

Comparative analysis of lifestyle orientations and travel motivations of Japanese and Anglo-American inbound package tourists in Norway

Bartosz Krupiczojc and Kseniya Hatouchyts

Supervisor: Professor Leif Hem

NORGES HANDELSHØYSKOLE

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Abstract

The purpose of this thesis is to compare lifestyle orientations and travel motivations between different nationality groups of inbound package tourists in Norway. Specifically, the present study delineates differences in lifestyle orientations and travel motivations between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists, who participated in the package tour *Norway in a Nutshell*. Additionally, this study examines the relationships between lifestyle orientations and travel motivations.

Overall, *'family'* and *'travel'* are the most important lifestyle orientation items for Anglo-American and Japanese travellers, respectively. Furthermore, the analysis reveals statistically significant differences between the two nationality groups with respect to four out of ten lifestyle orientation items: *'change/diversion'*, *'environmental awareness'*, *'family'*, and *'culture'*. These findings are partly attributed to generational differences among the respondents.

Using factor analysis, this thesis identifies five underlying travel motivation factors: *'relaxation'*, *'physical'*, *'prestige/status'*, *'socialization'*, and *'novelty/knowledge'*. *'Novelty/knowledge'* and *'socialization'* are the most important travel motivation factors for all respondents (Anglo-American and Japanese tourists). Further, Anglo-American travellers rank *'novelty/knowledge'* as the most important travel motivation factor, whereas Japanese rank *'relaxation'* as the most important travel motivation factor. Furthermore, the comparative analysis identifies statistically significant differences between the two nationality groups with respect to all five factors of travel motivation.

Pearson product moment correlation analysis reveals twenty-four significant and positive relationships between lifestyle orientations and travel motivations. Out of these relationships, the following variables exhibit the strongest associations of medium size effect: i.) *'physical'* and *'environmental awareness'*, *'physical'* and *'sports'*, *'physical'* and *'health'*; ii.) *'novelty/knowledge'* and *'environmental awareness'*, *'novelty/knowledge'* and *'culture'*; and iii.) *'socialization'* and *'family'*.

Finally, this thesis provides theoretical and managerial implications for destination marketing and management decision-makers to promote Norway more effectively as a tourist destination abroad.

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Chapter 1 - Introduction

The present chapter provides the background, purpose, and objectives of this thesis. In particular, the general objectives, specific objectives, and research questions will be outlined. This chapter concludes with the outline of this thesis.

1.1 Background

Globalization has integrated our world economy (Gilpin, 2001) and induced “worldwide interconnectedness in all aspects of contemporary social life” (Held, McGrew, Goldblatt & Perraton, 1999: 2). Advancements in information, communication and transportation technology have substantially reduced social, cultural, economic and geographic barriers to travel. It now requires relatively little time, money and effort to engage in tourism. Arguably, the modern world experiences a “death of distance” (Cairncross, 1997), whereby the opportunity for cross-border travel has become ever more accessible for individuals. Ultimately, post 1945 saw the process of globalization transforming tourism into a mass commodity and internationalizing it by fostering cross-border tourism flows (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

Tourism contributes significantly to both the global and the Norwegian economy (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2012a, 2012b). Even though Norway experienced sustained growth development of non-resident tourist arrivals over the last decade (World Tourism Organization, 2006, 2011a), the country’s tourism industry suffered a decline in competitiveness since 1966 (Svalastog, 2008). It is therefore vital to look for opportunities to improve the industry’s performance and strengthen its international competitiveness.

Insights into consumer behaviour of inbound tourists in Norway, most notably their travel decision-making process, are at the core of successful marketing and present a valuable source of competitive advantage (Hudson, 1999; Hawkins, Mothersbaugh & Best, 2007). Research identified that the variables of lifestyle and motivation (among others) influence consumer behaviour (Kotler, 2002). Lifestyle and motivation display core constructs of the travel decision-making process of individuals (see Hudson, 1999). Tourists “select destinations, transport, accommodation and activities according to their lifestyles, personality and motivational profile” (Gonzalez & Bello, 2002: 54). Hence, an examination of these constructs will improve the knowledge and understanding of why tourists travel to Norway.

Lifestyles are arguably one of the most effective bases for segmentation among psychographics (Lee & Sparks, 2007). Lifestyle profiling enables marketers to gain valuable insights into travel behaviour (Anderson & Golden, 1984). In combination with demographic data, lifestyle analysis presents a more powerful tool to investigate the preferences and behaviour of travellers (Abbey, 1979). It can ultimately be used to develop a more effective and efficient marketing mix through, for instance, the initiation of product development and promotion strategies (Lawson, Tyne, Young & Juric, 1999; Gladwell, 1990). Furthermore, Abbey (1979) notes lifestyle profiling to be particularly relevant for designing package tours. The scholar explains that “life-style allows the designer to create a package that is more compatible with the motivations, attitudes, and opinions of the tour traveler” (Abbey, 1979: 13). Thus, it is essential for marketers of package tours to use lifestyle (among other variables) as one basis of segmentation.

The phenomenon of tourist motivation has gained considerable research attention among scholars in the last two decades. Tourism researchers highlight the significance of motivation as a critical, even though not exhaustive variable, which contributes to explain tourist behaviour (Fodness, 1994; Crompton, 1979; Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Pyo, Mihalik & Uysal, 1989). Fodness (1994: 555) notes that motivation essentially displays the “driving force behind all behaviour”. Hence, an understanding of the travel motivation phenomenon offers fundamental insights into the question of “what makes tourists travel” (Dann, 1977: 185; Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994). Furthermore, the tourism industry considers insights into tourists’ travel motivation to be invaluable, since it enables to effectively segment travellers (Page & Connell, 2006; Cha, McCleary & Uysal, 1995), to predict travel demand and future travel patterns to destination countries (Gilbert, 1991; Crompton, 1979; Cha, McCleary & Uysal, 1995), and to develop targeted and effective marketing and communication strategies to promote destination countries and tourism related services (Fodness, 1994; Crompton, 1979; Page & Connell, 2006; Watkins & Gnoth, 2011; Yuan & McDonald, 1990). In effect, as Pyo, Mihalik and Uysal (1989: 277) remark, “tourist motivation should constitute the basis for marketing strategies”.

This thesis reviews studies which suggest that lifestyles and travel motivations vary between tourists of different nationality groups. Cross-cultural insights into lifestyle orientations and travel motivations of inbound tourists in Norway enable marketers to appropriately segment

travellers, and thus promote Norway more effectively as a tourist destination abroad (Fodness, 1994; Crompton, 1979; Page & Connell, 2006; Lawson et al., 1999; Gladwell, 1990). As argued by Reisinger (2005: 195), “successful international tourism segmentation, targeting, positioning and customization strategies require an understanding of national cultures of tourists from various countries and regions. Today, the way in which national culture influences travel behaviour and tourist decision-making is more important than ever.” The present study focuses specifically on Anglo-American (United Kingdom and USA) and Japanese tourists, since these nationality groups contribute significantly towards the Norwegian tourism industry and national economy (Euromonitor International, 2011a).

1.2 Purpose and objectives of thesis

1.2.1 Purpose of thesis

Scholars extensively documented the field of lifestyle profiling and travel motivation. Nevertheless, there is a lack of research comparing both lifestyles and travel motivations between different nationality groups. Hence, the purpose of this thesis is to compare lifestyle orientations and travel motivations between different nationality groups of inbound tourists in Norway. Specifically, this thesis will delineate differences in lifestyle orientations and travel motivations between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists, who participated in package tours in Norway. Moreover, this thesis investigates the relationships between lifestyle orientations and travel motivation dimensions (factors).

It is hoped that this thesis will expand our scholarly understanding of cross-cultural differences in lifestyles and travel motivations of package tourists, and the potential relationships between the variables. Ultimately, it enables marketers to design more effective and targeted marketing campaigns to promote Norway successfully as a tourist destination abroad.

The following general objectives and specific objectives are proposed:

1.2.2 General objectives

- To examine lifestyle orientations and travel motivations of Anglo-American and Japanese tourists who participated in package tours in Norway.

1.2.3 Specific objectives

- To compare Anglo-American and Japanese package tourists based on their lifestyle orientations and travel motivation dimensions.
- To examine the relationships between lifestyle orientations and travel motivation dimensions for Anglo-American and Japanese package tourists.
- To draw conclusions and present managerial implications for the Norwegian tourism industry.

1.3 Research questions

Consequently, the following research questions were identified:

1. How do lifestyle orientations and travel motivations differ between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists who participated in package tours in Norway?
2. Is there a relationship between lifestyle and travel motivation?

1.4 Outline of thesis

Overall, this thesis is divided into six chapters. Chapter 1 provides the introduction, purpose, objectives, and research questions of this thesis. Chapter 2 examines the nature and development of the tourism industry. Specifically, it focuses on Norway and its package tourism market. Chapter 3 reviews the literature and theoretical approaches towards consumer behaviour (travel decision-making process), market segmentation, lifestyles, and tourist motivation. In particular, this thesis provides nation-specific reference to Anglo-American and Japanese travellers. Consequently, this chapter proposes the analytical model, which incorporates the developed hypotheses. Following, Chapter 4 introduces the methodology behind the research. Subsequently, Chapter 5 states the research findings of the tourist group comparison, factor analysis, and Pearson product moment correlation analysis. Finally, Chapter 6 provides the discussion of findings, where conclusions are drawn, and theoretical and managerial implications presented. The authors summarize the present study's research contributions, acknowledge existing limitations, and suggest opportunities for future research.

Chapter 2 - The tourism industry

This chapter will examine the nature and development of the international tourism industry. Specifically, it will focus on Norway and its package tourism market.

2.1 The definition and nature of tourism

Even though tourism is a commonly understood phenomenon, formal definitions vary across studies. The World Tourism Organisation (1995: 1) describes tourism as “the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes”. This approach is practical in its ability to measure tourism. Alternative definitions provided by scholars include socio-economic and psychological perspectives. Shaw and Williams (2004: 9) describe tourism “as a complex set, or bundle, of economic, political, socio-cultural and environmental processes related to tourist activities”. Moreover, Gnoth (1997: 283) depicts tourism as “a construct employed to denote significant psychological, social, and economic differences from other, similar behaviour during which people leave and return to their home”.

Manrai and Manrai (2011) highlight tourism’s complex nature encompassing a variety of tangible products and intangible services, which results in a plenitude of options to choose from. Some of the peculiarities of tourism’s nature relate to “the way it is perceived when being purchased and later consumed, the immobility of factors going to form it, the limits on capacity, its seasonal nature and the impossibility of trying out holiday products before purchasing them” (Gonzalez & Bello, 2002: 53). Overall, tourism can be regarded as a complex activity, which is distinguished by individuals’ specific behaviour associated to their temporary psychological, social and economic states.

2.2 The origins, development and contribution of the tourism industry

‘Fordism’ mass tourism emerged after World War II as a result of rapid economic development in Europe and the United States (Arva & Deli-Gray, 2011). Advancements in information, communication and transportation technology transformed tourism into a mass commodity (Shaw & Williams, 2002). Tourism products became increasingly standardized, packaged and inflexible (Torres, 2002; Poon, 1994). Ultimately, the tourism industry became internationalized in an environment where cultural, economic and geographic barriers to travel substantially reduced (Shaw & Williams, 2002).

The end of the 20th century marks an important turning point in the development of the tourism industry. Scholars propose a shift away from ‘Fordism’ type of tourism based on mass consumption, towards post-modernist tourism termed ‘Post-Fordism’ (Torres, 2002; Urry, 1990; Yamamoto & Gill, 1999; Arva & Deli-Gray, 2011). This transformation was characterized by the emergence of individualized, flexible and specialized tourism products, which was partly driven by more differentiated tastes of the ‘new bourgeoisie’ (Torres, 2002; Urry, 1990; Yamamoto & Gill, 1999; Arva & Deli-Gray, 2011). The consumption patterns thus shifted to become more individualized and personalized (Torres, 2002; Urry, 1990; Yamamoto & Gill, 1999; Arva & Deli-Gray, 2011; Gonzalez & Bello, 2002). The development of post-modernist tourism ultimately shaped the contemporary nature of the tourism industry.

The development of the global tourism industry after World War II was dynamic and fast-paced. International tourist arrivals exhibited a strong growth development over the last six decades (World Tourism Organization, 2011b). Despite temporary economic shocks, international tourist arrivals increased steadily, from 277 million in 1980 to 940 million in 2010 (World Tourism Organization, 2011b). Additionally, tourist arrivals grew by 6.6% from 2009 to 2010 (World Tourism Organization, 2011b). By the end of 2012, international tourist arrivals are estimated to reach the unprecedented one billion mark (World Tourism Organization, 2012).

Tourism strongly contributes towards the development of the world economy. It presents one of the world’s major trade categories (World Tourism Organization, 2011a) and accounts for 9.1% (USD 6,346.1 billion) of total world GDP in 2011 (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2012a). Furthermore, travel and tourism’s total contribution to employment were 254,9 million jobs in 2011, which accounts for 8.7% of total world employment (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2012a). Overall, the global socio-economic significance of tourism motivates further academic research within this field.

2.3 The Norwegian tourism industry

2.3.1 Socio-economic significance and future development

Nowadays, tourism contributes significantly towards the development of the Norwegian economy. Travel and tourism accounts for 6.2% of the total Norwegian GDP in 2011, corresponding to NOK 166.3 billion (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2012b). In terms of

employment, travel and tourism generated 213,500 jobs in 2011, which accounts for 8.4% of total employment in Norway (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2012b). The rise of household incomes in emerging economies, growing international trade, increased importance of low-cost carriers and signs of recovery of the global travel and tourism industry are expected to contribute towards the future growth development of the Norwegian tourism industry (Euromonitor International 2011a; World Travel & Tourism Council, 2012b).

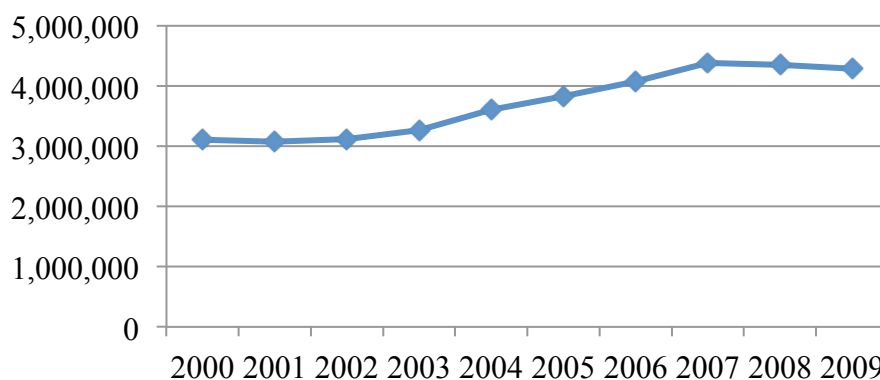
2.3.2 Norway as a tourist destination

Many tourists admire Norway’s beautiful landscapes and sceneries, including spectacular fjords, breath-taking mountains and glaciers, and a relatively untouched and wild nature. Activities such as hiking, skiing, fishing, biking, fjord cruising and glacier trekking have attracted both national and international visitors from all over the world.

Norway therefore distinguishes itself globally as a spectacular and nature-driven destination country, which displays visible potential to attract international tourists. In fact, evidence suggests that the total number of tourist arrivals in Norway has increased steadily over the last decade, from 3.1 million arrivals in 2000 to 4.3 million tourist arrivals in 2009 (World Tourism Organization, 2011a, 2011b; see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Non-resident tourist arrivals in Norway, 2000-2009

Number of arrivals



Source: World Tourism Organization (2011a, 2011b)

Out of the total number of international tourist arrivals in 2010, 75% visited Norway for leisure travel purposes (Euromonitor International, 2011a).

2.3.3 The competitiveness of the Norwegian tourism industry

Despite Norway's sustained growth development of non-resident inbound tourist arrivals over the last decade (World Tourism Organization, 2006, 2011a), the Norwegian tourism industry suffered a decline in competitiveness since 1966 (Svalastog, 2008). The tourism export value declined from 120% of the import value in 1966 (the highest level of competitiveness), to 30% of the import value in 2007 (Svalastog, 2008; see Figure 3 in Appendix I).

The decline in competitiveness was primarily driven by three developments: i.) the surge in competition on the supply side, which increased global supply more quickly than global demand; ii.) the growth in purchasing power of Norwegians widening their consumption choices; and iii.) an increased "imbalance between the development of knowledge and the growth in salaries and costs" (Svalastog, 2008: 7). In the last decade these pressures further exacerbated amid economic shocks, particularly in 2008 and 2009.

Thus, in order to boost the competitiveness of the Norwegian tourism industry, targeted and effective marketing initiatives are required to attract an increasing number of international tourists. In particular, those tourists who contribute significantly in export value towards the Norwegian economy.

2.3.4 The significance of Anglo-American and Japanese tourists

Norway attracts international tourists from all over the world. Nationalities naturally differ in significance and market contribution to the Norwegian travel industry. This thesis focuses specifically on Anglo-American and Japanese tourists, since these nationalities contribute significantly towards the Norwegian tourism industry and economy.

Firstly, Anglo-Americans (U.K. and the USA) make up the fourth largest tourist group in terms of market share of total tourist arrivals, with 9% in 2010 (Euromonitor International, 2011a). British account for 6% of total tourist arrivals, whereas Americans account for 3% of total tourist arrivals (see Table 1). Even though the total number of Anglo-American tourist arrivals declined by 4% between 2005 and 2010, Anglo-American arrivals are forecasted to increase by 14% between 2010 and 2015, from 468.000 trips to 537.000 trips, respectively (Euromonitor International, 2011a). Anglo-Americans also account for a significant share of

total tourist receipts (13%), driven by Americans who are the strongest spenders of all inbound tourist nationalities in Norway (11,786 NOKs of receipts per trip in 2010).

Table 1: Norway - Incoming tourists by country in 2010

Country	Share of total arrivals	Share of total receipts	Receipts/trip in NOK	Avrg. # nights
Sweden	28%	10%	2,202	3.9
Germany	15%	16%	6,092	10.1
Denmark	11%	8%	4,028	6.5
United Kingdom	6%	6%	5,483	7.1
Finland	5%	2%	2,523	4.1
Poland	4%	2%	2,254	9.6
Netherlands	4%	4%	6,384	9.0
USA	3%	7%	11,786	10.4
France	3%	5%	9,523	8.5
Russia	2%	2%	5,835	8.9
Spain	2%	2%	8,938	7.8
Italy	1%	2%	7,342	8.6
Austria	1%	1%	6,174	8.3
Japan	1%	1%	5,529	4.9

Source: Euromonitor International (2011a); Farstad, Rideng & Mata (2010)

Secondly, Japanese account for only 1% of total tourist arrivals in Norway (see Table 1) and declined by 23% in total number of arrivals between 2005 and 2010. Nevertheless, Euromonitor International (2011a) forecasts that Japanese arrivals will increase by 21% between 2010 and 2015, from 28.000 trips to 34.000 trips, respectively. The recovery of Japanese tourist arrivals is highly desirable, since Japanese are strong spenders in the Norwegian economy, with 5,529 NOKs of receipts per trip in 2010. In fact, the consumption expenditure of Japanese is comparable to that of incoming British tourists (5,483 NOKs of receipts per trip in 2010). Furthermore, the Japanese outbound travel market survey, initiated by the European Travel Commission (2009), indicated that over 1/3 (32,5%) of Japanese respondents desired to visit Norway as a destination country in Europe. Among the places to visit for their next trip to Europe, around 55% of Japanese respondents chose European world heritage sites previously not visited, and over 1/3 of the respondents chose places associated with nature such as Fjords, mountains, highlands, valleys, watersides, lakes and canals (European Travel Commission, 2009).

2.3.5 Package tourism in Norway

The present study adapts the broad definition of package tours provided by Middleton (1991) in order to encompass *all types* of package tours (such as *Norway in a Nutshell*). The term *package tours* used throughout this analysis therefore combines both categories of package tours distinguished by Yamamoto & Gill (1999): escorted tours and package tours.

Thus, package tours refer to “standardized repeatable offers comprising two or more elements of transport, accommodation, food, destination attractions, and other facilities and services. Product packages are marketed to the general public, described in print or other media, and offered for sale to prospective customers at a published inclusive price, in which the costs of the product components cannot be separately identified” (Middleton, 1991: 185). Thus, package tours describe a convenient combination or package of travel products and services (e.g. transport and accommodation) offered by a third party.

There is a number of characteristics which are commonly associated with package tours, including the ability to visit a large number of tourist sites on a given trip within a short period of time, the safety aspect, the lower cost compared to individually arranged trips, as well as the existence of predesigned and fixed itineraries (Enoch, 1996; Hanefors & Mossberg, 1999). These characteristics may be considered as advantageous for travellers (Quiroga, 1990) and influence their choice for this type of travel and specific tour (Thomson & Pearce, 1980).

Participation in organized tour groups and package tours is the predominant type of travel among leisure tourist arrivals in Norway. The proportion of leisure tourist arrivals who travel in organized tour groups increased from 25% in 2005 to 35% in 2010 (see Table 2).

Table 2: Leisure Arrival by Type, 2005-2010

% number of people	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Organised Tour Groups	25.1	26.0	27.6	35.2	35.1	35.0
Couples	19.2	16.7	18.4	19.0	18.9	19.0
Families	11.5	12.4	14.4	16.8	17.2	17.5
Friends	6.5	6.0	5.9	11.2	11.4	11.5
Others	28.2	29.4	24.7	8.6	8.5	8.2
Singles	6.5	6.5	6.0	6.1	5.7	5.7
Backpackers	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Euromonitor International (2011a)

In 2010 over 1/3 of all leisure tourist arrivals in Norway participated in organised tour groups. Furthermore, statistical evidence suggests a strong growth of package tourism consumption-expenditure among non-resident tourists in Norway (Statistics Norway, 2010). Consumption of package tours and car rental services by non-resident tourists increased by 45% between 2004 and 2009 (see Figure 4 in Appendix I). This type of consumption-expenditure is estimated to value NOK 193 million in 2009.

The favourable development of the package tourism consumption-expenditure can partially be attributed to the efforts undertaken by the Norwegian Tourist Board (NOTRA), also known as *Innovation Norway*. NOTRA is one of the key players of marketing Norway as a tourist destination abroad (Euromonitor International, 2011b). In 2007 NOTRA focused its marketing efforts (in countries such as the United States) on stimulating and supporting the development of tours to Norway, resulting in a significant increase in the number of tour operators offering trips to Norway, as well as the total number tours offered (News of Norway, 1997). Furthermore, in 2010 NOTRA launched marketing initiatives to promote Norway as a tourist destination on a broader scale, in order to highlight the variety of tourist activities available (Euromonitor International 2011b). These efforts complemented the emerging trend initiated by Norwegian travel agencies and tourist offices, which offered an increasing number of package tours to visit cultural and natural landscapes (Euromonitor International, 2011b). NOTRA and tour agencies are also believed to respond to the above outlined global tourism trends (away from mass consumption towards more individualized and personalized consumption of tourism products) by designing package tours which are more suitable for individual and smaller-group travel (News of Norway, 1997).

Chapter 3 - Literature review

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature and theoretical approaches towards consumer behaviour (travel decision-making process), market segmentation, lifestyles, and tourist motivation. In particular, nation-specific reference to Anglo-American and Japanese travellers will be provided. Consequently, this chapter presents the analytical model, which incorporates the developed hypotheses.

3.1 Consumer behaviour: travel decision-making process

The field of consumer behaviour has gained considerable research attention among scholars worldwide. It is a comprehensive phenomenon to investigate, since consumer behaviour encompasses “processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use or dispose of products, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy needs and desires” (Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard & Hogg, 2010: 27). Consumer behaviour relates to the entire consumption process and concerns influences on the consumer before, during and after the actual transaction (Solomon et al., 2010).

The decision-making process of individuals constitutes an important part of consumer behaviour (Hawkins, Mothersbaugh & Best, 2007). Theoretical approaches towards consumer decision-making are diverse and vary in complexity. Decrop (2006) provides an overview of these approaches, ranging from classical theories (*problem-solver*, *risk reducer* and *information processor*) to postmodern theories (*hedonic and experiential perspective*, *adaptive or contingent decision-making*, and the *garbage can model*). Arguably, the most popular approach towards consumer decision-making characterizes the consumer as a rational *problem-solver*, who aims to satisfy his needs and desires by undertaking particular action (Decrop, 2006). In essence, the process of decision-making can therefore be regarded as a problem-solving mechanism with the ultimate goal of satisfying individuals’ objectives. Consumer decision-making is generally considered to be a complex and often unconscious process (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), which entails multiple stages: problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, product choice, and outcomes (Björk & Jansson, 2008; Solomon et al., 2010).

Researchers have identified various factors which influence consumer behaviour and the decision-making process. Kotler, Bowen and Makens (2003) outlined these to include

cultural factors (culture, subculture, social class), which present the broader influence on consumer behaviour (Moutinho, Ballantyne & Rate, 2011), followed by social factors (reference groups, family and roles and status), personal factors (age and life-cycle, occupation, economic situation, lifestyle, personality and self-concept) and psychological factors (motivation, perception, learning, beliefs and attitudes).

Research investigating the decision-making process in the context of tourism has been extensive and popular (Björk & Jansson, 2008; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). The examination of major conceptual models reveals the overall breadth and depth of the *travel* decision-making process (for an overview, see Hudson, 1999). In terms of breadth, individuals' travel decisions are formed in a process, which entails sub-decisions and several stages (Björk & Jansson, 2008). Decisions may also vary in time length (routine decision-making vs. extensive decision-making) according to the mental effort utilized by individuals during the process (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981, as cited by Hudson, 1999). In terms of depth, the travel decision-making process displays a complex and detail-rich phenomenon (Björk & Jansson, 2008). It involves several socio-psychological processes (perception, learning and attitude), is shaped by personal variables (tourist motivation process, lifestyles and emotions) and also encompasses environmental variables (social and cultural influences, interpersonal variables and situational variables) (Decrop, 2006).

An examination of the travel decision-making process provides insights into buyers' wants and needs. Hence, it allows marketers and destination developers to create "effective marketing strategies because decision behavior (buyer behavior) is the structure upon which marketing must hang" (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005: 830). Hudson (1999: 29) notes that "by understanding how buyers proceed through the decision-making process, the various participants in the buying procedure, and the major influences on buying behaviour, marketers can acquire many clues about how to meet buyer demand". This is where market segmentation steps in by providing a useful instrument to identify and profile distinct groups of customers, who differ in their behaviour from other groups and "who might prefer or require varying products and marketing mixes" (Goyat, 2011; Kotler, 2002: 4).

3.2 Market segmentation

Market segmentation was first acknowledged in the academic literature by Wendell R. Smith in 1956 (Weinstein, 1994; Haley, 1968; Wedel & Kamakura, 1999). At that time businesses

gradually shifted away from being product-oriented towards displaying concern about consumer satisfaction (Wedel & Kamakura, 1999). Smith (1956), as cited by Haley (1968), identified that the demand side of the market advanced and that product and marketing strategies should be more tailored to reflect unique consumer needs. The scholar described market segmentation as “viewing a heterogeneous market as a number of smaller homogeneous markets, in response to differing preferences, attributable to the desires of consumers for more precise satisfaction of their varying wants” (Wedel & Kamakura, 1999: 3). Segmentation therefore divides the market into smaller groups of homogeneous buyers with particular common needs or characteristics (Goyat, 2011; Kotler, 2002; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012).

Over the past fifty years market segmentation was extensively analysed and developed into a more complex concept (Weinstein, 1994; Wedel & Kamakura, 1999). There are numerous ways to segment markets depending on the company’s marketing and management needs (Weinstein, 1994). Kotler and Armstrong (2012) distinguish between four major variables or segmentation bases, which can be utilized to segment consumer markets. Geographic segmentation encompasses variables such as nations, states, regions, cities and neighbourhoods. Demographic segmentation refers to segmentation of markets using variables such as age, gender, family size, family life cycle, income, occupation, education, religion, race, generation, and nationality. Psychographic segmentation utilizes variables such as social class, lifestyle and personality. Finally, behavioural segmentation divides the market based on variables such as occasions, benefits, user status, user rates, loyalty status, readiness stage and attitude toward the product.

The general relevance and usefulness of market segmentation to the firm is highly dependent on the selection of appropriate segmentation bases, and methods used to determine them (Wedel & Kamakura, 1999). In order to profile tourists, demographic variables are frequently utilized due to their common availability and ease of analysis (Abbey, 1979; Kucukemiroglu, 1999). Though, demographic profiles are considered to be insufficient to adequately segment individuals, due to their lack of rich and descriptive detail (Kucukemiroglu, 1999; Wells, 1975). Nevertheless, they provide valuable background information about consumers and are often used in more complex segmentation approaches (Wells, 1975; McDonnald & Dunbar, 2004; Abbey, 1979; Kucukemiroglu, 1999; Wedel & Kamakura, 1999).

Scholars commonly agree that behavioural attributes and particularly psychographics present a more comprehensive and far-reaching segmentation approach compared to demographics (Wells, 1975; Sarli & Tat, 2011; McDonald & Dunbar, 2004; Weinstein, 1994; Gonzalez & Bello, 2002; Plummer, 1974). Though, it is still a less popular segmentation approach than demographics, due to its methodological complexity and considerable cost (Weinstein, 1994). A successful market segmentation strategy is widely recognized to combine both demographic and psychographic approaches (Abbey, 1979; Goyat, 2011). The combination of psychographic data (such as lifestyles) with other segmentation criteria (such as motivation) enables the marketer to better understand the consumer market (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004).

The present study focuses on lifestyle and motivation as segmentation bases in order to gain insights into consumer behaviour of package tourists in Norway. The reasoning behind the choice of these segmentation bases was threefold. Firstly, lifestyle and motivation display crucial influential factors of the overall travel decision-making process (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 1996; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981, as cited in Hudson, 1999; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). Secondly, the use of a combination of segmentation bases is common among tourism segmentation studies (Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele & Beaumont, 2008). Finally, segmentation bases using socio-demographic and economic criteria explain the observed transformation of tourism consumption patterns towards more personalised consumption increasingly less well (Hanlan, Fuller & Wilde, 2006; Gonzalez & Bello, 2002). It is therefore desirable to utilize segmentation variables which are capable of measuring less tangible characteristics of consumers such as lifestyle, personality, image, and benefits (Hanlan, Fuller & Wilde, 2006).

3.3 Lifestyles

The construct of lifestyle has its roots in the field of social sciences and was first introduced in the mid-twentieth century (Anderson & Golden, 1984). Lazer (1963), as cited by Berkman and Gilson (1978: 189), defined lifestyle as the “distinctive or characteristic mode of living, in its aggregative and broadest sense, of a whole society or segment thereof”. Lazer (1963) pointed out that “the aggregate of consumer purchases, and the manner in which they are consumed, reflect a society’s or consumer’s lifestyle” (Lazer, 1963, as cited by Anderson & Golden, 1984: 405-411). Moreover, the construct of lifestyle was described by Berkowitz (2011: 137) as “the manner in which people live as demonstrated by how they spend their time, what they think, and the interests they have”.

Berkman and Gilson (1978), based on the paper of Feldman and Thielbar (1971), outlined four sociological characteristics of lifestyles. Firstly, the scholars identified that lifestyle displays “a group phenomenon” due to social interaction between individuals and within groups (Berkman & Gilson, 1978: 190). Secondly, it “pervades many aspects of life”, meaning that an individual’s lifestyle “commits him to a certain consistency of behavior” (Berkman & Gilson, 1978: 190). Thirdly, lifestyle “implies a central life interest” (Berkman & Gilson, 1978: 190). It rests on the notion that individuals possess many central interests which impact their lives. Finally, lifestyles “vary according to sociologically relevant variables” such as age, sex, religion etc., and can be influenced by social change (Berkman & Gilson, 1978: 190).

3.3.1 Approaches to lifestyle profiling

One may distinguish between three common approaches towards lifestyle profiling: Activities, Interests and Opinions (AIO) statements; Values, Attitudes and Lifestyles (VALS) typology; and geo-demographic analysis.

3.3.1.1 AIO statements

The use of AIO statements is arguably the most popular approach by scholars and marketers to measure lifestyles and develop lifestyle profiles (Kucukemiroglu, 1999; Anderson & Golden, 1984). Even though pioneered in the 1960s it still holds contemporary value and is widely utilized for market segmentation (Gonzalez & Bello, 2002; Berkowitz, 2011; Wedel & Kamakura, 1999; Kucukemiroglu, 1999; Plummer, 1974; Berkman & Gilson, 1978). Marketers use AIO statements in combination with demographic variables to determine and analyse the lifestyles of consumers (Berkman & Gilson, 1978).

The concept of AIO examines how consumers “spend their time, what they consider important about their immediate surroundings, what their opinions are on various issues, what their interests are, and what their demographic profiles say about them” (Berkman & Gilson, 1978: 192). Activities include dimensions such as work, hobbies, social events, vacation, entertainment, clubs, community, shopping, and sports. Interests comprise of factors such as family, home, job, community, recreation, fashion, food, media and achievements. Opinions consist of self-opinion, social issues, politics, businesses, economics, education, products, future, and culture. The demographics implemented in the AIO analysis include variables such as age, education, income, occupation, family size, dwelling, geography, city size, and their stage in life cycle (Plummer, 1974; Berkman & Gilson, 1978).

3.3.1.2 VALS typology

Another popular approach towards lifestyle profiling is the Values, Attitudes and Lifestyles segmentation methodology termed VALS (Weinstein 1994; Hawkins, Mothersbaugh & Best, 2007; Wedel & Kamakura, 1999; Michman, Mazze, & Greco, 2003). Introduced by SRI International in 1978, VALS classifies U.S. adults into eight consumer types “using a specific set of psychological traits and key demographics that drive consumer behaviour” (Strategic Business Insights, 2012a). Furthermore, the VALS segmentation framework is based on two dimensions - *primary motivation* and *resources* - that embed the eight consumer types (Strategic Business Insights, 2012a).

Firstly, the horizontal dimension of *primary motivation* rests on the notion that motives serve as critical determinants of behavioural patterns and are closely linked to personality and self-concept. VALS distinguishes between three primary motivations that drive consumer behaviour: ideals, achievement and self-expression. Consumers with *ideals* motivations are driven by beliefs and principles, as opposed to feelings or desire for approval. *Achievement* motivated individuals seek a clear social position and are highly affected by the actions, approval and opinions of others. Finally, consumers who are motivated by *self-expression* are action-oriented and eager to express themselves through their choices (Hawkins, Mothersbaugh & Best, 2007). Overall, the *primary motivation* dimension indicates which types of goals and behaviours individuals aspire to achieve.

Secondly, the *resource* dimension reveals whether an individual is *able* to attain the targets elicited by the *primary motivation*. It refers to “the full range of psychological, physical, demographic, and material means on which consumers can draw” (Hawkins, Mothersbaugh & Best, 2007: 445). The resources can either enhance or undermine consumers’ ability to achieve their *primary motivation*.

Based on the two outlined dimensions, VALS systematically profiles mature consumers into lifestyle segments, which can be utilized by companies for marketing purposes (Hawkins, Mothersbaugh & Best, 2007). Even though the VALS typology was originally designed for the U.S. market, the developers of the VALS approach also introduced VALS typologies specifically for the Japanese and the U.K. market.

3.3.1.3 *Geo-demographic analysis*

Geo-demographic analysis represents an alternative lifestyle segmentation approach. It is based on the notion that “people who live in close proximity to one another are likely to have similar financial means, tastes, consumption habits and lifestyles” (Michman, Mazze, & Greco, 2003: 21). This approach examines neighbourhoods according to their zip codes and classifies them into distinct lifestyle groups (Michman, Mazze, & Greco, 2003). It compiles and analyses geo-demographic information together with data on consumer behaviour, attitudes, and preferences. The most widely used lifestyle segmentation systems utilizing the geo-demographic approach are PRIZM developed by Claritas Inc., MOSAIC by Experian, and ACORN by CACI Marketing Systems. These systems were argued to present a more consumer-oriented approach to segmentation, and even dominate the VALS typology (Thomas, 2003).

3.3.2 *Lifestyles of Anglo-Americans and Japanese*

The following section reviews studies that examined the lifestyles of Anglo-American and Japanese individuals based on the following three segmentation approaches: AIO statements (the study of Sun, Horn & Merritt, 2004), VALS typology (U.S.-VALS and Japan-VALS framework), and geo-demographic analysis (Mosaic USA and Mosaic Japan). These studies identified significant differences in lifestyle profiles between the two nationality groups.

3.3.2.1 *AIO approach*

Sun, Horn and Merritt (2004) examined differences in lifestyles of consumers between individualist cultures such as Britain and the USA, and collectivist cultures such as China and Japan. The lifestyles were measured based on the data of the 2001 DDB Needham multinational brand capital study, which included questions regarding consumer attitudes, interests, opinions, activities and demographics. The study involved around 4000 participants in total from all four countries. The scholars revealed significant differences between the lifestyles of the examined country clusters, some of which were in line with individualistic and collectivistic characteristics commonly attributed to those societies (Sun, Horn & Merritt, 2004).

For instance, consumers from individualist societies were more satisfied with their current lives, while collectivist consumers were more pessimistic about their current state of being. Consumers from the USA and Britain showed a higher degree of financial satisfaction and optimism and were more confident in their abilities to manage finances. They were also more

inclined to purchase well-known brands. Additionally, consumers from individualist cultures displayed a higher tendency to travel to different places. In comparison to British and American consumers, respondents from Japan and China were more concerned about their personal appearance and the way they were perceived by other individuals. Moreover, they assessed themselves as being impulsive buyers and unplanned consumers. Collectivists showed greater willingness to be influenced by members of their own groups and were less likely to recognize themselves as opinion leaders. They also appeared to be more family-oriented than individualists. The attitude of Japanese and Chinese respondents towards gender roles was also more conservative. Finally, they appeared to be less tolerable of uncertainty and risk (compared to the British and Americans) and more willing to pursue their routine lifestyles (Sun, Horn & Merritt, 2004).

3.3.2.2 VALS framework: U.S.-VALS and Japan-VALS

The VALS typology provides further evidence for differences in lifestyles between Anglo-American and Japanese nationality groups. The U.S.-VALS comprises eight segments: innovators, thinkers, believers, achievers, strivers, experiencers, makers, and survivors (Strategic Business Insights, 2012a), who differ with regard to their attitudes, behaviour and decision-making (Weinstein, 1994). Please refer to Table 20 Appendix II for the detailed explanation of each segment, and Figure 5 Appendix I for the graphical representation of the U.S.-VALS types.

Japan-VALS differs from the U.S.-VALS typology in that it takes into account the unique features of Japanese society. Japan-VALS is arguably “the most reliable and powerful market analysis tool for Japan available today” (Strategic Business Insights, 2012b). It comprises ten segments with different lifestyle characteristics: integrators, self-innovators, self-adapters, ryoshiki innovators, ryoshiki adapters, tradition innovators, tradition adapters, high pragmatics, low pragmatics, and sustainers (Strategic Business Insights, 2012b). Please refer to Table 21 Appendix II for the detailed explanation of each segment, and Figure 6 Appendix I for the graphical representation of the Japan-VALS types.

Overall, the VALS framework demonstrates that Americans and Japanese exhibit distinct lifestyle profiles. The U.S.-VALS and Japan-VALS segmentation tools were specifically designed to be applied in the respective societies. The resulting lifestyle clusters are therefore unique with respect to the two nationality groups. The developers of VALS emphasize that

“each country is unique in terms of the distribution of types and the relative status of types in the country” (Strategic Business Insights, 2010: 3). Thus, it is essential to closely examine the unique lifestyle patterns when segmenting and marketing to different nations.

3.3.2.3 Geo-demographics: Mosaic USA and Mosaic Japan

The geo-demographic approach further supports the existence of distinct lifestyle profiles for Japanese and Anglo-Americans. The Mosaic method of consumer segmentation, developed by Experian, has been applied in more than 20 countries all over the globe (Experian Information Solutions, 2009).

Mosaic USA represents a “household-based segmentation system that classifies all U.S. households and neighbourhoods into 60 unique Mosaic USA types and 12 groupings” (Experian Information Solutions, 2009). It provides extensive information about U.S. consumers with regard to socio-demographics, lifestyles, behaviours, and culture. The twelve identified groups of U.S. consumers are as follows: affluent suburbia, upscale America, small-town contentment, blue-collar backbone, American diversity, metro fringe, remote America, aspiring contemporaries, rural villages and farms, struggling societies, urban essence, and varying lifestyles (Experian Information Solutions, 2009).

Mosaic Japan classified Japanese consumers into 50 different neighbourhood types and compiled them into 11 neighbourhood groups. Likewise to Mosaic USA, it portrays socio-demographics, lifestyles, culture, and behaviour of consumers. The identified segments were: metropolitan careerists, graduate newcomers, campus lifestyles, older communities, middle Japan, corporate success story, burdened optimists, social housing tenants, blue collar owners, rural fringe, and deeply rural (Experian Ltd, 2006).

Similarly to the VALS typology, every socio-demographic lifestyle segment fashioned by Mosaic in each of the two countries displays unique characteristics reflecting the essence of the countries’ environments. Experian identifies that “each country classification is unique and is intended to reflect the distinctive socio-demographic lifestyles of consumers in that region” (Experian Ltd, 2006) Nevertheless, Mosaic Global also documented the existence of neighbourhood types that exhibit demographic and lifestyle characteristics that were present in all examined nations (Experian Ltd, 2007).

Overall, the lifestyle typologies of Japanese and Anglo-American consumers, identified by

the AIO, VALS and geo-demographic approaches, exhibited considerable differences relating to the nations' unique social environments and characteristics (see Table 3). Even though there is a documented existence of similar lifestyle clusters between many countries (e.g. Mosaic Global), one generally observes significant variations in lifestyles between the two examined nationality groups.

Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Anglo-American and Japanese tourists participating in package tours exhibit different lifestyle orientations.

Table 3: Summary of selected studies exhibiting differences in lifestyles between nations

Author	Year	Theory	Methods	Main Findings
Sun, Horn, & Meritt	2004	Individualism/collectivism, idiocentrism/allocentrism, values and lifestyles: attitudes, interests, opinions, and activities.	Etic-level comparison of consumer lifestyles based on the multi-national lifestyle survey.	Culturally induced differences in values and lifestyles between consumers of individualist (China and Japan) and collectivist societies (Britain and USA).
Experian Ltd Experian Information Solutions	2006, 2009	Socio-demographics, lifestyles, behaviour, and culture.	Geo-demographic analysis, Mosaic USA, Mosaic Japan.	Distinct lifestyle consumer segments unique to Japanese and American societies.
Strategic Business Insights	2012a, 2012b	Values, attitudes, and lifestyles.	VALS Survey, U.S.-VALS, Japan-VALS.	Distinct lifestyle consumer segments unique to Japanese and American societies.

3.4 Tourist motivation

3.4.1 The concept of motivation

Scholars highlight the significance of motivation as a critical, even though not exhaustive variable, which contributes to explain tourist behaviour (Fodness, 1994; Crompton, 1979; Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Pyo, Mihalik & Uysal, 1989). Fodness (1994: 555) notes that motivation essentially displays the “driving force behind all behaviour”. From a psychological perspective, Heckhausen (1991: 9) describes motivation as “a global concept for a variety of processes and effects, whose common core is the realization that an organism selects a particular behavior because of expected consequences, and then implements it with some measure of energy, along a particular path.” Hence, motivation can be regarded as a behavioural driving force which directs the individual towards his/her expected outcome.

Fodness (1994: 555) describes the basic concept of motivation as “a dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs, wants, and goals) that generate an uncomfortable level of tension within individuals' minds and bodies”. As Crompton (1979) explains, the theory of motivation is associated to the concept of stable equilibrium. In response to tension or disequilibrium caused by one’s (optimum) level of arousal of needs, individuals seek action that satisfies those needs in order to restore the state of equilibrium in the motivational system (Crompton, 1979; Crompton & McKay, 1997). In other words, tension arises due to an internal psychological imbalance that individuals seek to restore through action in order to restore natural calmness of their bodies and minds. As Moutinho, Ballantyne & Rate (2011: 93) note, “motivation refers to a state of need, a condition that exerts a ‘push’ on the individual towards certain types of action that are seen as likely to bring satisfaction”.

Gnoth (1997) differentiates between motives and motivation. The former describes a “lasting disposition” which energizes individuals to act in order to reduce their drive generated by internal needs (Heckhausen, 1989: 7-16; Gnoth, 1997). On the other hand, the latter is more specific in nature, since it takes into account the particular situation or context the individual is placed in (Gnoth, 1997).

3.4.2 Theoretical frameworks of tourist motivation

3.4.2.1 Maslow's hierarchy of motivational needs

One of the earliest and most influential psychological theories of motivation was developed by Maslow (1943). The scholar proposed that individuals gradually move up a hierarchy of motivational needs, which they seek to satisfy. The most basic needs for human existence are physiological drives such as hunger and shelter, followed by safety needs (e.g. security and health), love needs (e.g. affection and group belonging), esteem need (e.g. self-esteem) and the need for self-actualization (or self-fulfilment). Maslow (1943) highlights the dynamic nature of needs, since an individual first seeks to satisfy his most fundamental needs, before moving on to address deeper and more sophisticated (higher-level) personal needs (Maslow, 1943; Dann, 1983). Ryan (1997) argues that needs are essentially few in number, but the expression of needs are many.

Maslow's proposal of the needs hierarchy maintains popularity and relevance among researchers in the field of tourism. For instance, Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) advanced Maslow's hierarchy of needs to propose the existence of a 'motivational career in travel', where individuals seek to satisfy different levels of needs according to their previous travel experience. Travel motivations vary between individuals according to their travel experience gained over time. More experienced travel groups were more associated with higher level needs (love, belongingness and self-actualization) compared with their lower experienced counterparts (Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983).

3.4.2.2 The concept of push and pull

The concept of *push* and *pull* factors is one of the most widely discussed and generally accepted frameworks among travel motivation researchers (Jang & Wu, 2006; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). *Push* factors describe the phenomenon of tourist motivation *per se* (Dann, 1981). *Push* factors are internally generated and intangible drives (Gnoth, 1997; Baloglu & Uysal, 1996), which are specific to individuals and predispose them to travel (Dann, 1977). On the other hand, *pull* factors display travel motives which are externally generated by tangible attributes of the particular travel destination (Crompton, 1979; Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) such as location, climate, tourist attractions or local cordialness. Thus, *pull* factors constitute forces which persuade the individual to choose a particular travel destination that is perceived as most attractive (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996).

From a sociological perspective, Dann (1977) identifies the *push* factors of *anomie* and *ego-enhancement* as determinants of tourist motivation. The execution of travel, as argued by Dann (1977), enables the individual to escape from everyday-life to a perceived “fantasy world”, where unconventional wishes and desires can be satisfied. Travel experiences thus enable one to break away from the anomie of normlessness and meaningfulness, as well as enhance one’s ego through status and social recognition (Dann, 1977).

Crompton (1979) argues that *push* factors display socio-psychological motives of individuals. He identifies seven such travel motives: *escape from a perceived mundane environment*, *exploration and evaluation of self*, *relaxation*, *prestige*, *regression*, *enhancement of kinship relationships* and *facilitation of social interaction* (Crompton, 1979). Furthermore, Crompton (1979) identifies the *pull* factors of *novelty* and *education*, which he termed ‘cultural’ category, to at least partially account for individuals’ choice of travel destination.

The concept of *push* and *pull* factors offers insights into consumer behaviour of tourists, in particular their travel decision-making process. Dann (1977; 1981) argues that *push* factors precede *pull* factors. *Push* factors trigger individuals’ initial decision to travel, whereas *pull* factors attract individuals to particular destinations after the initial travel decision was made (Dann, 1977; Dann, 1981; Klenosky, 2002; Goodall, 1991). As Crompton (1979) notes, *push* motives were traditionally utilized to explain individuals desire to travel, whereas *pull* motives were associated with the choice of travel destination.

Overall, scholars extensively debated over what factors motivate individuals to travel. Disagreements revolve around the nature of tourist motivations, as well as diverse theoretical and methodological approaches utilized in the literature (Harrill & Potts, 2002; Klenosky, 2002). Overall, three main theoretical perspectives concerning tourist motivations gradually evolved over time: the psychological perspective, the sociological perspective, and the social-psychological perspective (Harrill & Potts, 2002). Due to the continued development of these scholarly perspectives, substantial research progress in the field of tourist motivations has been achieved since the 1970s. Scholars identified *push* and *pull* factors in various settings such as nationalities, destinations and events (Jang & Wu, 2006). Consequentially, a diverse and broad list of *push* and *pull* factors, and thus categorizations of travel motivation dimensions, emerged within the literature.

Even though the categorizations of travel motivations differed between scholars, overall recurrent themes can be identified in the studies (Ryan, 1997; Jang & Wu, 2006; Chang, 2007). Kim & Prideaux (2005) outlined that common travel motivation factors include *escape from everyday environment*, *novelty*, *cultural experience*, *social interaction*, and *prestige*, whereas more important factors for international travel include *cultural experience* and *novelty seeking*. In particular *escapism* is a commonly identified theme among tourist motivation literature (Dann, 1977, 1981; Cohen, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982). Dann (1981) suggests that individuals are pushed to temporarily seek to escape their everyday-lives for reasons of anomie and ego-enhancement. Cohen (1979) describes the act of escapism to be essential in order to relieve one's tensions away from one's centre. Finally, Iso-Ahola (1982) describes the motivational force of *avoidance* (escape) to be one of the main motivational forces of tourism.

One should note the multifaceted nature of travel motivation dimensions, since several dimensions can interact and work simultaneously (Hanesfors & Mossberg, 1999). Evidence suggests *pull* and *push* factors *not* to be mutually exclusive (Dann, 1981; Crompton, 1979; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Klenosky, 2002; Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Pyo, Mihalik & Uysal, 1989). Dann (1981: 60) notes that *pull* factors “respond to and reinforce *push* factor motivation”. Crompton (1979) posits that *push* factors can both initiate individuals' decision to travel and direct them to a particular destination. Klenosky (2002) utilizes the concept of means-end chains to propose that “the *pull* of a particular destination feature or attribute can be driven by multiple motivational forces” (Klenosky, 2002: 394). Recent evidence suggests tourism motivation to be a multidimensional construct that changes throughout the travel process (Crompton, 1979; McCabe, 2000; Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Pearce & Lee, 2005; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Pyo, Mihalik & Uysal, 1989).

3.4.3 Travel motivation of Japanese and Anglo-Americans

The following section reviews studies that investigated travel motivation dimensions in the setting of different nationalities. Overall, one may identify several studies which suggest that travel motivations differ between cultures and nationalities (Kim & Prideaux, 2005), in particular when comparing Japanese to Anglo-American tourists.

Yuan and McDonald (1990) examined tourist motivations of Japanese, French, West German and British individuals based on the concept of *push* and *pull* factors. Principle component

factor analysis determined the following motivational dimensions: *escape, novelty, prestige, enhancement of kinship relationships* and *relaxation/hobbies*. Furthermore, Yuan and McDonald (1990) identified the following *pull* factors among travellers: *budget, culture, history, wilderness, ease of travel, cosmopolitan environment, facilities, and hunting*. Results revealed that travel motivation *push* factors were ranked similarly in importance between the countries, whereas *pull* factor attraction rankings differed between the countries. The notable exceptions of nationality groups who ranked *pull* factors similarly in importance were Japanese and Anglo-Americans. Though, the study revealed that despite their similar importance rankings, the level of importance individuals attached to each *push* and *pull* factor varied between Japanese and Anglo-Americans.

Cha, McCleary and Uysal (1995) initiated a factor-cluster segmentation to identify travel motivations of Japanese overseas pleasure travellers. The scholars identified *relax, knowledge, adventure, travel bragging, family* and *sports* as travel motivation *push* factors for Japanese pleasure tourists travelling abroad. Furthermore, the study revealed that above all, Japanese desired to acquire knowledge and enjoy adventures while travelling abroad. Moreover, Cha, McCleary and Uysal (1995) segmented Japanese travellers based on *push* factors into three distinct groups: *sports seekers, novelty seekers* and *family/relaxation seekers*. Among these three groups significant differences in age and education were discovered.

Yamamoto and Gill (1999) investigated emerging trends in the Japanese packaging tourism market using household market surveys from 1989 and 1995. The research compared characteristics of travel motivations of package tourists compared with non-package tourists. Results indicated that both Japanese tourist groups valued highly *increasing one's knowledge, and having fun and being entertained*. On the other hand, Japanese package tourists valued *relaxing and indulging in luxury* and *having fun* as more important, and *learning/gaining more knowledge through travelling* as less important compared with Japanese non-package tourists.

Kim and Lee (2000a) examined cultural differences in travel motivations between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists. Principle component factor analysis revealed the following motivational dimensions: *knowledge, prestige/status, family togetherness, novelty, and escape*. The scholars identified that the travel motivation of each nationality group was

triggered by different factors, which in turn related to the tourists' cultural backgrounds. Japanese tourists placed greater importance on *family togetherness* and *prestige/status*. At the same time, Anglo-American tourists were more motivated by *novelty* than Japanese. The authors argued that when expressing their travel motivation, Japanese tourists were influenced by collectivist cultural values, while Anglo-Americans "exhibited individualistic characteristics" (Kim & Lee, 2000a: 164).

Kozak (2002) investigated differences in travel motivations between German and British tourists visiting Turkey and Mallorca during the summertime. Principal factor analysis revealed four travel motivation dimensions: *culture*, *pleasure-seeking/fantasy*, *relaxation*, and *physical*. The most prominent travel motivation factor for both groups travelling to both destinations was *relaxation*. Nevertheless, when travelling to Turkey or Mallorca, German tourists were more driven by the travel motivation factors *culture* and *physical* than the British. Germans were relatively more eager to visit historical and cultural places, meet local people, get close to nature, do sports and stay active. In contrast, British travellers were relatively more motivated by *pleasure-seeking/fantasy* type of motivations such as mixing with other tourists, seeking adventure, having fun, and getting away from home. In addition, there were differences in travel motivations within the nationality groups, depending on the destination country concerned (Kozak, 2002).

Kim and Prideaux (2005) examined differences in travel motivations to Korea between five tourist groups (American, Australian, Japanese, Chinese (Mainland), Chinese (Hong Kong SAR)). Using factor analysis, the scholar identified five underlying factors of travel motivation to Korea: *enjoying various tourist resources*, *culture and history*, *escaping from everyday routine*, *socialization*, and *social status*. The study revealed significant differences in travel motivation factors between the five national tourist groups. Furthermore, Japanese tourists "were least likely to be motivated by 'culture and history', while those from America, China (Mainland), China (Hong Kong SAR), and Australia were more likely to be motivated by 'culture and history' than other groups" (Kim & Prideaux, 2005: 353).

Finally, using a qualitative means-end methodology, Watkins and Gnoth (2011) investigated the values of Japanese package tourists and backpackers that drive travel choices in New Zealand. The study identified key themes in tourists' values that differed between the two groups. Package tourists were primarily driven by the "desire to escape from the stresses of

daily life, to relax, refresh, and reconnect to something through nature and nature-based activities” (Watkins & Gnoth, 2011: 661). They desired security and ease, enjoyed familiar relationship structures and did not seek real contact with the local culture. On the other hand, Japanese backpackers did not seek relaxation, but pursued challenges. They were motivated by values which related to their “personal search for meaning and fulfilment” (Watkins & Gnoth, 2011: 663). Japanese backpackers “expressed a desire to escape from the stress and restrictions of daily life in Japan and a search for freedom” (Watkins & Gnoth, 2011: 663). They sought to interact with the local cultures, desired to gain knowledge and experiences, and aimed to expand their horizons (Watkins & Gnoth, 2011).

Thus, the above-described studies revealed that travel motivations differ between national tourist groups, in particular between Anglo-American and Japanese travellers (see Table 4). The scholars generally demonstrated that the peculiarity of tourists’ travel motivations can be attributed to their cultural and national distinctiveness. Thus, one may observe differences in travel motivations between groups within a culture and nationality, as well as differences between cultures and nationalities. Overall, the aspect of culture is argued to play an important role in the behaviour of tourists and affects their motivation to travel (Weiermair, 2000; Kim & Lee, 2000a; Manrai & Manrai, 2011; Yuan & McDonald, 1990; Watkins & Gnoth, 2011).

Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2: Anglo-American and Japanese tourists participating in package tours exhibit different travel motivations.

Table 4: Summary of selected studies revealing differences in travel motivations between nations

Author	Year	Theory	Methods	Main Findings
Yuan & McDonald	1990	Push and pull travel motivation factors	Principle component factor analysis	Tourists from Japan, France, West Germany, and the United Kingdom were similar in their push travel motivation factors, however differed in pull factors.
Cha, McCleary & Uysal	1995	Push travel motivation factors	Factor-cluster market segmentation approach	Six push travel motivation factors and consequently three distinct groups of overseas Japanese pleasure tourists. Relevance of variables of age and education.
Yamamoto & Gill	1999	Travel patterns, motivations for overseas travel, attitudes towards overseas travelling	Statistical analysis of large-scale tourist market survey data from 1989 and 1995	(Related to travel motivation): Three travel motivation categories for Japanese package and non-package overseas tourists. Revealed differences between the two groups.
Kim & Lee	2000a	Individualism/Collectivism Tourist motivation	Principle component factor analysis (tourist motivation scale based on Fodness (1994))	Five tourist motivation factors for Japanese and Anglo-American travellers. Japanese tourists tended to show more collectivistic characteristics in seeking travel motivation, while Anglo-Americans show individualistic characteristics.
Kozak	2002	Push and pull travel motivation factors	Qualitative and quantitative analysis (principal factor analysis)	Four travel motivation factors for British and German tourists travelling to Mallorca and Turkey. Revealed differences between the nations travelling to the same destination, and differences within the nations travelling to different destinations.
Kim & Prideaux	2005	Travel motivation factors	Principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation	Five travel motivation factors for American, Australian, Japanese, Chinese (Mainland) and Chinese (Hong Kong SAR) traveling to Korea. Significant differences in travel motivations were found between the five tourist groups.
Watkins & Gnoth	2011	Values and travel behaviour	Qualitative means-end analysis	Five key themes in tourists' values that drive travel choices of Japanese package tourists and backpackers in New Zealand. Revealed differences between the two groups

3.5 The relationship between lifestyle and travel motivation

There is little research on the relationship between lifestyle and travel motivation, particularly from a cross-cultural perspective. Though, several studies provide evidence in support of the relationship between these variables.

Reisinger, Mavondo and Weber (2001) assessed the psychographic makeup of the international youth travel markets of Australia and Croatia. The study examined the relationships between major psychographic factors such as lifestyle characteristics, preferences for activities, travel motivations, personalities, and cultural values. The results provided evidence of a significant relationship between all psychographic variables. However, the strength of relationship differed between the two countries.

Another study by Reisinger and Mavondo (2004) once again examined the relationships between major psychographic factors such as cultural values, personality, travel motivations, preferences for activities, and lifestyle characteristics. This time, the scholars addressed the question whether the U.S. and Australian student travel markets differed in terms of their psychological makeup. The findings provide evidence of a relationship between the major psychographic factors, including lifestyles and travel motivation. For the U.S. market strong relationships were identified between all the factors, except for the association between values and motivation. In the Australian market all relationships were strong except for the one between personality and motivations. Finally, one should note that the strength of relationships differed between the two countries.

Aziz and Ariffin (2009) investigated the relationship between travel motivations and lifestyles among Malaysian domestic pleasure tourists. The first factor analysis (using varimax rotation) revealed seven dimensions of travel motivation; *nature, culture, budget, adventure and freedom*. The second factor analysis determined five dimensions of tourist lifestyles: *the satisfiers, the dreamers, the indoors, the achievers* and *the escapists*. Pearson product moment correlation revealed that a relationship existed between the following lifestyle and motivation dimensions:

- lifestyle dimension *the dreamers* and all five types of travel motivations.
- lifestyle dimension *the escapists* and the travel motivation dimensions *budget, adventure* and *freedom*.

- lifestyle dimension *the indoors* and travel motivation dimension *culture*.

Finally, Wong and Cheung (1999) investigated the relationship between theme park visitors' motivations for visiting theme parks, demographics, psychographics in terms of lifestyle and their preferences for themes. The results indicated weak to moderately strong relationships between motivations of individuals to visit theme parks, and their demographic and lifestyle patterns.

To summarize, the above-described studies provided evidence in support of the relationship between lifestyle and travel motivation (see Table 5).

The insights provided in this section suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: There is a relationship between lifestyle and travel motivation.

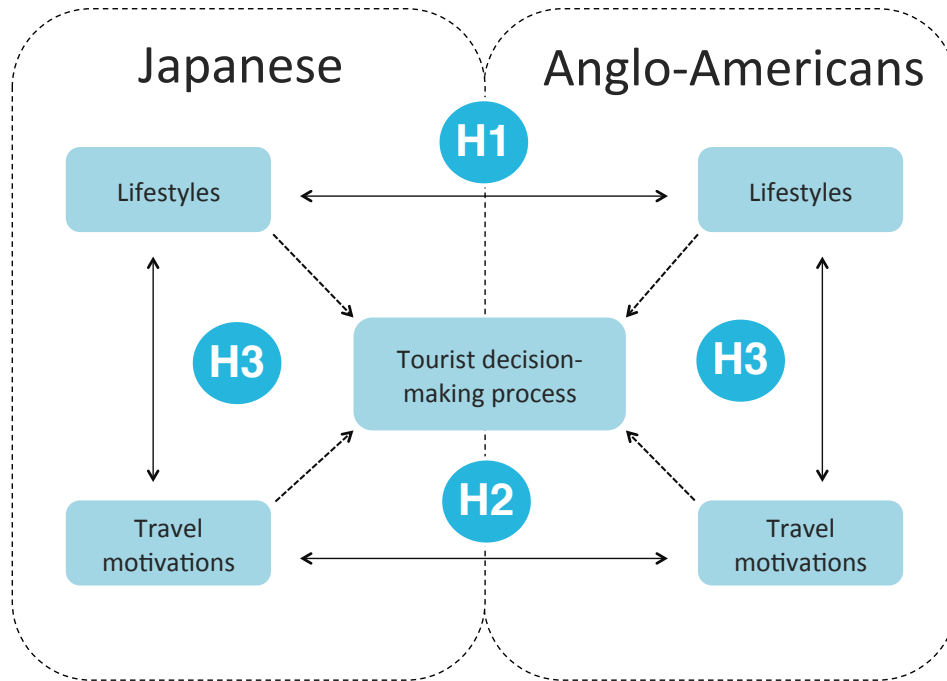
Table 5: Summary of selected studies providing evidence in support of the relationship between lifestyle and travel motivation

Author	Year	Theory	Methods	Main Findings
Wong & Cheung	1999	Motivation for visiting theme parks.	Pearson product-moment correlation.	Weak to moderately strong relationships between motivation for theme park visits and their demographics and lifestyle patterns.
Reisinger, Mavondo & Weber	2001	Psychographics: lifestyles, preferences for activities, travel motivation, personality, and cultural values.	Development of path model, correlation analysis.	Evidence of a relationship between all psychographic variables.
Reisinger & Mavondo	2004	Psychographics: lifestyles, preferences for activities, travel motivation, personality, and cultural values.	Development of path model, correlation analysis.	Evidence of a relationship between most of the variables, including lifestyles and travel motivation.
Aziz & Ariffin	2009	Travel motivation, travel market segmentation and lifestyle.	Factor analysis, Pearson product-moment correlation (lifestyle AIO statements based on Hawes, 1988).	Evidence of a relationship between several travel motivation dimensions and lifestyle dimensions.

3.6 Proposal of analytical model

Based on the literature review, the present study proposes the analytical model presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Proposal of analytical model



Hypothesis 1 (H1): Anglo-American and Japanese tourists participating in package tours exhibit different lifestyle orientations.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Anglo-American and Japanese tourists participating in package tours exhibit different travel motivations.

Hypothesis 3 (H3): There is a relationship between lifestyle and travel motivation.

The analytical model displays the examined constructs of lifestyle and travel motivation of Japanese and Anglo-American package tourists in Norway. As reviewed in the theoretical analysis, both lifestyles and motivations of travellers influence their tourist decision-making process, thus constituting effective bases for segmentation. The comparison of lifestyles between Japanese and Anglo-Americans exhibited differences between the nationality groups, which lead to the proposal of *Hypothesis 1*. Furthermore, travel motivations also differed between the two nationality groups, which posits *Hypothesis 2*. Finally, evidence suggests the existence of relationships between lifestyles and travel motivations of tourists, which suggests *Hypothesis 3*.

Chapter 4 - Methodology

The following chapter introduces the methodology behind the research. It describes the research setting, research design, measurement instrument, data collection, socio-demographic characteristics of the sample, and data analysis procedures.

4.1 Research setting

The research was conducted in the natural scenery of Fjord Norway, an attractive and popular tourist destination located in the southwest of Norway. This region is characterized by a high concentration of accessible fjords and mountains, as well as a diversity of tourist activities offered such as hiking, skiing, rafting, biking and fishing. The National Geographic Society's Center for Sustainable Destinations rated Fjord Norway among the most celebrated and iconic travel destinations in the world (Fjord Norway, 2012).

The package tour *Norway in a Nutshell* enables individuals to experience some of Fjord Norway's most beautiful sceneries (Norway in a Nutshell, 2012). It features breathtaking views from the Bergen and Flåm railway, scenic impressions by boat of the Aurlandsfjord and Nærøfjord, which are included on the UNESCO World Heritage List, followed by a spectacular bus ride on the Stalheimskleiva road. The organized round trip can be scheduled all year round and usually lasts for one whole day. Individuals are able to customize the package tour by choosing their corresponding departure city, adding overnight stays and additional tourist activities. The last stage of the *Norway in a Nutshell* tour involves a train ride returning tourists back to the departure destination of choice.

4.2 Research design

One distinguishes between two types of research strategy; quantitative and qualitative research (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Quantitative research focuses on the aspect of quantification in the collection and analysis of data, and entails a formal, objective and deductive approach to test and verify theories (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Punch, 2005). One differentiates between three types of quantitative research; descriptive studies, causal (correlational) studies and experimental studies (Walker, 2005). Descriptive research features the characteristics of individuals, groups or situations. On the other hand, causal (correlational) research examines potential relationships between specific variables. Finally, experimental research "provides a framework for establishing a relationship between the cause and effect" (Walker, 2005: 573).

Qualitative research focuses on the utilization of words in the collection and analysis of data, and follows an inductive approach to provide in-depth understanding and to generate theories (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Punch, 2005; Cooper & Schindler, 2008). According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994: 2), “qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials - case study, personal experience, introspective, life story, interview, observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts that describe routine and problematic moments and meanings in people’s lives”.

Overall, the choice of appropriate research strategy is debatable, but generally depends “on the topic, on the context and practical circumstances of the research, and especially on how much prior theorizing and knowledge exists in the area” (Punch, 2005: 16-17). Hence, scholars select the most suitable research strategy (quantitative, qualitative, or a combination of both) according to the nature and specificity of the corresponding research objective. In addition, the strengths and weaknesses of each research strategy must be acknowledged (see Matveev, 2002).

Quantitative research based on a causal research design is considered to be most suitable to achieve the objectives of this thesis. The reasons for selecting quantitative research are threefold. Firstly, the phenomena of lifestyles and motivation have been extensively examined within the tourism literature. This thesis therefore tests existing theories concerning lifestyles and motivation by developing corresponding hypothesis. Secondly, quantitative research facilitates the evaluation of very large amounts of collected data through the use of statistical methods. Thirdly, lifestyles and travel motivation are complex and subjective socio-psychological phenomena. Quantitative research proves advantageous to minimize subjectivity in order to draw more objective conclusions (Matveev, 2002).

4.3 Measurement instrument

A cross-sectional survey using self-administered questionnaires was conducted to collect primary data. There are several reasons for choosing this research instrument. First, written questionnaires represent the most suitable research method when examining large groups of individuals in a short period of time (Velde, Jansen & Anderson, 2004). For the purpose of the current research it is essential to acquire a large representative sample of Japanese and Anglo-American tourists during their limited vacation time in Norway. Secondly, questionnaires are cheaper and quicker to administer compared with other data collection

methods such as structured interviews (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Thirdly, when completing the questionnaire, the respondents have a greater feeling of anonymity and their answers are less influenced by the presence of a researcher. This proves advantageous, since some of the questions included in the present study may be perceived as personal in nature. Finally, questionnaires entail standardized questions, which facilitates to maintain the uniformity of the acquired data and simplifies data processing and analysis. This is particularly relevant for the present study that compares two large groups of tourists (Velde, Jansen & Anderson, 2004).

The questionnaire was divided into three main sections focusing on socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, their lifestyle orientations and travel motivations. The type of questions stated in the questionnaire were closed-end.

The *socio-demographic characteristics* of the respondents measured in the study included age, gender and nationality. Furthermore, the survey included questions regarding the number of visits to Norway: “How many times have you been to Norway (including this trip)?”; and visitors’ travel companions: “Who are you travelling with on the trip *Norway in a Nutshell*?”. For the latter question the respondents were asked to choose from the following options: alone, friends, spouse/partner, family with children, and organized group.

Lifestyles of the respondents were measured using the ten lifestyle orientation items proposed by Matzler, Pechlaner and Hattenberger (2004), and Matzler, Hattenberger, Pechlaner and Abfalter (2005). The travellers were asked to indicate the extent of importance of the following values in their lives (“What role do the following factors play in your life?”): ‘leisure time’, ‘change/diversion’, ‘travel’, ‘sports’, ‘health’, ‘environmental awareness’, ‘family’, ‘learning/studying’, ‘culture’, and ‘job’. The scale ranged from 1 to 6 (where 1=do not play a role at all; 6=play a central role).

Travel motivations of the respondents were measured using the scale developed by Fodness (1994), based on Katz’s (1960) attitude typology. The scholar undertook three separate studies, both qualitative and quantitative in nature, in order to develop an easy-administered self-report scale. The original scale comprised 65 items which were subsequently purified and reduced to 20 items. The final scale displays five dimensions (factors), which provide a robust measure of tourist motivation. The first dimension is termed *knowledge function*,

which reflects the individual's desire to escape with a directed aim or goal. The second dimension is termed *utilitarian function of punishment minimisation*, which describes individuals escaping the everyday-life in principle in order to relax and replenish. The third dimension posits the *value expressive function of self-esteem* relating to one's desire to enjoy luxurious environments. The fourth dimension concerns the *value expressive function of ego-enhancement*, which describes the expression of values by individuals to others; similar to Dann's (1977) notion of *ego-enhancement*. Finally, the fifth dimension describes the *utilitarian function of reward maximisation*, which is characterized by individuals who fully enjoy life through their escapist activities.

Recent research by Rosenbaum and Spears (2009) expanded the original tourist motivation scale of Fodness (1994) by proposing the sixth dimension of tourist motivation: shopping. However, shopping displays the lowest expenditure category of inbound tourists in Norway, accounting for only 2.6 % of total tourism expenditure in 2010 (Euromonitor International 2011a). Thus, the dimension of shopping will not be addressed in the current study.

This thesis identified that 17 items out of Fodness's (1994) 20-item tourist motivation scale were suitable for the purpose of this study. The 17 items were slightly modified to fit the research (see Table 22 Appendix II) and were measured using a six-point scale (where 1=totally disagree and 6=totally agree). Overall, the items measure travel motivations of Anglo-American and Japanese tourists.

4.4 Data collection

The self-administered questionnaire was distributed to individuals participating in the *Norway in a Nutshell* package tour. The survey was conducted during the time period from the 25.07.2011 until 20.08.2011. The respondents were approached by student fieldworkers on the train at the very last stage of the *Norway in a Nutshell* tour and kindly asked to fill out the questionnaire. The respondents were selected by using the non-random convenience sampling procedure, based on the willingness and availability of tourists to complete the questionnaire. One questionnaire per individual was distributed. Participants were incentivized to complete the survey by being able to take part in a lottery to win one of several attractive prizes. The response rate on the train was relatively high; approximately half of the travellers who participated in the *Norway in the Nutshell* tour fully completed the questionnaire. The survey instrument was written in English.

Overall, a total of 854 questionnaires were received, out of which 150 were removed due to missing responses on the variable of nationality. Further, out of the total of 704 valid responses, Anglo-Americans accounted for 136 questionnaires (19%), whereas Japanese accounted for 128 questionnaires (18%). Hence, a total of 264 valid questionnaires of Anglo-American and Japanese tourists were suitable for analysis.

4.5 Socio-demographic characteristics of sample

The descriptive analysis of the statistical data reveals the sample's frequencies and percentage distributions on the socio-demographic variables of nationality, gender, age, number of visits to Norway and travel companion. Results suggest that the nationalities of the respondents were diverse (see Table 23 Appendix II). Almost half of the respondents (46.4%) comprised of Europeans (Southern Europe: 26.1%; Western Europe: 9.5%; Northern Europe: 7.1%; Eastern Europe: 3.7%). The other half of the respondents came from the Far East (25.4%), Americas (21.3%) and other nations (6.8%). The largest proportion of total respondents by nationality was Japanese (18.2%), followed by Americans (15.5%), Italians (13.9%), Spanish (9.8%) and British (3.8%). The socio-demographic characteristics of the sample were confirmed to be representative of *Norway in a Nutshell* package tourists.

Among the sample of all individuals who submitted valid responses, 54.8% were females and 45.3% were males. Furthermore, in terms of age distribution, more than half of the respondents aged below forty (55.9%). In particular, the age group between 17 and 29 represented 29.8% of total respondents, whereas 26.1% of respondents aged between 30 and 39, and 44.1% of respondents aged above 40. The majority of subjects (86.3%) visited Norway for the first time at the time of the response. Respondents travelled primarily with their spouse/partner (39.9%), family with children (25.1%), or friends (22.5%). Only a minority of respondents travelled alone (9.0%) or in organized groups (3.5%).

The sample of Anglo-American respondents comprised of an almost equal number of females (51.5%) and males (48.5%) (see Table 6). Anglo-American respondents predominantly (64.2%) aged above 40 (40-49: 9.0%; 50-59: 18.7%; 60-69: 23.9%; >70: 12.7%), whereas only 35.8% of the respondents aged between 17 and 39 (17-29: 25.4%; 30-39: 10.4%). Of the total sample of Anglo-American respondents, the majority visited Norway for the first time (82.7%). Almost half of Anglo-American tourists travelled with their spouse/partner (46.2%),

while one third of respondents travelled with their family and children (33.6%). One may note that the proportion of Anglo-American respondents, who travelled together with their spouse/partner (46.2%) or family with children (33.6%), was considerably higher compared to Japanese (37.7% and 27.0%, respectively) respondents. Only a minority of Anglo-American respondents travelled with their friends (14.3%), in organized groups (3.4%), or alone (2.5%).

Table 6: Socio-demographic characteristics of Anglo-American and Japanese respondents

Nationality			Gender				Age distribution					
	N	%		Anglo-Americans		Japanese			Anglo-Americans		Japanese	
				N	%	N	%		N	%	N	%
Japanese	128	18.2	Female	70	51.5	59	46.1	17-29	34	25.4	37	28.9
UK	27	3.8	Male	66	48.5	69	53.9	30-39	14	10.4	50	39.1
USA	109	15.5						40-49	12	9.0	23	18.0
								50-59	25	18.7	14	10.9
								60-69	32	23.9	4	3.1
								>70	17	12.7	0	0.0
Total	264	37.5	Total	136	100	128	100	Total	134	100	128	100

No. of visits to Norway					Travel companion				
	Anglo-Americans		Japanese			Anglo-Americans		Japanese	
	N	%	N	%		N	%	N	%
First visit	110	82.7	114	91.9	Alone	3	2.5	15	12.3
Twice	11	8.3	4	3.2	Friends	17	14.3	23	18.9
Three or more	12	9.0	6	4.8	Spouse/partner	55	46.2	46	37.7
					Family with children	40	33.6	33	27.0
					Organized group	4	3.4	5	4.1
Total	133	100	124	100	Total	119	100	122	100

The sample of Japanese respondents comprised of slightly more males (53.9%) than females (46.1%) (see Table 6). The clear majority of Japanese respondents (68%) aged below 40 (17-29: 28.9%; 30-39: 39.1%), whereas only 32% of the respondents aged above 40 (40-49: 18.0%; 50-59: 10.9%; 60-69: 3.1%). In comparison with Anglo-American respondents, Japanese were strongly underrepresented in the age group 50+ (Anglo-Americans: 55.2% vs. Japanese: 14.1%). Of the total sample of Japanese respondents, the majority visited Norway for the first time (91.9%). Japanese primarily travelled with their spouse/partner (37.7%) or family with children (27.0%). Considerably more Japanese travelled together with their

friends (18.9%) or alone (12.3%), as compared to Anglo-Americans (14.3% and 2.5%, respectively).

4.6 Data analysis procedures

The collected data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), which allows for both descriptive and inferential statistical analysis of the quantitative data. The analysis was undertaken in three steps (see Table 7) to fulfil the objectives of this thesis.

Table 7: 3-step data analysis procedure

Steps	Description of steps	Statistical techniques
1	Comparison of lifestyle orientations between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mean score ranking • Independent samples t-test
2	Comparison of travel motivations between Anglo-Americans and Japanese tourists (items and factors)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mean score ranking • Principle component analysis • Independent samples t-test
3	Examination of relationships between lifestyle orientation items and travel motivation factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pearson product moment correlation analysis

Step 1 entailed the comparison of Japanese and Anglo-American tourists based on their lifestyle orientations. First, the lifestyle orientation items were ranked according to their mean scores in order to identify the relative importance of each item within each nationality group. Secondly, an independent samples t-test was run to explore whether the lifestyle orientation items of Japanese respondents exhibited significant differences compared to Anglo-American respondents. Finally, a series of independent samples t-tests were conducted to analyse whether there were significant differences in lifestyle orientation items in relation to age groups both *between* and *within* nations.

Step 2 explored the differences between Japanese and Anglo-American tourists with regard to their travel motivation. First, an independent samples t-test was run to analyse whether significant differences in mean scores existed for the reported travel motivation items between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists. Secondly, an exploratory factor analysis using the Principle Component Analysis (PCA) extraction method was used to identify the underlying travel motivation factors for Japanese and Anglo-American tourists. Thirdly, the travel motivation factors were ranked according to their mean scores in order to identify the relative importance of each factor within each nationality group. Fourthly, this study explored

significant differences in travel motivation factors between the two tourist groups using an independent samples t-test. Additionally, significant differences in travel motivation factors were examined in relation to age groups *between* the two nations.

Step 3 investigated the relationships between the lifestyle orientation items and travel motivation factors. The present study implemented Pearson product moment correlation analysis between the lifestyle orientation items and travel motivation factors, computing intercorrelation matrices among all the variables.

Chapter 5 - Research Findings

The following chapter presents the research findings of the tourist group comparison between Anglo-Americans and Japanese participating in the package tour *Norway in a Nutshell*. Furthermore, this chapter provides the results of the factor analysis and Pearson product moment correlation analysis.

5.1 Comparison of lifestyle orientations between the nationality groups

This section compares lifestyle orientations between Anglo-American and Japanese package tourists to test hypothesis 1 (H1).

H1: Anglo-American and Japanese tourists participating in package tours exhibit different lifestyle orientations.

5.1.1 Mean score ranking of lifestyle orientation items

Table 8 and Table 9 provide the descriptive statistics (frequency, mean score and standard deviation) of the lifestyle orientation items for Anglo-American and Japanese respondents, respectively. All lifestyle orientation items were ranked from the highest to the lowest mean score.

Table 8: Mean score ranking of lifestyle orientation items of Anglo-American tourists

Ranking	Lifestyle orientation items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Family	127	5.15	1.08
2	Travel	130	4.84	1.07
3	Culture	129	4.79	1.15
4	Learning/Studying	127	4.78	1.17
5	Health	125	4.58	1.22
6	Leisure time	127	4.45	1.21
7	Change/Diversion	126	4.29	1.14
8	Environmental awareness	128	4.25	1.41
9	Sport	125	3.81	1.53
10	Job	124	3.69	1.75

Table 8 displays the mean score ranking of the lifestyle orientation items for Anglo-American respondents. Overall, '*family*' (m=5.15, σ =1.08) ranked as the most important lifestyle orientation item, followed by '*travel*' (m=4.84, σ =1.07), '*culture*' (m=4.79, σ =1.15), '*learning/studying*' (m=4.78, σ =1.17) and '*health*' (m=4.58, σ =1.22). Notably, '*environmental awareness*' (m=4.25, σ =1.41), '*sport*' (m=3.81, σ =1.53), and '*job*' (m=3.69

$\sigma=1.75$) ranked low in relative importance. One should also note the considerable increase in standard deviation, the lower the lifestyle items rank in their mean scores.

Table 9: Mean score ranking of lifestyle orientation items of Japanese tourists

Ranking	Lifestyle orientation items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Travel	118	4.99	0.83
2	Family	113	4.75	1.09
3	Learning/Studying	114	4.66	1.09
4	Leisure time	113	4.65	0.90
5	Health	108	4.41	1.18
6	Culture	112	4.27	1.20
7	Job	112	4.06	1.40
8	Change/Diversion	107	3.91	1.07
9	Environmental awareness	106	3.90	1.05
10	Sport	113	3.67	1.34

Furthermore, Table 9 displays the mean score ranking of the lifestyle orientation items for Japanese tourists. Overall, ‘*travel*’ ($m=4.99$, $\sigma=0.83$) ranked as the most important lifestyle orientation item, followed by ‘*family*’ ($m=4.75$, $\sigma=1.09$), ‘*learning/studying*’ ($m=4.66$, $\sigma=1.09$), ‘*leisure time*’ ($m=4.65$, $\sigma=0.90$) and ‘*health*’ ($m=4.41$, $\sigma=1.18$). Notably, the lifestyle orientation items of ‘*change/diversion*’ ($m=3.91$, $\sigma=1.07$), ‘*environmental awareness*’ ($m=3.90$, $\sigma=1.05$), and ‘*sport*’ ($m=3.67$, $\sigma=1.34$) ranked low in relative importance.

5.1.2 Analysis of differences in lifestyle orientation items

In order to identify whether the lifestyles orientation items exhibited significant differences between Anglo-American and Japanese package tourists, this study employed an independent samples t-test. The result of the t-test can be found in Table 10.

Table 10: Comparison of lifestyle orientation items between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists

Lifestyle orientation items	Anglo-American Tourists		Japanese Tourists		t-value	Sig. Level
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
Leisure Time	4.45	1.207	4.65	0.896	1.423	.156
Change/Diversion	4.29	1.139	3.91	1.069	-2.659	.008**
Travel	4.84	1.070	4.99	0.832	1.249	.213
Sports	3.81	1.533	3.67	1.339	-.722	.471
Health	4.58	1.219	4.41	1.176	-1.120	.264
Environmental Awareness	4.25	1.409	3.90	1.050	-2.139	.033*
Family	5.15	1.077	4.75	1.090	-2.837	.005**
Learning/Studying	4.78	1.175	4.66	1.088	-.831	.407
Culture	4.79	1.150	4.27	1.200	-3.449	.001***
Job	3.69	1.754	4.06	1.397	1.775	.077

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

The analysis revealed the existence of statistically significant differences with regard to four out of ten lifestyle orientation items: '*change/diversion*', '*environmental awareness*', '*family*', and '*culture*'. Anglo-American tourists considered '*change/diversion*' to play a more important role in their lives compared to Japanese travellers ($t=-2.659$, $p=0.008$). Anglo-Americans also showed significantly higher mean scores with respect to the item '*environmental awareness*' ($t=-2.139$, $p=0.033$). The mean score for the lifestyle orientation item '*family*', in line with the previous two items, was found to be significantly higher for that travel group ($t=-2.837$, $p=0.005$). Finally, the item '*culture*' also turned out to be of greater importance for Anglo-American tourists than for Japanese ($t=-3.449$, $p=0.001$). This item was identified to account for the most significant difference between the two tourist groups, out of the four described lifestyle orientation items.

On the other hand, Japanese and Anglo-American tourists were not found to differ significantly on the lifestyle orientation items '*leisure time*' ($t=1.423$, $p=0.156$), '*travel*' ($t=1.249$, $p=0.213$), '*sports*' ($t=-0.722$, $p=0.471$), '*health*' ($t=-1.120$, $p=0.264$), '*learning/studying*' ($t=-0.831$, $p=0.407$), and '*job*' ($t=1.775$, $p=0.077$).

5.1.3 Analysis of differences in lifestyle orientation items based on age

The study performed an independent samples t-tests in order to investigate whether the lifestyle orientation items of Anglo-American and Japanese tourists exhibited significant differences in relation to their age groups. Consequently, the sample was divided into two age groups termed *low-age* and *high-age*. The former group entails respondents who aged below 40, comprising the age groups of 17-29 and 30-39, while the latter encompasses respondents who aged above 40, consisting of age groups 40-49, 50-59, 60-69 and 70+. Overall, four independent samples t-tests were conducted for the age groups, both between and within nations.

The first independent samples t-test explored the existence of significant differences on lifestyle orientation items between *low-age* Anglo-American respondents and *low-age* Japanese respondents. The results of the t-test are presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Comparison of lifestyle orientation items between *low-age* Anglo-American and *low-age* Japanese tourists

Lifestyle orientation items	Low-age Anglo-American Tourists		Low-age Japanese Tourists		t-value	Sig. Level
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
Leisure Time	4.35	1.263	4.66	.955	1.530	.129
Change/Diversion	4.13	.992	3.94	1.145	-.900	.370
Travel	4.74	1.093	4.95	.788	1.209	.229
Sport	3.98	1.539	3.76	1.374	-.817	.416
Health	4.55	1.138	4.25	1.219	-1.361	.176
Environmental Awareness	4.19	1.245	3.72	.982	-2.290	.024*
Family	5.11	1.068	4.60	1.162	-2.415	.017*
Learning/Studying	4.81	1.329	4.68	1.105	-.578	.565
Culture	4.70	1.350	4.13	1.310	-2.321	.022*
Job	4.27	1.349	4.18	1.348	-.381	.704

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

The t-test revealed that there were significant differences between the examined tourist groups with respect to three out of ten lifestyles orientation items: ‘*environmental awareness*’, ‘*family*’ and ‘*culture*’. *Low-age* Anglo-American tourists displayed a significantly higher mean score on the lifestyle item ‘*environmental awareness*’ ($t = -2.290$, $p = 0.024$) compare to *low-age* Japanese tourists. Additionally, *low-age* Anglo-Americans considered ‘*family*’ as more important than *low-age* Japanese tourists ($t = -2.415$, $p = 0.017$). Furthermore, *low-age* Anglo-Americans ranked the lifestyle orientation item ‘*culture*’ significantly higher than *low-age* Japanese ($t = -2.321$, $p = 0.022$). At the same time, the two groups did not exhibit significant differences with regard to the lifestyle orientation items ‘*leisure time*’ ($t = 1.530$, $p = 0.129$), ‘*change/diversion*’ ($t = -0.900$, $p = 0.370$), ‘*travel*’ ($t = 1.209$, $p = 0.229$), ‘*sport*’ ($t = -0.817$, $p = 0.416$), ‘*health*’ ($t = -1.361$, $p = 0.176$), ‘*learning/studying*’ ($t = -0.578$, $p = 0.565$), and ‘*job*’ ($t = -0.381$, $p = 0.704$).

The second independent samples t-test examined significant differences in lifestyle orientation items between *high-age* Anglo-American and *high-age* Japanese tourists. The results of the t-test can be found in Table 12.

Table 12: Comparison of lifestyle orientation items between *high-age* Anglo-American and *high-age* Japanese tourists

Lifestyle orientation items	High-age Anglo-American Tourists		High-age Japanese Tourists		t-value	Sig. Level
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
Leisure Time	4.49	1.177	4.62	.782	.584	.560
Change/Diversion	4.38	1.214	3.83	.910	-2.387	.019*
Travel	4.89	1.061	5.08	.917	.948	.345
Sport	3.70	1.515	3.50	1.268	-.691	.491
Health	4.62	1.243	4.72	1.031	.435	.665
Environmental Awareness	4.29	1.486	4.26	1.109	-.093	.926
Family	5.18	1.090	5.05	.868	-.627	.532
Learning/Studying	4.76	1.083	4.62	1.067	-.667	.506
Culture	4.84	1.024	4.53	.933	-1.622	.108
Job	3.31	1.879	3.84	1.480	1.517	.132

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

According to the t-test the two groups were significantly different with regard to only one out of ten lifestyle items: ‘*change/diversion*’, where *high-age* Anglo-Americans showed a significantly higher mean score than *high-age* Japanese ($t = -2.387$, $p = 0.019$). There were no significant differences with respect to the nine remaining lifestyle orientation items: ‘*leisure time*’ ($t = 0.584$, $p = 0.560$), ‘*travel*’ ($t = 0.948$, $p = 0.345$), ‘*sport*’ ($t = -0.691$, $p = 0.491$), ‘*health*’ ($t = 0.435$, $p = 0.665$), ‘*environmental awareness*’ ($t = -0.093$, $p = 0.926$), ‘*family*’ ($t = -0.627$, $p = 0.532$), ‘*learning/studying*’ ($t = -0.667$, $p = 0.506$), ‘*culture*’ ($t = -1.622$, $p = 0.108$), and ‘*job*’ ($t = 1.517$, $p = 0.132$).

The third independent samples t-test assessed within-nation significant differences in lifestyle orientation items between *low-age* and *high-age* Anglo-American tourists. The results of the t-test are presented in Table 13.

Table 13: Comparison of lifestyle orientation items between *low-age* and *high-age* Anglo-American tourists

Lifestyle orientation items	Low-age Anglo-American Tourists		High-age Anglo-American Tourists		t-value	Sig. Level
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
Leisure Time	4.35	1.263	4.49	1.177	.626	.533
Change/Diversion	4.13	.992	4.38	1.214	1.184	.239
Travel	4.74	1.093	4.89	1.061	.733	.465
Sport	3.98	1.539	3.70	1.515	-.995	.322
Health	4.55	1.138	4.62	1.243	.292	.771
Environmental Awareness	4.19	1.245	4.29	1.486	.386	.700
Family	5.11	1.068	5.18	1.090	.366	.715
Learning/Studying	4.81	1.329	4.76	1.083	-.239	.812
Culture	4.70	1.350	4.84	1.024	.638	.525
Job	4.27	1.349	3.31	1.879	-3.062	.003*

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

The t-test provided evidence of significant differences between the travel groups only with regard to the lifestyle item 'job'. The *low-age* group of Anglo-Americans turned out to rank the lifestyle orientation item 'job' significantly higher than *high-age* Anglo-Americans ($t=-3.062$, $p=0.003$). Thus, there were no significant differences found with respect to the following lifestyle orientation items: 'leisure time' ($t=0.626$, $p=0.533$), 'change/diversion' ($t=1.184$, $p=0.239$), 'travel' ($t=0.733$, $p=0.465$), 'sport' ($t=-0.995$, $p=0.322$), 'health' ($t=0.292$, $p=0.771$), 'environmental awareness' ($t=0.386$, $p=0.700$), 'family' ($t=0.366$, $p=0.715$), 'learning/studying' ($t=-0.239$, $p=0.812$), and 'culture' ($t=0.638$, $p=0.525$).

The fourth independent samples t-test evaluated whether *low-age* Japanese tourists exhibited significant differences in lifestyle orientation items compared to *high-age* Japanese tourists. The results of the t-test are presented in Table 14.

Table 14: Comparison of lifestyle orientation items between *low-age* and *high-age* Japanese tourists

Lifestyle orientation items	Low-age Japanese Tourists		High-age Japanese Tourists		t-value	Sig. Level
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
Leisure Time	4.66	.955	4.62	.782	-.263	.793
Change/Diversion	3.94	1.145	3.83	.910	-.503	.616
Travel	4.95	.788	5.08	.917	.779	.437
Sport	3.76	1.374	3.50	1.268	-.975	.332
Health	4.25	1.219	4.72	1.031	1.994	.049*
Environmental Awareness	3.72	.982	4.26	1.109	2.546	.012*
Family	4.60	1.162	5.05	.868	2.118	.036*
Learning/Studying	4.68	1.105	4.62	1.067	-.300	.765
Culture	4.13	1.310	4.53	.933	1.704	.091
Job	4.18	1.348	3.84	1.480	-1.199	.233

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$

The analysis showed that significant differences existed with regard to three out of ten lifestyle orientation items: 'health', 'environmental awareness' and 'family'. *High-age* Japanese tourists displayed a significantly higher mean score with respect to the lifestyle orientation item 'health' ($t=1.994$, $p=0.049$), compared to Anglo-Americans. They also scored significantly higher on the item 'environmental awareness' ($t=2.546$, $p=0.012$). Additionally, the lifestyle item 'family' was regarded by *high-age* Japanese tourists as more important than by *low-age* Japanese tourists ($t=2.118$, $p=0.036$). However, there were no significant differences identified on the lifestyle orientation items 'leisure time' ($t=-0.263$, $p=0.793$), 'change/diversion' ($t=-0.503$, $p=0.616$), 'travel' ($t=0.779$, $p=0.437$), 'sport' ($t=-0.975$, $p=0.332$), 'learning/studying' ($t=-0.300$, $p=0.765$), 'culture' ($t=1.704$, $p=0.091$), and 'job' ($t=-1.199$, $p=0.233$).

5.2 Comparison of travel motivations between the nationality groups

This section compares travel motivations between Anglo-American and Japanese package tourists to test hypothesis 2 (H2).

H2: Anglo-American and Japanese tourists participating in package tours exhibit different travel motivations.

5.2.1 Analysis of differences in travel motivation items

The present study investigated the existence of significant differences on the travel motivation items between Japanese and Anglo-American tourists using an independent samples t-test. The results of the t-test are presented in Table 15.

Table 15: Comparison of travel motivation items between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists

Travel motivation items	Anglo-American Tourists		Japanese Tourists		t-value	Sig. Level
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
A holiday in Norway is an opportunity to “recharge my batteries”	3.83	1.33	4.89	1.13	6.793	.000***
I consider relaxing on holiday in Norway	3.86	1.17	4.80	0.99	6.880	.000***
The most important thing to me on holiday in Norway is to wind down	3.21	1.23	3.89	1.09	4.644	.000***
I enjoy a lot of activities (i.e. cycling, hiking, fishing etc.)	3.98	1.59	2.98	1.50	-5.162	.000***
A holiday in Norway keeps me active both physically and mentally	4.19	1.31	4.01	1.12	-1.204	.230
I go to Norway to stay active	3.93	1.25	3.70	1.13	-1.574	.117
For me a holiday in Norway is to see the beautiful scenery	5.52	0.69	5.49	0.73	-.345	.730
It is important traveling to a fashionable place during the holiday	1.92	1.32	3.01	1.43	6.350	.000***
It is important to show my co-workers that I can afford a trip to Norway	1.49	0.99	2.94	1.62	8.677	.000***
A trip to Norway helps me to get a clearer picture of who I am	2.86	1.55	3.70	1.21	4.757	.000***
The fact that I master different situations during my holiday in Norway confirms the way I view myself	3.30	1.58	3.86	1.08	3.262	.001**
The holiday in Norway is a time when the family can be together	4.47	1.64	4.33	1.81	-.653	.514
I enjoy to talk about the places I’ve visited and the things I’ve seen	5.08	1.09	4.84	1.09	-1.740	.083
I enjoy traveling to Norway with good friends	4.68	1.45	3.94	1.86	-3.547	.000***
When I return home I want to tell everyone about my holiday	4.27	1.57	4.64	1.33	2.062	.040*
I like to see how people in Norway live their lives	4.83	1.16	4.06	1.46	-4.677	.000***
It is important to me to experience a new culture and way-of life in Norway	4.87	1.15	4.44	1.28	-2.883	.004**

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

The analysis identified significant differences with regard to twelve out of seventeen travel motivation items. Firstly, Japanese tourists were more motivated than Anglo-American tourists to travel to Norway, because it offers an '*opportunity to recharge their batteries*' ($t=6.793$, $p=0.000$). Japanese travellers also assigned significantly higher mean scores on the travel motivation item '*I consider relaxing on holiday in Norway*' ($t=6.880$, $p=0.000$). In line with the first two items, Japanese considered '*the most important thing on holiday in Norway is to wind down*' as significantly more important than Anglo-Americans ($t=4.644$, $p=0.000$). Moreover, the item '*traveling to a fashionable place during the holiday*' ($t=6.350$, $p=0.000$) turned out to be more important for Japanese than for Anglo-Americans. It was also comparatively more essential for Japanese to '*show their co-workers that they can afford a trip to Norway*' ($t=8.677$, $p=0.000$). Notably, this motivation item ranked the lowest in mean scores for both nations. Furthermore, Japanese tourists were more likely to report that '*a trip to Norway helps me to get a clearer picture of who I am*' ($t=4.757$, $p=0.000$). Furthermore, Japanese tourists showed a significantly higher mean score on the item '*The fact that I master different situations during my holiday in Norway confirms the way I view myself*' ($t=3.262$, $p=0.001$). Finally, for Japanese travellers it appeared to be more important '*to tell everyone about their holiday when they return home*', compared to Anglo-Americans ($t=2.062$, $p=0.040$).

On the other hand, Anglo-Americans assigned significantly higher mean scores on the travel motivation item '*I enjoy a lot of activities (i.e. cycling, hiking, fishing etc.)*' ($t=-5.162$, $p=0.000$). Moreover, the item '*enjoyment of traveling to Norway with good friends*' turned out to be more important for Anglo-Americans than for Japanese travellers ($t=-3.547$, $p=0.000$). Finally, Anglo-Americans also showed significantly higher mean scores than Japanese on the items '*I like to see how people in Norway live their lives*' ($t=-4.677$, $p=0.000$) and '*It is important to me to experience a new way-of-life in Norway*' ($t=-2.883$, $p=0.004$).

Japanese and Anglo-American tourists did not exhibit significant differences with respect to the following travel motivation items: '*A holiday in Norway keeps me active both physically and mentally*' ($t=-1.204$, $p=0.230$); '*I go to Norway to stay active*' ($t=-1.574$, $p=0.117$); '*For me a holiday in Norway is to see the beautiful scenery*' ($t=-0.345$, $p=0.730$); '*The holiday in Norway is a time when the family can be together*' ($t=-0.653$, $p=0.514$); and '*I enjoy to talk about the places I've visited and the things I've seen*' ($t=-1.740$, $p=0.083$). One may note that

the travel motivation item *'beautiful scenery'* ranked the highest in mean scores by both nations.

5.2.2 Factor analysis of travel motivation items

Exploratory factor analysis was undertaken on 17 travel motivation items in order to identify the underlying travel motivation dimensions (factors). Principle Component Analysis (PCA) was used as the method of extraction. The factors were rotated using Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization to obtain an oblique solution allowing for factor intercorrelation (Henson & Roberts, 2006).

The initial five-factor solution resulted in the decision to remove two travel motivation items from the analysis. The reasons for removal were as follows. Firstly, both items scored in categories which deviated from those proposed by Fodness (1994) (see Table 22 Appendix II). Secondly, the first item *'When I return home I want to tell everyone about my holiday'* displayed cross-loadings above 0.4 on two factors, with a small primary-secondary discrepancy of 0.17 (Matsunaga, 2010). Finally, Cronbach's alpha analysis supported the removal of the second item *'For me a holiday in Norway is to see the beautiful scenery'* to improve the overall reliability of the corresponding factor. Hence, both items were removed and the factor analysis was rerun with the remaining 15 travel motivation items.

The subsequent Principle Component Analysis of the 15 motivation items extracted five underlying factors, which explained 69.01% of the total variance (see Table 16, SPSS output: Table 26-33 Appendix III). All 15 items loaded significantly with factor loadings above 0.5 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006) and aligned with the categorization of items proposed by Fodness (1994) (see Table 22 Appendix II). All five factors displayed eigenvalues above one, hence satisfying the Guttman-Kaiser criterion (Henson & Roberts, 2006). The identification of the breaking point using the scree-plot test supported the retention of these five factors (Costello & Osborne, 2005; see Figure 7 Appendix I).

The reliability test for internal consistency revealed that four out of five factors scored above the recommended coefficient alpha of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). The only exception was factor 4 *Socialization* with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.59. Nevertheless, this score still ranges above the minimum level of acceptable reliability of 0.5 (Nunnally, 1967). Overall, the high reliability estimates reveal a relatively good internal consistency among the factors.

Table 16: Factor analysis of 15 travel motivation items of Anglo-American and Japanese tourists

Travel motivation factors / items	Factor Loadings	Eigenvalues	Variance Explained (%)	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean
Factor 1: Relaxation		3.98	26.51	0.87	4.06
• A holiday in Norway is an opportunity to “recharge my batteries”	0.93				
• I consider relaxing on holiday in Norway	0.89				
• The most important thing to me on holiday in Norway is to wind down	0.81				
Factor 2: Physical		2.49	16.61	0.78	3.81
• I enjoy a lot of activities (i.e. cycling, hiking, fishing etc.)	0.81				
• A holiday in Norway keeps me active both physically and mentally	0.81				
• I go to Norway to stay active	0.79				
Factor 3: Prestige/Status		1.43	9.55	0.76	2.87
• It is important traveling to a fashionable place during the holiday	0.83				
• It is important to show my co-workers that I can afford a trip to Norway	0.83				
• A trip to Norway helps me to get a clearer picture of who I am	0.60				
• The fact that I master different situations during my holiday in Norway confirms the way I view myself	0.54				
Factor 4: Socialization		1.27	8.46	0.59	4.55
• The holiday in Norway is a time when the family can be together	0.81				
• I enjoy to talk about the places I’ve visited and the things I’ve seen	0.68				
• I enjoy traveling to Norway with good friends	0.65				
Factor 5: Novelty/Knowledge		1.18	7.88	0.71	4.55
• I like to see how people in Norway live their lives	0.87				
• It is important to me to experience a new culture and way-of life in Norway	0.85				
Total Variance Explained			69.01		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
 Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Factor 1: Relaxation

This factor comprises three motivation items reflecting a general drive towards the state of relaxation. Items include ‘*A holiday in Norway is an opportunity to recharge my batteries*’, ‘*I consider relaxing on holiday in Norway*’ and ‘*The most important thing to me on holiday in Norway is to wind down*’. This factor contains an Eigenvalue of 3.98 and explains 26.51% of

total variance. It has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.87.

Factor 2: *Physical*

This factor comprises three motivation items which demonstrate individuals' spirit to remain active during the holidays. Items include '*I enjoy a lot of activities (i.e. cycling, hiking, fishing etc.)*', '*A holiday in Norway keeps me active both physically and mentally*' and '*I go to Norway to stay active*'. This factor has an eigenvalue of 2.49 and accounts for 16.61% of total variance. It displays a Cronbach's alpha of 0.78.

Factor 3: *Prestige/Status*

This factor contained four motivation items reflecting themes of self-esteem and status reflection. Items include '*It is important traveling to a fashionable place during the holiday*', '*It is important to show my co-workers that I can afford a trip to Norway*', '*A trip to Norway helps me to get a clearer picture of who I am*' and '*The fact that I master different situations during my holiday in Norway confirms the way I view myself*'. This factor has an eigenvalue of 1.43 and accounts for 9.55% of total variance. It contains a Cronbach's alpha of 0.76.

Factor 4: *Socialization*

The fourth factor entailed three motivation items concerning interaction of individuals within their social environment and with their family. Items include '*The holiday in Norway is a time when the family can be together*', '*I enjoy to talk about the places I've visited and the things I've seen*' and '*I enjoy traveling to Norway with good friends*'. This factor displays an Eigenvalue of 1.27 and explains 8.46% of total variance. It contains a Cronbach's alpha of 0.59.

Factor 5: *Novelty/Knowledge*

The final factor contained two motivation items reflecting aspirations to seek new experiences and environments. Items include '*I like to see how people in Norway live their lives*', '*It is important to me to experience a new culture and way-of life in Norway*'. This factor contains an Eigenvalue of 1.18 and accounts for 7.88% of total variance. It reports a Cronbach's alpha of 0.71.

5.2.3 Mean score ranking of travel motivation factors

Table 16 (see above) also displays the mean scores of the underlying travel motivation factors. *Novelty/knowledge* and *socialization* emerged as the two most important travel motivation factors among all respondents (total of Japanese and Anglo-Americans), as reflected by their highest mean scores of all factors ($m=4.554$ and $m=4.547$, respectively). These factors were followed by *relaxation* ($m=4.06$), *physical* ($m=3.81$) and *prestige/status* ($m=2.87$).

A separate analysis of mean score rankings was undertaken within each nationality group. Table 17 provides the descriptive statistics (mean scores and standard deviations) of the travel motivation factors for Anglo-American and Japanese respondents. All travel motivation factors were ranked from the highest to the lowest mean score.

Table 17: Mean score ranking of travel motivation factors of Anglo-American and Japanese tourists

Ranking	Travel motivation factors	Anglo-American tourists		Ranking	Travel motivation factors	Japanese tourists	
		Mean	Std. Dev.			Mean	Std. Dev.
1	Novelty/Knowledge	4.85	1.05	1	Relaxation	4.54	0.90
2	Socialization	4.74	1.03	2	Socialization	4.36	1.22
3	Physical	4.04	1.19	3	Novelty/Knowledge	4.24	1.17
4	Relaxation	3.63	1.11	4	Physical	3.57	1.00
5	Prestige/Status	2.35	1.02	5	Prestige/Status	3.39	0.96

As displayed in Table 17, Anglo-American travellers ranked ‘*novelty/knowledge*’ as the most important travel motivation factor ($m=4.85$, $\sigma=1.05$), followed by ‘*socialization*’ ($m=4.74$, $\sigma=1.03$) and ‘*physical*’ ($m=4.04$, $\sigma=1.19$). The travel motivation factor ‘*relaxation*’ scored relatively low in importance for Anglo-Americans ($m=3.63$, $\sigma=1.11$). Moreover, ‘*prestige/status*’ ranked the least in importance as travel motivation factor for Anglo-American tourists ($m=2.35$, $\sigma=1.02$).

In contrast, Japanese travellers ranked ‘*relaxation*’ as the most important travel motivation factor ($m=4.54$, $\sigma=0.90$), followed by ‘*socialization*’ ($m=4.36$, $\sigma=1.22$) and ‘*novelty/knowledge*’ ($m=4.24$, $\sigma=1.17$). The travel motivation factor ‘*physical*’ ranked relatively low in importance by Japanese ($m=3.57$, $\sigma=1.00$). Moreover, ‘*prestige/status*’ ranked the least in importance as travel motivation factor for Japanese ($m=3.39$, $\sigma=0.96$).

5.2.4 Analysis of differences in travel motivation factors

An independent samples t-test was carried out in order to identify whether there were significant differences in travel motivation factors between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists. The results of the t-test are summarized in Table 18.

Table 18: Comparison of five travel motivation factors of Anglo-American and Japanese tourists

Travel motivation factors	Anglo-American tourists		Japanese tourists		t-value	Sig. Level
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
Relaxation	3.63	1.11	4.54	0.90	6.995	.000***
Physical	4.04	1.19	3.57	1.00	-3.431	.001***
Prestige/Status	2.35	1.02	3.39	0.96	8.205	.000***
Socialization	4.74	1.03	4.36	1.22	-2.648	.009**
Novelty/Knowledge	4.85	1.05	4.24	1.17	-4.366	.000***

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

The comparative analysis revealed significant differences between the two tourist groups with respect to all five factors of travel motivation. Japanese travellers showed a significantly higher mean score for the factor ‘*relaxation*’ ($t=6.995$, $p=0.000$). The travel motivation dimension ‘*physical*’ turned out to be more important for Anglo-American tourists ($t=-3.431$, $p=0.001$) than for Japanese tourists. The mean score for ‘*prestige/status*’ was significantly higher for Japanese travellers ($t=8.205$, $p=0.000$) than that of Anglo-Americans. ‘*Socialization*’ was ranked significantly higher by Anglo-American tourists ($t=-2.648$, $p=0.009$). Furthermore, Anglo-Americans put greater emphasis on the travel motivation factor ‘*novelty/knowledge*’ ($t=-4.366$, $p=0.000$) than Japanese travellers.

Additional independent samples t-tests were conducted in order to identify whether travel motivation factors differed significantly between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists in relation to their age groups. The analysis used the *low-age* and *high-age* classification introduced above. The results of the t-tests are presented in Table 24 Appendix II and Table 25 Appendix II. The t-tests revealed significant differences with respect to all travel motivations factors between *low-age* Anglo-Americans and *low-age* Japanese tourists. At the same time, *high-age* Anglo-American and *high-age* Japanese travellers significantly differed on four out of five travel motivation factors, with the exception of the factor ‘*socialization*’.

5.3 Examination of relationships between lifestyle orientation items and travel motivation factors

Pearson product moment correlation was employed in order to investigate the existence of statistically significant relationships between the derived travel motivational factors and lifestyle orientation items among Anglo-American and Japanese tourists. This section tests hypothesis 3 (H3) of the present study.

H3: There is a relationship between lifestyle and travel motivation.

The results of the Pearson product moment correlation are presented in Table 19.

Table 19: Pearson correlation of five travel motivation factors with lifestyle items for Anglo-American and Japanese tourists

Variables	Relaxation	Physical	Prestige/ Status	Socialization	Novelty/ Knowledge
Leisure Time	.236***	.150*	.079	.051	.087
Change/Diversion	.091	.145*	-.024	-.027	.154*
Travel	.222***	.085	.176**	.078	.017
Sports	.071	.303***	-.002	.160*	.141*
Health	.079	.300***	.126	.086	.254***
Environmental Awareness	.104	.350***	.176**	.239***	.323***
Family	.107	.134*	.050	.298***	.160*
Learning/Studying	.201**	.073	.066	.067	.251***
Culture	.072	.151*	.005	.199**	.299***
Job	.171*	.114	.081	.048	.038

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

The results of the Pearson product moment correlation analysis revealed twenty-four (out of fifty) significant and positive relationships ($p < 0.05$). More specifically, the travel motivation factor ‘*relaxation*’ was significantly and positively correlated with the lifestyle orientation items ‘*leisure time*’ ($r = 0.236$, $p = 0.000$), ‘*travel*’ ($r = 0.222$, $p = 0.001$), ‘*learning/studying*’ ($r = 0.201$, $p = 0.002$), and ‘*job*’ ($r = 0.171$, $p = 0.010$). The dimension ‘*physical*’ was significantly and positively related to ‘*leisure time*’ ($r = 0.150$, $p = 0.022$), ‘*change/diversion*’ ($r = 0.145$, $p = 0.029$), ‘*sports*’ ($r = 0.303$, $p = 0.000$), ‘*health*’ ($r = 0.300$, $p = 0.000$), ‘*environmental awareness*’ ($r = 0.350$, $p = 0.000$), ‘*family*’ ($r = 0.134$, $p = 0.40$), and ‘*culture*’ ($r = 0.151$, $p = 0.020$). The travel motivation of ‘*prestige/status*’ revealed a significant and positive relationship with ‘*travel*’ ($r = 0.176$, $p = 0.007$) and ‘*environmental awareness*’ ($r = 0.176$, $p = 0.010$) lifestyle items, while ‘*socialization*’ was significantly and positively correlated with ‘*sports*’ ($r = 0.160$,

p=0.017), '*environmental awareness*' (r=0.239, p=0.000), '*family*' (r=0.298, p=0.000), and '*culture*' (r=0.199, p=0.003). Finally, there was a significant and positive relationship between the travel motivation factor '*novelty/knowledge*' and the lifestyle orientation items '*change/diversion*' (r=0.154, p=0.020), '*sports*' (r=0.141, p=0.031), '*health*' (r=0.254, p=0.000), '*environmental awareness*' (r=0.323, p=0.000), '*family*' (r=0.160, p=0.014), '*learning/studying*' (r=0.251, p=0.000), and '*culture*' (r=0.299, p=0.000).

The strongest relationships identified were positive correlations with a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of 0.3 or higher:

- '*Physical*' and '*environmental awareness*' (r=0.350, p=0.000)
- '*Physical*' and '*sports*' (r=0.303, p=0.000)
- '*Physical*' and '*health*' (r=0.300, p=0.000),
- '*Novelty/knowledge*' and '*environmental awareness*' (r=0.323, p=0.000)
- '*Novelty/ knowledge*' and '*culture*' (r=0.299, p=0.000)
- '*Socialization*' and '*Family*' (r=0.298, p=0.000)

According to the guidelines of Cohen (1992), a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) = 0.3 represents a medium size effect, while $r < 0.3$ can be regarded to represent a small to medium size effect.

Chapter 6 - Discussion and conclusion

This thesis concludes with a discussion of findings, where theoretical and managerial implications are presented. Additionally, the authors summarize the present study's research contributions, acknowledge existing limitations and suggest opportunities for future research.

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this thesis was to compare lifestyle orientations and travel motivations between different nationality groups of inbound package tourists in Norway. Specifically, this thesis delineated differences in lifestyle orientations and travel motivations between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists, who participated in the package tour *Norway in a Nutshell*. Additionally, this study examined potential relationships between the lifestyle orientation and travel motivation constructs.

Overall, the present study provides evidence not to reject *Hypothesis 1* and *Hypothesis 2* by identifying significant differences in lifestyle orientation items and travel motivations between Anglo-American and Japanese package tourists. Moreover, statistical evidence revealed 24 significant relationships between the lifestyle orientation items and travel motivation factors, providing evidence (even though limited) not to reject *Hypothesis 3*.

6.2 Lifestyle orientation

The lifestyles of Anglo-American and Japanese package tourists in Norway were examined based on the ten lifestyle orientations items proposed by Matzler, Pechlaner and Hattenberger (2004), and Matzler et al. (2005): '*leisure time*', '*change/diversion*', '*travel*', '*sports*', '*health*', '*environmental awareness*', '*family*', '*learning/studying*', '*culture*', and '*job*'.

6.2.1 Mean score ranking of lifestyle orientation items

The analysis of mean score rankings of the lifestyle orientation items for each nationality group revealed that Japanese ranked '*travel*' as the most important lifestyle orientation item, followed by '*family*', '*learning/studying*', '*leisure time*', '*health*', '*culture*', '*job*', '*change/diversion*', '*environmental awareness*', and '*sports*'. Conversely, Anglo-Americans regarded '*family*' as the most essential lifestyle orientation item, followed by '*travel*', '*culture*', '*learning/studying*', '*health*', '*leisure time*', '*change/diversion*', '*environmental awareness*', '*sport*', and '*job*'.

6.2.2 Differences in lifestyle orientation items

The results revealed that Japanese and Anglo-American travellers differed significantly with respect to four out of ten items: ‘*change/diversion*’, ‘*environmental awareness*’, ‘*family*’, and ‘*culture*’. One may note that all four lifestyle orientation items ranked significantly higher in mean scores within the Anglo-American travel group than within the Japanese travel group.

6.2.3 Differences in lifestyle orientation items based on age

The present study also compared differences in lifestyle orientations based on the demographic variable of age of the respondents, both between nations and within nations. Firstly, when comparing the lifestyle orientations of *low-age* respondents between the two nationality groups, significant differences were identified for ‘*environmental awareness*’, ‘*family*’, and ‘*culture*’. Conversely, *high-age* Anglo-American travellers and *high-age* Japanese travellers proved to be rather homogeneous. Only the item ‘*change/diversion*’ differed significantly between the *high-age* nationality groups.

Concerning the comparison of lifestyle orientations within each nation, Anglo-Americans exhibited significant differences between the age groups only with respect to the item ‘*job*’, which was ranked as more important by *low-age* travellers. On the other hand, Japanese tourists were more heterogeneous between age groups; *high-age* Japanese regarded ‘*family*’, ‘*environmental awareness*’, and ‘*health*’ as more important than *low-age* Japanese respondents.

Dace (1995) highlighted that the variable of age plays an important role in the buyer behaviour of Japanese. The significant generational differences in lifestyle orientations between Japanese respondents could be attributed to the *shinjinrui* or “the new race”. This term refers to children who were raised in an “affluent”, “wealthy”, “powerful”, “influential” and “arrogant” Japan in the 1970s and 1980s (Herbig & Borstorff, 1995: 49). Representatives of *shinjinrui* desire to be different and act according to their needs and wants. The majority of these individuals were characterized as independent, more short-term oriented, and lacking commitment to education (Herbig & Borstorff, 1995). These characteristics contradict the collectivistic and long-term oriented values which are typically attributed to the Japanese society (see Hofstede, 2001). Furthermore, as Watkins and Gnoth (2011) note, *shinjinrui* is particularly relevant in the context of tourism, because “as this

group grows and takes more responsibility, the entire [Japanese] society will change the way it thinks of leisure.”

6.2.4 Change/diversion

The difference between the two nations on the lifestyle item ‘*change/diversion*’ is widely documented in the academic literature and supports the findings of the current study. According to Hofstede (2001), Japanese culture exhibits considerably higher uncertainty avoidance compared to both the U.K. and the USA. Individuals of societies which are characterized by high uncertainty avoidance have a greater tendency to be threatened by ambiguity and unknown situations (Hofstede, 2001). This may explain why Japanese tourists considered ‘*change/diversion*’ as significantly less important compared to Anglo-American tourists.

Furthermore, Sun, Horn and Merritt (2004) investigated the values and lifestyles of Japanese and Chinese consumers vs. British and American consumers. Likewise, the scholars emphasised that the former were more oriented towards security and stability, thus, being less tolerable of risks and uncertainty (Sun, Horn & Merritt, 2004). Moreover, Dace (1995) identified that there is a tendency for older Japanese travellers to retain traditional tastes and preserve core values. In particular, some of those older tourist segments consider safety as their primary concern, while younger travellers are increasingly more outward-oriented (Dace, 1995). This observation may explain the findings of the present study identifying no significant differences between *low-age* generations of both nations with respect to ‘*change/diversion*’, while *high-age* Japanese tourists scored significantly lower in ‘*change/diversion*’ than *high-age* Anglo-Americans.

6.2.5 Environmental awareness

Japanese and Anglo-Americans differed significantly in ‘*environmental awareness*’. This result was driven by *low-age* Anglo-Americans, who regarded ‘*environmental awareness*’ as more important than *low-age* Japanese respondents. Additionally, *low-age* Japanese considered ‘*environmental awareness*’ significantly less important than *high-age* Japanese respondents.

The results of the present research contradict the findings of Sun, Horn and Merritt (2004). The scholars explored consumer attitudes, interests, opinions, and activities towards the category of *energy/environment* between Japanese and Chinese vs. British and American

consumers. However, no significant differences between the country clusters were reported (Sun, Horn & Merritt, 2004). The rather low mean scores of *low-age* Japanese with respect to ‘*environmental awareness*’ in the current study could be explained by their potential affiliation with *shinjinrui*. Due to the *shinjinrui* group’s short-term orientation, their involvement in environmental issues was argued to be considerably lower than that of youths and adults in other nations (Herbig & Borstorff, 1995).

6.2.6 Family

The findings of the present study revealed that Anglo-Americans regarded ‘*family*’ to play a more important role in their lives than Japanese. These results somewhat contradict the individualism/collectivism dichotomy proposed by Hofstede (2001). Japan’s cultural values were characterized as more collectivistic compared to British or American values. Collectivist societies emphasize belonging and loyalty to the group, whereas individualists tend to have an ‘I’ oriented (rather than ‘we’ oriented) way of thinking (Hofstede, 2001). Thus, collectivist societies (e.g. Japanese) are expected to be more family-oriented compared to individualist societies (e.g. Anglo-Americans). Moreover, Sun, Horn, and Merritt (2004) reported that Japanese and Chinese consumers were more family-focused compared to British and American consumers.

However, it is important to consider the concepts of idiocentrism vs. allocentrism, which refer to the manifestation of individualism and collectivism at the individual level, respectively (Triandis, Leung, Villareal & Clack, 1985; Dutta-Bergman & Wells, 2002; Osland, Bird, Delano & Jacob, 2000). It is based on the assumption that some members of individualist societies may exhibit collectivistic values, while collectivist societies may include individuals with prevailing individualistic values (Osland et al., 2000). Dutta-Bergman and Wells (2002) have empirically identified the existence of both collectivistic and individualistic value systems within the United States. The scholars emphasised that individuals’ lifestyles are often linked to their extent in idiocentric or allocentric orientation (Dutta-Bergman & Wells, 2002).

The findings of the current study identified significant differences with respect to ‘*family*’ between *low-age* tourists. Thus, firstly these differences could be driven by the relatively more individualistic *shinjinrui* values of younger Japanese. Secondly, the sample of the present study included a greater number of Anglo-Americans (n=40: 33.6%) than Japanese

(n=33: 27%) traveling to Norway with their family and children, which also could have influenced this particular lifestyle orientation item. Finally, Japanese society (despite being more collectivistic than Anglo-Americans) is considered to be more individualistic compared with other Asian countries. Japanese were noted to lack the extended family system, which is at the core of collectivist cultures such as Korea and China (Hofstede, 2012). Still, even though ‘*family*’ was ranked significantly higher by Anglo-Americans, both nations placed it very high in their lifestyle item hierarchies.

6.2.7 Culture

The difference in the lifestyle orientation item ‘*culture*’, where Japanese scored significantly lower than Anglo-Americans, can also be attributed to *low-age* respondents. Similarly to the previous findings, the results could be affected by the large representation of younger Japanese tourists who are characterized by *shinjinrui* values. Individuals associated with this group “place more emphasis on their own youthful lifestyles” and insist on “leading their lives as they please and refusing to conform to (in their opinion) outdated and previously unquestioned traditional norms” (Herbig & Borstorff, 1995: 55). Therefore, when referring to tradition, ‘*culture*’ may not play the most essential role in their lives.

6.3 Travel motivation

The factor analysis of 15 travel motivation items identified five underlying dimensions based on Fodness (1994) and Katz (1960): ‘*relaxation*’, ‘*physical*’, ‘*prestige/status*’, ‘*socialization*’, and ‘*novelty/knowledge*’. The dimensions align with and display thematic similarities to travel motivation factors identified in the tourism literature.

6.3.1 Factor analysis of travel motivation items

The first factor ‘*relaxation*’, similarly to the present research, was reported by previous studies such as Sangpikul (2008a, 2008b), Liu, Lee, Kan and Huan (2011), Mohammad and Som (2010), Jönsson and Devonish (2008), Jang and Wu (2006), Yoon and Uysal (2005), Kozak (2002), Hanqin and Lam (1999), Yuan and McDonald (1990), Cha, McCleary and Uysal (1995), Pearce and Lee (2005), and Kim and Lee (2000b).

The second factor ‘*physical*’ was also identified by previous studies of Jönsson and Devonish (2008) and Kozak (2002). Moreover, one may observe thematic similarities of the factor ‘*physical*’ to the dimensions *exciting* proposed by Yoon and Uysal (2005), and *sports* identified by Cha, McCleary and Uysal (1995).

The third factor '*prestige/status*' was similarly documented by Kim and Lee (2000a). Furthermore, the travel motivation factors *prestige* (Liu et al., 2011; Mohammad & Som, 2010; Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Yuan & McDonald, 1990) and *status* (Kim & Prideaux, 2005) were likewise identified by previous research.

The fourth factor '*socialization*' was also determined by Correia, Oom do Valle and Moco (2007), Jang and Wu (2006), Kim and Prideaux (2005) and Lee (2000). Furthermore, '*socialization*' revealed thematic similarities to the dimensions of *enhancing social circle* by Mohammad and Som (2010), *family* by Cha, McCleary and Uysal (1995), *relationship* by Pearce and Lee (2005), *enhancement of kinship/relationships* by Yuan and McDonald (1990), *family togetherness* by Kim and Lee (2000a), Yoon and Uysal (2005), and Lee (2000), and *enhancement of human relationships* by Liu et al. (2011), and Hanqin and Lam (1999).

The fifth factor '*novelty/knowledge*' was similarly proposed by Sangpikul (2008a, 2008b) as *novelty & knowledge-seeking*. '*Novelty/knowledge*' thematically combines the motivation factors of *novelty* (Kim & Lee, 2000a; Liu et al., 2011; Lee, 2000; Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Yuan & McDonald, 1990; Pearce & Lee, 2005) and *knowledge* (Kim & Lee, 2000a; Liu et al. 2011; Mohammad & Som, 2010; Correia, Oom do Valle & Moco, 2007; Jang & Wu, 2006; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Cha, McCleary & Uysal, 1995) reported by earlier studies. Moreover, '*novelty/knowledge*' shows thematic similarities to the dimension *culture* identified by Kim & Prideaux (2005), Jönsson & Devonish (2008), Kozak (2002), and Lee (2000).

6.3.2 Mean score ranking of travel motivation factors

The mean score ranking of travel motivation factors for the tourist group (including both Anglo-American and Japanese respondents) revealed that '*novelty/knowledge*' was considered to be the most important motivation factor to travel to Norway. This finding is consistent with previous studies. Mohammad and Som (2010) revealed that the mean score for the push travel motivation *gaining knowledge* was the highest of all push factors that motivate foreign tourists to travel to Jordan. Lee (2000) also indicates that *cultural exploration* and *novelty* display major motivational factors of Japanese and Americans to visit South Korea. Further, Jang and Wu (2006) discovered that *knowledge-seeking* was the most important travel motivation push factor of Taiwanese seniors. Hanqin and Lam (1999)

also provided evidence to suggest that *knowledge* was one of the most important push factors of Mainland Chinese visitors to Hong Kong. Finally, Kozak (2002) notes that individuals often prefer to travel to foreign destinations that differ in culture or infrastructure from their own country.

A separate analysis of mean score rankings of the travel motivation factors was undertaken for each nationality group. '*Novelty/knowledge*' was the most important travel motivation factor for Anglo-American travellers, followed by '*socialization*', '*physical*', '*relaxation*' and '*prestige/status*'. Conversely, the most important travel motivation factor for Japanese was '*relaxation*', followed by '*socialization*', '*novelty/knowledge*', '*physical*' and '*prestige/status*'.

6.3.3 Differences in travel motivation factors

The current study also compared the mean scores of each travel motivation factor between the two nationality groups and discovered significant differences with regard to all five factors of travel motivation. An additional travel group comparison was undertaken based on the demographic variable of age of the respondents. Significant differences were identified with regard to all travel motivations factors between *low-age* Anglo-Americans and *low-age* Japanese tourists. Conversely, *high-age* Anglo-American and *high-age* Japanese travellers differed significantly on four out of five travel motivation factors, with the exception of the factor '*socialization*'.

6.3.4 Novelty/knowledge

The analysis of the present study revealed that the most important travel motivation factor for Anglo-American package tourists visiting Norway was to experience '*novelty*' and to gain '*knowledge*' of a foreign culture. Specifically, experiencing a new culture and way-of-life in Norway, as well as observing how people in Norway live their lives, emerged as highly important travel motivation items for Anglo-American tourists. Sangpikul (2008b) provided similar findings by identifying *novelty & knowledge-seeking* as the most important push factor of U.S. senior travellers to Thailand.

Japanese also ranked '*novelty/knowledge*' as an overall important travel motivation factor to choose Norway as a tourist destination. These findings align with Cha, McCleary and Uysal's (1995) observations, who suggest that Japanese travellers generally exacerbate eagerness to acquire new knowledge through overseas travel. Furthermore, Kim and Lee (2000b)

identified that important individual motives of Japanese visitors towards Australian trips included *seeing a culture different to my own* and *unique/different cultural groups*.

Though, '*novelty/knowledge*' played a less important role for Japanese package tourists in comparison to Anglo-American tourists. This result is consistent with Kim and Prideaux's (2005) findings, which suggested that individuals from America, China (Mainland), China (Hong Kong SAR) and Australia were more likely to be motivated by *culture and history* to travel to Korea, than other national tourist groups. Further, of all five national tourist groups, Japanese were least likely to be motivated by *culture and history* to travel to Korea (Kim & Prideaux, 2005).

6.3.5 Socialization

'*Socialization*' ranked within each tourist nationality group as the second most important travel motivation factor. Though, Anglo-Americans expressed more motivation toward '*socialization*' than Japanese. This result is particularly driven by *low-age* Anglo-Americans, who ranked the motivation item '*I enjoy traveling to Norway with good friends*' significantly higher compared to *low-age* Japanese travellers.

Previous research somewhat supports the findings of the current study. Firstly, Kim and Prideaux (2005) suggested that American tourists displayed significantly higher motivation on *socialization* to travel to Korea, as compared to other nationality groups including Japan. Secondly, Pizam and Sussmann's (1995) findings revealed that in comparison to other nationalities including Americans, Japanese were assessed by tour guides to score the lowest in mean ratings on four out of six social interaction variables. Hence, Japanese tended to keep to themselves, avoided socializing, congregated with their own nationality and were interested in artefacts (also see Manrai & Manrai, 2011).

Though, one should note that the social interaction variables examined by Pizam and Sussmann (1995) displayed behavioural characteristics of tourists on group tours at the 'during-travel stage' (Manrai & Manrai, 2011) and thus deviate from the travel motivation items presented in the current study. Additionally, the factors *socialization* (Kim & Prideaux, 2005) and *social interaction* (Pizam & Sussmann, 1995) do not distinguish between *known-group socialization* and *external group socialization* (see Crompton & McKay, 1997; Lee,

2000), which results in a relatively ambiguous comparison of socialization factors between studies.

6.3.6 Relaxation

The travel motivation factor '*relaxation*' displayed the most important motivation of Japanese tourists traveling to Norway. These results support the findings provided by Watkins and Gnoth (2011). The scholars identified that primary motivations of Japanese package tourists traveling to New Zealand encompassed the "desire to escape the stresses of daily life, to relax, refresh, and reconnect to something through nature and nature-based activities" (Watkins & Gnoth, 2011: 661). Interviews with Japanese package tourists traveling to New Zealand highlighted the importance of nature, as well as the values of *kokoro ga yasuragu* ("to relax oneself, to be peaceful") and *kokoro ga arawareru* ("to clean/clear oneself") associated with this travel group (Watkins & Gnoth, 2011: 662-663).

In contrast, Anglo-Americans ranked basic '*relaxation*' objectives lower in importance than Japanese. These results may indicate that Anglo-Americans seek the state of relaxation in Norway through alternative means such as active and physical involvement.

6.3.7 Physical

Anglo-Americans put significantly greater emphasis on the travel motivation factor '*physical*' compared to Japanese package tour travellers. Anglo-Americans are more likely to enjoy a lot of activities (such cycling, hiking or fishing) during their stay in Norway than Japanese.

The results are consistent with Pizam and Sussmann (1995) findings, which portrayed Japanese tourists to be less adventuresome compared to other nationalities including Americans. At the same time, Japanese tourists scored higher on the preference of passive activities. Though, the results provided by Pizam and Sussmann (1995) somewhat contradict Cha, McCleary and Uysal's (1995) findings, who identified that Japanese travellers put high emphasis on and are eager to enjoy adventure when traveling abroad for pleasure.

6.3.8 Prestige/Status

The motivation factor '*prestige/status*' ranked the lowest in mean score among all factors for both Anglo-American and Japanese tourists. In addition, both tourist nationality groups differed significantly on the travel motivation toward '*prestige/status*', similar to the findings

of Kim and Lee (2000a). Japanese placed more importance on prestige/status than Anglo-American package tour travellers.

6.4 Relationships between lifestyle orientation items and travel motivation

The present study performed a Pearson's correlation analysis to reveal the association between the lifestyle orientation items and travel motivation factors. The analysis identified twenty-four (out of fifty) significant and positive relationships ($p < 0.05$) between lifestyle orientations and travel motivations. Out of these relationships, the following variables exhibited the strongest associations of medium size effect:

- '*Physical*' and '*environmental awareness*' ($r=0.350$, $p=0.000$)
- '*Physical*' and '*sports*' ($r=0.303$, $p=0.000$)
- '*Physical*' and '*health*' ($r=0.300$, $p=0.000$)

- '*Novelty/knowledge*' and '*environmental awareness*' ($r=0.323$, $p=0.000$)
- '*Novelty/knowledge*' and '*culture*' ($r=0.299$, $p=0.000$)

- '*Socialization*' and '*family*' ($r=0.298$, $p=0.000$)

Hence, individuals with an active lifestyle, who are health-conscious or consider environmental awareness to play an important role in their lives, are also likely to be motivated to travel to Norway by the opportunity to participate in various local activities offered such as cycling, hiking or fishing.

Further, individuals who display environmental awareness or pursue a lifestyle in which culture plays a fundamental role, are rather open-minded travellers and thus seek novelty and knowledge. These individuals strive to learn more about the local culture and way-of-life of Norwegians.

Norway as a tourist destination attracts considerable groups of individuals. Individuals travelling to Norway with families or good friends may also be motivated to travel to Norway in order to socialize within their travel group or with external parties.

6.5 Managerial implications

The present study provides useful practical implications for destination marketing and management. The insights enable marketing managers to promote Norway more effectively as a tourist destination abroad.

1. Reap the benefits of lifestyles and travel motivation (in combination with demographic variables) as bases of market segmentation.

The results highlight the diversity of lifestyle orientations and travel motivations of inbound package tourists in Norway. Specifically, the findings demonstrate the existence of significant differences in lifestyles and travel motivations between tourists of different nationality groups.

Thus, marketers should account for the heterogeneity between individuals by segmenting travellers using lifestyle orientations and travel motivations (in combination with demographic variables) as additional bases of segmentation. Market segmentation enables service providers to reach buyers at tourist destinations more efficiently and cost-effectively by offering targeted products and services that match buyers' specific needs and wants (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012; Park & Yoon, 2009).

2. Promotional materials: In addition to the natural scenery, emphasize the opportunity to experience the local Norwegian culture and way-of-life.

'*Novelty/knowledge*' displays the most important travel motivation factor of inbound package tourists in Norway. Travellers seek novelty experiences and aim to gain knowledge of the local Norwegian culture and way-of-life. The motivation factor '*novelty/knowledge*' is particularly relevant for senior Anglo-American package tour travellers.

Thus, in addition to the current emphasis on the natural scenery of Fjord Norway, promotional materials should also highlight the distinctiveness and uniqueness of the Norwegian culture and heritage. Additionally, promotional materials should emphasize the provision of local tour guides, ability to visit culture and heritage museums, local culinary, and other Norwegian products and services.

3. Portray Norway as a tourist destination suitable for couples and families.

The majority of package tourists travel to Norway with their spouse/partner or family with children. Overall, *'family'* and *'travel'* were ranked as the two most important lifestyle orientation items for Anglo-American and Japanese package tour travellers. At the same time, these individuals seek to socialize within their own group or with external parties.

Hence, marketers should portray Norway as a tourist destination particularly suitable for couples and families. In addition, the promotion of the local gastronomy and bars may encourage the interaction of tourists both within their known groups and external parties such as the local population.

4. Account for age differences between travellers: launch specifically designed marketing campaigns to target younger travellers.

It is essential to understand differences in travel motivation with respect to socio-demographic characteristics in order to develop effective marketing programs to attract travellers (Jang & Wu, 2006). The present study accounts for age differences and reveals that the lifestyles of travellers below 40 were rather heterogeneous for the lifestyle orientations *'environmental awareness'*, *'family'*, and *'culture'*, while older travellers were rather homogeneous in their lifestyle orientations.

In particular, young Japanese travellers differ significantly in their lifestyle orientations compared to both young Anglo-Americans and higher-aged Japanese. This could be partly attributed to the *shinjinrui* or "new race" observed among young Japanese individuals who are characterized as rather outward-oriented, independent and short-term oriented.

The Norwegian tourism industry should account for generational differences by launching specifically designed marketing campaigns to target young travellers. In addition, global tourism trends should be taken into consideration, such as the shift in consumption patterns which become more individualized and personalized (Torres, 2002; Urry, 1990; Yamamoto & Gill, 1999; Arva & Deli-Gray, 2011; Gonzalez & Bello, 2002).

5. Attract Japanese tourists by offering scenic and passive means of relaxation.

'Relaxation' is the most important travel motivation factor for Japanese package tourists. Considering that their highest ranked travel motivation item is *'to see the beautiful scenery'*,

Norway has great potential to attract Japanese tourists by offering relaxing and enjoyable activities at its most scenic tourist sites. The preference of Japanese to stay physically active on holidays is relatively low. Thus, the main focus should be set on the provision of passive and accessible tourist activities for this travel group. Promotional materials targeted at Japanese travellers should therefore emphasize activities such as boat tours to Fjord destinations, the possibility to wind down in a peaceful atmosphere, or the opportunity to undertake sightseeing through passive means such as cable cars or by bus.

6. Attract Anglo-American tourists by offering novelty experiences, enabling cultural contact and providing active means of relaxation.

The main motivation of Anglo-American package tourists travelling to Norway is to experience novelty and acquire knowledge of the local culture and its people. It is therefore essential to tailor tourism product offerings to accommodate for this travel motivation.

Additionally, the Norwegian tourism industry should also focus on offering active and exciting means of relaxation for this travel group. Hence, promotional materials should highlight the opportunity to undertake activities in the natural environment, such as cycling, hiking, fishing etc., while ensuring that Anglo-Americans are able to remain active both mentally and physically. Since their desire '*to see the beautiful scenery*' ranked the highest in importance out of all travel motivation items, the activities offered should closely relate to nature and spectacular outdoor sites.

6.6 Contributions of the study

The present study examined the constructs of lifestyle and travel motivation in order to improve the knowledge and understanding of why tourists travel to Norway. In particular, this study provided useful insights of cross-national differences in lifestyles and travel motivations of package tourists in Norway, as well as the relationships between the variables.

Firstly, this thesis provided theoretical implications in the field of lifestyle profiling and travel motivation. The present study demonstrated that less tangible characteristics of travellers such as lifestyle orientations and travel motivations were distinct and differed across national tourist groups. Additionally, the present study revealed generational differences in lifestyles and travel motivations. Theoretical frameworks of lifestyle and travel motivation should account for generational differences both within and across nations. The

values of generations may be influenced by idiocentric and allocentric orientations of individuals, which may in turn shape lifestyles and travel motivations of tourists. This thesis contributed to fill the gap in knowledge on understanding how generational differences shape lifestyles and travel motivations of tourists (Hua & Yoo, 2011).

Secondly, this thesis provided managerial implications for destination marketing and management. It is indispensable to attract an increasing number of international tourists to Norway in order to improve the competitiveness of the Norwegian tourism industry. The use of lifestyles orientations and travel motivations as additional bases for segmentation (in combination with demographic variables) enables marketers to account for less tangible characteristics of individuals, which are distinct and differ between nationalities. Marketing campaigns and promotional materials should also be designed to account for generational heterogeneity between individuals. It is hoped that the results of this thesis will enable marketers to design more effective and targeted marketing campaigns to promote Norway successfully as a tourist destination abroad.

6.7 Limitations and future research

The present study offers valuable insights into lifestyle orientations and travel motivations of Anglo-American and Japanese package tourists in Norway. Nevertheless, several limitations should be acknowledged, which provide a direction for future research.

First, one of the major limitations of this study concerns the relatively small sample size of Japanese and Anglo-American respondents, which may undermine the generalizability of the results. The language barrier proved to be a challenge for the Japanese respondents. In particular, older travellers from Japan faced major difficulties in completing the questionnaire. As a result, responses of individuals who faced considerable language difficulties were deleted. Due to the expanding Japanese senior outbound tourist market (You & O'Leary, 2000), future studies should specifically explore the lifestyles and travel motivations of Japanese senior package tourists.

Second, this study focused on *package* tourists of *three nationalities*: Japanese, British, and Americans. The findings therefore lack generalizability in terms of lifestyles and travel motivations of independent travellers, as well as tourists of other nationalities. Hence, future research should compare independent tourists with package tourists in Norway in order to

provide additional insights. Furthermore, cross-cultural insights with regard to other highly represented tourist nationalities in Norway should be acquired (e.g. Sweden, Germany and Denmark).

Third, the present research was performed in the particular setting of tourists participating in the package tour *Norway in a Nutshell*. Travel motivations of tourists vary depending on the travel destination (Kozak, 2002). Thus, future research should embrace the examination of lifestyles and travel motivations of Japanese and Anglo-American package tourists in alternative travel settings and countries. Furthermore, the comparison of findings with the present study may provide further theoretical and managerial implications.

Fourth, data collection of tourists was conducted at the during-travel stage (Manrai & Manrai, 2011). As a result, genuine travel motivations of tourists may have been affected by already acquired experiences and attitudes in the destination country. Hence, future research should consider the examination of travel motivations prior to the actual trip.

Fifth, this thesis primarily focused on lifestyles, *push* travel motivations, and socio-demographic variables (age in particular). Further studies should assess (1) other psychographic variables such as attitudes, expectations, perceptions, experiences etc., (2) other socio-demographic variables such as gender, education, income, social class, marital status etc., and (3) other travel-related characteristics such as travel companion, purpose of visit, information search behaviour etc., in relation to both lifestyles and travel motivations of tourists. Moreover, future research should also investigate the interactions of *push* factors with *pull* factor travel motivations.

Finally, the quantitative method employed in the present study is unable to provide an in-depth understanding of lifestyles and travel motivations of individuals. Further research should consider utilizing a multi-method approach, including individual interviews or focus groups, in order to gain more valuable insights into travel behaviour.

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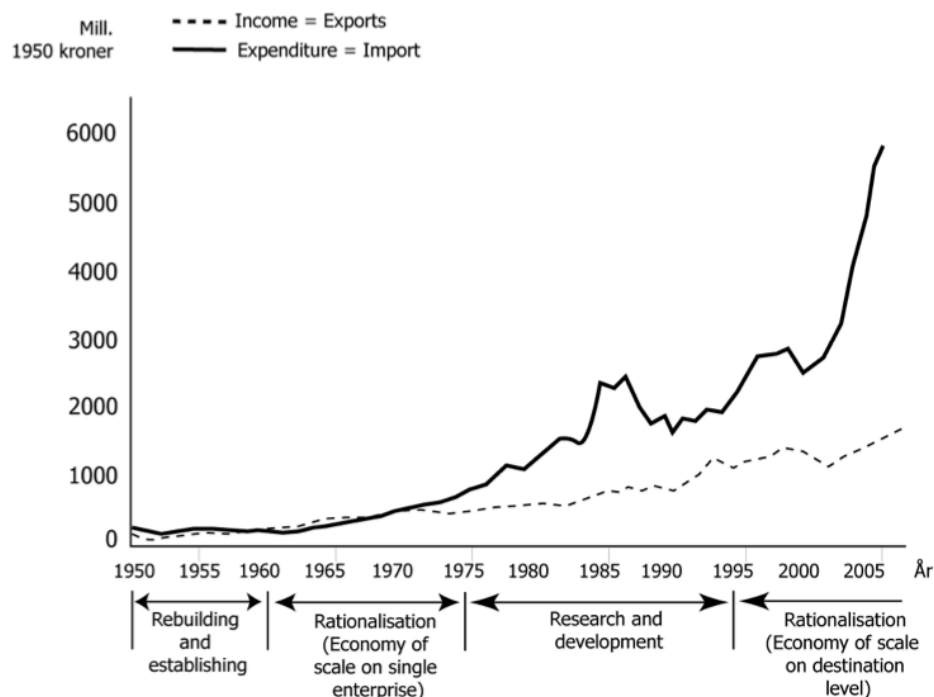
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Appendix I: Figures

Figure 3: The Norwegian tourism import and export balance 1950-2007 converted to 1950 kroner*

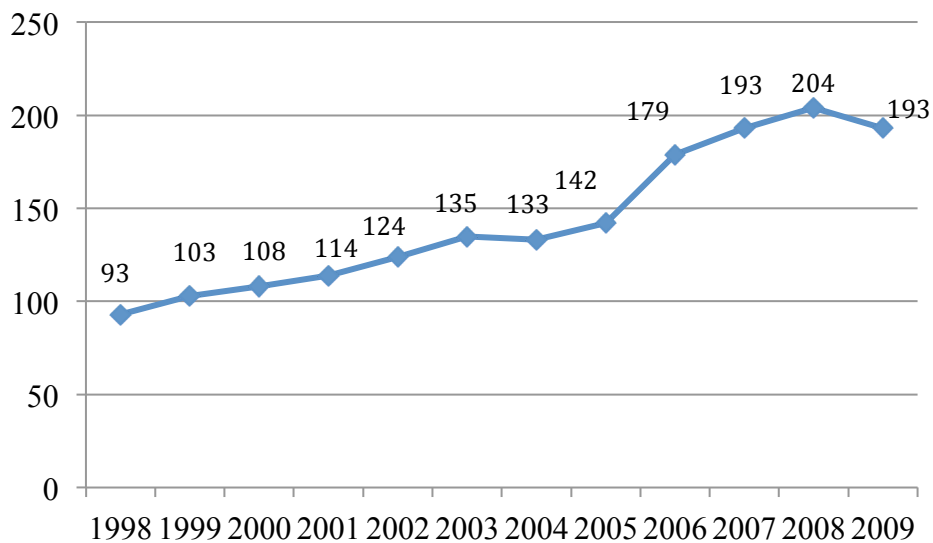


Source: Svalastog (2008)

*Norwegian tourism income reflects foreign tourists' expenditure while travelling in Norway, (both with work and on holiday), and Norwegian tourism expenditure reflects Norwegians' expenditure while travelling abroad.

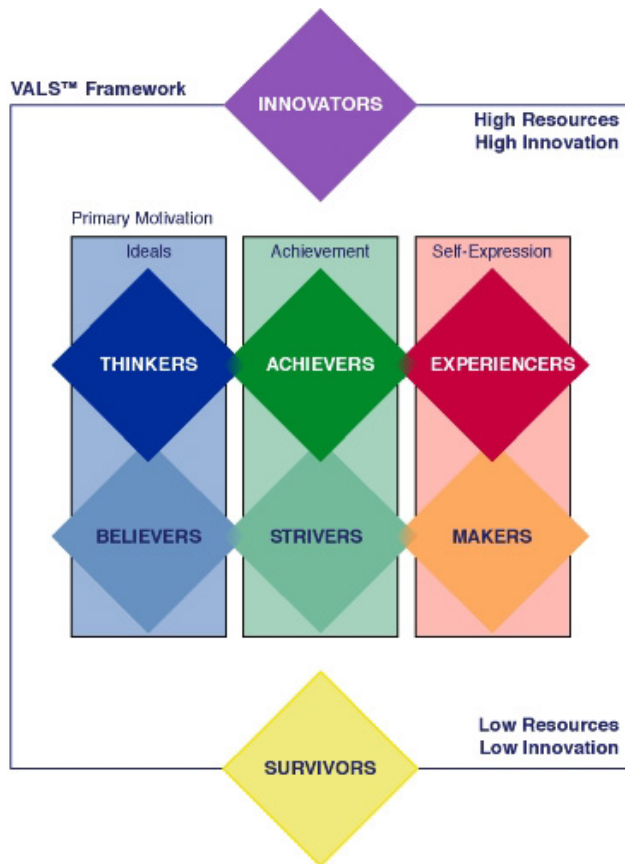
Figure 4: Consumption of package tours and car rental services by non-residents in Norway, 1998-2009

Consumption in NOK million



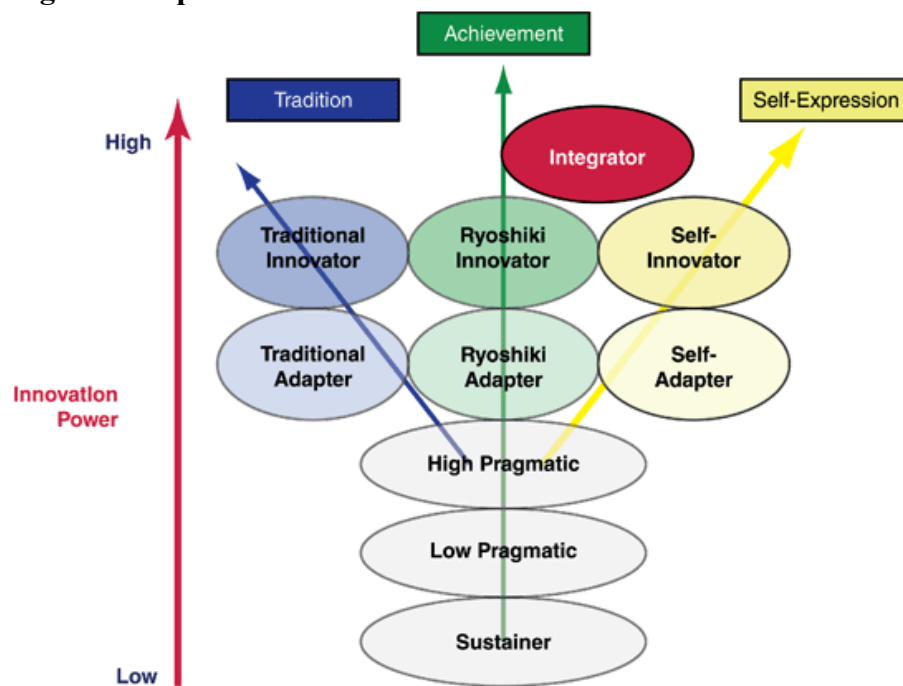
Source: Statistics Norway (2010)

Figure 5: U.S. VALS framework



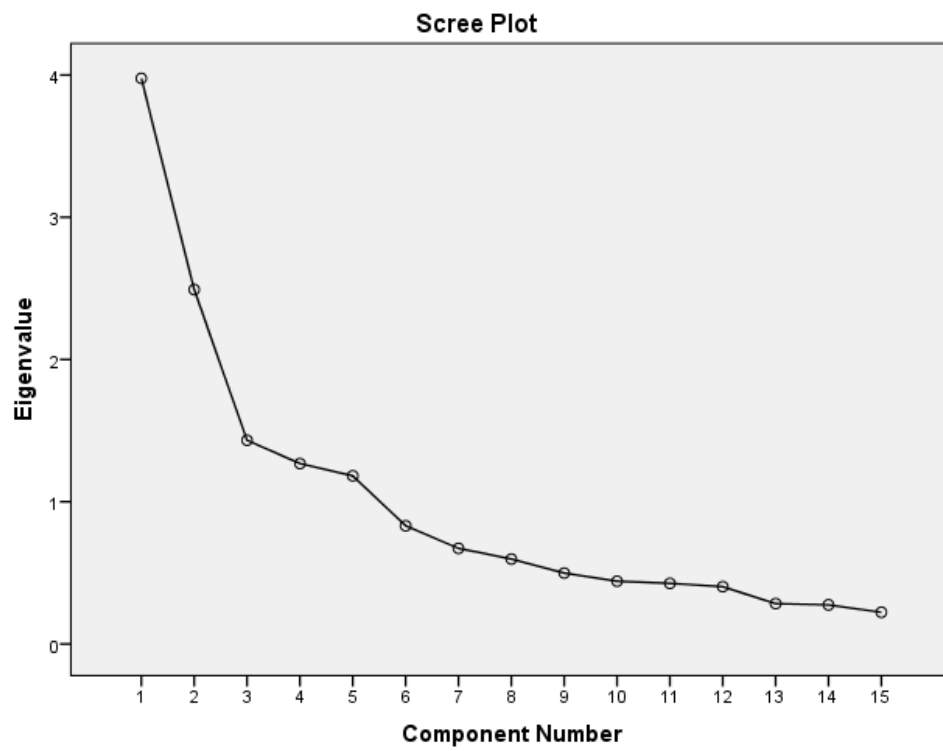
Source: Strategic Business Insights (2012a)

Figure 6: Japan VALS framework



Source: Strategic Business Insights (2012b)

Figure 7: Scree plot of factor analysis (15 motivation items)



Appendix II: Tables

Table 20: U.S.-VALS Consumer Segments

VALS Types	Description
Innovators	Successful, sophisticated, active, take-charge people with high self-esteem and abundant resources; image is important to them, not as evidence of status or power, but as an expression of their taste, independence, and character; their possessions and recreation reflect a cultivated taste for the finer things in life; have a wide range of interests, are concerned with social issues; are the most receptive to new products, ideas, and technology.
Thinkers	Mature, satisfied, comfortable, reflective people who value order, knowledge, and responsibility; mostly well educated, and in or recently retired from professional occupations; well informed about world and national events; content with their careers, families, and station in life, tend to centre their leisure activities on home; have a moderate respect for the status quo but are open-minded about new ideas and social change; tend to base their decisions on strongly held principles and consequently appear calm and self-assured; plan their purchases carefully.
Believers	Conservative, conventional people with concrete beliefs based on traditional established codes: family, church, community, and the nation; follow established routines, organized in large part around their homes, families, and the social or religious organization to which they belong; as consumers, they are conservative, predictable, and highly loyal; averse to change and new technology.
Achievers	Successful career- and work- oriented people who like to, and generally do, feel in control of their lives; value consensus, predictability, and stability over risk, intimacy, and self-discovery; deeply committed to work and family; tend to be politically conservative, and respect authority and status quo; image is important to them; favour established, prestige products and services that demonstrate success to their peers.
Strivers	Style conscious and trendy; have limited education and tend to have narrow interests; money defines their success; favour stylish products that emulate the purchases of people with greater material wealth.
Experiencers	Young, vital, enthusiastic, impulsive, and rebellious; seek variety and excitement; still in the process of formulating life values and patterns of behaviour; quickly become enthusiastic about new possibilities but are equally quick to cool; politically uncommitted, uninformed, and highly ambivalent about what they believe; their energy finds an outlet in exercise, sports, outdoor recreation, and social activities.
Makers	Practical people who have constructive skills and value-sufficiency; live within a traditional context of family, practical work, and physical recreation and have little interest in what lies outside that context; express themselves and experience the world by working on it - building a house, raising children etc.; are politically conservative, suspicious of new ideas, respectful of government authority and organized labour; unimpressed by material possessions other than those with a practical or functional purpose.
Survivors	Have constricted lives; live simply on limited incomes but are relatively satisfied; frequently elderly and concerned about their health; not active in the marketplace; show no evidence of strong primary motivation; buy familiar and trusted products; their chief concerns are for security, safety and being with family; cautious consumers who look for low prices.

Source: Adapted from Hawkins, Mothersbaugh & Best (2007)

Table 21: Japan-VALS Consumer Segments

VALS Types	Description
Integrators	Highest on the measure of Innovation; active, inquisitive, trend leading, informed, and affluent; travel frequently, consume wide range of media: print and broadcast, niche, and foreign.
Self-innovators Self-adapters	Score high on Self-expression; desire personal experience, fashionable display, social activities, daring ideas, and exciting, graphic entertainment.
Ryoshiki innovators Ryoshiki adapters	Score highest on Occupation; personal focus on education, career achievement, and professional knowledge; guiding concerns of home, family, and social status
Tradition innovators Tradition adapters	Score highest on the measure of Traditional Ways; adhere to traditional religions and customs, prefer long-familiar home furnishings and dress, hold conservative social opinions.
High pragmatics Low pragmatics	Do not score high on any life-orientation dimension; not very active and not well informed; have few interests, seem flexible or even uncommitted in their lifestyle choices.
Sustainers	Score lowest on Innovation and Self-Expression dimensions; lacking money, youth and high education, dislike innovation and are typically oriented to sustaining the past.

Source: Adapted from Strategic Business Insights (2012b)

Table 22: 17 Items of travel motives based on Fodness (1994)

Item	Factor according to Fodness (1994)
1. I like to see how people in Norway live their lives	Knowledge function
2. It is important to me to experience a new culture and way-of life in Norway	Knowledge function
3. I enjoy to talk about the places I've visited and the things I've seen	Value expressive: Ego-enhancement
4. When I return home I want to tell everyone about my holiday	Value expressive: Ego-enhancement
5. I enjoy traveling to Norway with good friends	Value expressive: Ego-enhancement
6. The holiday in Norway is a time when the family can be together	Value expressive: Ego-enhancement
7. The most important thing to me on holiday in Norway is to wind down	Utilitarian function: Punishment minimization
8. I consider relaxing on holiday in Norway	Utilitarian function: Punishment minimization
9. A holiday in Norway is an opportunity to "recharge my batteries"	Utilitarian function: Punishment minimization
10. I go to Norway to stay active	Utilitarian function: Reward maximization
11. I enjoy a lot of activities (i.e. cycling, hiking, fishing etc.)	Utilitarian function: Reward maximization
12. For me a holiday in Norway is to see the beautiful scenery	Utilitarian function: Reward maximization
13. A holiday in Norway keeps me active both physically and mentally	Utilitarian function: Reward maximization
14. The fact that I master different situations during my holiday in Norway confirms the way I view myself	Value expressive: Self-esteem
15. It is important traveling to a fashionable place during the holiday	Value expressive: Self-esteem
16. It is important to show my co-workers that I can afford a trip to Norway	Value expressive: Self-esteem
17. A trip to Norway helps me to get a clearer picture of who I am	Value expressive: Self-esteem

Table 23: Comparison of travel motivation factors between low-age Anglo-Americans and low-age Japanese tourists

Travel motivation factors	Low-age Anglo-Americans		Low-age Japanese		t-value	Sig. Level
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
Novelty/Knowledge	4.77	1.07	4.24	1.17	-2.538	.012*
Socialization	4.96	0.94	4.28	1.28	-3.120	.002**
Relaxation	3.65	1.06	4.48	0.94	4.589	.000***
Physical	4.31	1.06	3.71	0.92	-3.375	.001***
Prestige/Status	2.36	1.08	3.22	0.94	4.630	.000***

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 24: Comparison of travel motivation factors between high-age Anglo-Americans and high-age Japanese tourists

Travel motivation factors	High-age Anglo-Americans		High-age Japanese		t-value	Sig. Level
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
Novelty/Knowledge	4.92	1.03	4.25	1.19	-3.199	.002**
Socialization	4.63	1.08	4.53	1.06	-.477	.634
Relaxation	3.59	1.13	4.65	0.81	5.159	.000***
Physical	3.91	1.24	3.27	1.08	-2.777	.006**
Prestige/Status	2.35	0.99	3.76	0.91	7.388	.000***

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Appendix III: SPSS Output Tables

Table 25: Factor Analysis - Communalities

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Liker å se hvordan folk i Norge lever sine liv - helt uenig/helt enig	1.000	.766
Viktig å oppleve en ny kultur og "way of life"	1.000	.753
En norgesferie er en mulighet til å fylle batteriene	1.000	.826
Jeg vurderer avslapping som viktig på ferie i Norge	1.000	.816
Det viktigste er å "wind down"	1.000	.720
Jeg reiser til Norge for å være aktiv	1.000	.684
Jeg liker en rekke aktiviteter	1.000	.713
Ferie i Norge holder meg aktiv	1.000	.712
Jeg liker å reise i Norge med gode venner	1.000	.581
Norgesferie = familien kan holde sammen	1.000	.641
Jeg liker å snakke om stedene jeg har vært	1.000	.550
Viktig å vise kolleger at jeg har råd til ferie i Norge	1.000	.647
Viktig å reise til fashionable steder på ferien	1.000	.744
Det at jeg mestrer ulike situasjoner er viktig	1.000	.536
En ferie i Norge gir meg et bedre bilde av meg selv	1.000	.660

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 26: Factor Analysis - Total Variance Explained

Total Variance Explained							
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	3.977	26.512	26.512	3.977	26.512	26.512	2.981
2	2.491	16.609	43.121	2.491	16.609	43.121	2.628
3	1.432	9.549	52.671	1.432	9.549	52.671	2.622
4	1.269	8.457	61.127	1.269	8.457	61.127	2.008
5	1.182	7.879	69.006	1.182	7.879	69.006	1.936
6	.831	5.540	74.546				
7	.672	4.480	79.027				
8	.597	3.979	83.006				
9	.498	3.323	86.329				
10	.441	2.939	89.268				
11	.426	2.842	92.110				
12	.403	2.684	94.794				
13	.283	1.890	96.684				
14	.275	1.831	98.514				
15	.223	1.486	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Table 27: Factor Analysis - Pattern Matrix

Pattern Matrix^a		Component				
	1	2	3	4	5	
En norgesferie er en mulighet til å fylle batteriene	.928					
Jeg vurderer avslapping som viktig på ferie i Norge	.894					
Det viktigste er å "wind down"	.812					
Jeg liker en rekke aktiviteter		.813				
Ferie i Norge holder meg aktiv		.807				
Jeg reiser til Norge for å være aktiv		.785				
Viktig å reise til fashionable steder på ferien			.831			
Viktig å vise kolleger at jeg har råd til ferie i Norge			.825			
En ferie i Norge gir meg et bedre bilde av meg selv			.604			
Det at jeg mestrer ulike situasjoner er viktig			.541			
Norgesferie = familien kan holde sammen				.807		
Jeg liker å snakke om stedene jeg har vært				.675		
Jeg liker å reise i Norge med gode venner				.649		
Liker å se hvordan folk i Norge lever sine liv - helt uenig/helt enig					.873	
Viktig å oppleve en ny kultur og "way of life"					.847	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Table 28: Reliability test - Factor 1

		N	%
Cases	Valid	246	93.2
	Excluded ^a	18	6.8
	Total	264	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.868	3

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
En norgesferie er en mulighet til å fylle batteriene	7.82	4.792	.770	.798
Jeg vurderer avslapping som viktig på ferie i Norge	7.89	5.465	.785	.785
Det viktigste er å "wind down"	8.64	5.635	.700	.857

Table 29: Reliability test - Factor 2

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	256	97.0
	Excluded ^a	8	3.0
	Total	264	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.775	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Jeg liker en rekke aktiviteter	7.93	4.544	.614	.728
Ferie i Norge holder meg aktiv	7.34	5.928	.664	.649
Jeg reiser til Norge for å være aktiv	7.60	6.413	.599	.719

Table 30: Reliability test - Factor 3

Case Processing Summary			
		N	%
Cases	Valid	241	91.3
	Excluded ^a	23	8.7
	Total	264	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.764	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Viktig å reise til fashionable steder på ferien	9.04	11.636	.606	.685
Viktig å vise kolleger at jeg har råd til ferie i Norge	9.24	11.809	.543	.721
En ferie i Norge gir meg et bedre bilde av meg selv	8.23	12.062	.589	.696
Det at jeg mestrer ulike situasjoner er viktig	7.90	12.885	.520	.731

Table 31: Reliability test - Factor 4

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	246	93.2
	Excluded ^a	18	6.8
	Total	264	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.590	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Norgesferie = familien kan holde sammen	9.25	5.332	.430	.448
Jeg liker å snakke om stedene jeg har vært	8.69	8.085	.397	.532
Jeg liker å reise i Norge med gode venner	9.35	5.484	.417	.468

Table 32: Reliability test - Factor 5

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	257	97.3
	Excluded ^a	7	2.7
	Total	264	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.708	2

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Liker å se hvordan folk i Norge lever sine liv - helt uenig/helt enig	4.66	1.529	.551	.
Viktig å oppleve en ny kultur og "way of life"	4.45	1.873	.551	.