographic variable which influenced *Activities* and *Interest in Canada* factors, the *Socializing* factor consistently showed significant differences for almost all demographic characteristics with the exception of *Gender* and *Employment Situation*. It is quite interesting that *Employment Situation* did not have a significant effect on any of the travel lifestyle factors.

Further, significant differences were found among the clusters with respect to the respondents' region of origin. However, four out of seven demographic characteristics (*Age, Education Level, Employment Situation, and Length of Residence in Canada*) considered in this study did not reveal any significant differences between the clusters. Hence, it can be concluded that using demographic variable as single stage segmentation is not the most effective approach

in tourism studies (Beane & Ennis, 1987) because tourists' demands are diverse and complex. Thus, the results of this study suggest that the application of a combination of psychographic and cultural variables together with demographics may result in more useful market segments.

5.1.4 Relationship between travel experiences and Respondents' Regions of Origin

In this study, travel experiences of Asian and European immigrants, such as frequency of trips, holiday bookings, average length of stay, preferred destinations and accommodation, and the type of travel companion were investigated and compared. Almost all categories of past travel experiences with the exception of the length of domestic holidays and the type of travel companion were different between the two groups. This means that the respondents were quite distinct in their travel experiences.

More specifically, almost all respondents from both groups took at least one overnight domestic pleasure vacation since their immigration to Canada. Overall, Asian respondents visited more provinces than the European immigrants. The most popular domestic destination for both samples was found to be Ontario. The popularity of Ontario as a tourist destination is hardly surprising because this is where the subjects of the study resided. Of the two neighbouring provinces, Quebec was found to be a lot more popular destination than Manitoba among both samples. Although the reason is speculative, it may reflect the importance of Montreal as a location for many new Canadians – including friends and families of the study's respondents. Next, British Columbia was visited by a significantly higher percentage of Asian respondents than the Europeans. This can be attributed to the fact that British Columbia has much higher proportion of Asian population than any other Canadian provinces. This is consistent with the TAMS (2007) that found Asian-born immigrants from Toronto had above average incidences of

travelling to British Columbia for pleasure and overall had a higher incidence of taking pleasure trips in Canada as compared to other foreign-born population.

With reference to booking international or domestic vacations, the findings suggest that Europeans preferred to book holidays through Internet much more than did Asians, who preferred to call or meet with travel agents directly. Furthermore, while booking international vacations significantly more Asian immigrants chose to make all the arrangements at the destination. This can be attributed to the fact that a much larger part of Asian as compared to European respondents reported to visit exclusively their countries of origin when travelling overseas and thus, it may be easier for them to make necessary arrangements there. Regardless of the respondents' international and domestic trips, family members, such as a spouse, or spouse and children were the most frequent travel companions for both groups of newcomers. This may reflect that new immigrants possibly have a smaller network of Canadian-based friends, and therefore rely more on family for travel companions.

The results of this project regarding pleasure trip duration and frequencies contradict the observation that Asian leisure tourists generally prefer to take shorter trips than other international travellers (e.g. Pizam, Jansen-Verbeke, & Steel, 1997; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Ritter, 1987). It was found that while European immigrants were more likely to take more frequent but somewhat shorter domestic holidays, Asian respondents went on vacation less frequently but usually took longer trips. It needs to be mentioned, however, that the above-mentioned studies investigated travel behaviour of non-immigrant Asian travellers and that the change from shorter, more frequent to longer, less frequent trips may be a logical consequence of immigration. For example, Asian immigrants, who possibly experienced stronger culture shock than the Europeans in Canada, may be more homesick than European immigrants and possibly

experience a greater psychological need to return to their usual way of life. This may also possibly explain why more Asian respondents travel exclusively to their countries of origin than Europeans. Also, budgetary considerations may play a greater role in this change since the cost of air fare to Asian countries is higher than to Europe, whereas the household income level of the Asian participants in this study was much lower than that of the European respondents. This is also consistent with the fact that the top accommodation type for Asians were friends' and relatives' places but hotels for Europeans. Once again, the results of this project confirm that the culture and social environment lead to differences in travel behaviour.

5.1.5 Relationships between Travel Information Sources and Respondents' Regions of Origin

From a marketing perspective, it is useful to know the media preferences of the immigrants. An examination of the similarities and dissimilarities of information sources used for vacation planning among the Asian and European immigrants found the two most important sources of information for both groups were Internet and friends and relatives. From those sources which were different, European respondents were found to rely to a much lesser extent on the information provided by newspaper and magazine advertisements and articles, travel catalogues/brochures, and travel agencies. The Asian participants' high regard for travel agencies is consistent with their aforementioned preference to use travel agents directly when booking a vacation. As Asian cultures tend to have collectivistic characteristics, participants from this region may have a higher dependency on the opinion of the others when acquiring travel information. In addition, travel agents may show higher insight and sensitivity to the travel needs of Asians than public websites oriented at a very broad range of consumers. Further, the Asian respondents' heavier reliance on printed materials is clearly in line with earlier studies by Chen

(2000) and Mihalik, Uysal, & Pan (1995). It is worth mentioning that, surprisingly, the least important information sources for both samples were TV advertisements.

5.2 Comparison of New Immigrants by Clusters

Despite the substantial cultural differences between the two groups of immigrants, it must be kept in mind that new immigrants from the same region of origin are far from homogeneous. Therefore, the final part of data analysis (Section 4.5) was conducted to further understand the immigrants travel patterns by grouping them based on the reported travel lifestyle and behaviour. However, because of the small sample size, the analysis was run for both groups of immigrants together rather than separately. The resulting clusters were then compared in terms of region of origin, demographics, past travel experiences, and media consumption behaviour while planning a vacation. The four clusters that were identified were *High Familiarity Seekers*, *Low Interest Travellers*, *Independent Spontaneous Travellers*, and *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* (these clusters are described in detail in Chapter 4 (section 4.5)).

The *High Familiarity Seekers* cluster had a larger percentage of married females with children under 18. To reach this cluster, the focus should be made on family packages to familiar destinations with lots of shopping opportunities. The information for this cluster should be delivered mostly through printed media such as guidebooks, travel catalogues and brochures.

Next, *Low Interest Travellers* were mostly well-educated and full-time employed people without children. The respondents from this cluster showed close to zero scores on all travel lifestyle factors. When targeting this group the emphasis should be made on weekend trips with detailed description of accommodations, with maps and transportation information included.

Further, *Independent Spontaneous Travellers* had much stronger presence of Europeans and was the youngest of all clusters. For targeting this group, the focus should be made on

independent trips, activities at the destination should be stressed and camping as an accommodation type should be advertized.

Finally, *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* cluster was mostly made up by Asian newcomers. Its respondents had the lowest income level among the four segments and preferred to travel in groups. Therefore, the group package products with relatively low costs emphasizing sport-related activities should be developed for this cluster.

Although it was established that the respondents in the largest cluster (*Low Interest Travellers*) had the lowest interest in travelling, they reported to travel both domestically and internationally. Therefore, it is believed that this cluster should not be ignored by marketers as they may present a potentially valuable market segment.

As can be seen from the cluster analysis, some Asian and European respondents were present in each cluster. However, while the division of the respondents according to their region of origin was fairly even in the first two clusters (*High Familiarity Seekers, Low Interest Traveller*), Europeans were more numerous in the cluster of *Independent Spontaneous Travellers*, and there were significantly more Asians in the *Highly Engaged Travel Planners* segment. Therefore, the results of this study suggest that in order to create more useful market segments, it is better to use a combination of psychographic, demographic, and cultural variables rather than each of them individually.

5.3 Conclusions

As indicated earlier, Canada is a multicultural nation whose population increase is driven primarily by immigration. This study has examined the two largest groups of immigrants, who came to Canada from different continents and very different cultural backgrounds. The initial

assumption of this study was that this tremendous difference in cultural background between the immigrants from Europe and Asia is reflected in their travel lifestyle and behaviour. The results of the study confirmed this hypothesis and indicated that new immigrants' patterns of travel lifestyle and behaviour varied significantly depending on their region of origin and the immigration experiences.

As has been claimed by Kim and Lee (2000), cultural understanding may encourage more participation of diverse cultural groups in tourism facilities. Understanding differences between cultures and providing quality services that meet the expectations of the newcomers are crucial for tourism marketers. Therefore, travel marketers should address the demands of these new customers in the changing Canadian society and should also target the growing number of Asian and European Canadians as well as the immigrants from other regions.

More specifically, this study indicated that there were significant differences between Asian and European respondents. Asian immigrants mostly preferred to travel in groups. Therefore, tourist marketers who wish to target Asian new Canadians, may find that the increased emphasizing group travel packages in most common Asian languages may help capture a bigger share of this market. Further, Asians were more likely to use travel agents to take care of their travel arrangements. Thus, travel and tourism marketers should make sure that they are effectively utilizing travel agents in their marketing programs aimed at Asian-born Canadians. When targeting European immigrants, marketers should focus more on offering overseas travel options aimed predominantly at independent travellers.

While developing such products and services, it should be also kept in mind that the tourism products may also strongly depend on the level of acculturation of members in each immigrant group. It is known that new immigrants usually face many difficulties in a new home

country. For example, during the first years in Canada, immigrants often have low income level (Statistics Canada, 2006b). Therefore, an attempt should be made to develop a travel package mix for them with an emphasis on discount pricing. Also, government can help immigrants assimilate faster to new life in Canada through programs which introduce Canadian history and culture. If the immigrants are encouraged to travel more within the country, it may help them in the acculturation process and will provide benefits for the Canadian tourism industry. Further, in their turn, new immigrants may also encourage families and friends from their home countries to travel to Canada.

5.4 Contributions of the Study

Canada is one of the most culturally diverse countries in the world, in which different ethnic groups are the existing and prospective customers for its tourism industry. Nowadays cross-cultural research is required to adopt effective strategies for tourism marketing in Canada. The findings of this study contribute to the body of knowledge for the marketing in tourism within a multicultural nation. The study makes a contribution to the understanding of tourism patterns of new Canadians by exploring who new immigrants are in terms of their travel behaviour, what motivates them to go on international or domestic vacations, their travel experiences as well as which information sources they use while choosing a vacation.

The results showed that different cultural background has a strong effect on the immigrants' travel lifestyle and behaviour. Region of origin of new immigrants is definitely a variable to be considered for marketing application within the tourism industry. However, it is even more practical to use this variable in a combination with demographic and psychographic variables, such as travel lifestyle. By understanding the characteristics of travel lifestyle and behaviour of new immigrants, new tourism markets may be achieved. Furthermore, this may

allow newcomers to become familiar with their new home country and this, in turn, can encourage immigrants' friends and relatives from outside of Canada to visit and travel in Canada.

This project not only fills the gap in the existing body of scholarly research on Canadian tourism but may also help marketers co-ordinate their efforts in order to improve the existing tourism products among new Canadians, and to develop new products that will better suit their desires and preferences. Also, this study helps marketers promote Canadian destinations more effectively, which might increase domestic travel of this market segment, keep money within Canada, and thus contribute to the local economic development of many regions.

5.5 Limitations and Future Research

One of the major weaknesses of this project is relatively small sample size. It was difficult to collect the larger sample due to survey time constraints, and complications with recruiting participants. As a result, the analysis was based on small a sample size, which may lead to some biased outcome that makes the generalization unrealistic. However, as supported by Chang & Chiang (2006) and Jeffrey & Xie (1995), the results can still be considered indicative without obtaining a bigger sample size.

A second important weakness is the language barrier that restricts the sample only to those new Canadians who have appropriate English language skills. Therefore, once again the findings are not generalizable to all new immigrants in Canada. Another limitation of the methodology is that using snowball sampling technique which provides an easy access to hidden populations (Heckathorn, 2002), may often be biased because participants are usually chosen out of convenience rather than randomly. For example, respondents who have many social links are

more likely to be recruited into the sample. Thus, individuals who were not chosen to participate in the study may be significantly different from those who participated.

Although the empirical approach used in this study is important for drawing trends in tourist populations, it may not be very useful as a tool for explaining the origins of the patterns observed. Future research could consider more multi-method approaches, including individual interviews or focus groups, which may assist in better understanding various ethnic groups.

Furthermore, this study provides some evidence that some Asian newcomer when travel internationally tended to travel exclusively to their home countries. Thus, future research could extend the present study to look at immigration patterns of international travel in terms of destinations.

Finally, the current study is limited to comparing two groups of new immigrants to each other, but further research aimed at identifying whether these two groups have different travel lifestyle and behaviour from Canadians (of several generations) is also needed. Further, since it was assumed that after the first ten years in Canada, immigrants' behaviour approximates that of the Canadian-born population, the focus of this study was made only on new immigrants (those who immigrated to Canada 10 years ago or less). A similar view has been taken by Manrai & Manrai (1995) in their investigation of immigrants in the US. Their study established that the differences between the immigrants become less significant the longer they live in the US and the more they acculturate to the mainstream American culture. Also, according to Stodolska (1998), the perceived constraints on leisure experienced by immigrants diminish with the increase in their assimilation level. Furthermore, Lee & Cox (2007) by examining the influence of acculturation on travel lifestyles of Korean immigrants in Australia indicated that the respondents who were more acculturated significantly differed in their travel lifestyle from those

who maintained a high level of original culture. Therefore, further research on Canadian immigrants is needed to identify the influence of immigration and its consequences on their travel lifestyle and behaviour. Further, comparing travel behaviour of Asian- and European-born Canadians to that of Asian and European population in their native countries would also be of much interest.

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APPENDICES APPENDIX A

Permission from the Director of the Multicultural Centre



Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies
Burt Matthews Hall
University of Waterloo
200 University Ave. W.
Waterloo ON N2L 3G1

September 23th, 2009

Dear Sir or Madam,

I am writing to ask your permission to use your facility to recruit participants for the research project on travel lifestyle and behaviour of new immigrants in Canada. This study is conducted as part of a Master's degree in the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies at the University of Waterloo by Kateryna Dmytrakova under the supervision of Professor Stephen Smith. The aim of this research is to investigate the travel lifestyle and behaviour of new Canadians of European and Asian origin. The results of this study may assist the Canadian travel industry in providing better services to cater for the travel needs of new immigrants. Participation in this study is voluntary. The participants will be asked to fill out an anonymous questionnaire.

If you are interested in receiving more information regarding the results of this study, or if you have any questions or concerns, please contact me at either the phone number provided below or email address listed at the bottom of the page. If you would like a summary of the results, please let me know by providing me with your email address. In this case, I will send the results to you after the study is completed. I expect to complete the study by **April 2010**.

As with all University of Waterloo projects involving human participants, this project was reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through the Office of Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo. Should you have any comments or concerns resulting from your participation in this study, please contact Dr. Susan Sykes in the Office of Research Ethics at 519-888-4567 519-888-4567 , Ext., 36005 or ssykes@uwaterloo.ca.

Kateryna Dmytrakova

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APPENDIX B Information Letter



Travel-Specific Lifestyle and Behaviour of New Canadians

Dear Sir or Madam,

This study is conducted as part of a Master's degree in the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies at the University of Waterloo by Kateryna Dmytrakova under the supervision of Professor Stephen Smith. I would like to provide you with more information about my research and what your involvement would entail if you decide to participate.

The aim of this research is to investigate the travel lifestyle and behaviour of new Canadians of European and Asian origin. The results of this study may assist the Canadian travel industry in providing better services to cater for the travel needs of new immigrants.

Participation in this study is voluntary and should take about 20 minutes to complete. Instructions for completing the questionnaire can be found on the form itself. You will be asked to provide some information about your travel experiences, preferences, and information sources used while planning a vacation. In addition, some basic demographics will be asked. You may decline to answer any questions if you wish so without providing an explanation.

Please be assured that all information you provide will be kept strictly confidential and indefinitely in a secure location. Your name or other identifying information will not appear on any study report and all results from the research will be reported as statistical summaries only.

If you have any comments or questions about the study, or if you would like to receive a copy of the results of the study, do not hesitate to contact me. You can contact me at 905 9628432 or kdmytrak@uwaterloo.ca.

If you have any questions or concerns about the survey, please feel free to contact my supervisor, Dr. Stephen Smith at 519 888 4045 (elsmith@helathy.uwaterloo.ca) or the Office of Research Ethics, 519 888 4567, ext 35217 (ohrac@uwaterloo.ca).

Thank you in advance for your assistance in this project!

Yours Sincerely,
Kateryna Dmytrakova, M.A. Candidate
Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies
University of Waterloo

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire of Travel Lifestyle and Behaviour of New Canadians

SECTION A: TRAVEL EXPERIENCE

6. How often do you usually take an international vacation since you immigrated to Canada?

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Never (please go to SECTION B) | <input type="checkbox"/> Two times per year |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Less than once a year | <input type="checkbox"/> Three times per year |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Once per year | <input type="checkbox"/> Four or more times per year |

7. What is the average length of your international vacation?

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Less than a week | <input type="checkbox"/> 3 – 4 weeks |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1 – 2 weeks | <input type="checkbox"/> More than 4 weeks |

8. How do you normally book your international vacation?

- Call or meet with a travel agent
- Direct with a company's website (e.g. Mariot.com, Delta.com, Aircanada.com)
- Online travel company (e.g. Expedia, Travelocity, Sears Travel)
- Go to the destination and make all the arrangements there
- Other

9. What are the typical destinations for your international vacations?

- I travel only to my country of origin.
- I travel only to countries other than my country of origin.
- I travel to my country of origin as well as to some other countries.

10. Apart from any cost or budgetary considerations, what do you usually consider when planning your international holiday trips? (please select as many as apply)

- Start with a desired destination in mind
- Start by considering certain specific activities that I want to do (e.g. shop, ski, golf, visit amusement park)
- Start with the idea of a certain type of vacation experience (e.g. family vacation, romance, socializing with friends)
- Look for the best package deal without considering specific destinations or activities in mind
- Considered something else first. Specify: _____
- I don't know

11. In what type of accommodations do you normally stay while on vacation? (please select as many as apply)

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hotel | <input type="checkbox"/> Condominium/Apartment |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Motel | <input type="checkbox"/> Friends/Relatives' place |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bed and Breakfast | <input type="checkbox"/> Camping |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hostel | <input type="checkbox"/> Other |

12. Who do you normally travel with?

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Alone | <input type="checkbox"/> With friends |
| <input type="checkbox"/> With spouse/partner (without children) | <input type="checkbox"/> Other |
| <input type="checkbox"/> With spouse/partner and the children | |

SECTION B: TRAVEL LIFESTYLE AND BEHAVIOUR

Your most typical vacation since you immigrated to Canada is

- Trip within Canada
- International trip
- Both
- I do not travel

Each of the statements below refers to travel activities, interests, and opinions regarding your typical vacation. Please choose ONE that best represents your level of agreement with the following statements.

Items	Strongly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I prefer to travel in a group rather than by myself.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. When I travel abroad, I prefer to be on a guided tour.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. It is very important to meet new people on vacation	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. I like to mix with tourists from other cultures.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. The nicest vacation is one where I can just relax and do nothing.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. When I go on holiday, I look for adventure and an opportunity to escape from the ordinary.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. The best vacations are those that have a lot of night life.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. I like to travel to historical locations.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. I like holidays with lots of fun and entertainment.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. I like to visit educational places where I am able to learn.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. I like to visit places with large variety of activities and sights.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. I like to visit a place that has a scenic beauty of nature.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
13. I like to visit places where a range of shopping is available.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
14. I like to visit places of the occasion of a festival.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
15. One of the best parts of travelling is to visit new cultures and new ways of living.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
16. I like to try local foods and drinks.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
17. I prefer to travel to new places with new cultures and new ways of living.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
18. It is important to have friends or relatives living there.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
19. I do not worry about costs when I am on holiday.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
20. It is important that everything is organized so that I do not need to care about anything on holiday.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
21. I like to visit places where the people speak the same language as me.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>

Items	Strongly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree
22. It is important that there is plenty to entertain the children at the holiday destination.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
23. I like to travel with my family.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
24. I normally plan my holiday around watching my favorite sporting event.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
25. My holiday is usually planned so that I can participate in my favorite sport.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
26. I would have little interest in a vacation that did not include some sports activity.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
27. When given a choice, I prefer to vacation in an outdoor area.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
28. I often go to different places spontaneously.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
29. I usually plan all the details (including routes, accommodation, activities, etc.) prior to leaving on holiday.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
30. Given a lot of money, I would like to spend it on holiday travel more than something else.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
31. Planning for a trip is more trouble than it's worth	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
32. I prefer to take several short trips than a few longer ones.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
33. The climate of the holiday destination is important.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
34. I usually buy souvenirs or gifts.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
35. I like to shop when I am on holiday.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
36. I prefer to see the "real thing" rather than "staged" attractions/events.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
37. I prefer activity rather than passiveness.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
38. I am interested in novelty rather than familiar things.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
39. Canada offers great variety of vacation activities.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
40. There are many places I want to visit in Canada.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>

SECTION C: TRAVEL INFORMATION SOURCES

This section concerns your preferred sources of information for planning a trip.

1. Please select the answer (**ONE** box) which best fits your opinion on the importance of the following information sources when planning a trip.

Sources of Information	Not at all important	Not very important	Important	Very important
Internet (travel websites, etc.).....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
TV advertisements.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
TV programs (not ads).....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
Newspaper and magazine advertisements....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
Newspaper and magazine articles/stories.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
Travel agencies or trip organizers.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
Travel catalogues/brochures.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
Guidebooks.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
Friends and family/Word of mouth.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>

2. Now please think about the type of information that is available to you when you are planning a trip. Rate the importance of this information to you. Please choose **ONE** box for each of the following statements.

Statements	Not at all important	Not very important	Important	Very important
General information about a destination.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
Accommodation information.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
Attractions information.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
Transportation information.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
Cultural information.....	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>

SECTION D: PERSONAL INFORMATION

Please provide the following information about yourself by marking the appropriate answer.

1. Gender Male Female

2. Which age category do you fall in?

- 18-20 years 40-49 years
 21-29 years 50-59 years
 30-39 years 60-69 years
 70 years or over

3. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Less than high school
 High school
 College, trade, or technical school
 University (undergraduate degree)
 University (graduate degree)

4. What is your marital status?

- Married or equivalent Not married

5. Do you have children under 18 years old?

- Yes. How many? _____
 No

6. What is your current employment situation?

- Working full time Full-time student
 Working part time Retired
 Self-employed Other
 Unemployed

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

- Under \$ 20,000 \$ 80,000-99,999
 \$ 20,000-39,999 \$ 100,000-149,999
 \$ 40,000-59,999 \$ 150,000-199,999
 \$ 60,000-79,999 \$ 200,000 or more

8. Where do you live in Canada?

City _____ Province _____

9. How long have you been living in Canada?

- Less than one year
- 1-2 years
- 3-4 years
- 5-6 years
- More than 6 years

10. What is your country of origin? (Where did you immigrate to Canada from?)

Europe Asia
Country _____ Country _____

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS SURVEY