



# **THE ROLE AND USE OF TRAVEL GUIDEBOOKS BY JAPANESE OVERSEAS TOURISTS**

By



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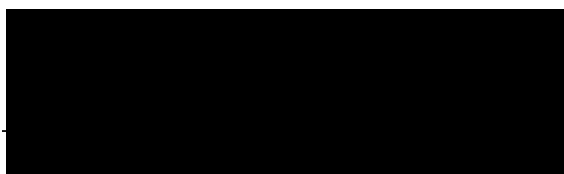
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## DECLARATION

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree in any university or other institution. To the best of my knowledge, this thesis contains no materials previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text.

Signed

A solid black rectangular box used to redact the signature of the author.

Date

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## ABSTRACT

Travel guidebooks are one of many information sources available to potential and actual tourists and perhaps one of the most common. Although information search has been an extensively researched area in tourism studies, there are few studies which have specifically investigated the topic of travel guidebooks. The overall aim of the present exploratory study is to develop a better understanding of the use of travel guidebooks as a source of information by tourists.

The specific aims of this research are:

- to ascertain the degree of use and the usefulness of travel guidebooks as an information source for making travel decisions by tourists, relative to other sources of information;
- to investigate the use of travel guidebooks by tourists as an information source for travel decision-making and for other purposes;
- to compare and contrast users and non-users of travel guidebooks; and
- to locate factors likely to influence the use/non-use of travel guidebooks for a trip.

A review of the related literature has indicated that the use of travel guidebooks may be explored from two perspectives: the traditional perspective which typically considers information sources as a problem-solving tool; and a more recent perspective which considers information sources more broadly. Two models are proposed, each representing one of these perspectives. Based on a model which concerns the relationship between use of information for decision-making purposes (traditional perspective) and type of tourist based on the degree of freedom exercised during travel decision-making, eight hypotheses were formulated. Based on another model which adopted Vogt and Fesenmaier's model of information needs, four research questions were formulated.

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The qualitative research was reflective of the exploratory nature of the study. It was

especially useful in examining whether the framework adopted from Vogt and Fesenmaier's model was applicable to the context of travel guidebook use, to indicate possible answers to research questions, and to provide a basis for the quantitative component of the present study. In-depth interviews with 28 Japanese tourists indicated that travel guidebooks are used for other purposes as well as for pre-trip planning. Perceptions towards travel guidebooks held by those who did not use travel guidebooks for the trip in question were also included in in-depth interviews. The findings revealed two interesting perspectives: firstly, some non-users of travel guidebooks attributed this to their participation in a package/group tour; and secondly, other non-users refused to make use of travel guidebooks intentionally, as they believe that it would lead to a 'non-innovative' trip experience.

A quantitative survey was subsequently conducted using a self-administered questionnaire. By way of purposive sampling, usable responses of 1,211 Japanese overseas tourists were collected. The questionnaire consisted of two main parts. One section concerned the use of a variety of information sources including travel guidebooks for multiple travel components, such as destination and accommodation, and the perceived usefulness of the sources by the users. This was designed to assess the relative position of travel guidebooks amongst the available range of information sources, and consequently to provide data to test the relevant hypotheses. The other section concerned the reason why people use travel guidebooks, in other words travel guidebook needs. These were measured using a 20-item scale developed from Vogt and Fesenmaier's study and qualitative results.

The survey results revealed that, overall, travel guidebooks were the most used information source amongst the sample population of Japanese overseas tourists prior to and during travel. Roughly half of the respondents made use of this information source at both stages. They perceived travel guidebooks as the most useful information source prior to travel, and as one of the most useful information sources during travel. In addition, this study found that the type of

tourist, determined by the degree of freedom they exercised in travel decision-making, had a considerable influence on the travel information source they chose, and their use of travel guidebooks. Among the survey respondents, the more that tourists exercised freedom in travel decision-making, the more likely that travel guidebooks would be used both prior to and during travel. In terms of perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks across different types of tourists, the survey results indicated that independent travellers and flexible package tour participants were likely to evaluate travel guidebooks as more useful than other sources prior to travel, and flexible package tour participants were likely to view travel guidebooks as more useful than other sources during travel. The type of tourist variable, appeared to be a promising factor in determining travel guidebook usage generally. At the same time, however, it was found that a large majority of participants in comprehensive package tours did use travel guidebooks.

When travel guidebooks are used for broader purposes, the respondents indicated that, like other sources of information, travel guidebooks are largely used for functional reasons or to plan trips. A variety of other needs for travel guidebooks do however exist. Respondents rated 'functional needs' as highest on average. 'Learning needs', 'enjoyment needs', and 'travel guidebook enthusiast needs' were rated as second, third, and fourth in importance, respectively. 'Forward-looking needs' were, on average, scored slightly below the neutral position and rated as the least important.

Several conclusions can be drawn from the findings of this study. Clearly, the use of travel guidebooks has temporal dimensions: they can be used prior to, during and after travel. Rather than considering travel information search and use only within the process of pre-trip travel decision-making, the present study demonstrated that it is a continuing activity occurring throughout the course of the trip. For such constant consumption of travel information for ongoing travel decision-making during travel, travel guidebooks taken from home appear to play a significant role in particular. Moreover, from pre-trip planning and anticipation through to post-trip reflection, the use of travel guidebooks continues over long



periods of time. Travel guidebooks were a preferred information medium throughout these stages amongst Japanese overseas tourists generally. They were the most popular information source and were perceived as one of the most useful information sources, though reasons for such popularity were not investigated in the present study. These findings strongly support the notion that travel guidebooks have a decisive impact on the choices made in multiple components of a trip. Travel guidebooks are an integral part of the travel decision-making processes and provide information on a number of different areas. Moreover, the use of travel guidebooks may continue over long periods of time, from pre-trip planning and anticipation through to post-trip retrospective reflection. Through the duration of such use, travel guidebooks are likely to be used repeatedly but with different levels of frequency and purpose.

When one travels, what s/he really buys is an intangible travel experience as a whole, not simply each travel component such as a return air ticket or a hotel voucher. Travel guidebooks provide thorough information necessary for travelling and suggest ways to experience things. They illustrate all travel components as well as background information on the destination, and the compilation of various information pieces possibly produces the images and atmosphere during travel for the readers. In the present study, the results indicated that package tour participants were more likely to rely on travel agents, package tour brochures and tour guides. But still, travel guidebooks were used by the large majority of these people. How can it be explained? The reason may be that information sources other than travel guidebooks can only provide fragmentary information to potential and actual tourists. Travel guidebooks are a synthetic medium of travel information which can communicate and inspire travel experience. The importance of travel guidebooks lies in its multifunctionality and flexibility which can be useful for any type of tourist. They can be used anytime, anywhere in anyway, at any degree one needs.

This study has enhanced our understanding of how travel guidebooks are used in travel decision-making and in the wider context of information usage by potential

and actual tourists. It has explored how this non-marketer-dominated information source is used and perceived by different segments of the Japanese overseas tourist market. Tourism enterprises and organisations would be well advised to have a thorough understanding of the entire information environment encountered by tourists. This study indicated heavy reliance on travel guidebooks by Japanese overseas tourists in general both prior to and during travel. From a destination marketing perspective, it is important to recognise that the travel information source most likely to be referenced is not necessarily the one which destinations have direct control over. The results of the survey indicated that there were only a few alternative sources of information to travel guidebooks that account for an equivalent number of users: travel agents and package tour brochures prior to travel; and tour guides during travel. These three sources are provided directly by the travel and tourism industry. In contrast, travel guidebooks are produced by peripheral forces. The degree to which travel guidebooks create travel demand may be small yet they appear to be more widely used. Such a strong tendency to use travel guidebooks suggests that an opportunity exists to use them not only as tools to influence destination choice but also as devices to influence on-site behaviour. It therefore can be used to enhance the tourists' on-site experience and thereby the probability of repeat visits and more favorable recommendations of the destination to friends and relatives.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA:	Analysis of Variance
ASR:	Adjusted Standardised Residual
CAQDAS:	Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software
DMO:	Destination Marketing Organisation
KMO:	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
JTB:	Japan Travel Bureau
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
NATTI:	National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters
NUD*IST:	Nonnumerical Unstructured Data – Indexing, Searching and Theorizing
SD	Standard Deviation
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Science
VFR:	Visiting Friends and Relatives
WoM:	Word-of-Mouth

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

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#### 1.1 TRAVEL GUIDEBOOKS: A UNIQUE INFORMATION SOURCE

What would be the first thing you would quite spontaneously do when you feel like going on an overseas holiday? Drop in at a nearby travel agent? Surf the Internet? If you know someone who has been to any of the destinations that you are contemplating, you may ask the person some questions. You may also have a quick look through some travel guidebooks about these potential destinations in a bookstore, purchase one, and eventually carry it with you throughout your holiday. Travel guidebooks are one of many travel information sources available to us and for many of us perhaps one of the most common sources.

As a source of travel information, travel guidebooks appear to have distinctive, multi-faceted characteristics. Firstly, they are easily and locally accessible, and may also be brought to the destination. The contents typically include practical information such as how to access places of interest, accommodation listings, short descriptions on the history and culture of the destination and some useful phrases in the local language. They are sold on a commercial basis and provide information on a particular destination, but their main purpose is not to promote a particular destination. This study concerns itself with the consumer's perspective of this common travel information source, a source which has distinctive, multi-faceted characteristics.

Travel guidebooks can be comparatively evaluated against other sources of travel information. Firstly, travel guidebooks may be accessed and obtained relatively quickly and easily when needed. Accessibility and availability are basic requirements for an effective information source. A range of travel guidebooks are selectively available through bookstores and local libraries. Not everyone is lucky enough to know someone who can provide word-of-mouth (WoM) recommendation. The Internet is clearly an exceptional tool for providing the

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consumer with instantaneous access to information. This access however is dependent on having access to the Internet, including the appropriate equipment. If one wishes to acquire travel information from other conventional sources, such as tourist commission brochures, one usually has to make a request and then wait several days for delivery. In this sense, there is a parallel between travel guidebooks and package tour brochures produced by tour operators which may be collected casually at local travel agents. Unlike package tour brochures, travel guidebooks are not exclusive to particular types of users and may accommodate package tour participants as well as independent travellers.

Secondly, in contrast to many other information sources which are used only prior to departure, travel guidebooks may also be used during subsequent stages of the trip. These stages include travelling to the destination, within and between destinations, and after returning from the tourist generating region. By definition, tourism involves displacement from one's usual environment (World Tourism Organization 1995). If one wishes, travel guidebooks can be physically taken from the home environment and used until the completion of the trip. In cases where the destination is located overseas and the major language is different from the tourist's, travel guidebooks brought from home may be the only source of information readily available in the tourist's native language during travel. In such cases, it would not be difficult to imagine that this information source could provide tremendous value to the tourist.

Another distinctive feature of travel guidebooks as a source of travel information from a consumer perspective is that they are published by commercial publishers who are detached from the promotional activities of the related destinations. By contrast, other major providers of travel information sources such as travel agents, tour operators and destination marketing organisations (DMO) are actively involved in destination promotion. From a tourist viewpoint, travel guidebooks are one of the few information sources offering the prospect of relatively neutral, unbiased and accurate information. On this basis, they may have a considerable impact on the tourism industry and on tourist destination management, though the

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industry itself does not exert direct control.

The absence of control by tourism industry in general and by destination marketers in particular has significant implications. For some prospective travellers, information sources such as travel guidebooks may be viewed as representing the tourism product (or destination) they are about to purchase. Predictably, images developed by casual skimming or careful reading of a travel guidebook may contribute to the forming of one's pre-visit expectations. Consequently, post-visit satisfaction may be evaluated based on such expectations – without direct control by the industry. In this sense, travel guidebooks appear to have a disproportionate influence over travel behaviour and travel experience on the whole, encompassing a comprehensive marketing and consumer behaviour dimension.

A brief comparison between travel guidebooks and other information sources as noted above has already highlighted some interesting issues surrounding travel guidebooks. In view of these unique characteristics of travel guidebooks, their role certainly merits extensive exploration on their use by potential and actual tourists.

## **1.2 THE NEGLECT OF TRAVEL GUIDEBOOKS IN TOURISM RESEARCH**

The subject of travel information search and use has been a topic of research for nearly three decades since the pioneering study of Nolan (1976). This study included extensive reference to travel guidebooks. A number of other studies have shown wide-ranging interest in the subject of information sources for tourists, or information search behaviour by potential tourists (eg; Gitelson and Crompton 1983; Snepenger, Meged, Snelling, and Worrall, 1990; Snepenger and Snepenger 1993; to name but a few). Chen and Gursoy (2000: 191) recently asserted that 'traveler's information search is one of the most frequently examined topics by tourism researchers'.



Despite the expanding interest shown by researchers towards the search and use of travel information sources, travel guidebooks have been underrepresented in previous studies. Given that empirical studies have repeatedly reported that travel guidebooks are regarded as one of most important information sources by tourists, this underrepresentation is surprising. In Nolan's study (1976), 'guidebooks' were ranked as the most credible and the second most frequently used source of information out of nine alternatives. In a survey by Gitelson and Crompton (1983), out of twelve information sources listed, respondents rated 'commercial guidebooks' as the second most used source of information after 'friends and relatives'. Similarly, Snepenger et al. (1990) demonstrated that 'tour brochure / guidebooks' were the second most used source of information of the seven sources that they listed. As summarised by Bhattacharyya (1997: 373), 'guidebooks ... are a common but little analyzed part of the tourism system'.

Studies on the search and use of information sources by tourists may be classified into two broad groups. The first group features a specific travel information source such as travel agents (e.g. Klenosky and Gitelson 1998) and package tour brochures developed by tour operators (e.g. Goossens 1994). The second group consists of studies which deal with a variety of travel information sources on the whole (e.g. Fodness and Murrey 1997; 1998; 1999). The neglect of travel guidebooks is evident in the case of both groups.

Within the first group, there have been numerous studies concentrating on one or on a few specific tourist information source(s) other than travel guidebooks. These have included: tour operator brochures (Gilbert and Houghton 1991; Goossens 1994; Holloway and Plant 1992; Yamamoto 2000); recommendations provided by travel agents (Goldsmith, Flynn, and Bonn 1994; Goossens 1994; Kendall and Booms 1989; Klenosky and Gitelson 1998; Michie and Sullivan 1990; Snepenger et al. 1990); information packs developed by DMO (either national, regional or city) (Chon 1991; Dilley 1986; Etzel and Wahlers 1985; Wicks and Schuett 1991; Zhou 1997); welcome centres/visitor information centres (Fesenmaier 1994; Fesenmaier, Vogt, and Stewart 1993; Gitelson and Perdue 1987; Howard and

Gitelson 1989; Perdue 1985, 1995; Tierney 1993); magazine and newspaper articles (Laskey, Seaton, and Nicholls 1994; Luk, Tam, and Wong 1995); WoM recommendations from family and friends (Gitelson and Kerstetter 1994); previous personal experiences (Gursoy 2003; Mazursky 1989; Schreyer, Lime, and Williams 1984); and the most recent arrival, the Internet (Doolin, Burgess, and Cooper 2002). Nevertheless, no study has been identified that has focused exclusively on travel guidebooks from a marketing and consumer behaviour perspective.

Of the few studies which dealt with travel guidebooks as the subject of research, the focus has been on the content or textual characteristics of travel guidebooks. Lew (1991) examined the thematic orientation and spatial distribution of tourist attractions and services in Singapore from the perspective of different travel segments by analysing the contents of four travel guidebooks for Singapore. Bhattacharyya (1997) undertook a content analysis of India's most popular travel guidebook, *Lonely Planet India*, observing the way in which places, people and cultures associated with the destination are featured, represented and interpreted, from a semiotic perspective. Carter (1998) conducted a close reading of the contents of several popular guidebooks and undertook in-depth interviews with international travellers in an effort to highlight their social construction of non-Western regions as risky locations. Siegenthaler (2002) investigated the presentations of Hiroshima and Nagasaki as post-war tourism destinations in selected Japanese travel guidebooks. To date, a study by McGregor (2000) appears to be the only empirical attempt to examine the use of travel guidebooks by tourists as well as their role as written texts. This study was a culturally focussed study, looking at the influence of travel guidebooks on the tourist gaze of a particular destination, Tana Toraja, Indonesia. There appears to have been no previous study that has provided a direct examination of the role and use of travel guidebooks by tourists from a marketing and consumer behaviour perspective.

This lack of detailed research on the role and use of travel guidebooks may be understandable in light of the focus by main lobby groups on destination marketing issues generally and promotional activities in particular. Whereas tourism commissions, travel agents and tour operators are all actively involved in destination marketing, the publishing businesses that produce travel guidebooks are relatively separate from the organisations involved in destination marketing. Nonetheless, as Vogt, Stewart, and Fesenmaier (1998: 86) identified, ‘information sources and places most likely to be referenced to plan trips are not necessarily the ones that destinations can directly control’, and travel guidebooks are surely one of these information sources.

Apart from a lack of dedicated studies on travel guidebooks from a marketing and consumer behaviour perspective, it should also be pointed out that, in the case of the second group of studies, which compare or rank the use of various travel information sources, travel guidebooks have been underrated, whether intentionally or otherwise. Frequently, they have been either confused with other information sources, not clearly stated, or even omitted from the lists of information sources provided to the respondents. An example of a comparison of classification systems of external information sources, was undertaken by Seaton (1996b) and Fodness and Murray (1997). In formulating a matrix of travel information sources, both classification systems employ the same criteria: commercial or non-commercial; and personal and impersonal. Whereas the former classifies ‘guidebook’ as a ‘non-commercial and impersonal’ source, the latter regards ‘guide books’ as a ‘commercial and impersonal’ source. This divergence of opinion on the classification of travel guidebooks may arise from the unique nature of this information source. From a tourism promotion perspective, it may be a non-commercial source to the extent that it does not attempt to profit directly from an increased volume of tourist traffic to a particular destination. Travel guidebooks are, however, commercial products from the perspective of the publishers. To this extent, they should be viewed as a commercial information source. Unfortunately, any discussion in the literature is lacking on how this unique source of travel information may be viewed and positioned from a

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consumer perspective.

Some empirically based studies on the search and use of various travel information sources have made no mention of a 'travel guidebooks' category, or else have not categorised 'travel guidebooks' separately (Andereck and Caldwell 1993; McGuire, Uysal, and McDonald 1988; Raitz and Dakhil 1989; Rao, Thomas, and Javalgi 1992; Troncallina and Thompson 1977; Walter and Tong 1977). In Raitz and Dakhil's study (1989), respondents were asked to rank '10 commonly encountered information sources' in order of importance. None of the options referred to travel guidebooks or to a related synonym. Likewise, in Capella and Greco's study (1987), the category of 'travel guidebook' was omitted from the 12 nominated information sources for the survey. 'Consumer publications' was the closest substitute.

Studies which have overlooked travel guidebooks have been predominantly conducted in the United States. Those studies which included travel guidebooks or a synonym in their lists of information sources have tended to be conducted amongst non-US residents concerning their overseas trips (Bieger and Laesser 2001; Chen and Gursoy 2000; Gursoy and Chen 2000; Hsieh and O'Leary 1993; Milhalik, Uysal, and Pan 1995; Milner, Collins, Tachibana, and Hiser 2000; Uysal, McDonald, and Reid 1993). This pattern may suggest that travel guidebooks are used more commonly for overseas trips by non-US tourists generally and possibly by non-English native speakers in particular. If this is the case, it would shed light on the use of travel guidebooks by different market segments, and consequently on the positioning of travel guidebooks within the full range of travel information sources. Overall, it may be summarised that at this stage, there has been insufficient research to demonstrate the role played by travel guidebooks as an information source.

The merit of research on travel guidebook use is underlined by the findings of a study of tourists at Prince Edward Island, Canada. It was found that those who had read travel guidebooks spent more money and experienced greater satisfaction

than those who had not (Woodside, Macdonald, and Trappey 1996, unpublished paper, cited in Seaton 1996a). This finding suggests that the use of travel guidebooks should not necessarily be considered solely within the context of purchase decisions, but may be viewed within a wider context. If the use of travel guidebooks is positively related to improved travel expenditure and satisfaction, further research on travel guidebook users (and non-users) offer the prospect of providing further insights for destination marketers.

In summary, although travel guidebooks are known to be widely used, there is little understanding about their overall use. The role and use of travel guidebooks merit research in their own right. A study that fills the gap in literature on the subject of travel guidebooks from a marketing and consumer behaviour perspective is certainly required. Specifically, an exploratory research is useful to ask some basic questions: *who uses travel guidebooks and who does not?; when are they used?; how are they used?; and how do tourists position them among other sources of information?* The present study is exploratory in nature and seeks to provide a starting point leading to an improvement in the understanding of the use and implications of this universal medium of communication.

### 1.3 RESEARCH AIMS

This study is exploratory in nature. The overall aim of the study is to develop a better understanding of the use of travel guidebooks as a source of information by tourists.

The specific aims are:

- to ascertain the degree of use and the usefulness of travel guidebooks as an information source for making travel decisions by tourists, relative to other sources of information;
- to investigate the use of travel guidebooks by tourists as an information source for travel decision-making and for other purposes; and
- to compare and contrast users and non-users of travel guidebooks; and

- to locate factors likely to influence the use/non-use of travel guidebooks for a trip.

In order to achieve these research aims, in this present study, eight **Hypotheses** and four **Research Questions** are formulated as detailed in **Chapter 3**. These were developed on the basis of the literature review as outlined in **Chapter 2**.

#### 1.4 A DEFINITION OF TRAVEL GUIDEBOOKS

There are many terms which are similar to 'travel guidebook', and several different terms in use which actually mean 'travel guidebook'. In *Encyclopedia of Tourism*, Towner (2000: 267) states that 'There is no clear definition of a guidebook'. To avoid confusion, it is however necessary to provide a definition of the term 'travel guidebook' for the purposes of the current thesis.

A good start can be made by considering an authoritative dictionary definition: the *Oxford English Dictionary* does not list the precise term 'travel guidebook', but defines 'guidebook' as 'a book for the guidance of strangers or visitors in a district, town, building, etc., giving a description of the roads, places, or objects of interest to be found there' (1989: 931). Elsewhere, the term 'guide book' has been defined as a 'book for tourists, explaining what there is to see in a place, where to stay, how to travel around, where to eat etc' (*Dictionary of Hotels, Tourism and Catering Management* 1994: 116).

For the purpose of the present study, 'travel guidebook' is defined as a book that provides information for visitors to a particular destination (city, region, country or continent) and that is sold through bookstores. The term excludes tour brochures produced by tour operators/travel agents and free information brochures produced by DMO. Travel guidebooks are differentiated from 'travelogues (or travelogs)', which may be in the form of a book, film or talk that describes a particular person's travels (for the definition, see Dann 1992).

Other terms which may be used as substitutes for the term 'travel guidebook' are: 'travel handbook', 'travel manual' and 'travel guides'. The present study prefers the term 'travel guidebook' to 'travel handbook' and 'travel manual', as the former appears to be more widely acknowledged and used. Its contracted version 'travel guides', which is heard often in daily conversation, is not used in the context of this thesis, except when it is used in citations, to avoid any potential confusion with the word 'tour guide' (the human component).

### 1.5 DELIMITATION

This study has a number of limitations which should be acknowledged at this stage. In order to clarify its scope and differentiate it from previous studies, and due to the constraints of time and resources allowed for its completion, it is largely focussed on the consumer side. In other words, it is a study of travel guidebook users and non-users exploring their behaviour and perceptions towards travel guidebooks. Therefore, in this study, a content analysis of travel guidebooks, which was the particular approach adopted in previous studies related to travel guidebooks was not undertaken (Bhattacharyya 1997; Carter 1998; Lew 1991; McGregor 2000). As an exploratory study of travel guidebooks from a consumer perspective, the present study attempts to provide an overall picture of their use. Although travel guidebooks are usually written for specific segments of the market (Lew 1991), the scope of the present study is not confined to the use of particular titles and/or series of travel guidebooks. Rather, it attempts to provide an empirical examination of how travel guidebooks are used and perceived by tourists, exclusively Japanese overseas tourists. Within the research area of information sources, technical design and content layout issues have frequently been a focus (Getz and Sailor 1993; Gilbert and Houghton 1991). However, for the present study, any consideration to such physical appearances of travel guidebooks has been left to researchers focussing on the artistic aspects of information sources.

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## 1.6 THE STUDY POPULATION: JAPANESE OVERSEAS TOURISTS

Japanese overseas tourists were selected as the research population for this study for several reasons. The principal reason is that a focus on significant international tourist sources can add an extra dimension to the literature on travel information search and use. While information search by domestic tourists, largely in the US, has received a great deal of attention and has generated numerous articles, search and use of travel information by international tourists has been insufficiently researched. A recent and widely cited model of tourist information search behaviour by Fodness and Murray (1999) is based on the results of a survey of automobile travellers who stopped at Florida welcome centers and hardly refers to international tourists. Studies on international tourists are however as necessary as those on domestic tourists, because there may be significant differences between their behaviours. Such differences are likely to be most evident in cases where cultural and language differences exist between the destination country and the tourist generating country or where the countries are physically remote from each other. These factors may encourage international tourists to employ different information search and use behaviours from what have been suggested by previous studies.

This study has opted to examine international tourists from a single country, Japan, rather than to be a comparative study among tourists from multiple countries. The researcher acknowledges that travel information search and use is often coupled with a cultural background which results in different behaviour patterns (Bieger and Laesser 2001), and that a comparative study across different nationalities would be useful. However, taking into account the exploratory nature of the present study which focuses on the use of a particular source of information as well as the time and resources available to the researcher, it was considered unrealistic to contact sufficient numbers of tourists from more than one country. It was also judged by the researcher that it was timely to choose a country different from the US, given that most of the studies undertaken on travel information search behaviour have focused on US travellers (Chen and Gursoy 2000; Snepenger and Snepenger 1993). A study by Burnet, Uysal, and Jamroz (1991)



considered the infiltration of international themes in the leading American-based publication, *Journal of Travel Research*. They concluded that much of the research had an ethnocentric, Anglo-American orientation which ‘seriously neglects the rest of the world’ (1991: 49). Recognizing such a gap which was identified about a decade ago, this study attempts to add an example from the Asia-Pacific region.

Since the middle of 1980s, as outlined in **Chapter 2**, the number of outbound tourists from Japan has increased dramatically. As a consequence, Japan has become one of the largest sources of inbound tourists for the world’s top 10 tourism destinations (World Tourism Organization 2003). However, studies in English on this significant market have been deficient. The present study seeks to provide an updated insight into the travel behaviour of this rapidly maturing market. It is also important to note that the researcher is Japanese and is thus able to access the Japanese language literature, is familiar with Japanese customs and manners when contacting the sample population, and can communicate with respondents directly without an interpreter.

Originally, Japanese outbound tourists to Australia were selected as the study population. Australia was the research base for the researcher for the duration of her studies and Japan has been the biggest international tourist market for Australia in recent years (Australian Tourist Commission 2003). The research was expected to offer potential benefits to Australia as a tourist destination. As is described in **Chapter 5**, however, due to the difficulty of collecting sufficient quantitative data in Australia, the population of the study was later expanded to Japanese outbound tourists to other destinations.

## 1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of this study lies in the need for an enhanced understanding of the use of travel guidebooks as a tourist information source for the purposes of destination marketing. Tourism enterprises and organizations need to be informed

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about how this non-marketer-dominated information source is perceived by different segments of the population. The study also reviews, analyses and synthesises the existing literature on information sources used for travel decision-making with special attention to travel guidebooks. On this basis, a model of travel decision-making and the use of information sources is proposed reflective of the relationship between travel decision-making and types of tourists. The study should fill a gap in the literature on the role and use of travel guidebooks from a marketing and consumer behaviour perspective, and consequently improve the understanding of the use of information sources for travel decision-making in various segments of the tourism market. It can potentially provide a better link between the use of information sources by tourists and destination marketing strategy.

A further contribution to the literature involves an examination of the role of travel guidebooks in travel decision-making both prior to and during the trip. Most research on travel decision-making has focused on destination choice which normally occurs prior to departure on a trip. In practice, a number of other travel choices (such as activities and eating places) occur during the course of the actual trip. Research on travel decisions should not be confined to the period prior to departure. By considering the relationship between decisions made during travel and travel information sources, the proposed study should make a unique contribution to the literature.

Another justification for the study derives from its target population, Japanese tourists. In this study, the relationship between the use of information sources and various segments of this maturing market is examined. The study should provide practical insights into how diverse segments within the Japanese outbound travel market make use of travel information sources, especially travel guidebooks. Consequently, it should allow for the development of specific marketing programmes for each segment of this significant market, such as group-based travellers and independent travellers.

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## 1.8 THESIS STRUCTURE

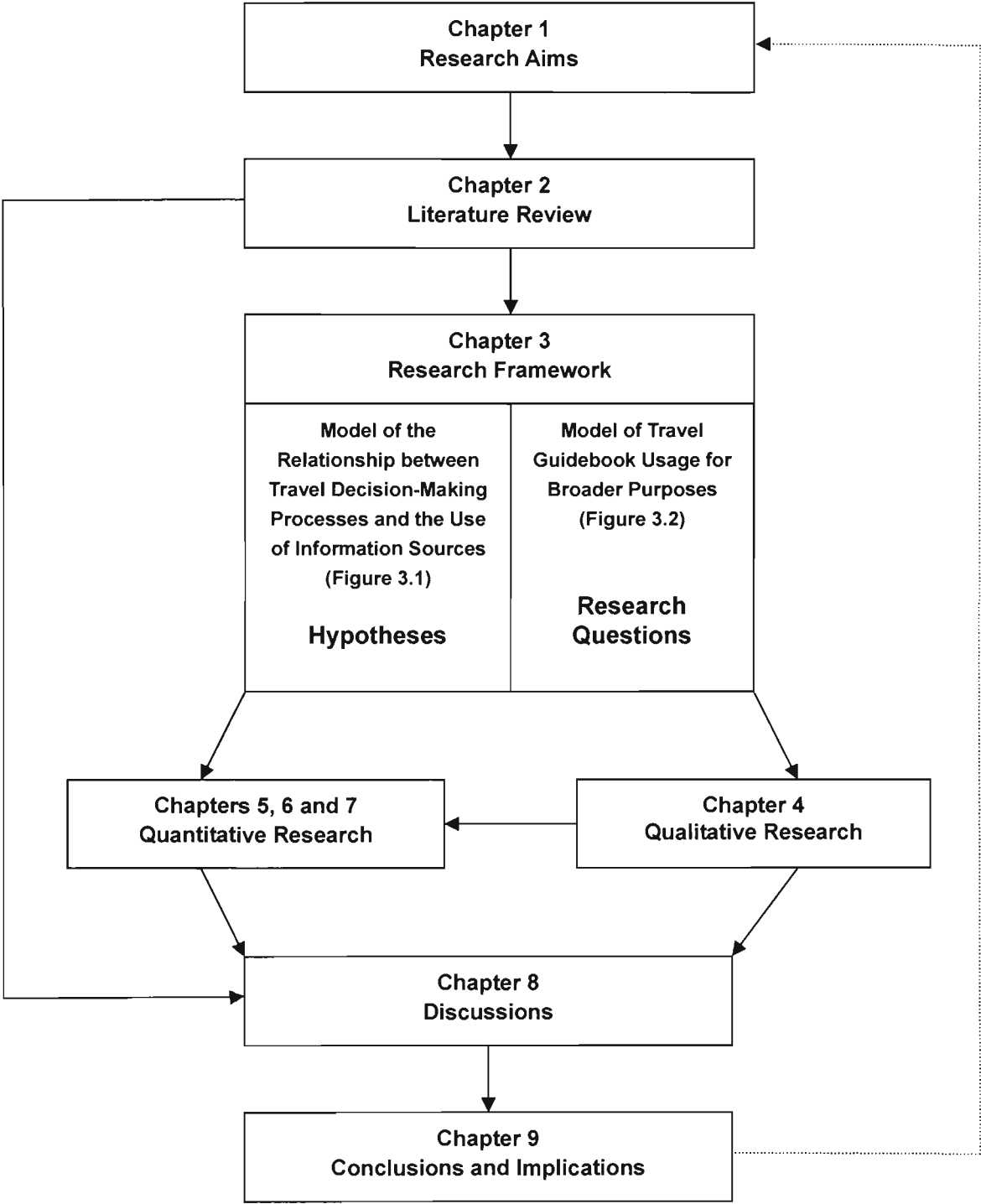
This thesis consists of nine chapters including this introductory chapter. To illustrate the structure and sequence of the chapter organization of this thesis, Figure 1.1 is provided (p.15).

Research aims have already been addressed in the current chapter, **Chapter 1**. **Chapter 2** provides a review of the related literature. It takes a comprehensive account of the issues related to the topic of this study dealt with in previous studies. It includes the following five main areas: travel information search for decision-making purposes; factors influencing the search for travel information; information sources in travel decision-making process models; travel information search for broader purposes; and Japanese overseas travel behaviour.

In **Chapter 3**, a research framework is established with two models. The first proposed model, a model of the relationship between travel decision-making processes and use of information sources (Figure 3.1, p.66) is developed reflecting the relationship between travel decision-making and types of tourists. This model is in line with the traditional approach towards information search. Based on this model, eight hypotheses are formulated and presented. The second proposed model, a model of travel guidebook use for broader purposes (Figure 3.2, p.74) aims to explore the use of travel guidebooks beyond the traditional view of travel information search. Based on this model, four research questions are formulated and presented.

In order to examine whether the dimensions in the second model are appropriate to the present study and to provide the basis for the subsequent quantitative research, qualitative research methods are employed and the results are reported in **Chapter 4**. Indications for research questions and implications for quantitative research of the present study are also considered from qualitative results.

Quantitative research also forms part of the present study: methodology, descriptive results, and inferential results are presented in **Chapters 5, 6, and 7**,



**Figure 1.1**  
**Relationship of the Chapters**

respectively. The quantitative component of the present study attempts to test eight hypotheses formulated from the first model and to provide answers to four **Research Questions** based on the second model. **Chapter 5** focuses particularly on the development of the relevant instrument, based on the concepts and the models presented in **Chapter 3** and the implications of the qualitative research in **Chapter 4**, and on the explanations of quantitative data analysis strategy including validity and reliability analysis of the survey instrument. **Chapter 6** presents the results of descriptive analysis of the quantitative data. The objective of the descriptive analysis is to determine the number and percentage of responses on each of the variables. To achieve this aim, frequency tables are utilized throughout this chapter. **Chapter 7** includes the results of the inferential analysis of the quantitative data, accompanying interpretations of the quantitative results.

In **Chapter 8**, results from qualitative (**Chapter 4**) and quantitative research (**Chapters 6 and 7**) are incorporated and efforts are made to relate them with the literature reviewed in **Chapter 2**.

**Chapter 9** is the concluding chapter, which also presents theoretical, methodological and practical implications. The research aims specified in **Chapter 1** should be fulfilled by **Chapter 9**. Finally, suggestions are given for further research.

## 1.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has provided an introduction to the present study. The aim of this chapter was to present issues associated with the research background, research problems, research objectives, the significance of the study and the structure of the thesis. In addition, contents of the subsequent chapters were outlined.

The next chapter presents a review of the literature related to the present study.

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## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

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#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

**Chapter 1** was the introductory part of the present study which presented the research background, research problem, research aims, the significance of the study and the structure of the thesis. This chapter provides a review of relevant literature on which the study is based.

As outlined in **Chapter 1**, there is little in the literature which directly deals with the topic of travel guidebooks. However, a significant number of studies have covered the broad principles of information search and use by potential and/or actual tourists. Since the relationship between travel information search and travel decision-making was first acknowledged by Gitelson and Crompton (1983), a number of studies have been undertaken in this field, and such studies have often drawn upon findings from the wider consumer behaviour literature as it relates to use of information sources. While the focus of the literature review remains the role and use of travel guidebooks, a wider variety of literature with relevance to this study is also examined. The objective of this chapter is to undertake a critical review of what has been researched and what needs to be researched, in order to fulfil the aims of the present study. It also serves to develop a research framework, models, hypotheses and research questions for the purposes of the present study in **Chapter 3**.

The structure of this chapter is as follows. Firstly, the searching procedure used to locate related literature is outlined. Secondly, literature on travel information search for decision-making is reviewed. The importance attached to information generally and to external information in particular for travel purchase decisions, is emphasised in the context of service provision. Thirdly, selected factors influencing the search for travel information that have been identified in the literature are illustrated. For the purposes of the present study, it is necessary to

ascertain the factors that may influence the choice of information source and the degree of use for a particular medium. In the following section, several travel decision-making models are revisited in relation to travel information search to provide a basis for developing an appropriate model for the present study that is presented in **Chapter 3**. Having reviewed the literature concerned mainly with use of information sources for travel decision-making, the subsequent section attempts to examine travel information search for purposes other than decision-making. In the literature, travel information search behaviour has traditionally been associated with travel decision-making. However, recent studies have indicated that information search is not necessarily confined to decision-making but has broader purposes and contexts. The literature referring to the role of travel guidebooks is thus considered in the context of broader purposes. Such literature is scarce, often based on author's assumptions and lacks empirical underpinnings. It does, however, provide a useful indication that the use of travel guidebooks should be viewed in a broader context rather than being just traditional travel information search literature. Lastly, a brief description of Japanese outbound tourist behaviour including their use of travel information sources is also included to provide some background to the study population.

## 2.2 LITERATURE SOURCES

The initial literature search was conducted by using the library resources at Victoria University, Melbourne, Australia. First, a comprehensive manual search of the available literary sources was performed. All tourism-related academic journals in the libraries at the University were perused in an effort to find materials that may be relevant to the topic. It was found that the topic of travel guidebooks was not covered in any substantial detail within the academic literature.

Subsequently, an in-depth search was undertaken by utilising on-line electronic databases available through the Internet, such as: ABI/INFORM; ProQuest; CARL UnCover; EBSCO Host; Emerald; ScienceDirect; and a range of search engines

available on the Internet. On these databases, keyword searches were performed employing different combinations of keywords to locate potentially relevant articles/books on the research topic, using the timeframe of 1970 to the most recent available volumes. The keywords for the search are from the following main groups:

- 1) guidebook, guide, guides
- 2) tourism, travel, tour
- 3) information, information source, information search, information acquisition, information collection, information use.
- 4) travel agent, tour operator, brochure, word-of-mouth, magazine, newspaper, TV, radio, media, Internet, information centre (center)
- 5) travel decision-making, choice
- 6) destination, accommodation, transport, activities

In the case that the identified journal articles were unavailable in full text on the databases or at the libraries in the state of Victoria, Australia, interlibrary loan periodical request service provided by the University library was used to obtain the articles. Similarly, interlibrary book loan was utilised to borrow the books that were not available in Victorian Libraries.

Further, the literature obtained through the above procedure contributed to the locating of more potentially relevant literature by providing reference lists.

### **2.3 TRAVEL INFORMATION SEARCH FOR DECISION-MAKING PURPOSES**

In tourism research, travel information search has traditionally been explained within the context of decision-making. This standpoint draws from information search theory located within the general consumer behaviour literature. Until recently, the consumer behaviour literature on information search focused almost exclusively on understanding their use for decision-making. In the following



section, the literature relating to both general and travel information search for decision-making purposes is reviewed.

### **2.3.1 Prepurchase Search**

In the consumer behaviour literature, information search has been based on information processing theory (Bettman, 1979), and directly linked with the decision process. Information search is recognised as a prerequisite for decision-making and has been incorporated into models of the decision process by expert theorists on consumer decision (Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell 1978; Howard 1977). As a problem-solving process, consumer decision-making is usually conceptualised as involving multiple major steps, such as: 1) need recognition; 2) search for information; 3) pre-purchase evaluation; 4) purchase; 5) consumption; 6) post-consumption evaluation; and 7) divestment (Blackwell, Miniard, and Engel 2001). The search for information during the consumer decision process, or prepurchase search, begins when a consumer perceives a need that might be satisfied by the purchase and consumption of goods or services. Kelly (1968: 273) defines prepurchase search as 'information seeking and processing activities which one engages in to facilitate decision making regarding some goal object in the market place'. The consumers' primary motive for prepurchase search is to enhance the quality of the purchase outcome (Punj and Staelin 1983).

How much information a consumer will seek depends on various situational factors. The consumer behaviour literature suggests that the perceived risk attached to a purchase decision may be related to the extent of the information search (Bettman 1973; 1979; Schiffman 1972). According to a cost versus benefit perspective, consumers search for decision-relevant information when perceived benefits of the new information are greater than the perceived costs of acquiring this information (Srinivasan and Ratchford 1991; Urbany 1986). The search will continue until the benefits no longer outweigh the costs. This benefit depends on perceived risk, representing consumer perceptions of uncertainty about the potential positive and negative consequences of the purchase decision (Dowling

and Staelin 1994). It should be noted that consumers are influenced only by perceived risk, whether or not such risk actually exists. Risk that is not perceived (no matter how real or how dangerous) does not influence consumer behaviour (Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk 1997). An individual's perception of risk varies with products, and the level of risk perception associated with a particular product varies with individuals. Studies have suggested that as the perceived risk of a purchase decision increases, so does search (Duncan and Olshavsky 1982; Urbany 1986; Urbany, Dickson, and Wilkie 1989). In high-risk situations, consumers are likely to engage in complex information search and evaluation; in low-risk situations, they are likely to use very simple search and evaluation tactics (Murray 1991).

### **2.3.2 Characteristics of Tourism Products**

Tourism products are largely services (Swarbrooke and Horner 1999), even though some tangible elements, such as hotel beds and foods, are also involved. Consequently, most tourism products are purchased, consumed and evaluated in the form of services. The production, consumption and evaluation of services differs from those of goods in three fundamental ways (Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry 1990). It has been recognized that such characteristics of service products have a considerable effect on the consumer during the decision process involved with purchase (Kotler, Bowen, and Makens 1999; Middleton 2001; Seaton and Bennett 1996; Swarbrooke and Horner 1999):

**Intangibility:** Unlike physical products, services are performances and experiences, with the characteristics of being intangible in that they cannot be seen, tasted, felt, heard or smelt before purchase. Therefore, at the point of purchase before performance, they cannot easily be measured, touched or evaluated

**Inseparability:** Unlike goods which may be manufactured and then stored for later distribution, services have the characteristic of being the act of production (performance of the service) and the consumption of it is simultaneous with the

interactions between the consumer and service provider without delay between the two. It also means that production and consumption usually take place on the premises or in the equipment of the producer, and not in the consumer's home environment.

**Heterogeneity/variability:** Service is always unique because its nature is inseparable, it only exists once, and is never exactly repeated. In other words, they differ substantially from producer/provider to other. Therefore, even if the consumer purchases the 'same' holiday, s/he can never be certain of a repeat experience.

Because of these service characteristics, tourists do not have full access to the benefits offered until they actually set off on a trip. Outcomes for the consumer are highly unpredictable at the point of purchase. What tourists purchase is an overall experience rather than a clearly defined product. Coupled with the high cost aspect of a holiday (for most consumers, it is the most expensive item to purchase after a house and car), uncertain and risky purchase situations are likely to occur with the holiday purchase decision. Travel to unfamiliar foreign destinations provides a clear example of a high-risk consumer decision. This is recognized by Seaton (1994: 373) as:

They involve committing large sums of money to something which cannot be seen or evaluated before purchase. The opportunity cost of a failed holiday is irreversible. If a holiday goes wrong that is it for another year. Most people do not have the additional vacation time or money to make good the holiday that went wrong.

Consumers of tourism products are forced to deal with uncertainty, and, to the extent that the consumer realises that s/he may not attain all of his or her holiday buying goals, risk is perceived. Studies have shown that consumers normally perceive service decisions to be riskier than product decisions (Murray and Schlacter 1990). It is likely that prospective tourists seek reassurance about their travel decisions. In this context, Murray (1991) states that it is logical to expect

that consumers acquire information as a strategy of risk reduction in the face of this specific uncertainty. The way tourists search for information and the importance they place on it is likely to be significantly different from the way consumers search for information to purchase goods and the importance that they attach to this process. Consumers are likely to be more involved in information search for tourism product purchases than with many other product purchases.

The types of risks that may be associated with travelling overseas are: performance risk, the risk that the product and services will not perform as expected; financial risk, the risk that the product will not be worth its cost in money, either because it will be too expensive or will not be of high quality; time risk, the risk that it would be a waste of time to travel to the destination; physical risk, the risk that the tourism product will cause safety problems and be harmful; psychological risk, a combination of social and psychological risk, the risk that a poor product choice may result in embarrassment before others or harm the tourists' ego; and cultural risk, the risk of culture shock if the destination culture is too dissimilar from what the traveller was expecting (Reisinger and Turner 1999).

Perceived risk theory has gained attention in several studies on travel decision-making (Hales and Shams 1991; Mitchell, Davies, Moutinho, and Vassos 1999; Moutinho 1987; Roehl and Fesenmaier 1992; Yavas 1987), because of the high-risk nature of tourism products. However, the concept of perceived risk will not be pursued any further in this literature review, because this concept involves a number of dimensions which are less relevant to the scope of the present study.

### **2.3.3 Prepurchase Search for Travel Information**

Information can be presented for use in a diverse range of ways – it may be in a spoken, written, or pictorial format, and may come from personal, commercial, or neutral sources (van Raaij and Crotts 1994). Although a number of typologies of information source exist, the fundamental classification is internal and external information. Internal information is nothing more than retrieving decision-relevant information stored in an individual's long-term memory. This search often takes

place initially, having been actively acquired from past information search or passively through low-involvement learning, where a consumer is repeatedly exposed to marketing stimuli. The recollection of past experience may provide the consumer with adequate information to make a choice. When the internal search provides sufficient information, then external search is obviously unnecessary (Beatty and Smith 1987). Whether individuals rely solely on internal information depends heavily on the perceived adequacy or perceived quality of their existing knowledge (Brucks 1985). However, when an internal search proves inadequate for making a purchase decision, then the search process focuses on acquiring information from external sources. In general, the greater the relevant internal information, the less external information the consumer is likely to need in order to reach a decision (Blackwell et al. 2001).

In relation to tourism products, internal information includes personal experiences from the past, either with the specific destination or with similar destinations and the knowledge accumulated through an ongoing information search (Fodness and Murray 1997; Schul and Crompton 1983). If they believe that they have sufficient knowledge about the trip, as is often the case with a routine trip to family or friends, or for repeat visitation of a familiar destination, individuals may not need to collect any additional information from external sources (Etzel and Wahlers 1985; Snepenger and Snepenger 1993). However, even experienced tourists may need to undertake an external search before a routine trip to visit family or friends in circumstances where they change route or take side trips (Perdue 1985).

External information sources are heavily used in the case of tourism products, involving considerable effort and variety of information sources (Fodness and Murray 1997; Raitz and Dakhil 1989; Schul and Crompton 1983). Several factors related to the characteristics of tourism products encourage consumers to conduct an external information search. Gitelson and Crompton (1983) suggested three reasons as to why external information sources play a particularly important role in the purchase of tourism products:

- 
- A trip is a high risk purchase and involves the use of discretionary income during the consumer's free time;
  - The consumer is unable to sample the potential purchase, and is reliant on secondary or tertiary sources of information; and
  - A premier travel motivation is to experience novelty.

Among external information sources, past studies have often suggested the importance of WoM information for the marketing of services including tourism. Consumers have been found to rely on WoM to reduce the level of perceived risk and the uncertainty that is often associated with service purchase decisions (Murray 1991). Compared to purchasers of goods, Murray (1991) found that service purchasers have greater confidence in personal sources of information as well as a greater prepurchase preference for personal information sources. He also found that personal sources have a greater influence on purchasers of services than on purchasers of products. The influence of friends and/or relatives in travel decisions has also been well documented (Crompton 1981; van Raaij and Francken 1984). In fact, when asked what sources provide trip-related information, friends and/or relatives are usually listed as the most frequent and most credible source (Bieger and Laesser 2000; Capella and Greco 1987; Gitelson and Crompton 1983; Gitelson and Kerstetter 1994). Such WoM travel information is, however, not always available when required and is usually obtained by chance. Prepurchase search for tourism products then needs to rely on other external information sources, such as travel guidebooks.

In summary, information search in general and external information search in particular, plays a significant role in the decision to purchase tourism products. Prepurchase search for travel information can be considered as a way of minimizing the perceived risk of travel decisions and of maximizing the perceived quality of travel experiences. For the purposes of the present study, it is important to investigate, not the degree of total tourist information search and use, but the choices made amongst a variety of information sources and the degree to which a chosen information source is used. Travel guidebooks, the focus of the present

study, are one example of external travel information sources, but there are other sources for prospective tourists, such as travel agents, package tour brochures, TV, newspapers and magazines, Internet, DMO, WoM, and so on. In their examination of how travellers make systematic use of information available to them for vacation planning, Fodeness and Murray (1998) concluded that travellers did not depend solely on one type of information source and may use more than one source. It is, therefore, useful for the present study to identify the factors that may differentiate tourists' choice on various travel information sources and the degree of use of each information source, as indicated in the previous literature. This is dealt with in the next section.

## **2.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING THE SEARCH FOR TRAVEL INFORMATION**

Research on information search behaviour is complex because of the involvement of numerous factors. Nevertheless, locating the factors that are likely to influence travel information search behaviour would provide a basis for segmentation analysis, linking the use of specific travel information sources and travel decision-making by various types of tourists. Therefore, studies on travel information search have attempted to identify several general relationships between information search behaviour and tourist demographics as well as characteristics and the nature of the trip (Capella and Greco 1987; Raitz and Dakhil 1989; Snepenger et al. 1990).

The previous studies have had mixed results. Although researchers have frequently mentioned the relationship between several sociodemographic characteristics of tourists and information search behaviour, understanding people's demographics and past travel behaviour may be only one facet of their travel behaviour. Studies have suggested that demographic characteristics are becoming less useful for tourism segmentation purposes (Schul and Crompton 1983; Bieger and Laesser 2001; Etzel and Wahlers 1985). For example, Etzel and Wahlers (1985) compared information seekers and non-seekers on a variety of

demographic variables and indicated that travellers with more education were likely to seek information but age, household size, and the number of children under 18 were not related to travel information search behaviour.

It has been suggested that travel-related variables may be more productive in explaining the total amount of information collected and the subsequent degree of influence by each source on travel decision-making. In a study of British travellers to overseas destinations, Schul and Crompton (1983) proposed that travel-specific lifestyles and individual differences were better predictors of external search behaviour than socio-demographic variables. They operationalised travel-specific lifestyles by factor analysing 16 psychographic variables. Their findings supported their proposition that individuals' travel-specific lifestyles (psychographics) explain traveller search behaviours better than demographic differences. In their study on the use of information sources by Swiss travellers, Bieger and Laesser (2001) also reported that their hypothesis, 'explanatory value of travel-related factors of information sourcing is larger than the value of socio-demographic factors' was answered positively (i.e., the explanatory value of socio-demographic factors equals nil). Unfortunately, both of these studies were limited to a single nationality. It was not possible to conclude whether their findings were directly applicable to other national groups. The present study also focuses on international tourists from one country, Japan, in order to provide a further example for comparative purposes.

Factors influencing travel information search that have been frequently noted in previous studies include: type of tourist; purpose of travel; duration of trip; planning horizon; destination (domestic/international); previous visitation to the destination; previous overseas travel experience in general; and nationality. These have been suggested as factors that are likely to have an influence on travel information search in general, though the specific relationship to use of travel guidebooks is unknown. In the absence of dedicated studies on travel guidebooks in the literature, these factors are reviewed here to be considered in the empirical part of the present study.



### 2.4.1 Types of Tourists

It has been indicated in the literature that the type of tourist is likely to influence prospective search and use of information sources. By employing Cohen's typology of tourists (1972), Snepenger (1987) found that, amongst first-time travellers to Alaska, the population sample used information sources to varying degrees, including travel agents, advertisements sponsored by the state, tour brochures and travel guidebooks, and friends and relatives. Concerning the 'tour brochures/guide books' category, it was used more by 'individual mass tourists' (operationalised as travel party purchased sightseeing or excursion tours during the vacation), followed by 'explorers' (operationalised as travel party on self-guided vacation) and 'organized mass tourists' (operationalised as travel party on organized tour for most or all of the vacation).

In a study of Swiss pleasure travellers, Bieger and Laesser (2001) found that the degree of trip packaging is in significant interrelation with the cluster of information source usages. In terms of travel guidebook use, the cluster which showed the highest scores in the importance of 'travel guides/travel books/journals' among four clusters, consisted of 46% from 'no package at all', 30% from 'single package tour', and 9% from 'group package tour'. It may be useful to investigate whether similar patterns are evident amongst Japanese overseas tourists, thereby determining if this factor is applicable to tourists from different countries in the context of travel guidebook use.

Tourism researchers have generally agreed that a typical basic package tour consists of three principal elements: transport, accommodation, and transfers between the airport and the accommodation. To be regarded as a package tour, these three elements must be sold to customers in advance at an inclusive price (Hanefors and Mossberg 1999; Hsieh, O'Leary, and Morrison 1994; Sheldon and Mak 1987; Yale 1995). In addition, other elements needed during the trip, such as sightseeing, activities, and meals are often included. Hanefors and Mossberg (1999) asserted that package tours have limited flexibility and the same purpose, and therefore package tour participants have the possibility to visit a large number

of sites in a short period of time, needing neither time nor skill to arrange the tour personally, and to be able to take advantage of the tour organizer's lower prices through their clever economic negotiations. The tourist can even use the package to 'travel to far away countries with strange cultures, unreliable transportation, and doubtful standards of hygiene' (Enoch 1996: 601).

According to Morrison, Hsieh, and O'Leary (1994), travellers who make their own transportation and accommodation arrangements, choosing not to buy prearranged packages or tours, are often referred to as independent travellers. They may or may not use the services of a travel agent in making these arrangements, such as to purchase discounted air tickets (Yamamoto and Gill 2000). Independent travellers may use prearranged or fixed itineraries or they may have flexible itineraries making further travel bookings during the trip.

As for independent travellers, a study of Japanese independent travellers in Scotland by Andersen, Prentice, and Watanabe (2000) arrived at an interesting conclusion. For the decision to visit Scotland, 38.4% of respondents considered 'unspecified travel guidebooks' to be very important or moderately important in the decision-making process, and 29.4% of respondents mentioned a popular Japanese travel guidebook series, *Chikyu no Arukikata*. These sources are rated second and third after the most frequently referred information source, 'friends and relatives' (44.3%).

It can be assumed that the type of tourist may influence the levels and types of information needed, and consequently may have an impact on the levels and types of information search employed. The relationship between search and use of travel information for decision-making purposes and type of tourist is discussed further in **Section 3.2**, in **Chapter 3** (pp.63-68).

It has to be acknowledged that use of travel information sources including travel guidebooks may have influenced their type of trip. This aspect could be explored in future research.

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#### 2.4.2 Purpose of Travel

Previous studies have suggested that purpose of travel, including holiday, visiting friends or relatives (VFR) and business, is likely to have an influence on information search behaviour (Etzel and Wahlers 1985; Fodness and Murray 1997, 1999)

As noted earlier in this chapter, routine trips usually rely on internal information and require little or no external information search. Likewise, as Gitelson and Crompton (1983) observed, a trip to friends or relatives is inclined to result in a minimal information search. Another study on travel information search behaviour by Capella and Greco (1987) found that families and friends greatly influence the vacation destination choice for those over 60 years old. Paci (1994) noted that VFR tourists rely heavily on their friends and family to help with itinerary planning and to recommend places and things to see and do. Specifically, according to Nguyen, Waryszak, and King (1998/99), friends and relatives play a crucial role in the decision-making process for the following reasons: first, the VFR tourism experience tends to be a highly social event; second, friends and/or relatives are typically knowledgeable about the destination area and are in a good position to provide advice; and third, friends and/or relatives may themselves form part of the group visiting a particular attraction.

A study on information search behaviour of British, French and German travellers to the US by Gursoy and Chen (2000) indicated that, while leisure and VFR travel segments displayed, by and large, similar external information search profiles, information search behaviour for the business and convention travel segment was clearly different. Although the studies mentioned have not provided an explanation of why those differences existed, it seems safe to assume that the purpose of a trip may influence the levels and types of information needed and therefore, may influence the levels and types of information search employed.

### **2.4.3 Duration of Trip**

Studies have generally shown that travellers taking longer vacations are likely to seek more information from a wider variety of sources (Etzel and Wahlers 1985; Fodness and Murray 1997, 1999; Gitelson and Crompton 1983; Snepenger et al 1990; Woodside and Ronkainen 1980). It may be assumed that longer trips require extensive decision-making, and the amount of information required for a trip appears to increase with the duration of trip.

Apart from such general observations, there has been little investigation of the relationship between travel duration and choice of particular information sources and the degree of their use. However, it can probably be assumed that, the longer the trip and the more uncertainty involved, the more likely that the sources of information employed will be different from those used for shorter trips. It is also possible to assume that individuals who travel for longer periods may not decide on all of their travel itinerary before the departure for the trip. Some of their travel decisions may have to be executed during the trip. In such cases, information sources available to them en route and at the destination may be limited and different from those available at home. Consequently, it may be assumed that travel guidebooks, an information source available both before and during the trip, may be used more for longer trips.

### **2.4.4 Planning Horizons**

Several studies have reported that the planning horizon (the length of time a tourist allows to plan his/her trip) is related to the search and use of travel information (Fodness and Murray 1997, 1999; Gitelson and Crompton 1983; Nolan 1976; Vogt and Fesenmaier 1998). This positive linear relationship between travel information search and planning horizons seem self-explanatory. As noted in a study by Schul and Crompton (1983) which identified an active search and a passive search group, active searchers had longer planning horizons.

The planning horizon is likely to be affected greatly by the distance travelled, the type of tourist, and mode of transportation (Vogt et al. 1998). Since the present

study is aimed at outbound tourists from Japan, an island country, mode of transportation is limited to air and sea travel. Type of tourist is already listed as one of the factors. Although it is mentioned here for completeness and it has been suggested frequently in the literature, the relevant planning horizon is not considered in the present study.

#### **2.4.5 Destination**

Several studies have supported the idea that information search is more extensive for international travel than for domestic travel (Ronkainen and Woodside 1978). This can be explained by the relatively higher prices of overseas trips which thereby encourage extensive information search to reduce perceived risk (Snepenger and Snepenger 1993). A study of US tourists by Duke and Persia (1993) indicated that foreign travellers used travel agents, travel guidebooks, tourist bureaus, and mass media more often than domestic travellers. The former were found to use more extensive sources than the latter. This result suggests that foreign travellers undertook greater amounts of information search and employed different types of information sources. This may follow from the presumed higher risk (financial as well as uncertainty in travel arrangements) associated with overseas trips. More importantly for the purposes of the present study, Duke and Persia's study showed that whereas travel guidebooks were ranked as the fifth most used source by domestic travellers, it was ranked third by foreign travellers. The distinction between domestic and international destinations is not directly relevant for the present study which concerns Japanese outbound tourists. Nevertheless, it is necessary to acknowledge that the results of the present study may not be readily applicable to Japanese domestic tourists.

In addition, it may be useful to consider this factor not as a dichotomy between international and domestic destinations, but as involving a range of different overseas destination regions and as a way of investigating the influence of destination difference on the use of information sources.

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#### 2.4.6 Previous Visitation to the Destination

As briefly mentioned previously, the consumer behaviour literature has suggested that the degree of external information search is influenced by the degree of prior product knowledge, i.e., internal information, and consumers who already have knowledge of the product will usually engage in limited external search activity perceiving that the benefits of additional information search are minimal (Brucks 1985). Likewise, studies on travel information search generally have shown that, while travellers visiting new and unfamiliar destinations are likely to seek a greater volume of information from a variety of sources, repeat visitors to a destination use mainly internal information (Andereck and Caldwell 1993; Gitelson and Crompton 1983; van Raaij 1986).

Results of other studies have indicated that the choice among a range of information sources for travel decisions is related to whether individuals have previously visited the destination or not (Snepenger et al. 1990; Woodside and Ronkainen 1980). Woodside and Ronkainen (1980) examined the differences in search strategies between first-time and repeat visitors to the state of South Carolina, USA. They found that first-time visitors used more professional sources than repeat visitors. They also noted that overseas, first time travellers to a destination were prone to using travel agents and tour operators more frequently. Snepenger et al. (1990) investigated the information search strategies employed by destination-naïve tourists (first-time visitors to a novel destination who are not visiting friends or relatives) to Alaska and their associated vacation-specific behaviours. Noting that prior visits could strongly influence information search behaviour, the study indicated that destination-naïve travellers employed three major information search strategies: using a travel agent as the sole source of information; using a travel agent and one or more other sources; and using one or more sources other than a travel agent.

In Chen and Gursoy's study (2000) of first-time and repeat German, French, and British travellers to the US it was also indicated that past trip experience significantly influenced their use of information sources. Whereas travel agencies

were the most important source of external information regardless of the travel experience, the use of most other information sources was significantly different between first-time and repeat travellers from each country. As for the use of travel guidebooks, significant differences were found only in the case of first-time and repeat German travellers. The influence of this factor on the use of travel guidebooks requires further research and is investigated in the present study.

#### **2.4.7 Previous Overseas Travel Experience**

In a review of the consumer behaviour literature, Alba and Hutchinson (1987) postulated the relationship between expertise and information search and suggested that experts are more likely to be able to acquire information relevant to their purchase decision and are better able to 'weed out' irrelevant information. In tourism research, Manfredo's study (1989) which differentiated experienced and inexperienced information seekers, supported the view that experience level influences traveller decision-making, planning behaviour and use of information. In their study of a zoological park, Andereck and Caldwell (1993) found a positive relationship between experience and search, and noted that repeat visitors mainly used internal information sources. Vogt et al. (1998: 72) noted that 'skilled and experienced travellers should be those who have learned the "ropes" of planning trips and using various information sources'.

With the exception of Vogt et al. (1998) who reported that the most popular information source when planning a vacation to an unfamiliar destination is one's own travel file, it seems that the various studies to date have generally failed to identify the relationship between general travel experience and the use of particular travel information sources.

#### **2.4.8 Nationality**

Nationality may influence travel information search behaviour. Most of the studies on travel information search have focused on US travellers, but there have also been a few studies conducted on the information search behaviour of those living in other countries who travel to the US (Chen and Gursoy 2000; Schul and

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Crompton 1983; Uysal et al. 1990).

A study by Uysal et al. (1990) involved information search behaviour for German, French, British and Japanese travellers to the US. The study identified that tourists from those four different countries use different types of information and with varying frequency. British travellers were inclined to use travel agents as their main source of external information, followed by family and friends, brochures and pamphlets, then magazine and newspaper articles. 'Family and friends' was found to be the most important external information source for German travellers followed by travel agents, brochures and pamphlets, then books and library materials. Like German travellers, 'Family and friends' was found to be the most important external information source for French travellers, followed by travel agents, brochures and pamphlets, airlines and then articles in magazines and newspapers. In addition and relevant for the purposes of the present study, it was identified that Japanese travellers make greatest use of books and other library materials compared to other sources. These books and library sources probably include travel guidebooks. The other most commonly used sources for Japanese travellers were brochures and pamphlets, family and friends, then travel agents.

A comparative study of the use of external information sources by British, French and German travellers to the US by Chen and Gursoy (2000) provided a ranking of travel information sources used by different nationalities. In regard to travel guidebooks, they were ranked third by first-time French travellers and repeat German travellers, fourth by first-time German and British travellers, and fifth by repeat British and French travellers, in comparison to 11 other external sources.

The issue of the legitimacy of the nationality variable has been discussed in the literature. Dann (1993) provided a strong critique of studies that had misused the nationality and/or country of residence factor as a solo discriminating variable for explaining the differences found in the behaviour of tourists. His criticism is based on four observations: the fuzzy nature of these variables; the globalisation of the world; the cosmopolitan nature of generating societies; and the pluralistic nature



of receiving societies. He did not postulate that a nationality variable should not be used in research, but instead that it should not be misused and that results should not be exaggerated. For example, he notes that: 'more significant than considerations of nationality or country of residence were frequency of travel, duration of sojourn, repeater status and the population size of place of domicile' (Dann 1993: 94).

The population of the present study is Japanese outbound tourists. As such, this study does not attempt to compare and contrast the use of travel information sources generally and travel guidebooks in particular, in terms of nationality. However, this factor is listed here to indicate that the results of the present study are limited to the population of the study and may not apply directly to other nationalities.

#### **2.4.9 Fluency in the Language of the Host Destination**

Although not explicitly mentioned in the literature, the results of some cross-cultural studies have indicated that tourist fluency in host language may be related to their travel information use (Hyde 2000). A possible explanation as to why this has not been addressed in the literature may be that, as mentioned in **Chapter 1**, a majority of previous studies on travel information search and use have been conducted with US respondents. Even at destinations where the first language is not English, international tourists expect and are usually able to communicate in English at most travel-related facilities. For those whose first language is English, obtaining information at overseas destinations is less likely to be a problem. On the other hand, for those who cannot expect the host to speak their language and who cannot speak the local language of the destination, there is a language barrier which may prevent them from collecting information at the destination necessary for making travel decisions during travel, when required. Unless travelling with a tour guide, even some basic information such as asking the opening hours of a restaurant by a tourist himself/herself may present many difficulties. Consequently, their option for information sources which they can rely on at the destination may be limited, possibly to the material they brought

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from home, including travel guidebooks.

The number of international tourists originating from non-English speaking countries, such as Japan and China, has been increasing over the past decade (World Tourism Organization 2003). It is more likely that those with language barriers will travel overseas in the near future and their fluency in the host language will be a factor influencing their use of information sources.

The review of factors influencing the search for travel information provided thus far is useful for the present study. It has identified the variables that are subsequently incorporated into the empirical part of the study. From this review, it may be concluded that the following seven factors are likely to influence travel information search behaviour: type of tourist; purpose of travel; duration of trip; destination region, previous visitation to the destination; previous overseas travel experience; and fluency in the host language. The remaining two factors, planning horizon and nationality, have been regarded as less relevant because of the restricted population of the study. The former seven factors are to be considered in the empirical part of the present study.

## **2.5 TRAVEL DECISION-MAKING PROCESS MODELS: THE ROLE OF INFORMATION SOURCES**

As already indicated in **Section 2.4.1** (pp.28-29), the search for and use of information for travel decision-making, including travel guidebooks, appears to be influenced by the type of tourist. Studies have suggested that individuals purchase package tours for reasons of convenience, price discount, unfamiliarity with the destination, or because they think that they will see and do more (Sheldon and Mak 1987). In addition to these reasons, it appears that those participating in package tours do so to simplify the decision-making process. Before discussing this further, it is necessary to review how the travel decision-making process has been conceptualised in the literature, especially in relation to travel information sources. The following section presents a review of travel decision-making

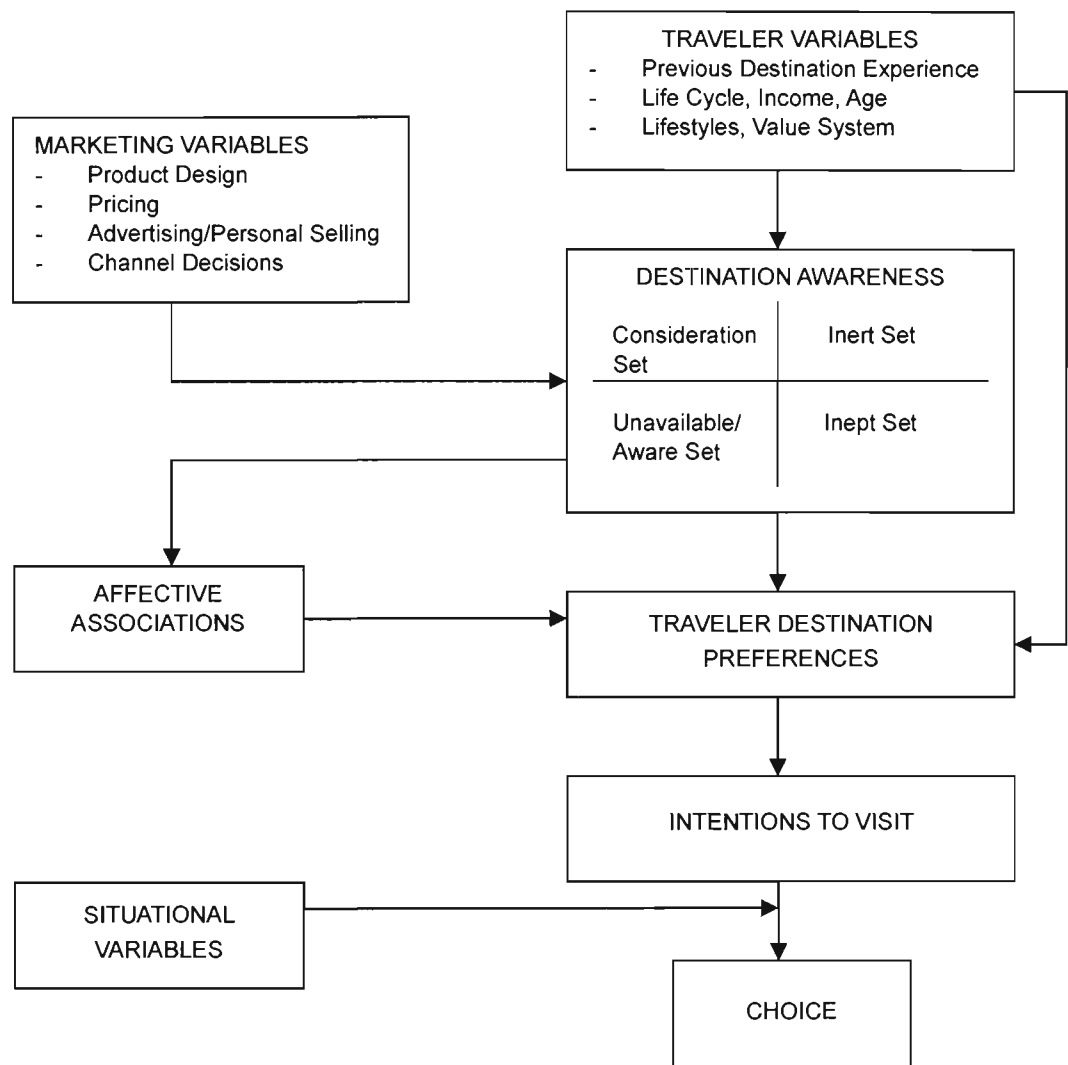
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process models.

### 2.5.1 Destination Choice Sets Models

The travel decision-making process has been a topic of investigation for over two decades, and a number of models have been proposed. Until recently, most researchers have considered travel decision-making as a sequential or hierarchical process, and by and large have maintained the classical approach towards consumers as problem-solvers (e.g. Howard and Sheth 1969). In other words, the task of making travel decisions has been regarded as a sorting out process. Following this tradition, researchers such as Woodside and Lysonski (1989) provided general models of travel decision-making processes (Ankomah, Crompton, and Baker 1996; Crompton 1992; Crompton and Ankomah 1993; Um and Crompton 1990; Um and Crompton 1991). However, as pointed out by Mansfeld (1992) in a critical review of theoretical aspects of the destination-choice process, many of these required further theoretical refinement in the role of information sources in image creation and actual destination choice.

A travel decision-making process model that focuses on sequential or linear relationships among variables was presented by Woodside and Lysonski (1989). This model of traveller destination choice (Figure 2.1, p.39) emphasised the structure of travel decision-making processes rather than the outcome of their choice. This model incorporated a stage of destination awareness when individuals evaluate all destinations they would consider for a holiday, called the evoked destination set. Based on personal status (i.e., previous destination experience, lifecycle, and value system) and marketing variables (i.e., product design, price, and advertisement), evoked sets were further subdivided into: 1) consideration set; 2) inert set; 3) inept set; and 4) unavailable set. Concerning the relationship between travel decision-making and information sources, although 'marketing variables' are presented as a force influencing the formation of perceptions or cognitive evaluations of tourism destinations, this model did not



**Figure 2.1**  
**A General Model of Traveler Destination Choice**

**Source: Woodside and Lysonski (1989)**

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specifically refer to any other external information sources.

Um and Crompton (1990) adapted a similar approach to the Woodside and Lysonski model (1989). They advocated two sets, awareness and evoked, followed by a choice. This was revisited by Um and Crompton (1992) who then advocated a three-stage model. Regarding the use of information, it was emphasized that prospective tourists rely more on passive information in the early stages. They take into account positive aspects of alternatives (i.e., described as ‘facilitators’) in the early stage and negative aspects of the alternative destination (i.e., described as ‘inhibitors’) in the later stages to reduce risk (Um and Crompton 1992). These studies illustrated neither the use of specific information sources nor the extent of their use. As the focus of these models is to explain a sequential decision-making process consisting of multiple stages of choice sets, it may be reasonably assumed that they paid insufficient attention to the role of information sources.

### **2.5.2 Customer Choice Processes for Tourism Services – A General Systems Framework**

Until recently, the literature has been dominated by models which advocate the general approach of consumers as problem-solvers. Several researchers have questioned this consumer as a problem-solver approach. For example, Woodside and MacDonald (1994: 32) noted that:

While useful, such models fail to capture the rich interactions of decisions and behaviors of the travel party and the destination environment experienced by the travel party. Assuming that many, important-to-the-traveler, trip experiences and purchases are not planned before the start of the trip, situational influences on what the traveler experiences and what s/he buys with her time and money need to be learned.

Based on a comparison with the other travel decision-making process models noted above, Woodside and MacDonald (1994) provided a general systems framework of customer choice processes for tourism services. They introduced the

trip frame concept, which describes a set of interrelated travel choices, including destination, accommodation, activities, attractions, travel route/mode, sub-destinations (and scenic routes), eating, and self-gifts and durable purchases. Different consideration sets, motives and information search procedures may exist for each choice element. Personal characteristics such as demographics and psychological state, group influence, and marketing factors trigger four start nodes of information acquisition and processing sequence. The way of processing information is not fixed but it varies according to each individual tourist. This model was probably the first attempt to provide a framework that comprehensively covers consumer choice of all elements of the holiday itinerary. Its modified models are proposed by Woodside (2000) and Woodside and King (2001), respectively.

There are several important features that differentiate Woodside and MacDonald's model (1994) and its revised versions from other travel decision-making process models. Firstly, as can be seen in Figure 2.2 (p.42), it attempts to cover all travel-related decisions into a single model. With the exception of a vacation tourist behaviour model proposed by Moutinho (1987), most existing studies concerning travel decision-making process regard tourist destination choice as the key element in the process and deal exclusively with this aspect. From a destination marketing perspective, destination choice is clearly of paramount importance in travel decision-making. Nevertheless, destination choice is merely a single element of travel decisions usually undertaken prior to the trip itself and other elements of the travel experience also need to be considered (Dellaert, Ettema, and Lindh 1998; Hyde 2000; Woodside 2000).

The model by Woodside and MacDonald (1994) and its successors explicitly addressed the issue that when multiple decisions are made concerning a trip, they are often strongly interrelated. This may be easily explained using the example of accommodation choice. Accommodation can be limited to the available accommodation at the destination, but also the destination choice will depend upon the type of accommodation required by individuals. Similar dependencies

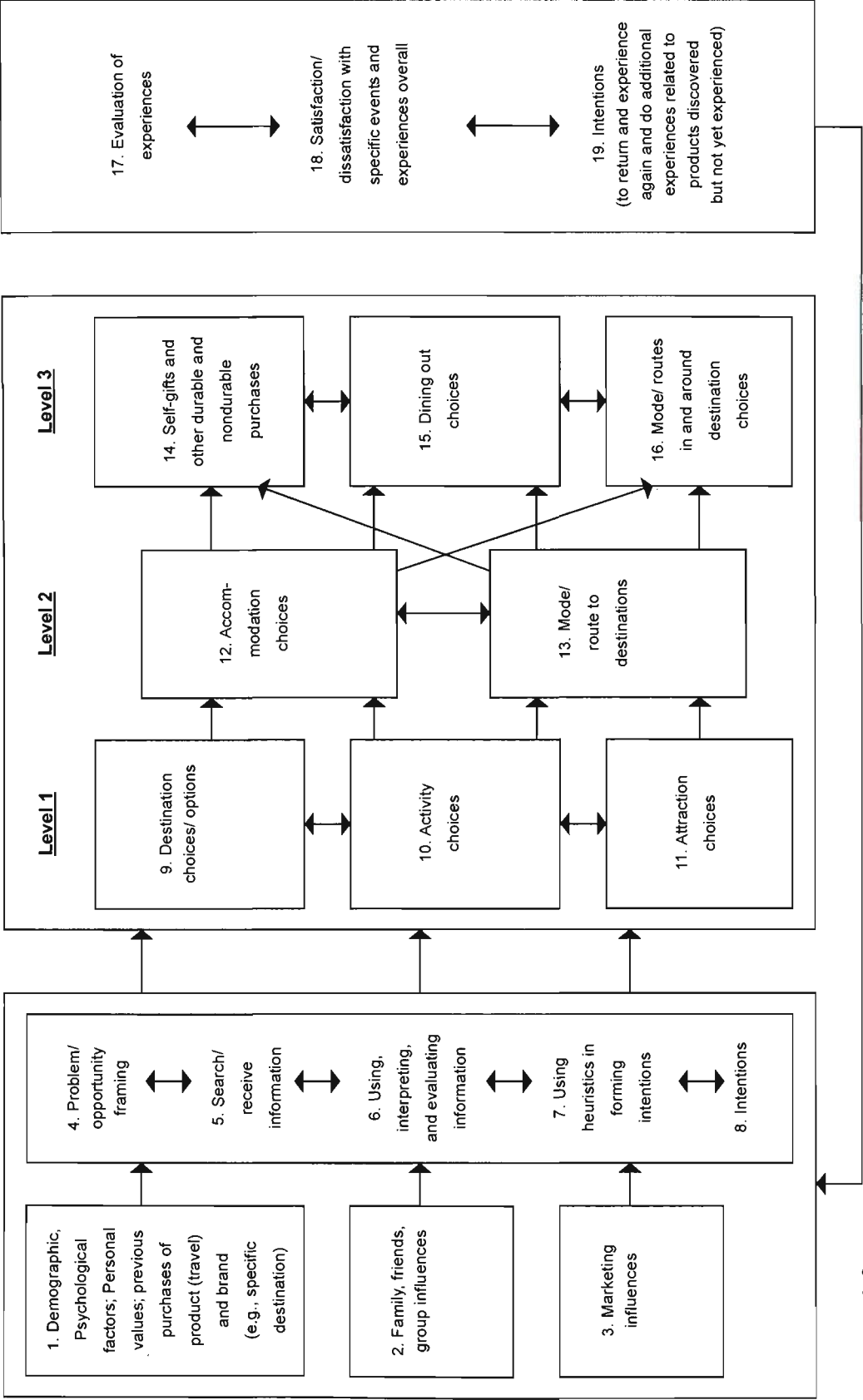


Figure 2.2  
Framework of Purchase-Consumption Systems Applied to Leisure Travel Behavior  
Source: Woodside and King (2001)

exist for most of the decisions that tourists make (Dellaert et al. 1998).

In the model, it is also indicated that choices about each element of the trip may be made at different times, as many tourist choices are made subsequent to the destination choice. These choices often include restaurant decisions, gift purchases, and activity purchases at the destination (Woodside and King 2001). In short, it can be said that travel decisions are not single independent choices about separate elements. The choices about different elements are interrelated and evolve through the decision process over time.

Based on the review of travel decision-making process models in this chapter, consideration is given towards developing a new model which deals with the relationships between travel decision-making and the use of a variety of information, including travel guidebooks, with particular attention given to the 'type of tourist' variable, in **Section 3.2, Chapter 3** (pp.63-68). Subsequently, a model is proposed for the present study, and hypotheses are formulated on the basis of the proposed model.

## **2.6 TRAVEL INFORMATION SEARCH FOR BROADER PURPOSES**

Unlike preceding sections of this chapter that largely reviewed literature related to the search and use of travel information for decision-making purposes, the literature on the search and use of travel information for other, broader purposes is reviewed in this section. Since the present study is an exploratory study, it is important to incorporate wider perspectives on the role and use of travel guidebooks.

Research on travel information search and use are not necessarily confined to the traditional context of 'consumer as a problem-solver'. Mansfeld (1992) stated that, albeit without any empirical evidence, there is a general assumption among tourism researchers that travel information is a risk minimiser, (destination) image creator, and justification mechanism used after the choice is taken. Taking the



example of information sources as ‘image creator’, this itself is an important area of research, because the destination image will influence the individual’s intention to visit, as well as their pre-visit expectations and consequently their post-visit satisfaction (Chon 1992). However, the traditional view of consumer information search is not adequate enough to explain such broad usage.

It can also be argued that the significance of travel information use for broader purposes lies in the need to understand how consumers use travel-related information beyond direct control of travel and destination marketers. In regard to destination image, Gunn (1972) maintained that initial image formation is largely a function of information sources before visiting the destination, and emphasised the distinction between ‘organic image’, resulting from non-touristic information such as TV, films, newspapers, books and magazines, and the ‘induced image’ resulting from promotion by the tourism industry. Whereas the latter can be controlled by cautious marketing efforts, the former is accumulated outside such efforts in the individual’s daily life even when s/he has no intention of undertaking a trip. Given that the use of information without immediate travel decision-making offers the prospect of influencing an individual’s future travel behaviour, it is worth investigating the use of travel information for broader purposes.

### **2.6.1 Ongoing Search**

As outlined earlier in **Section 2.3.1** (p.20-21), traditionally, information search in consumer behaviour literature has focused on prepurchase search, and primarily explained functional information needs within the context of decision-making. Reacting against this mainstream research on information search behaviour, another trend has investigated the non-functional and hedonic aspects of consumer information search. Some consumer behaviour researchers, such as Olshavsky and Granbois (1979) and Bloch, Scherrell, and Ridgway (1986), have argued that consumer search information is carried out not only for making better purchase decisions, but also for acquiring a wealth of product knowledge for further use in decision-making and/or the enjoyment of information search itself. In contrast to

prepurchase search, this type of information search is called 'ongoing search'. Bloch et al. (1986: 120) defined ongoing search as 'search activities that are independent of specific purchase needs or decisions. That is, ongoing search does not occur in order to solve a recognized and immediate purchase problem'. In other words, individuals engaging in ongoing search focus more on the recreational and enjoyment value of the search than on its informational value.

Studies by Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) and Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) in particular have suggested that the basis for information search is partly pleasure-seeking; that is, the process of seeking and acquiring information may provide consumers with a great sense of satisfaction. In these situations, information search activities are not guided by goals or outcomes, but by the process itself (Punj and Staelin 1983). From this perspective, the entire consumption process is viewed not as an effort to find the most efficient solution to a problem, but rather as an experience which the consumer tries to make enjoyable. Therefore, information search may not be performed solely for addressing certain functional needs. Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) and Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) have argued that it may serve other nonfunctional elements of consumption behaviour, which emphasize the aesthetic, affective, hedonic and entertainment aspects.

### **2.6.2 Ongoing Search for Travel Information**

As already noted in **Section 2.3.3** (pp.23-26), most studies on travel information have typically maintained a traditional approach to information consumption and have focused on understanding their use for decision-making (Capella and Greco 1987; Etzel and Wahlers 1985; Fesenmaier and Vogt 1992; Gitelson and Crompton 1983; Nolan 1976; Raitz and Dakhil 1989; Rao, Thomas, and Javalgi 1992; Schul and Crompton 1987; Snepenger 1987; Snepenger et al. 1990). In studies on travel information search, it has often been assumed that individuals collect such information to help them make a variety of decisions required for a trip (Mansfeld 1992; Um and Crompton 1990). Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) further explained that these studies are based on the premise that individuals are

goal directed and are attempting to determine which product should be purchased or how to spend their time during a trip.

Nevertheless, some studies on travel information search have also indicated that use of travel information sources is not necessarily confined to pre-purchase alternative evaluation. A study by Messmer and Johnson (1993) suggested that not all individuals who request information actually visit, or even intend to visit the destination. In other words, travel information is not always used soon after it is obtained and possibly has both short-term and long-term influences. Such information search behaviour can be regarded as ongoing search (Bloch et al. 1986) as outlined in **Section 2.6.1** (pp.44-45). In these cases, information search is about satisfying needs for entertainment purposes, to share with others, to familiarize themselves with places, or to satisfy curiosity (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman 1982). These may all occur before having a clear goal for planning a trip. It was also reported by Fesenmaier et al. (1993) in a study of people who stopped at highway welcome centers that a majority of respondents would use the travel information for a later trip rather than to influence the current trip. Perdue (1993) and Fodness and Murray (1998, 1999) also discussed the existence of ongoing information search in tourism, in which they defined ongoing search as the subscription to certain recreation magazines. Goossens (2000) argued that experiential responses occur during consumption and also in the information gathering and processing stage when tourists are involved with promotional information material (marketing stimuli).

In a summary article of the studies on travel information search, Snepenger and Snepenger (1993) maintained that, for tourists, gathering, processing and evaluating information is an integral part of the travel experience. This comment hinted that the benefit of travel information search is not limited solely to making travel decisions. Although it described the role of travel agent, not the role of travel guidebooks, Cliff and Ryan (1997: 91) pointed out an interesting issue related to travel information: 'the information provided becomes part of the information that determines a holiday-maker's expectations. The travel agent

possesses the means to create the antecedents of success or failure of the holiday.' Travel agents are one source of travel information, and the same level of influence is likely to be applicable to travel guidebooks. Finally, although the focus was not specific to travel guidebooks, when reporting consumer needs in tour brochure design, Hodgson (1990) noted that tour brochures share many similarities with commercial leisure magazines. They may be regarded by users as being 'a good read', whetting the appetite for the vacation products on offer. This observation may apply equally to travel guidebooks. Consumers may read travel guidebooks, without having specific holiday needs, simply because it is 'fun' to do so.

Based on a review of the research on the hedonic aspect of information search by Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) and others, Vogt et al. (1993: 135) maintained that:

... the process of seeking and acquiring travel information may provide travelers a great sense of satisfaction in addition to making vacation decisions. ... it appears that travelers may derive pleasure from at least three different elements of information search. First, travel information may be sought simply to improve oneself by enhancing one's knowledge about a certain place. Second, individuals may seek travel information for aesthetic reasons; that is, to obtain information (i.e., primarily through pictures) that conveys the physical attractiveness of a place. Lastly, information search (i.e., reading, watching films, collecting articles and books) may evoke fantasy-like episodes which, in turn, enables an individual to 'experience' being at that place.

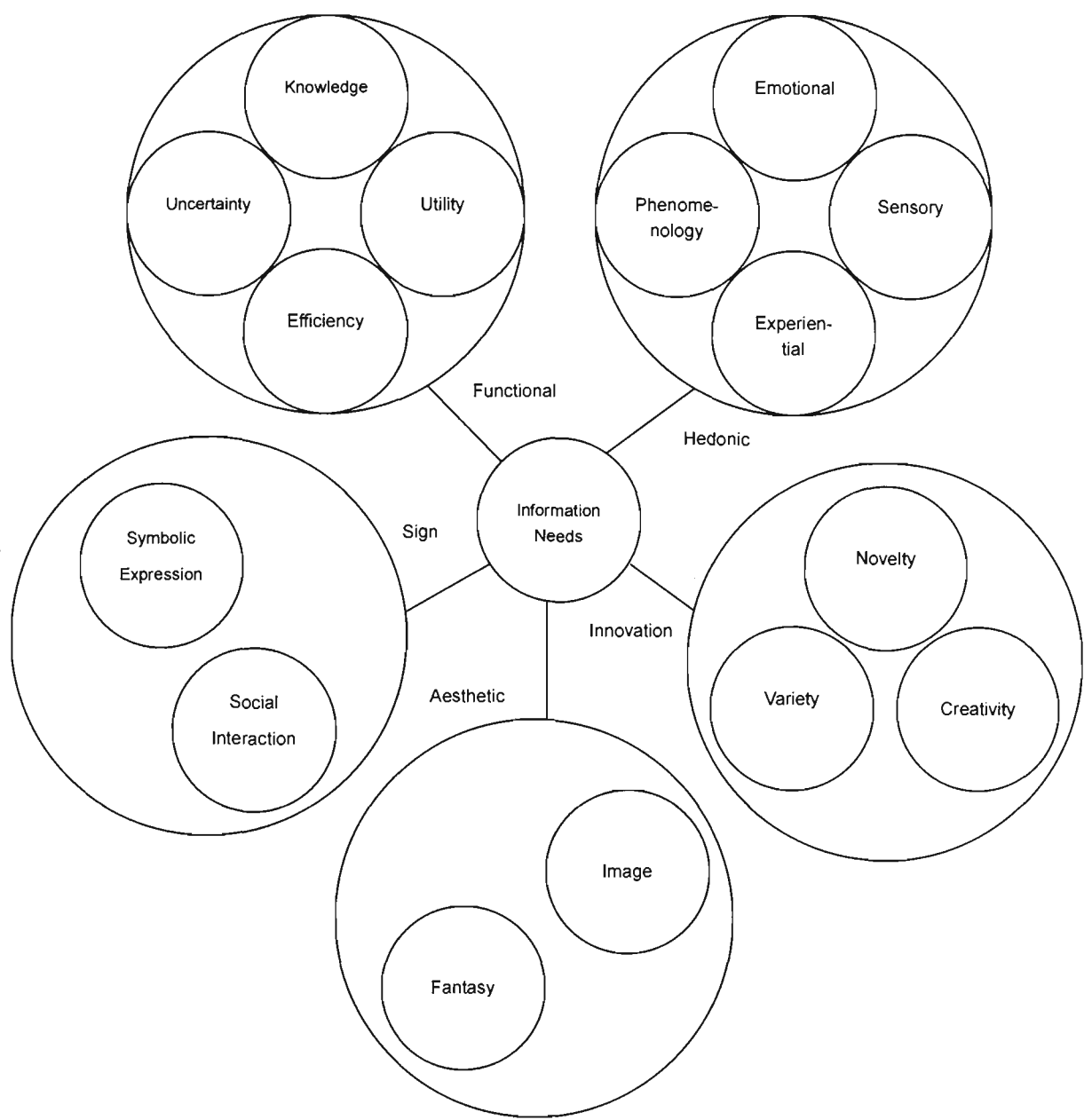
A study by Vogt et al. (1993) investigated both functional and aesthetic (non-functional) information needs in travel information acquisition. They specifically investigated pre-trip information acquisition for short Midwest trips taken by US residents travelling from nearby states, who requested tourism information from DMO. By using multidimensional scaling analysis, the study results suggested that their information needs pertaining to functional decision-making, particularly destination choice, are at the core of information search, whereas aesthetic needs are at the periphery and may therefore be regarded supplementally information needs.

### 2.6.3 Vogt and Fesenmaier's Model of Information Needs

In terms of information needs that motivate travel information search, Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) expanded on their previous study (Vogt et al. 1993) and proposed an information search model that recognises multiple information needs or roles. Besides conventional functional information needs, the model includes four additional needs: hedonic, innovation, aesthetic, and sign needs. Each of the five information needs identified in this model consists of several subconstructs, namely: functional needs (product knowledge, uncertainty, utility, and efficiency); hedonic needs (emotional, sensory, phenomenology, and experiential), innovation needs (novelty seeking, variety seeking, and creativity), aesthetic needs (imagery, and fantasizing), and sign needs (symbolic expression and social interaction), as displayed in Figure 2.3 (p.49). They particularly emphasized that information needs other than functional needs capture psychological, sociological, aesthetical, and symbolic experiences of information search respectively.

Based on this model, Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) conducted an empirical study of those who requested travel information from DMO in the Midwest of the US. Table 2.1 (p.50) shows how the constructs and subconstructs of the model were operationalised in their study. Results of this study showed functional needs as the highest in importance, which supports their previous findings, and other information needs, i.e. innovation, aesthetic, and hedonic needs were rated as second, third, and fourth in importance, respectively. Sign needs were rated as the least important in the process of anticipating a trip or in the time period before taking it. It was reported that information needs were also related to selected tourism psychographic and demographic variables. Hedonic, innovation, and sign needs were positively related to perceived level of tourism experience and skills.

While these studies have highlighted a neglected aspect of travel information search research, it should be noted that both of the empirical studies (Vogt et al. 1993; Vogt and Fesenmaier 1998) were focused on a DMO information pack, with the sample restricted to those who had requested such information. Further examination is required to confirm whether travel information sources are used



**Figure 2.3**  
**Model of Information Needs**

**Source: Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998)**

**Table 2.1**  
**Constructs and Subconstructs of ‘Model of Information Needs’ and the Items Operationalised for the Survey by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998)**

Construct	Subconstruct	Items
Functional Needs	Knowledge	Learn about unique events
		Be well informed
		Learn about prices
		Know about highlights
	Utility	Find bargains
		Get a good deal
	Efficiency	Locate information that is concise
		Be prepared for all aspects
	Uncertainty	Locate best available information
		Reduce the likelihood of disaster
Innovation Needs	Novelty	Reduce likelihood of being disappointed
		Be innovative with my destination
		Find information about new experiences
	Variety	Satisfy my desire to explore some new places
		Insure that I am on the move, doing different things
		Insure I am experiencing all the highlights of a place
	Creativity	Experience a wide assortment of experiences
		Be original with my vacation choices
		Identify original places that few have traveled to
		Think of new strategies for taking vacations
Hedonic Needs	Emotional	Design vacations to meet my wildest dreams
		Excite myself about travel
		Be entertained
	Sensory	Excite myself with unique cultures
		"Hear" the sounds of the ocean
		"Smell" the fresh air
	Experiential	"Taste" those foods I discover
		Experience the local culture
	Phenomenology	Realize experiences that I think about
		Understand the personality of a community
Aesthetic Needs	Image	Wonder about daily life of area
		Think about and see a place
		Consider a place for its attractiveness
	Fantasy	See how beautiful a place is
		Dream of exotic places
		Fantasize about places
Sign Needs	Advisory	Answer other people's questions
		Advise others on vacation matters
	Social	Talk about where I like to go
		Symbolic
	Be thought of by my friends as a good source	
	Indicate that I am an active traveler	

for purposes other than decision-making. This may be achieved with a careful application of Vogt and Fessenmaier's model (1998) to other information sources such as travel guidebooks. For the purposes of the present study, this model is borrowed in order to identify and synthesise a variety of travel guidebook uses. Having searched for literature related to this model, none of the published studies appears to have employed this model for further examination so far. Thus, apart from its original implementation, the present study will provide the first empirical replication of the model.

Besides the model proposed by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998), another potential framework to examine the roles of travel guidebooks may have been provided by Cohen (1985) where he proposed a framework for the social role of tour guides (i.e. human component) including three functions of instrumental leadership, interactional mediation, and communicative mediation. Bhattacharyya (1997) considered the function of travel guidebooks as a surrogate for the tour guide and applied Cohen's framework in her analysis of a travel guidebook, *Lonely Planet India*. Despite the elements of commonality between tour guides and travel guidebooks, the researcher of the present study does not consider it appropriate to apply this framework to travel guidebooks. From a historical perspective, travel guidebooks may initially have been published with a view to substituting tour guides. However, as previously indicated in the literature, their current roles are not mutually interchangeable. Tourists who are escorted by tour guides may still purchase a travel guidebook prior to travel. Unlike the study by Bhattacharyya (1997), the present study therefore does not employ the framework developed by Cohen (1985).

#### **2.6.4 The Role of Travel Guidebooks for Broader Purposes**

The review of related literature has been primarily concerned with the search and use of travel information in general, rather than specifically regarding the topic of travel guidebooks. This is inevitable, because previous studies focusing on tourists' travel guidebooks use from a marketing and consumer behaviour perspective have been limited. This section provides a review of the literature that



has dealt with travel guidebooks to varying degrees. Although most of the literature referred to here is not underpinned by empirical evidence and is often based on the various authors' own assumptions, it should be useful to show the broad roles and uses of travel guidebooks indicated in the existing literature.

Lew's study (1991) is one of the few attempts that dealt with travel guidebooks as a focus of study. Although the study itself involved a content analysis of several travel guidebooks for Singapore, its literature review section provided interesting arguments on the role of travel guidebooks. Substantially, his arguments can be reduced to two points, i.e., '... it (travel literature including travel guidebooks) not only helps shape the expectations, but also the destination behaviour of tourists as they seek to create a restorative experience' (Lew 1991: 126). He particularly emphasized that 'Possibly more important than the factual information they contain, guidebooks provide a framework for experiencing a place' (Lew 1991:126). Similar expression can be found elsewhere. Having completed 55 in-depth interviews with international tourists regarding the use of travel guidebooks, McGregor (2000: 47) concluded that his study 'confirmed that texts provide lenses for viewing the world'. These observations indicate that travel guidebooks facilitate and encourage the formation of certain images of places without actual visitation, which may or may not lead them to the realisation of a trip. As maintained by Carter (1998: 351) in an examination of tourists' social construction of Africa and Asia as risky locations, it can be said that '...the importance of travel guides is that they construct a sense of place for travelers before they have experienced it themselves'.

Lew (1991) and others have also suggested that, in addition to providing a general framework for viewing places, travel guidebooks may influence individual tourists' travel decisions, both positively and negatively. By stressing certain features of a region, travel guidebooks provide 'proportional assertions' (Lew 1991: 126) of what the place is like and what is worth seeing and experiencing. By way of exclusion, they also affect the content of the known and unknown fields of an area. In this sense, travel guidebooks have a critical importance in

labelling both desirable and undesirable aspects of an area and consequently directing tourists to select and comprehend experiences from the range of what is available at the destination (Lew 1991; Carter 1998). The perspectives adapted by travel guidebooks are likely to vary as are their contents (Bhattacharyya 1997; Cater 1998; Lew 1991). However travel guidebooks choose to describe a particular place, whether the tourists accept the place perspective of particular guidebooks or not is dependent upon their individual travel interests and needs (Lew 1991).

Furthermore, as postulated in **Chapter 1**, travel guidebooks may be related to forming images of a destination, which subsequently form expectations and the satisfaction criteria of tourists. From a viewpoint of destination marketing, perceptions of a destination's image held by potential visitors can have significant influence upon the viability and success of a destination as a tourist region (Gartner 1993; Gunn 1972; Hunt 1975). A distinct and favourable destination image will influence the travel decision to visit and spend time at a destination. That is, the more favourable the perception of a given vacation destination, the more preferred that destination will tend to be.

Gunn (1972) regarded image formulation as a process evolving over two stages. In the first stage, an 'organic' image of a destination is formed based on general mass media communications appearing in magazines, newspapers, books, radio and TV programmes, geography books, fiction and non-fiction literatures, education and opinions of family/ friends. 'Organic' images are stubborn and take a long time to change. The second stage, 'induced' image, is formed as destination marketers expose the individual to promotional efforts. As the term implies, it is this stage that the destination marketer can actively influence. Gunn argues that in most cases, a destination can do little to change its organic image but the induced image, through aggressive large scale promotional and publicity efforts can be influenced. Hence, the end goal of 'image building' should be aimed at promoting the modification of an induced image. However, what if some sources of information such as travel guidebooks can influence both organic and induced

images? As already argued in **Section 2.6.2** (p.45-47), the literature indicates that tourists use their travel information on an ongoing basis. As Mansfeld (1992) argued, since it is assumed that various information sources have a differential effect on tourists' image of a destination, it is important to understand their marginal contribution to the development of images.

Some of the roles of travel guidebooks noted above are beyond the traditional scope of information search and use, which focuses on the direct influence on the travel decision-making process. The present study has opted to follow Vogt and Fesenmaier's model of information needs (1998) in attempting to expand on such conventional functional information search models. While the insights into travel guidebooks cited in this section have identified their unique and potentially significant roles (Carter 1998; Lew 1991; McGregor 2000), more empirical research is necessary. This applies not only to the content analysis of travel guidebooks, but to studies of travel guidebook users. This is required to identify the various functions and roles of this information source.

## **2.7 JAPANESE TOURIST BEHAVIOUR**

The present study investigates the role and use of travel guidebooks by Japanese overseas tourists. Having reviewed the literature related to the research framework of this study, this section provides some background to the study population, Japanese outbound tourists and particularly their travel-related behaviour. This section comprises three subsections: a brief description on the Japanese outbound tourism market; characteristics of Japanese travel behaviour, and the use by Japanese tourists of information sources.

### **2.7.1 An Overview of the Japanese Outbound Tourism Market**

The number of Japanese travelling abroad in 2002 totalled 16,522,804, which was an increase of 307,147 or 1.9% over the previous year (Kokudokotsusho 2003). Japanese outbound travel expanded dramatically throughout the second half of the Twentieth Century. Since government restrictions on international outbound travel

were lifted in 1964, there have been only four calendar years which recorded a decrease in Japanese outbound travellers: 1980 (the second oil crisis), 1991 (Gulf War), 1998 (Japanese recession), and 2001 (September 11 terrorist attacks).

The decade from 1986 to 1995 in particular witnessed a sharp increase of the number of Japanese overseas travellers, increasing from 5.5 million to 15.3 million (Kokudokotsusho 2003). Murakami and Go (1990) summarised four underlining factors for this steady growth: (1) The reduced cost of foreign travel from 1985 due to the stronger Japanese currency vis-à-vis other major currencies; (2) expansion in the variety of package tours available to consumers; (3) Many young Japanese, particularly unmarried females between 20 to 30 years of age living with their families, having sufficient discretionary income to travel abroad; and (4) the discovery by the Japanese government that overseas travel could be used to counter the 'trade surplus' problem, and launching of a plan in 1986 to encourage ten million Japanese people to travel abroad annually within the following five years.

Since 1996, following this period of rapid growth, the number of outbound Japanese tourists per annum has been relatively stable at around 16 million, which is approximately 13% of the population of the country. While male travellers accounted for 55.2 % and female for 44.8% in 2002, the proportion of males has been gradually decreasing and the total numbers heading towards equal numbers. Based on gender and age, the largest segment in 2002 was females in their 20s (13.6%), followed by males in their 30s (12.1%) (Kokudokotsusho 2003). In a 2002 survey, it was reported that 44.8% of Japanese respondents over 15 years of age had prior overseas travel experience, in which 15.7% had travelled once, 25.1% had travelled 2-9 times, and 4.0 % had travelled more than ten times (JTB corp. 2002).

### **2.7.2 The Characteristics of Japanese Outbound Tourists**

A significant historical characteristic of Japanese outbound travel since 1964 has been a heavy reliance on package tours. Package tours have been the predominant

mode of overseas travel amongst Japanese for a number of reasons: time constraints, safety, the need to overcome language and cultural difficulties, and a gentle introduction to overseas travel. It provided an avenue to overcome many of these problems for less experienced Japanese outbound tourists especially in the growth period of the 1970s and 1980s, and it quickly established itself as the preferred mode of overseas travel in the market. Carlile (1996) suggested that, because Japanese were generally less confident in communicating in foreign languages, they preferred travelling with package tours through which they could obtain the services and security of a tour guide who could mediate between them and the host community at the overseas destination. Package tours also made possible the purchase of transportation, accommodation, and tour services at discounted rates, a practice that was essential, especially in keeping tour costs within the reach of consumers when the market was rapidly expanding (Carlile 1996; Tamamura 2002).

Although the proportion of package tours in the Japanese outbound tourism market has been generally decreasing, it remains a significant characteristic of Japanese overseas travel (Yamamoto and Gill 2000). According to one of the most intensive ongoing studies of Japanese overseas travel trends compiled by the research unit of Japan Travel Bureau (JTB) (JTB corp. 2002), the most common form of outbound tourism participation among Japanese in 2002 was through package tours. These package trips accounted for 51.1% of trips, followed by individually arranged travel at 33.9% and group travel (arranged tour for a special group) at 6.7%. In the Japanese market, package tours do not necessarily mean the full, comprehensive package tour in which participants are accompanied by tour leaders and/or local tour guides and in which meals and sightseeing are included. Flexible package tours (frequently called 'free-time package tours or 'skeleton tours') have gained increasing popularity since the Gulf War in 1991, and usually include a return air ticket, accommodation and airport transfer to and from the airport at the destination (Options to add short guided trips from the destination or activities to the tour are usually available). Overall, full package tours account for 30.6%, and free-time type tours 24.8% of all overseas trips (JTB corp. 2002).

One study provides an insightful analysis of the nature of Japanese overseas package tours. In a historical comparative study of package tours between the UK and Japan, Tamamura (2002) concluded that, especially in 1970s and 1980s, while outbound package tours in the UK can be regarded as 'homogeneous products with heterogeneous nature', Japanese outbound package tours can be characterised as 'heterogeneous products with homogeneous nature'. In other words, the Japanese market offered a variety of package tours in terms of choice of destination, airline, accommodation, meal choice etc., but the basic travel pattern and travel behaviour of individual package tour participants at the destination was almost identical. He observed differences in the UK equivalent, where the destination was usually limited to Mediterranean resorts with the use of charter flights and standardised accommodation, but where the travel behaviour of tour participants at the destination was diverse. Although the study did not attribute the difference to any particular reason, it provided evidence that the behaviour of package tour participants varies according to nationality and/or the culture.

A number of previous studies on the Japanese outbound market in English have focused on the characteristics of Japanese tourist behavior from a cultural perspective (Ahmed and Krohn 1992; Dace 1995; Keown 1989; Lang, O'Leary, J.T., and Morrison 1993; Nozawa 1992; Polunin 1989; Ziff-Levine 1990). Most of these have cited Hofstede's study (1980) on Japanese cultural orientation. According to Hofstede's research, the Japanese belong to the high uncertainty avoidance culture (avoid conflict, competition and risk-taking to preserve social harmony) and appear to be collectivist in nature (foster the development of strong cohesive groups and focus on group needs). Along with such Japanese behaviour in general, Ahmed and Krohn (1992) examined the characteristics of the consumer behaviour of Japanese tourists, focusing on the cultural differences between Japanese and Americans. A sense of belongingness was postulated as the primary motivation to travel in groups, because of the value placed within Japanese culture on collectivism. According to Ahmed and Krohn (1992), ten major elements in Japanese culture influence their consumer behaviour, which are:

- 1) belongingness (travelling in groups and seeking comfort in togetherness)
- 2) family influence (purchasing gifts for close friends and family members and reciprocating);
- 3) empathy (projecting the feelings of others and not expressing true personal feelings, including displeasure)
- 4) dependency (being loyal and devoted in exchange for security and protection);
- 5) hierarchical acknowledgement (behaving in accordance to social status);
- 6) propensity to save (accumulating funds for an emergency and saving for a the purchase of a house to overcome feelings of insecurity);
- 7) the concept of *kinen* (collecting evidence of travel to prestigious tourist destinations);
- 8) tourist photography (importance of photography);
- 9) passivity (avoidance of participating in physical activities); and
- 10) risk avoidance (avoidance of adventurous leisure pursuits).

Such Japanese cultural characteristics are likely to have implications for their use of travel information sources. Chen (2000) undertook a study which attempted to investigate this issue. In explaining the unique preferences for external information sources used by Japanese, South Korean and Australian visitors to the US, he evoked the collectivism/individualism construct. Specifically, business travellers from highly collectivistic Japan and Korea relied heavily on tour companies, corporate travel offices, travel guidebooks and advice from friends and relatives; while business travellers from the individualistic Australian society preferred gaining their information directly from the airlines and US state/city travel offices. However, the collectivism trait was less clear among leisure travellers. Japanese and Australian leisure visitors showed individualistic tendencies in their search strategies while Korean visitors evoked collectivistic information search behaviours. As concluded by the author, the collectivist framework may be too limited in identifying culture-specific information search strategies in a broad cross-cultural context.

Elsewhere, Reisinger and Turner (1999) referred to Hofstede's argument (1980) about general Japanese characteristics in outlining the use of information sources by Japanese tourists. According to these authors, as members of a high uncertainty avoidance culture, Japanese tourists have a strong need to avoid any possible risk associated with their travel. Thus, the type of information and its source depend on what type of risk tourists might experience and which types of risk particular tourism products create for tourists.

Although these studies offered only generalized remarks with little empirical evidence based on market data, they have nonetheless provided a useful insight into the characteristics of Japanese tourists. These observed characteristics of Japanese tourists may provide useful points of reference when the empirical results of the present study are interpreted.

The shorter duration of overseas travel is another distinct characteristic of Japanese tourists reported in the literature (Carlile 1996; Jansen-Verbake 1994; Mok and Lam 2000; Nozawa 1992). In 2002, the average length of an overseas trip by Japanese tourists was 8.4 days (Kokudokotsusho 2003). The literature has attributed this short stay to difficulty in taking holidays and long working hours of Japanese workers (*The Economist* 1998; Nozawa 1992). As noted earlier in **Section 2.4.3** (p.31), the duration of a trip is widely considered to be a factor influencing travel information search (Etzel and Wahlers 1985; Fodness and Murray 1997, 1999; Gitelson and Crompton 1983; Snepenger et al. 1990; Woodside and Ronkainen 1980). Given the likely implications of the shorter stay at overseas destinations by Japanese tourists, empirical research is clearly needed.

### **2.7.3 The Use of Information Sources by Japanese Outbound Tourists**

There are several empirical studies which dealt with the search and use of travel information by Japanese outbound tourists. Most of these studies have treated Japanese tourists as a single group amongst multiple nationalities in an international comparative study. A common finding among these studies is the preference amongst Japanese tourists for printed media relative to tourists from



other countries.

Uysal et al. (1990) examined sources of information used by international visitors to US national parks and natural areas. A common finding among the British, Germans, French, and Japanese was that international visitors used multiple information sources, including the print medium, WoM, and travel agents. Japanese visitors relied heavily on print media, including 'books and the library' and 'brochures and pamphlets'. The results also showed that international visitors from UK and Japan made less use of 'WoM' and 'family or friends' as information sources than German and French visitors.

A study by Mihalik et al. (1995) examined the information sources used by Japanese and German tourists when they determine their top five overseas vacation destinations. A common finding was that both the Japanese and Germans used multiple sources of information when planning a trip. It is worth noting that while both groups used travel agents extensively as their first point of information, the Japanese relied more heavily on print media including brochures, books/library and newspapers/magazines for their second, third, and sixth choices, respectively, whereas the Germans relied more heavily on WoM from friends and family members.

Milner et al. (2000) conducted a survey of Japanese tourists to Alaska to investigate information sources used to inspire their trip, information sources used to plan their trip, trip-planning behaviours, as well as trip satisfaction. Results show that the most influential sources for triggering interest in travelling to Alaska were in order 'friends', 'travel guides', 'brochures', and 'TV shows'. It was also revealed that 'brochures', 'travel guides', and 'friends' were three major sources of trip planning information. Clearly, the respondents relied on sources originating in Japan.

Andersen et al. (2000) conducted a study of Japanese independent travellers in Scotland. They found that the most frequently referred travel decision information source for Scotland was 'friends and relatives' (44.3%), but the second and third rated sources were both travel guidebooks, namely 'unspecified travel guidebooks' (38.4%) and a popular Japanese travel guidebook series, '*Chikyu no Arukikata*', (29.4%) respectively.

In each of these studies, Japanese tourists appear to make greater use of printed media generally. It may be assumed that the reliance on print media could be due to their difficulty in communicating in the local language at overseas destinations. As pointed out by Milner et al. (2000), part of this reason may be derived from their preference for sources originating in their own country. In other cases, they may perceive printed media as being more authoritative sources of information. Graburn (1995: 48) found that Japanese tourists were characterized by a tendency to visit only "well-known 'culturally approved' attractions", such as those featured in travel guidebooks.

## 2.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the literature relevant to the present study has been reviewed. Following a search of the literature, four main areas were investigated: travel information search for the purposes of decision-making; factors influencing the search for travel information; travel information sources in travel decision-making process models; and, travel information search for general purposes. The traditional view concerning travel information search and use for decision-making was outlined, and nine factors influencing travel information search behaviour were listed. Among these factors, it was also shown that 'type of tourist' factor (e.g., package tour participant or independent traveller) deserves further examination in relation to the search and use of travel information. In addition, existing travel decision-making process models were critiqued for failing to recognise the 'type of tourist' factor within the process. This element is likely to influence the associated travel decisions. In addition to the traditional perspective on travel information search, it was proposed that travel guidebooks should be

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examined in a broader context.

This exploratory study considers the role and use of travel guidebooks for both decision-making and other purposes. From the decision-making perspective, the focus is on the ‘type of tourist’ factor. For the second perspective, it attempts to identify any additional purposes, or needs, that apply to travel guidebooks. In the next chapter, the conceptual framework, hypotheses, and research questions are discussed and presented.

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## CHAPTER 3

### TRAVEL DECISION-MAKING, INFORMATION SOURCES AND INFORMATION NEEDS

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#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

**Chapter 2** provided a review of the literature related to the present study. In this chapter, the research framework for the present study is introduced.

In order to explore the role and use of travel guidebooks, two conceptual models are proposed for the purpose of the present study in this chapter. The first deals with the relationship between travel decision-making and the use of a variety of information sources, including travel guidebooks, with particular interest in the ‘type of tourist’ variable. Within this model, the use of information sources is provisionally confined to a traditional decision-making purpose, which is derived from functional needs. Following the descriptions and discussion on this model, **Hypotheses** based on the model are formulated and presented. The second model for the present study is adopted from the model by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998), which extends beyond functional needs to consider other needs of travel information search and use. **Research Questions** based on the second model are subsequently formulated and presented.

#### 3.2 A MODEL OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAVEL DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES AND USE OF INFORMATION SOURCES

Having reviewed several existing models of the travel decision-making process in **Chapter 2**, a model of the travel decision-making process, which also considers the use of various information sources, is presented in this section. Prior to describing the model, considerations drawn for the purposes of the present study from the literature reviewed in **Section 2.5.2**, in **Chapter 2** (pp.40-43) are noted

as follows.

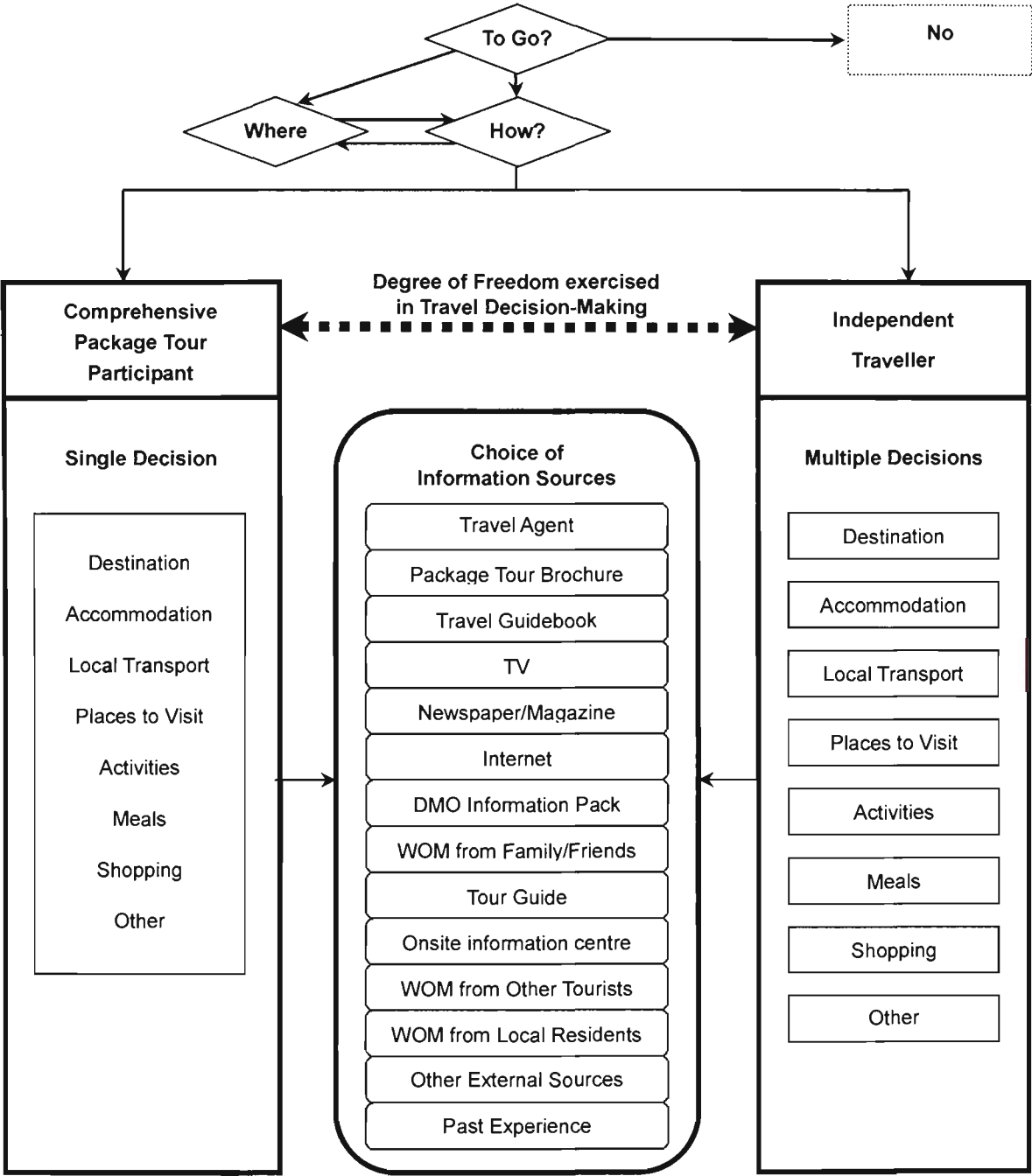
As shown in Figure 2.2 (p.42), the perspectives on travel decision-making by Woodside and MacDonald (1994), Woodside (2000), and Woodside and King (2001) show how complex and flexible the process is. They do however, only represent decision-making processes on the part of independent tourists, and those who travel as members of package tours are not considered. When a tourist undertakes multiple travel decisions, the individual choices may be made in different ways, and the selection of various travel components may depend on the type of tourist. Among several studies that provide insights into the different travel decision-making processes undertaken by different types of trip, most focus on the distinction between package tour participants and independent travellers (Hsieh et al. 1994; Morrison et al. 1994). To illustrate this with an extreme example, participants in comprehensive package tours are generally not required to make multiple decisions, since their only decision is 'which tour?'. For such tourists, travel decision-making is 'all-in-one'. On the other hand, travel decision-making by independent travellers involves multiple decisions, starting from 'which destination?' to 'which restaurant for dinner?' (these decisions were described in the models by Woodside and others (1994; 2000; 2001)). A study on independent travellers by Hyde (2000) provides some support for distinct decision-making process by such type of tourists, reporting that approximately 80% of vacation elements were neither specifically nor generally planned. This finding indicates the inherent flexibility of independent holiday itineraries and a likelihood of en route travel decision-making. Therefore, when a travel decision-making process concerning multiple travel elements is considered, it is more appropriate to take account of the difference of the degree of choice between package tour participants and independent travellers.

The way information is searched for and used needs to be re-examined in the context of the travel decision-making processes of both independent travellers and package tour tourists. For independent travellers, the travel decision process may be a continuing process that continues during travel, and external information

search is likely to be occurring simultaneously. In other words, prepurchase search is likely to be extended to during travel. Therefore, external information search does not necessarily occur within a decision process only at a specific point in time (i.e. prior to travel). Rather, it involves every phase of the travel decision process. Having left for a destination, independent travellers continue to undertake en route/onsite information search and an information acquisition process. To date, studies available on en route travel information search have mainly focussed on the use of highway visitor centers in the US (Fesenmaier 1994; Fesenmaier et al. 1993; Gitelson and Perdue 1987). Although it is likely that information sources available to travellers during travel are different from those available at their origin, there have been no detailed studies dealing with choice of information sources during travel. The present study thus attempts to investigate the use of various information sources, including travel guidebooks, both prior to and during travel.

A model of the travel decision-making process and use of information sources is proposed for the purposes of the present study in Figure 3.1 (p.66). The first phase in the proposed model is the generic decision about whether or not to have a holiday. This phase is included in this model in order to emphasize the presence of two options in the next phase, rather than to address various holiday motivations. If the decision is made to proceed with a holiday, the second phase follows, including interrelated decisions about 'where' and 'how' to go (Woodside and MacDonald 1994; Woodside 2000; and Woodside and King 2001).

With regard to 'how' to go, the type of tourist is considered and a continuum of tourists is proposed based on the degree of freedom exercised in travel decision-making. A similar tourist classification system has been adopted by Yamamoto and Gill (2000), though they did not describe it by using a continuum approach. The continuum has comprehensive package tour participants at one end of the spectrum and independent travellers at the other. It is assumed that a wide variety of tourists are situated between these two extremes based on the degree of freedom, or flexibility, that they exercise over their travel decision-making. This



WOM: Word-of-Mouth  
DMO: Destination Marketing Organisation

**Figure 3.1**  
**Proposed Model of the Travel Decision-Making Process and Use of Information Sources**

concept can also be operationalised by the inclusivity of tour elements in a package tour (Sheldon and Mak 1987). The continuum aims to be inclusive of tourists of all types. Package tour participants without any meal arrangements may be located closer to the left of the spectrum. Independent travellers who book accommodation prior to their trip are found near the right of the spectrum, and tourists who buy a basic package tour, or so-called 'free time tour' or 'skeleton tour' (consists of air ticket, accommodation and transportation from and to the destination airport only) may be located somewhere between the two. The model assumes that comprehensive package tour participants make a single decision, namely the choice of tour, whereas independent travellers need to make multiple decisions. It is also assumed that this difference results in their varied choice and use of information sources. The continuum aims to acknowledge the likelihood that different segments of the market make distinct use of travel information sources.

Travel information sources considered in the model include one internal source, that is past experience, and 13 broadly categorized external sources: travel agent; package tour brochure; travel guidebook; TV; newspaper/magazine; DMO information pack; WoM from friends and relatives; tour guide; onsite information center; WoM from other tourists; WoM from local residents; and other source. As indicated in the literature, the use of travel information sources may differ depending on the type of tourist. Comprehensive package tour participants need to make only a single decision ('which tour?'). It may be assumed that, once they choose a tour, they do not require any information sources for the decision-making purpose, and consequently do not use the information sources that are only available at the destination. In contrast, independent travellers are unlikely to use tour operator brochures and travel agents for their travel decision-making. Recent research indicates that, in the case of independent travellers to New Zealand, a majority of the information search and planning occurred after arrival at the destination. Detailed plans for choice of attractions and activities are made only for the immediate 24-hour period (Hyde 2000). This suggests that independent travellers seek detailed information on a sub-destination



from the information sources available during the trip, only when approaching that sub-destination.

It may be assumed that the closer the tourist is located towards the right of the continuum (the more freedom in travel decision-making), the more likely that travel guidebooks will be used. This is because such tourists may have to deal with multiple decisions even during travel. Travel guidebooks are one of the few information sources available both prior to and during travel.

Besides the 'type of tourist' factor, which is the main feature of the model and is emphasized in the form of a continuum, literature review in **Section 2.4**, in **Chapter 2** (pp.26-37) identified other factors which are likely to influence the use of information sources: purpose of travel; duration of trip; destination region; previous visitation to the destination; general travel experience; and fluency in host language. Although these factors are not incorporated into the model for reasons of simplicity, they are considered in analysing the empirical data for the present study.

The development of this new model should fill a gap in the literature on the use of information sources for travel decision-making from consumer behaviour perspectives. The model considers the relationship between travel decision-making and the use of information sources on the basis of the type of tourist. As such, it does not aim to illustrate the use of travel information sources for purposes other than decision-making. However, as pointed out in **Section 2.6** in **Chapter 2** (pp.43-54), recent studies suggested that travel information sources can also be used for broader purposes. Hence, a model which attempts to demonstrate various needs for travel guidebooks is presented later in Figure 3.2 (p.74), to supplement the model introduced in this section.

**Hypotheses** formulated based on Figure 3.1 (p.66) are presented in the next section.

### **3.3 HYPOTHESES**

In developing hypotheses for the present study, there are three aspects which need to be considered: the use of travel guidebooks in general or by different types of tourist; temporal dimension of travel information use; and the division of 'use' and 'usefulness evaluation' of travel guidebooks for travel decision-making.

Firstly, as an exploratory study, the present study is concerned with the use of travel guidebooks for decision-making by all kinds of tourists in general in relation to other information sources. It is also concerned with examining the use of travel guidebooks for decision-making across different types of tourist as illustrated in Figure 3.1 (p.66) in relation to other information sources. Past studies have suggested that use of travel information sources for decision-making purposes depends on the type of tourist (Bieger and Laesser 2001; Snepenger 1987), which can also be expressed as the degree of 'freedom' that tourists exercise in their decision-making as discussed earlier in this chapter. For tourists who exercise greater 'freedom' in their decision-making (i.e. independent travellers), the travel decision process may be a continuing process that continues during the trip, and information search is likely to be occurring simultaneously. If such tourists rely on travel information sources which are readily available to them during travel, it is highly likely that they would use travel guidebooks. Hence, it is assumed that the perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks may vary according to the type of tourist, since the degree of 'freedom' exercised in their decision-making varies. This may be expressed by comparing different types of tourists as well as comparing various information sources.

Secondly, temporal dimension of travel information use needs to be taken into consideration. Although there have been studies that indicated the importance or usefulness of travel guidebooks for tourists in comparison with other information sources (Gitelson and Crompton 1983; Nolan 1976; Snepenger et al. 1990), they did not specify the stage at which they are considered to be important or useful. In tourism research, the five phase model of Clawson and Kenetch (1966) is often cited, and Vogt and Stewart (1998) attempted to follow information use by

tourists through all phases. There is a variable range of information sources available to tourists prior to and during travel. Most research on travel decision-making has focused on destination choice which normally occurs prior to departure. In practice, tourists may make many choices regarding other travel components (such as activities and eating places) during the course of the actual trip rather than prior to the commencement of the trip and therefore the relationship between travel decisions and the use of information sources should be considered in the periods of both prior to and during travel. To date, there have been few studies available on en route travel information search and use, and they have mainly focused on the use of highway visitor centers in the US (Fesenmaier, 1994; Fesenmaier et al. 1993; Gitelson and Perdue 1987). For the purposes of the present study, it is useful to examine the relative use of travel guidebooks at different stages of travel, such as 'prior to' and 'during'.

Thirdly, the division of 'use' and 'usefulness evaluation' needs to be considered in formulating hypotheses. There have been numerous studies which attempted to measure the use of information sources by tourists or potential tourists. Referring to the data collection about the use of information sources, Snepenger et al. (1990) argued that a more sensitive approach should be adopted than had been the case in a number of studies including their own, which employed a use/not use dichotomous format. In a similar vein, Fesenmaier and Vogt (1992) pointed to the importance of perceived utility (or usefulness) in the case of tourism information needs. Therefore, in the present study, the use of travel guidebooks will be explored in terms of both 'use' and 'usefulness'.

By incorporating the above three aspects, the following eight **Hypotheses** concerning the use of travel guidebooks for decision-making in relation to other information sources were developed.

**Hypothesis 1:**

**For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by all tourists prior to the travel stage.**

Hypothesis 1 concerns the use of travel guidebooks during the prior to travel stage.

**Hypothesis 2:**

**For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered by all tourists as more useful than other information sources prior to the travel stage.**

Hypothesis 2 concerns the perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks during the prior to travel stage.

**Hypothesis 3:**

**For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by all tourists during the travel stage.**

Hypothesis 3 concerns the use of travel guidebooks during the travel stage.

**Hypothesis 4:**

**For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered by all tourists as more useful than other information sources during the travel stage.**

Hypothesis 4 concerns the perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks during the travel stage.

**Hypothesis 5:**

**For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater 'freedom' in their decision-making prior to the travel stage.**

Hypothesis 5 concerns the use of travel guidebooks across different types of tourist based on the degree of 'freedom' in decision-making prior to the travel stage.

**Hypothesis 6:**

**For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered as a more useful information source than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater ‘freedom’ in their decision-making prior to the travel stage.**

Hypothesis 6 concerns the perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks across different types of tourist based on the degree of ‘freedom’ in decision-making prior to the travel stage.

**Hypothesis 7:**

**For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater ‘freedom’ in their decision-making during the travel stage.**

Hypothesis 7 concerns the use of travel guidebooks across different types of tourist based on the degree of ‘freedom’ in decision-making during the travel stage.

**Hypothesis 8:**

**For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered as a more useful information source than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater ‘freedom’ in their decision-making during the travel stage.**

Hypothesis 8 concerns the perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks across different types of tourist based on the degree of ‘freedom’ in decision-making during the travel stage.

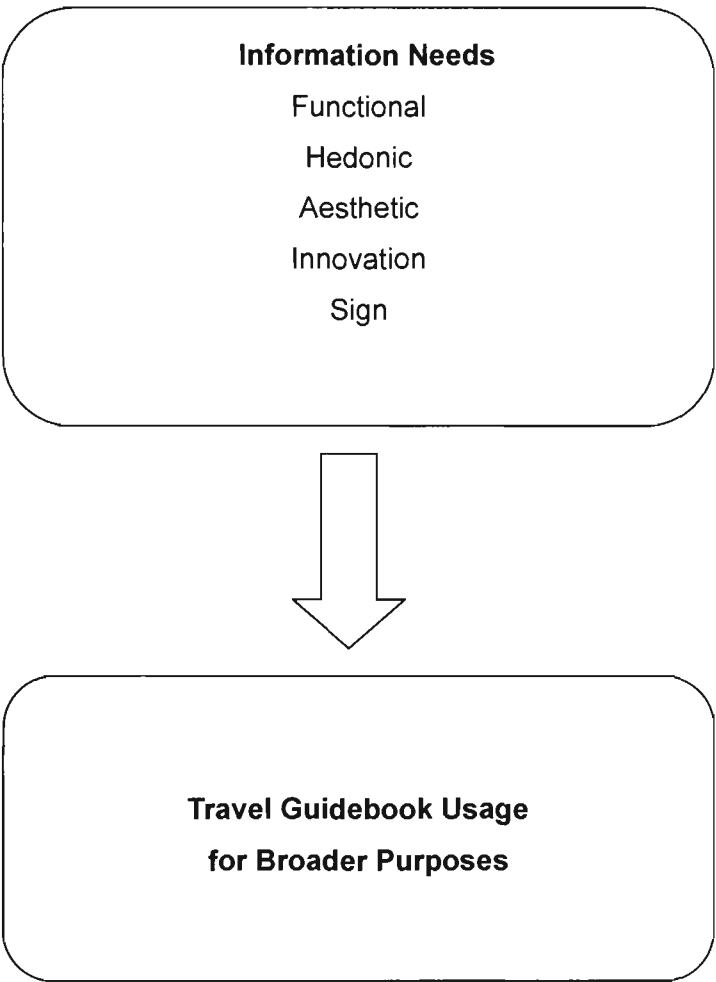
These hypotheses are tested in quantitative research for the present study, which is reported in **Chapters 5, 6, and 7.**

### 3.4 A MODEL OF TRAVEL GUIDEBOOK USAGE FOR BROADER PURPOSES

The hypotheses outlined in the previous section concern the use and perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks for decision-making purposes, i.e., to fulfill functional needs. Along with such traditional lines of research on the search and use of information sources, the present study aims at exploring travel guidebook usage for broader purposes. As noted in **Section 2.6** in **Chapter 2** (pp.43-54), results of several previous empirical studies have indicated that use of travel information sources is not necessarily confined to prepurchase, decision-making purposes, but also ongoing, non-functional purposes (Fesenmaier et al. 1993; Messmer and Johnson 1993; Perdue 1993). It therefore appears that the roles and use of travel guidebooks are not necessarily confined to being a tool for making travel decisions. In this section, a model which addresses broader usages is proposed.

An expanded approach to travel information search has been proposed by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998), where in addition to traditional functional purposes (i.e., related to travel decision-making), travel information is also searched for and used for social, entertainment, visual, and creative purposes. Their 'model of information needs' recognises multiple information needs of tourists, consisting of five constructs and sixteen subconstructs, namely: functional needs (product knowledge, uncertainty, utility, and efficiency); hedonic needs (emotional, sensory, phenomenology, and experiential), innovation needs (novelty seeking, variety seeking, and creativity), aesthetic needs (imagery, and fantasizing), and sign needs (symbolic expression and social interaction) (see Figure 2.3, p.49). This model was empirically tested on those who requested travel information from a Midwest US destination organization. The results were largely shown to support its constructs and subconstructs.

For the purposes of the present study, a model of travel guidebook usage for broader purposes is proposed on the basis of the Vogt and Fesenmaier's conceptualization (1998) (Figure 3.2, p.74). The proposed model is aimed at



**Figure 3.2**  
**Proposed Model of Travel Guidebook Usage for Broader Purposes**  
**Adopted from Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998)**

indicating that multiple information needs lead to the use of travel guidebooks for broader purposes. It has to be noted that the needs, or constructs, included in the model should be considered tentatively at this stage and can be modified later. This is based on two reasons. Firstly, the scope of the present study is different from Vogt and Fesenmaier's (1998), where the model was developed based on the responses from those who requested information from a DMO. Secondly, the present study is exploratory in nature, and thus it is concerned with investigating unknown dimensions of the use of travel guidebooks. For these reasons, only the constructs of Vogt and Fesenmaier's model are tentatively adopted in the proposed model and the subconstructs are disregarded. Based on this model, research questions are formulated as shown in the next section.

### 3.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

For the purposes of the present study, the following general exploratory research questions have been formulated on the basis of the model shown in Figure 3.2 (p.74).

#### **Research Question 1:**

**Is the use of travel guidebooks restricted to prepurchase search for travel decision-making? If not, what are their other uses?**

In elaborating this research question, the present study tentatively adopted the following four constructs in Vogt and Fesenmaier model (1998), as 'non-functional needs'.

#### ***Hedonic Needs***

Reading travel guidebooks can be a pleasure. Individuals without specific travel plans may use travel guidebooks for the purpose of enjoyment. A hedonic perspective involves capturing the psychological or pleasure experiences that often occur during information use (Bloch et al 1986; Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). According to Vogt and Fesenmaier's conceptualisation (1998), hedonic



needs consist of four sub-concepts: emotional; phenomenology; experimental; and sensory.

### ***Aesthetic Needs***

Travel guidebooks usually contain photographs and descriptions about places. These may provide visual stimulation for the imagination and for fantasy. Unlike functional needs, the nature of aesthetic objects and experiences is abstract, subjective, nonutilitarian, unique, and holistic (Hirschman 1983). According to Vogt and Fesenmaier's conceptualisation (1998), aesthetic needs consists of two sub-constructs: imagery and fantasy.

### ***Innovation Needs***

Innovation implies that an individual has a strong inclination to adopt new products and information (Hirschman 1980). In Vogt and Fesenmaier's conceptualisation (1998), innovation needs consist of three concepts, namely, novelty seeking, variety seeking, and creativity.

### ***Sign Needs***

According to Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998), the sign need construct is defined by symbolic expressions and social interaction.

It should be noted that the focus of the present study differs from Vogt and Fesenmaier's study (1998) and the study populations are mutually exclusive. Therefore, for the purposes of the present study, these constructs may be considered as tentative and subject to modification if they are found to be inappropriate for the purposes of this study.

### **Research Question 2:**

**Are there any differences in needs for travel guidebooks between users and non-users of travel guidebooks for a particular trip?**

The present study does not assume that travel guidebooks are used by all tourists. Rather, it expects that there are both, those tourists who use travel guidebooks and those who do not. This research question aims to explore whether these two groups of tourists have different needs toward travel guidebooks. In answering **Research Question 1**, the present study attempts to identify various needs for travel guidebooks. The research question utilises these needs in examining differences between travel guidebook users and non-users for a trip.

**Research Question 3:**

**Are there any differences in characteristics between travel guidebook users and non-users for a particular trip?**

While **Research Question 2** looks at differences between travel guidebook users and non-users in their needs for travel guidebooks, this research question concerns differences in their characteristics. As summarized in **Section 2.4** in **Chapter 2** (pp.26-37), several factors which may influence the search for travel information have been suggested in previous studies. In examining this research question, the present study employs such selected factors to explore the characteristics of travel guidebook users and non-users, namely; type of tourist; purpose of travel; duration of trip; destination region; previous visitation to the destination region; previous overseas travel experience; fluency in host language. The objective of this research question is to provide a general picture of who are more likely to be travel guidebook users/non-users.

**Research Question 4:**

**Are there any differences in needs for travel guidebooks among tourists according to the factors influencing the search for travel information?**

While **Research Question 2** looks at differences in needs for travel guidebooks between travel guidebook users and non-users, this research question concerns

differences in needs across a range of groups of tourist categorised by factors influencing the search for travel information. The factors employed in this research question are the same as the factors employed in **Research Question 3**. In the literature, these factors have been suggested to have an influence on the search for travel information in the context of prepurchase search. Relevance of these factors to other contexts (i.e., use of information sources for broader purposes) is not known. Thus, in answering this research question, the present study attempts to explore the relationship between these factors and levels of various needs for travel guidebooks.

### 3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has described the research framework of the present study using two models. Firstly, it endeavoured to provide a model of travel decision-making process with reference to the use of information sources. Based on the first model, eight hypotheses regarding the use of travel guidebooks for decision-making purposes were formulated. In addition, a model which attempts to expand traditional functional needs for travel information sources and illustrate the use of travel guidebooks for broader purposes was proposed as a part of the framework for the present study. Based on the second model, four research questions which attempt to explore broader usages of travel guidebooks were formulated.

In the next chapter, the methodology and results of the qualitative enquiry are described.

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## CHAPTER 4

### QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

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#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

**Chapter 3** established the research framework and presented **Hypotheses** and **Research Questions** for the present study. This chapter presents the qualitative research for the purposes of the present study. As illustrated in Figure 1.1 (p.15), both qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed in this study, reflecting its exploratory nature. The current chapter is dedicated to explore various needs for travel guidebooks as postulated in Figure 3.2 (p.74) and deals with the **Research Questions**. Figure 3.1 (p.66) and **Hypotheses** are considered in the quantitative research of the present study, reported in **Chapters 5, 6 and 7**.

Inclusion of a qualitative component in the present study is rationalised as follows. The primary intention is to explore the use of travel guidebooks for broader purposes and to see whether the model proposed for this purpose as per Figure 3.2 (p.74) in **Chapter 3** is appropriate. In **Chapter 2**, the literature review suggested that an examination of the use of travel guidebooks needs to go beyond a functional perspective and to embrace other perspectives. In an attempt to analyse the use of travel information sources more widely, a model of information needs proposed by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) appeared a worthwhile approach to utilise (Figure 2.3, p.49). Inspired by their conceptualisation, a model of travel guidebook usage for broader purposes was proposed for the present study (Figure 3.2, p.74). The dimensions included in the model were borrowed from Vogt and Fesenmaier's model (1998). These dimensions are therefore recognised as tentative for the purposes of the present study, and the model should be assessed and validated by qualitative research before proceeding to quantitative research for the purposes of the present study. Qualitative research is also useful to identify any other information needs or dimensions for travel guidebooks which have not been covered within the tentative model. Qualitative research is therefore valuable in forming the basis for a subsequent quantitative survey and indicating the

possible answers to the research questions concerning the broader use of travel guidebooks as formulated in **Section 3.5, Chapter 3** (pp.75-78).

Another important role of this qualitative enquiry is to facilitate variables that may determine the use of travel guidebooks. As outlined in **Chapter 2**, past studies have proposed a range of factors which are believed to influence the search and use of various travel information sources by tourists. It seems unlikely that all of these factors are applicable in the case of the use of travel guidebooks, though previous studies focusing on the use of the travel guidebooks have been too scarce to enable a proper explanation of the issue. In the present study, one particular factor, the type of tourist based on the freedom exercised in travel decision-making, is regarded as the most prominent and hypotheses were formulated as shown in **Chapter 3**. However, it is the view of the researcher that any variables to be employed in the quantitative survey need to be explored through an analysis of qualitative data first.

## 4.2 METHODOLOGY

The objective of this section is to outline the qualitative methodology used for the present study. In this section, firstly a brief discussion on qualitative research is given. Secondly, the way that participants were recruited is outlined. Thirdly, data collection technique used for the qualitative enquiry is summarised. Finally, the data analysis technique is described.

### 4.2.1 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research has many different forms. It often means different things to different people. Each discipline seems to have its own definition, and researchers in one field are often not even aware of what 'qualitative' means in others. Consequently, Tesch (1990) suggested that any research which uses qualitative data should be considered as qualitative research.

Zikmund (2000: 103) stated that, while the purpose of quantitative research is ‘to determine the quantity or extent of some phenomenon in the form of numbers’, the focus of qualitative research is ‘not on numbers but on words and observations: stories, visual portrayals, meaningful characterizations, interpretations, and other expressive descriptions’. Qualitative research methods were suitable at this stage of the present study, since, as Patton (1990) suggested, the strength of a qualitative approach is an understanding of the processes by which phenomena take place. Similarly, Moutinho (1995) and Ryan (1995) both argued that less-structured approaches evoke more representative emotional, often hidden constructs and associations. Therefore, qualitative research should be regarded as the primary step in the study – the step designed to uncover the reasons, impressions, perceptions, and ideas that relevant individuals have about a particular subject of interest. Although not driven by the opinions of the researcher or findings of previous studies, qualitative techniques can allow confirmation or refutation of theories proposed on the basis of past knowledge (Miles and Huberman 1994).

The goal of qualitative research is to develop important but limited information from each individual and to collect information from a sizable number of individuals in order to draw inferences about the population at large (Peterson 1994). Given the size (usually quite small) and sampling procedure (purposive rather than probability sampling), the inferences that are drawn based on qualitative research are normally subjected to evaluation using quantitative procedures at a subsequent time. Used together, qualitative and quantitative approaches can highlight different facets of the same problem (McCracken 1988).

#### **4.2.2 The Recruitment of Participants**

In the present study, recruitment of participants was a major problem, since it was necessary to gather information about the use of travel information sources not only prior to but also during and preferably after the trip. Originally, it was considered that the most appropriate place for collecting qualitative data would have been airport departure lounges at the destination (Australia), with those who

were returning to their country of origin (Japan). However, it soon became evident that it would be difficult to contact prospective respondents and conduct lengthy qualitative data collection with departing passengers given their limited time spent in departure lounges. As an alternative, it was decided to conduct interviews in Japan with those who had 'recently' travelled to Australia. Obviously, the more recent the visit, the better the opportunity for collecting accurate information. At this stage of the investigation, the researcher provisionally assumed that the potential interviewees would have travelled to Australia over the previous five years. Acknowledging that there may be recall bias in the responses (Gartner and Hunt 1988), it was also decided to contact those with an intention of travelling to Australia in the near future and ask them to keep diaries about their use of travel information prior to and during the trip.

Qualitative research samples tend to be purposive, rather than random (Miles and Huberman 1994). As Denzin and Lincoln (1994: 202) put it: 'many ... qualitative researchers employ ... purposive, and not random, sampling methods. They seek out groups, settings and individuals where ... the processes being studied are most likely to occur'. The recruitment plan for participants was operationalised as follows. To find those who had travelled to Australia over the previous five years and those who planned to visit, the researcher asked several travel agents in Japan whether they could suggest names of potential participants. This request was declined by all agents contacted because of their corporate policy not to disclose customer information. Subsequently, the researcher's personal connections were used to locate potential informants or those who were willing to introduce potential participants. Three channels were used for this extensive search. Firstly, at a Japanese university, pre-lecture announcements and mini-survey (asking for potential participants' name and phone numbers and/or E-mail addresses) were conducted at five lectures with an average of 500 attendants. Secondly, at the same university, the current 26 student members of a seminar specialising in travel and tourism were contacted in person. Thirdly, 125 alumni members of the seminar (many of them are currently employed in the travel and tourism industry) whose E-mail addresses were listed in the roll were contacted via E-mail.

Fortunately, the combination of strategies was sufficient to locate a variety of respondents, especially independent travellers who might not have been found by relying on travel agent client lists.

Each channel offered a number of names and contacts of people who had 'recently' travelled to Australia. It should be noted that, although the starting point for contacts with interviewees was those involved in, or previously involved with, tourism education courses, those people were their friends and/or family members. However, due to time constraints involving the researcher's stay in Japan, it was impossible to organise a complete schedule to interview all potential participants at this stage. The selection of participants was undertaken on the basis of maximising variety as well as the preference for more recent travellers. According to Patton (1990), the use of maximum variety sampling can produce two types of data: first, high-quality case descriptions useful for documenting uniqueness; and second, the identification of significant shared patterns of commonalities existing across participants. The criteria applied were age and type of trip. The adoption of additional criteria, such as trip duration and other travel experience, might have improved the variety of participants, however, it was almost impossible for the researcher to ascertain personal data and trip details prior to conduct of the interviews. Therefore, sampling of the interviewees proved to be an ongoing procedure with a view to achieving as much diversity as possible in the composition of the participants. When the number of interviewees had reached around 20, it became increasingly evident to the researcher that similar patterns of conversation were occurring within the interviews and no new topics were emerging. Confident that all relevant data had been collected, the researcher ceased contacting further potential participants and sampling was suspended.

Eventually, 27 interviews with 26 individuals and one couple who wanted to be interviewed together were conducted, during a four week stay by the researcher in Japan from May to June, 2001. The number of the sample is small, but the purpose of these in-depth interviews was to collect 'rich' information from a small number of respondents. The number far exceeds the eight suggested by



McCracken (1988:17) as sufficient for generating themes or categories in qualitative research. It has to be noted that, even though the interviewees represent diverse demographic characteristics on the basis of age, gender, occupation, education, overseas travel experience, type and purpose of the trip, visited region within Australia, they do not represent a random cross section of Japanese tourists who had 'recently' travelled to Australia.

These informants ranged from 18 to 68 years of age, with almost equal gender representation. Their occupations included the categories of university student, financial consultant, travel agency manager, retiree, and housewife. Students constituted the majority because of their availability during weekdays and because of the method of participants recruitment. The range of overseas travel experiences spanned from once (i.e., a trip to Australia was the first overseas trip) to more than 30 times. At the time of these interviews, while two-thirds of the respondents had visited Australia only once, the rest had visited more than once and mainly consisted of those who have friends or relatives in Australia. The purpose of their trips included holiday, school excursion, participating in a student exchange programme, attending language school during school holidays, and visiting friends and relatives. As far as the type of trip is concerned, nearly half of the respondents used either package tours or group tours organised by school, and the rest travelled fully or partly independently with flexibility and freedom during travel.

Compared to those who had 'recently' visited Australia, it was noticeably difficult to identify those who had a definite plan to visit Australia in the near future, given the researcher's limited time in Japan. Through the same procedure used for recruiting the potential interviewees, four people were identified. These respondents agreed to participate in the qualitative research by keeping diaries about their forthcoming trip to Australia on the use of information sources prior to and during their trip. Since the diary method was not the only method used to collect qualitative data in this study, and was included only to provide supplementary information, four diaries were considered sufficient to provide

several insights.

### **4.2.3 Data Collection Techniques**

How can we effectively observe search and use of travel information sources, both prior to the trip and during the trip, done by Japanese tourists to Australia? Participant observation would allow the researcher to collect rich data from such tourists in real situations and in real time. This would only be possible if she could locate potential Japanese tourists to Australia in advance and travel with them. This proved unrealistic both in terms of obtaining permission and the cost involved in accompanying international tourists. Instead, in-depth interviews and diaries were selected to obtain qualitative data. Gartner and Hunt (1988) recommended the tandem use of personal interviews and diaries in order to minimise non-response and recall biases and to obtain valid information about tourist behaviour. Similarly, Markwell and Basche (1998) have argued the effectiveness and usefulness of the diary method as a means of gaining an understanding of the dynamics of tourist experiences, and have proposed its use in conjunction with other data collection methods, such as interviews.

In qualitative research, the two most basic methods of data collection are the individual interview and the focus group discussion (Peterson 1994). Individual interviews are used most often in qualitative research when the interaction of a group is not desirable, and when the goal of the research effort is to understand a process or an event in which each individual must talk at length about how s/he went about doing something. According to Peterson (1994), individual interviews are particularly useful in travel research when the goal is to understand, for example, how travellers go about making a decision to take one vacation trip over another. Interaction is of little importance in these types of studies, and therefore, groups are replaced with a series of individual interviews.

#### **4.2.3.1 In-Depth Interviews**

Interviews may be described as conversations with a purpose, phrased according to the path of the conversation, but within the framework of the research question

(Lofland and Lofland 1995). The main advantage of in-depth interviews is that a better understanding of respondent thinking and attitudes on some issues could be achieved rather than when structured interviews are conducted. In contrast, structured interviews constrain respondent answers to the issues identified by the researchers, which may not correspond with their experiences (Churchill and Lacobucci 2002).

A total of 27 in-depth interviews with 26 individuals and one couple were undertaken in Japanese during May and June 2001 by the researcher whose native language is Japanese. The duration of the interviews varied from 20 minutes to one hour, depending on informants. The average length was approximately 30 minutes. To accommodate the convenience of participants, interviews were conducted in a variety of locations. All university students chose a university campus. Most of the other respondents requested their local community centres, and a few opted for the interviewer to visit their home, mainly because they wanted to show photographs taken during their trip to Australia. All twenty-seven interviews were tape-recorded with the permission of the interviewees.

Prior to the interviews, the respondents were informed that the interviews were generally about their recent trip to Australia and travel information sources. This approach was adopted in order to avoid biasing the respondents or influencing the way in which they presented their accounts of their use of travel guidebooks.

Interviews were conducted in a semi-structured manner. Prior to commencing all the interviews, the researcher had developed an interview guide (see Appendix 1) which includes a list of topic headings and key questions to ask under these headings. During the actual interviews, this interview guide was mainly used to ensure that all the requisite areas were covered. There was considerable latitude given in the sequencing of the questions, in the amount of time and attention given to different topics according to the perceived interests of the interviewees, and in adding of new questions to clarify the meanings of conversations where necessary.

A collection of 14 cards constituted another instrument prepared in advance and used during in-depth interviews. A range of travel information sources were written on these cards. On each card, one travel information source was printed allowing 14 travel information sources as per the proposed model of travel decision-making and use of information sources (Figure 3.1, p.66). The purpose of these cards was three-fold: firstly, to provide a visual aid for the researcher to introduce the topic of travel information source; secondly, to assist the respondents to remember what information sources they had used; and thirdly, to permit the respondents to mention information sources other than travel guidebooks for the comparison of different information sources.

A typical sequence of the interviews was as follows: first of all, greeting and self-introduction by the researcher, a brief explanation of the research project, a guarantee of anonymity in the thesis and the ability to terminate interviews at any time were given. The interviews were initiated by general questions regarding their recent trip to Australia, such as the date of departure, duration of the trip, which city/area they visited, and who they visited with, to orient respondents to the topic, then the respondents were encouraged to talk freely about the trip to still allow for their control of the discussion (McCracken 1988). This part of the interview was to find out about the background of the trip. The period of easy-to-answer questions also allowed informants to become comfortable with the recording technology. After the first part of the interview, the interviewer spread the 14 travel information source cards in front of the respondents and asked them to talk about information sources they had used, in the order of prior to and during the trip. Having talked about the various travel information sources that they had used for the trip in an even handed way, the respondents were then asked to elaborate on their use (or non-use) of travel guidebooks in particular. This element constituted the core of the in-depth interviews. The interview guide provided a rough structure for the interviews, but informants were allowed to (and often did) deviate from the structure.

Besides the orienting questions, two forms of prompts were used for deepening the conversation: floating prompts and planned prompts (McCracken 1988:35-7). The former was the request for more detailed description during responses, both verbal and nonverbal. These prompts were employed when informants mentioned an interesting point related to the study and an amplification was considered beneficial. Planned prompts were more proactive, including 'contrast' ('what is the difference between A and B?') strategy and direct requests for more detailed descriptions and clarification of the topic, but posed at the end of responses to encourage continued discussion. In each planned prompt, key words were taken directly from the prior conversation.

These interviews also explored informants' perceptions of travel guidebooks. The last question of the interview was constant for all respondents: 'What is a travel guidebook to you?' With this question, the interviewer attempted to encourage each respondent to talk freely about his/her perceptions and attitudes towards travel guidebooks. In addition to the in-depth interviews, informants were asked to provide demographic details at the end of the appointment.

#### **4.2.3.2 Diaries**

To supplement the qualitative data obtained from in-depth interviews, the diary method was also employed. It was anticipated that diaries would be of assistance as a means of monitoring ongoing processes and changes of information use during the trip. They were also used to enable access to data that might otherwise have remained hidden from the researcher by confining in-depth interviewing to those who had already completed their trips. Although the use of diaries within tourism research has been limited, examples can be found in Pearce (1981) and Vogt and Stewart (1998).

Four participants (independent travellers) were chosen who planned to visit Australia in the near future. Each participant for this method was given a small-sized diary with a pen and asked to provide answers to the following questions every time they made a decision about choice of location,

accommodation, local transport, activity, visiting site, and food establishment during the trip: how they arrived at this decision; what sources of information they used to make the decision; and the helpfulness of the information source. Inside the front cover of the diary, the same instructions were printed by the researcher as a reminder to the participants during the trip. An envelope with a postage stamp and return address and a complementary Australian phone card (five dollar value) were also given, to increase the likelihood of completion of the diary for the study.

Unfortunately, the outcome of the diary method was not favourable. Only two, out of the four diaries were eventually returned by mail. In addition, data written in the two returned diaries were insufficiently detailed to investigate how information sources had affected the respondents' variety of decisions during the trip. As a result, this attempt to collect data through the diary method was abandoned. The qualitative inquiry for the present study is thus based exclusively on results obtained from the in-depth interviews.

#### **4.2.4 Data Analysis Techniques**

This section describes the techniques and procedures employed for qualitative data analysis. The challenge of qualitative data analysis is to 'make sense of massive amount of data, reduced the volume of information, identify significant patterns, and construct a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal' (Patton 1990: 371-2).

Prior to the commencement of the data analysis, the data were prepared. The twenty-seven tape-recorded in-depth interviews in Japanese were transcribed in full and subsequently translated into English to facilitate data analysis. The primary reason for translating the original transcribed Japanese text into English at this stage was that there is no CAQDAS (computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software) that can fully handle texts in Japanese language. Translation of all the texts was performed by a NAATI (National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters) qualified professional translator to ensure accuracy of the translation.

For the qualitative data analysis of this study, the researcher adopted the sequence of steps and range of strategies suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). According to Tesch (1990: 88), only two groups of authors, Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Miles and Huberman (1994), explicitly provide 'extensive and thorough descriptions of (qualitative) analysis procedures'. Whereas Miles and Huberman (1994) employ, in their source book of qualitative data analysis methods, many of the principles of Glaser and Strauss's 'grounded theory' approach, they are certainly different in their belief that qualitative research should be conducted within the constraints of a theoretical framework. This framework provides boundaries for the study, providing guidance for the researcher on which phenomena to observe and what to ignore, direction and focus for the study, and out of which emerges the later explanatory stages of the analysis. In the present study, the conceptual framework of travel information needs developed by Vogt and Fesenmeier (1998) was used. As advocated by Miles and Huberman (1994), the constructs/sub-constructs of the framework were employed as a provisional 'start list' of codes. This differs from the grounded theory approach which favours addressing a research problem without a predetermined conceptual structure, allowing codes to emerge after data collection has begun. Miles and Huberman (1994) advocate the creation of a start list of codes prior to the commencement of the fieldwork. As was expressed by Miles (1979: 591) in an early writing, 'The risk is not that of "imposing" a self-blinding framework, but that an incoherent, bulky, irrelevant, meaningless set of observations might be produced, which no one can (or even wants to) make sense of'.

It should be noted that the start-list was considered to be a provisional list and was viewed as being open to change and modification as the analysis proceeded (Miles and Huberman 1994). As Miles and Huberman (1994: 61) maintained, 'Researchers with start lists know that codes will change; there is more going on out there than our initial frames have dreamed of, and few field researchers are foolish enough to avoid looking for these things. Furthermore, some codes do not work; others decay. No field material fits them, or the way they slice up the

phenomenon is not the way the phenomenon appears empirically'. Since one of the rationales for conducting this qualitative enquiry was to examine whether the framework by Vogt and Fesenmeiar (1998) is helpful for understanding the use of travel guidebooks, it was considered that this Miles and Huberman approach to qualitative data analysis was appropriate for the present study.

Data were integrated and analysed using a content analysis approach. Translated interview contents and a provisional start-list of codes, i.e., the constructs/sub-constructs of the framework proposed by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998), were entered on the computer software NUD\*IST 6 (Nonnumerical Unstructured Data – Indexing, Searching and Theorizing). Each unit of text in the transcripts was classified and recorded at the relevant nodes in the coding scheme. Some units were coded to multiple nodes. This process involved interactive reading and rereading of the transcripts to identify the meaning of each text unit and to determine how that meaning related to the coding scheme.

Fielding and Lee (1998) provide three major justifications for the use of computer software in conducting qualitative data analysis: facilitation of data management; extension of capabilities; and enhanced acceptability and credibility. For the purposes of the present study, NUD\*IST software facilitated the classification of the data (separating items of data provided by each informant and organising them into common categories), enabled links between those classifications to be investigated, and provided the means to search for patterns within the data. With the help of this computer software, the large volume of translated interview transcripts became manageable for the analytical process of qualitative data.

Links and patterns began to emerge from the data once the transcripts had been coded. The search for patterns, themes and categories required judgements about what was significant and what was not. When a relationship between concepts had been tentatively implied, the data in the original transcripts were reconsidered to understand the context and so accept the plausibility of the implication, or reject it. There are no statistical tests for significance in qualitative work. The decision



must rely on the intelligence, experience and judgement of the researcher to avoid the equivalence of type one and type two errors (Patton 1990). The great strength of NUD\*IST is that it facilitates the investigation of linkages which have emerged from reading. The decision to use such a programme for the analysis was based on the quantity of data collected, which made it impossible to store sufficient detail mentally and to make the appropriate linkages and find patterns.

Miles and Huberman's approach for qualitative data analysis is described at length in Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994) and is summarized in Huberman and Miles (1994). They aim for a systematic procedure which will lead others using the same qualitative data and tools to the same interpretations and explanations. For them, qualitative data analysis involves three linked processes of data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing/verification (Miles and Huberman 1994). Data reduction refers to the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data. Coding, and memoing are fundamental parts of data reduction.

Data display refers to organised, compressed assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action. Miles and Huberman (1994) strongly emphasise the utility of devices such as matrix displays. Matrices essentially involve the crossing of two or more main dimensions or variables (often with sub-variables) set up as rows and columns in order to see how they interact. In qualitative research, numbers tend to be overlooked. However, in an attempt to identify a specific pattern among multiple cases, counting of the number of cases is important. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), there are three good reasons to resort to numbers: to see rapidly what is present in a large batch of data; to verify a hunch or hypothesis; and to keep the researcher analytically honest, protecting against bias. Therefore, the results reported using matrix displays are based on the number of cases in each cell of the matrices.

Conclusion drawing/verification is the process of drawing broad, albeit substantiated, interpretations from displayed data and testing for their plausibility,

their sturdiness, and their validity. These three streams are presented as interwoven before, during and after data collection in parallel form (Miles and Huberman 1994: 10-12)

In reality, qualitative data analysis for the present study did not proceed in a straightforward manner. Roles of travel guidebooks indicated by the respondents were diverse, varying from phase to phase and frequently stretching over several phases. The analysis was not a simple process. To make the descriptions as plain as possible, the interview results regarding the use of travel guidebooks were simplified into separate three sub-sections of prior to, during, and after the trip. In the total of 27 interviews, 14 individuals and one married couple said that they used travel guidebooks for their recent trip to Australia. Throughout the interviews with those travel guidebook users, it was revealed that travel guidebooks were used not only prior to the trip, but also during other phases of the trip, namely, going to the destination, at the destination, returning from the destination, and in some cases, even after the trip.

For the analysis of the use of travel guidebooks, an attempt was made to apply the model of information needs developed by Vogt and Fesenmeier (1998) outlined in Figure 2.3 (p.50). Where possible, the constructs/subconstructs of the model were employed to highlight notable use of travel guidebooks by the respondents. This attempt was successful to a limited extent only. This is partly because of the lack of clear-cut definition of each constructs/subconstructs in Vogt and Fessenmaier's work (1998). They are abstract concepts and inevitably overlap with one other. Furthermore, due to the nature of qualitative analysis, multiple codes (i.e., subconstructs) were assigned to a single comment. As a consequence, it was difficult to avoid ambiguity in an attempt to present the results of analysis on paper. Detailed presentations of the analysis results are shown later in this chapter.

#### **4.2.5 Quality and Credibility**

For the present study, principles of qualitative data collection and analysis were drawn from a variety of references (Lincoln and Guba 1985; Miles and Huberman

1984). The quality of research depends on the attention given to issues such as validity and reliability. Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that methodical qualitative analysis, such as their approach, can have both validity and reliability. They specifically deal with the subject of research quality in the section on standards for the quality of conclusions (Miles and Huberman 1994: 277), distinguishing the following groups of standards:

### ***Credibility***

This means that the research should be trustworthy in the sense that the reader may be confident that the findings are true to the context in which the study was undertaken. Credibility is analogous to internal validity in quantitative research. Credibility in this study was enhanced by careful reporting of methods and results. In the methodology section, a thorough explanation of the participant recruitment and techniques used for data collection was reported to enable readers to get a clear understanding of these processes as applied to the study. In the results section, a detailed reporting of results and analysis is provided. By doing so, the study attempts to allow others to assess the quality of research, and thus gives it greater credence.

### ***Dependability***

It implies that if the study was repeated in the same context it would yield the same findings. It is analogous to reliability in quantitative research. Dependability was ensured by the same process that ensured credibility, because, as Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue, findings cannot be credible if they are not dependable.

### ***Confirmability***

This is the degree to which the findings can be attributed to the subjects rather than the biases of the researcher. It is analogous to objectivity in quantitative research. Confirmability was ensured in this study by making the research process apparent and describing the development of codes. Quotations from the stories, which will be shown in the next chapter, illustrate the themes identified. Data used in this study have been and can be made available to other researchers.

### *Transferability*

This implies that the findings from one research context can be applied to another context and is analogous to external validity in quantitative research. Whereas external validity is determined by the quantitative researchers through confidence levels, transferability cannot be determined by the researcher. Qualitative researchers provide the descriptions or database that will enable a reader, who is interested in applying the findings to another context, to decide whether such application is reasonable. The investigation reported here aimed to facilitate decisions about the transferability of the findings by collecting, analysing and interpreting a broad range of data in order to provide as much relevant information as possible. The discussion section includes implications of the study for both practice and research so that the findings may be further tested.

## **4.3 RESULTS**

This section presents the results obtained by the analysis of 27 in-depth interviews with Japanese tourists who had 'recently' travelled to Australia. The qualitative analytical approach used for this study has been outlined in **Section 4.2.4** (p.89-93) (Miles and Huberman 1984, 1994). The present study has adapted Vogt and Fesenmaier's model of information needs (1998) for the analysis.

This section consists of five sub-sections: travel guidebook users; travel guidebook non-users; indication to research questions; factors influencing the use of travel guidebooks; and implications for the subsequent quantitative research. Of the total of 27 interviews, 14 individuals and one couple said that they had used travel guidebooks for their recent trip to Australia, whereas the remaining 12 interviewees said that either they had hardly used or had not used them at all. Consequently, the analysis of the interview contents was carried out separately, and the results obtained from each group are illustrated individually. Having presented the results, indications to **Research Questions** formulated in **Chapter 3** are noted. In addition, factors which may differentiate users/non-users of travel guidebooks are suggested. For this analysis, a matrix is employed, as advocated

by Miles and Humberman (1994). The following sub-section is dedicated to the various implications obtained from the qualitative enquiry for the quantitative enquiry.

Selected quotes are incorporated to elaborate on the content and meaning of common responses. To ensure the anonymity of respondents and to provide convenience for readers, each of the respondents is assigned with a number between [1] and [27] according to the alphabetical order of the initials of their names. The order of the numbers coincides neither with the informants' age nor the order of conducting interviews. After the number of the respondent, his/her gender ('M' for male and 'F' for female) and age are also noted.

Though they were initially asked to talk about their recent trips to Australia, some exceptional comments were provided by the respondents during the interviews which referred to travel destinations other than Australia. This was inevitable and was considered by the researcher to be appropriate in most cases because the respondents sometimes had to mention other overseas trip experiences as a point of reference.

#### **4.3.1 The Users of Travel Guidebooks**

Based on Vogt and Fesenmaier's framework (1998), Table 4.1 (p.97) summarises the overall results of responses from the 15 interviews with travel guidebook users. It was found that, amongst the five constructs (functional, hedonic, aesthetic, innovation, and sign), no respondent made a comment on the fifth construct. Among the rest of the four constructs, functional needs were most frequently indicated. Hedonic, aesthetic, and innovation needs were suggested by relatively fewer respondents. This result generally corresponds to Vogt and Fesenmaier's study (1998), though some problems in applying their framework into the current data were also found as noted later in this chapter. Table 4.1 (p.97) does not suggest that the four needs of functional, hedonic, aesthetic and innovation were detected at equivalent frequencies during the interviews, but rather attempts to encapsulate the perceived needs for travel guidebooks at different stages of the

**Table 4.1**  
**Information Needs for Travel Guidebooks at Different Stages of the Trip**

	Prior to the trip	During the trip	After the trip
Functional needs	○	○	○
Hedonic needs	○	×	○
Aesthetic needs	○	×	×
Innovation needs	○	×	×
Sign needs	×	×	×

- = This need was indicated by respondents
- × = This need was not indicated by respondents

trip. The detailed analysis begins in the next section.

#### **4.3.1.1 Prior to Travel**

Various usages of travel guidebooks prior to travel were reported in the interviews. For the analysis of this phase, the framework proposed by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) was valuable and the results in the following section are presented according to the constructs/subconstructs of this framework.

##### ***Functional Needs***

This was the most frequently detected need prior to travel among travel guidebook users. This concept of information need is what traditional perspectives of information search and decision-making (Bettman 1979; Howard and Sheth 1969) have provided. Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) conceptualised it with four sub-constructs of product knowledge, efficiency, uncertainty, and utility. No indication of the fourth subcomponent was detected in the interviews for the present study. The comments related to the rest of the three subcomponents are cited and interpreted in turn.

##### ***Product Knowledge***

This is 'the belief that data serves as a means to gain product knowledge' (Vogt and Fesenmaier 1998: 556). Information search related to product knowledge is intended to construct a bank of potentially useful information which may be subsequently used when making decisions (Bloch et al. 1986).

All respondents who used travel guidebooks prior to travelling to Australia indicated this need. Respondents used travel guidebooks predominantly to obtain background information about their destination after having chosen it. 'We looked at it (travel guidebook) before the trip to get some idea of where we were going ...' (Respondent [24], F, 20) was typical of comments regarding such usage. Those who had the advantage of some free-time during their trip, were able to be more specific about their uses, such as for making a preliminary travel itinerary and for collecting detailed information on their destination. Respondent [5] (F, 21)

illustrated how she used different information sources including travel guidebooks to elaborate her travel plan:

Before I travel, I get all kinds of brochures from travel agents and then decide where I want to go. If I read a travel guidebook once I've decided on my destination, then I find that there are even more places (within the destination) that I'd like to visit. ... Like where to go and what to see, what to eat, what to buy... that gives you a rough idea of what you're going to do when you get there.

Many respondents who gathered detailed information and made a rough plan using travel guidebooks admitted that they did not necessarily proceed to carry out the plan exactly, at the destination. The general idea of the trip or the place was the focus of what was formulated beforehand. For these purposes, some respondents appreciated the value of photographs in travel guidebooks to learn about their destination prior to the trip. Respondent [10] (F, 30) put it as follows:

Even if you can't quite get an image of the place through the text, you can by looking at a photo or picture. ... I don't think you need to see photos when you're at the destination because you can just go and see the real thing, but it would be good to be able to see them while in Japan. I think it would be good if you could see photographs in Japan so you have some idea of what you're going to be seeing, and then have access to detailed information once in Australia.

It appears that many travel guidebook users had used it to form rough ideas about the destination and some respondents had used it for obtaining both sketchy and detailed product knowledge prior to the trip.

### Efficiency

Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998: 557) defined this subcomponent as 'the ability to function or perform in the least wasteful manner'. They further explained that when individuals anticipate problem-solving opportunities, efforts are exerted to construct a bank of potentially useful knowledge for these future opportunities.



Some respondents indicated that they used travel guidebooks prior to travel for the purpose of discussion with their travel companions. This type of behaviour may be regarded as using travel guidebooks as a tool for problem-solving and avoiding potential conflicts with their travel companions during travel. Typical of other respondents, Respondent [9] (F, 21) who travelled with her friend described pre-trip usage:

I used the travel guidebook after we decided on our destination, to work out where we were going when we got there. ... I bought it when we decided in February to go away. After I bought it, my friend and I looked at it and talked about our trip.

In parallel with efficiency, pre-trip discussion with travel companions using travel guidebooks may function as a pleasure in itself as well as a planning tool (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). When Respondent [15] (M, 21) who travelled to Australia with his family on their own talked about how they prepare for travelling, he referred to using travel guidebooks in the family discussion and said:

Our family likes to discuss all sorts of things before we go anywhere, and to us, that's part of the enjoyment of going away.

It seems that travel guidebooks were used as a means of facilitating joint decision-making among travel companions, while the process of joint decision-making may be pleasurable for some respondents.

### Uncertainty

Consumers are believed to have some level of uncertainty in most buying decisions and they learn that information may help them reduce the uncertainty (Roehl and Fesenmaier 1992). Thus, information considered to be most relevant to the type and level of uncertainty they are attempting to manage, will be sought.

The use of travel guidebooks by many respondents prior to travel appeared to be associated with their feelings of uncertainty. In particular, those who travelled on

their own were likely to display a need for geographic information, such as maps, directions to places to visit, and transport routes at the destination. Comments such as ‘maps are definitely necessary’ (Respondent [13], M, 22) were common, and also a demand for detailed and accurate maps in travel guidebooks was very strong in most interviews. Respondent [10] (F, 30) who travelled independently illustrated how travel guidebooks help her to prepare for dealing with uncertainty at the destination:

As I’m going somewhere that’s unfamiliar, I’d like it (travel guidebook) to have plenty of information. For example, because the transport system in other countries is hard to work out, I’d like detailed information such as how to get on and get off buses, that sort of thing. I’d also like to see detailed information on transport routes. ... And I’d like to see maps as well, such as a map of different bus routes.

For the prior to travel phase, functional needs as above were generally the most prominent amongst travel guidebook users.

### ***Hedonic Needs***

An hedonic perspective is not intended to replace the functional decision-making perspective, but involves capturing the psychological or pleasure experiences that often occur during information use (Bloch et al 1986; Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). According to Vogt and Fesenmeier’s conceptualization (1998), hedonic needs consist of four concepts: emotional; phenomenology; experimental; and sensory. Of these, the respondents of the present study emphasised the first two sub-components as applicable to their use of travel guidebooks prior to travel.

#### ***Emotional***

This is not a cognitive, rational sub-component. Positive emotions are closely affiliated with feeling good, feeling excitement, happiness, gratification, and enthusiasm (Vogt and Fesenmaier 1998).

Some respondents expressed their positive emotions when describing their use of travel guidebooks before their departure for the trip. Respondents expressed

feelings of enjoyment, excitement and enthusiasm that resulted from reading travel guidebooks as well as pointing to decision-making purposes and use for their own sake. A few respondents even admitted that they bought travel guidebooks without any specific plans for travelling to the destination. This approach may be described as 'ongoing search' (Bloch et al. 1986), in which tourists accumulate knowledge, construct images, and accrue experience about travel and destinations.

Respondent [15] (M, 22) described his emotion when he read travel guidebooks:

I enjoy reading travel guidebooks anyway, and tend to buy a travel guidebook to a country that I've never been to, when I suddenly have this urge to go there. So a travel guidebook, for me, is not so much a guidebook, but something that transcends this, with a much greater meaning.

Such excitement and pleasure experiences that accompany reading travel guidebooks appeared to be associated closely with imagery and fantasizing sub-constructs of aesthetic needs. These make up one of the non-functional needs presented later, though they may be viewed as being linked with the visual component.

### Phenomenology

For phenomenologists, consumption is primarily regarded as a subjective state of internal cognition which complements the objective or behavioural state. This encompasses multisensory consumption, as well as the experiential essence or experience seeking of consumer behaviour (Vogt and Fessenmaier 1998).

Beyond collecting information needed for the trip, a small number of respondents commented on their use of travel guidebooks for the purpose of learning about new experiences, or perspectives about them. This does not seem to be directly related to travel decisions. Following the conversation cited above, Respondent [15] (M, 21) dissociated his use of travel guidebooks with a particular travel plan. The needs which he exhibited were more phenomenological:

Interviewer: So it (travel guidebook) is something that you might read even if you're not going anywhere?

Respondent: Yes, that's right. If it's a region I'm interested in. I think it's the best way of finding out about other countries.

Only a few travel guidebook users indicated hedonic needs in the course of the interviews. However, those expressing such needs did give a strong indication that they use travel guidebooks extensively both with and without a specific travel plan.

### *Aesthetic Needs*

Unlike functional needs, the nature of aesthetic objects and experiences is abstract, subjective, nonutilitarian, unique, and holistic (Hirschman 1983). Some respondents did indicate the presence of the imagery and fantasy sub-components of aesthetic needs in their use of travel guidebooks prior to travel.

### *Imagery*

Images are formed by means of various communication inputs throughout one's lifetime. Fridgen (1984) argued the role of destination imagery as an important factor in the anticipation stage of some future tourism consumption.

Many respondent comments referred directly to photographs in travel guidebooks. This component, which constitutes a stimulus to visual thinking, was detected in two ways at the prior to travel phase: firstly, travel guidebooks appear to function as a travel motivator prior to the decision to travel; secondly, travel guidebooks function as an image expander after the decision to travel has been made. Although the story does not relate specifically to Australia, the following example from Respondent [13] (M, 22) illustrated how he had been motivated to travel by encountering photographs in travel guidebooks. He had not searched actively for these:

Respondent: With my trip to Pakistan, I opened '*Chikyu no Arukikata*' (a popular travel guidebook series in Japan) and saw some beautiful photographs. I happened to be killing time at the library, and I just happened to pick up this travel guidebook on Pakistan. And there were these beautiful photographs. And I got this urge to go there.

Interviewer: And so you looked at the travel guidebook in the library, and then decided where you were going?

Respondent: I had been thinking of going somewhere. At first I was going to go to Egypt, but I couldn't get an air ticket, and so I thought I'd look for an alternative destination, and I happened to come across this travel guidebook, and it was so beautiful, and I decided that that would do and so decided on the spot, really. And the photographs really were beautiful. And afterwards you start to really want to go, but initially it was because of the beauty of the photographs that ended up with my going.

For some respondents, travel guidebooks appear to perform primarily as a means of fulfilling functional decision-making needs, i.e., trip planning, and then to stimulate or expand their imagination of the destination. Respondent [9] (F, 21) described her prior to travel use chronologically and emphasised its importance to her in relation to the imaginary component:

Well, at first you buy a travel guidebook because you're going somewhere for the first time. So if you're going to Australia you'd buy a travel guidebook for Australia. Then you'd first gather the information, and you start having all these dreams, and you want to go everywhere. And so the travel guidebook acts as a bridge to your destination, and so it's very important to me.

Other respondents did not take travel guidebooks very seriously. Nonetheless, one such respondent, Respondent [1] (F, 20), was clearly aware of the role that travel guidebooks can play in formulating pre-trip imaginary:

A travel guidebook is something that isn't necessary, but things would be better with one. If you read a travel guidebook before you go somewhere, it's easier to

imagine the trip, or rather, it's easier to imagine all the different places to go to and things to do. Although that doesn't mean that you're definitely going to go there (each place at the destination). ... I'd start imagining the experience, and so a travel guidebook plays a big role in stimulating your imagination, making you feel excited about the trip.

In both cases, during the prior to travel stage, travel guidebooks act as a means of building, or arousing, an individual's expectations about the following trip. Expectation is important, since, according to the expectancy disconfirmation model, satisfaction depends on a comparison of pre-purchase expectations to actual outcomes (Blackwell et al. 2001).

An interesting comment about photographs was provided by Respondent [22] (F, 39), one of several respondents who admitted to using more than one travel guidebook simultaneously:

I'd like to see a travel guidebooks with information that allows you to imagine the place when you read it. I don't think I'd demand photos from '*Chikyu no Arukikata*' (a popular travel guidebook series in Japanese). Rather than that, if I wanted to see photographs, then I'd look at those large travel guidebooks, like 'Travel Mook' ('mook' is a Japanese coinage from 'magazine plus book'). So I'd use them separately. You can get a feel for the atmosphere with the larger guidebook, and the information from travel guidebooks like '*Chikyu no Arukikata*'. ... I'd get a feel for the place, and then I'd buy a detailed travel guidebook.

### Fantasizing

This is the act of producing multisensory images not drawn directly from personal experiences, including pictorial imagery, fantasies, and daydreaming (Vogt and Fesenmaier 1998).

Several travel guidebook users indicated that they sometimes read travel guidebooks for 'daydreaming' purposes. This was seen in both frequent and infrequent travellers. The former is represented by Respondent [4] (F, 53), who also indicated that she likes doing ongoing search:

It (travel guidebook) is something that enables me to buy a dream, whether I actually go or not. In particular, if I look through a travel guidebook when I'm tired, I find it quite soothing. Even when I have no plans to actually go somewhere, I just enjoy reading them, looking forward to the time I can go. Because you can immerse yourself in that world.

By contrast, a comment by Respondent [11] (F, 50), a housewife, appears to indicate that her use of travel guidebooks is confined to non-functional needs. This appears to defy traditional assumptions about information needs. While it may appear rather out of place to categorise these comments that do not specify any travel plan into the 'prior to travel use' category, no other stage appears more appropriate.

Respondent: I don't really like travelling that much, and so if I was going to read a travel guidebook, then I could easily travel using my imagination. That's what the travel guidebook is for me. ... I like reading them. My daughter buys them. I don't go and buy one for a specific purpose, but I look at the books that are at home, and I think, that place looks nice.

Interviewer: When you look at these guidebooks, don't they encourage you to actually go on a trip somewhere?

Respondent: Not at the moment. Maybe when I have a bit more time. At this stage I don't really want to go and leave the house vacant.

### ***Innovation needs***

Innovation implies that an individual has a strong inclination to adopt new products and information (Hirschman 1980). In Vogt and Fesenmaier's conceptualization (1998), innovation needs consist of three concepts, namely, novelty seeking, variety seeking, and creativity. During the interviews, only the first sub-component was cited for the use of travel guidebooks prior to travel.

### ***Novelty seeking***

This is a motivating force that initiates acquiring incremental product knowledge.

Within a tourism context, this 'is associated with the urge for new experiences' (Snepenger 1987).

Some respondents reported purchasing of a travel guidebook for a destination that they had never visited and had no immediate intention of visiting. Respondent [27] (F, 19) who has 'a lot of travel guidebooks at home' expressed this as follows:

(I have) Even travel guidebooks to places I haven't been to. ... I'd look through it and think how I'd love to go there. ... I buy travel guidebooks to places that I have some interest in, where I'd like to go one day.

Some of those who did not use travel guidebooks for their Australian trips expressed a contrary view towards this kind of use. This matter will be discussed later in the chapter.

In summary, the use of travel guidebooks prior to travel may be viewed in terms of both functional and non-functional needs. While functional needs were dominant, some of the non-functional needs, which can be classified into notably, hedonic, aesthetic, and innovation needs based on the conceptualisation by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998), were also identified.

#### **4.3.1.2 During Travel**

All respondents who reported using travel guidebooks prior to travel also mentioned using them during the trips. As was the case with the use prior to travel, an attempt was made to categorise the contents of the interviews related to the use of travel guidebooks during the trip into constructs/sub-constructs of the framework based on the Vogt and Fesenmaier framework (1998). These originally considered the travel information needs only at the pre-trip stage. It proved to be harder to apply the framework rigorously to the during travel stage. Ultimately, the results were regarded without any non-functional needs being noted during travel. This is perhaps understandable on the basis that individuals concentrate on functional needs when they are actually travelling. In the following section, only



functional needs and its subconstructs are presented and highlighted for the purposes of travel guidebook use during travel.

### ***Functional needs***

As was the case with the prior to travel phase, three subconstructs of functional needs were identified: product knowledge; efficiency; and uncertainty.

#### ***Product knowledge***

The dominant terms applied to the use of travel guidebooks during travel were the need for product knowledge and basic contents as a travel information source. Travel guidebook users largely considered descriptions on various travel elements as necessary. Items referred to frequently were product information, ranging from facts about destination (climate, currency, customs etc.), descriptions on places of interest, access to these places, how to use local transport, lists of accommodation, activities available, lists of restaurants, shopping suggestions and advice on safety issues.

A notable issue on the use of travel guidebooks during travel related to such descriptions was also detected. Several respondents indicated that they use travel guidebooks during travel to 'confirm' places that they are visiting or have just visited with the description in their travel guidebooks. Some comments were implicit as was the case with 'I'd take it (travel guidebook) with me and use it to find out exactly where certain locations are' (Respondent [17], F, 20). Others were more explicit as in the case with 'I'd use the travel guidebooks to confirm information about the places that I visit' (Respondent [4], F, 53). The respondents who mentioned these uses were inclined to be those less able to exercise freedom and who are less likely to use travel guidebooks for making travel decisions during travel (i.e., package tour participants). Instead, they appear to make use of travel guidebooks to evaluate what they had chosen and purchased prior to the trip. Respondent [26] (M, 20) who accompanied his family on a package tour that 'didn't have that much free time' illustrated the use of travel guidebooks for confirming the places visited during travel:

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Well, we might have a look at it after we got back to our hotel room, to look up where we'd just been, and confirm the place. ... I remember saying that we'd gone that day by bus to see such and such, and describing the places you could see.

In a similar vein, the husband of the joint respondents, Respondent [14] (M, 60), who travelled in a group tour with a full and tight schedule described his travel guidebook use during travel as follows:

My wife bought a book (travel guidebook) about Australia. So I read that, and I took it with me on the trip to check things. The tour guide told us things but I'd forget what she said almost immediately, so I'd read the travel guidebook once more and it was like 'Oh, this is where we went today', or 'This place has been standing for so long', and refer to the book in this way. So I used the travel guidebook both before the trip and during.

The same respondent also seemed to use travel guidebooks as a guide for taking his own photographs and to help make sure the places he visited on the tour were the same as those in the travel guidebooks:

The photographs in the travel guidebooks are beautiful. And so when I take photos, I select similar angles as the ones in the travel guidebooks. I can then confirm the places. But there are times when the photographs are so beautiful in the travel guidebooks, but when you see the actual building or site, it's not so great (laughs).

Interestingly, for some respondents, the *raison d'être* of travel guidebooks appears to be reversed. While descriptions and photographs in their travel guidebooks were received as trustworthy or even 'real', what they actually saw or experienced on-site for a short period was viewed as merely a representation of the contents of their travel guidebooks which they had been more familiar with since prior to travel. For instance, Respondent [1] (F, 20) was even more excited about the act of confirming places at the destination with her travel guidebook during travel, than the act of visiting them:

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Even when I decided that I wanted to go to a certain country, it's not as though I know much about that country. ... And so I read the travel guidebook. And the names were really hard to remember. ... But if the photo ... is in the book, and you're travelling by car, then if you see it, you can recognize it. 'That's it!' And that's just a great feeling.

Respondent [16] (M, 67) who earlier in his interview denied travel guidebook use during travel and later admitted his 'unconscious' use, gave a self-analysis of travel guidebook use during travel and insisted on its subtle nature:

... I think we might use it (travel guidebook) unconsciously while we're away. It's not so much whether you use it or don't use it, but we'd look at it to confirm where we were, that sort of thing. ... I put Post-its on the pages that list our destinations, and then remove them after we've seen that place. ... So in that sense I think we use travel guidebooks. To confirm the places we've been to. Or to wonder about another place. I think we do use travel guidebooks. I use colour, with yellow to mark the fundamental sort of places, pink to mark the places we really want to go to, so yes, we do use travel guidebooks. But I haven't really got this sense of 'Yes, we use travel guidebooks!'. They're just handy to have.

Siegenthaler (2002) provides relevant perspective to consider the unique needs of 'confirming' by Japanese tourists, in reviewing the literature related to his study on the presentations of Hiroshima and Nagasaki as tourism destinations in Japanese travel guidebooks. He first took MacCannell's criticism (1989: 41) that travel guidebooks function as 'markers' of the sites which they describe and contribute to 'sight sacralization', signalling that the site is something worth seeing. Then, Siegenthaler (2002) continued to mention a study by Graburn (1995: 48) that Japanese tourists are characterized by a tendency to visit only 'well-known "culturally approved" attractions', such as those featured in travel guidebooks. Graburn (1987: 20) also argues elsewhere that 'modern tourists are often more involved with the markers than the sites themselves' and concluded that 'this analysis applies very well to ancient, modern, and overseas Japanese tourism perhaps even more than it does to typical Western tourism'. Based on these previous observations, it may be possible to attribute 'place confirming

needs' to Japanese tourist behaviour. The 'discovery' of the well-known or named scenes with the help of travel guidebooks may be fun to some tourists: 'This place is worth seeing because it is listed in my travel guidebook'. It may not be important whether the place itself is meaningful to him/her. In this sense, what they consume and appreciate during travel are signs or representations which are considered to be valuable.

A study by McGregor (2000) noted such a confirmatory role of travel guidebooks slightly differently. He observed that travel guidebooks can be used to confirm the accuracy of the information obtained from other travellers through WoM communication and to assess the merits of the destination prior to visitation. In the case of the present study, it was discovered that respondents use travel guidebooks onsite in order to confirm whether the content represents reality.

### Efficiency

Some respondents associated their use of travel guidebooks en route with discussions with travel companions about their immediate travel plans. Those responsible for these comments were either participants in 'free time tour'/'skeleton tours' (a package of air ticket, accommodation plus transport to and from airport only) or independent travellers. Their trips involved a greater degree of freedom in travel decision-making during travel. Respondent [1] (F, 20) who travelled with two of her friends in a skeleton tour described this vividly as follows:

Because we hadn't decided exactly what we were going to do, we'd look at it (the travel guidebook) at the hotel to decide what we were going to do the next day, or deciding which shops we were going to or other places that we might want to go to. And those two (travel companions) tend to use it like that.

Respondent [4] (F, 53) who travelled to Melbourne with her husband on an independent trip indicated that travel guidebooks assisted in providing a tentative plan for their on-trip decision-making:

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Although I'd like my husband to look at them (travel guidebooks) more, he's the type of person who tends to decide to go somewhere at the last minute ... I hand the travel guidebook to my husband and ask him to 'look through the book and find out what sort of places you'd like to eat at'.

Other respondents viewed travel guidebooks as a time saving mechanism during travel. These respondents did not participate in package tours but travelled independently for a short period (about a week). For example, respondent [25] (F, 20) made a concise comment regarding this point:

And if you didn't have one (travel guidebook) then you'd waste a lot of time. You can use your time more efficiently by referring to it. Because there are always time constraints when you travel. I'd definitely take one with me if I was going away.

Another example from Respondent [10] (F, 30) explained the personal importance of travel guidebooks prior to and during the trip:

Respondent: It (travel guidebook) is something that is extremely important when you spend time in an unfamiliar place. I wouldn't even be able to start travelling without one. There is another way, which is to just go to the destination, and then obtain all the information there, but if you wanted to travel within a limited time frame, then I don't think you could really do it without a travel guidebook, and having one means you would avoid wasting time.

Interviewer: What do you mean by not being able to start?

Respondent: Well, you can't start doing anything when making plans before going on the trip, and also when you want to do something once you're at the destination, you can't even start doing anything without a travel guidebook. Of course, you could go to the information centre and ask the people there, but if you had a travel guidebook, then you could find what you wanted to see and go straight there. So I think it's something that is necessary if you want to use your limited time effectively.

For those who have no fixed travel itinerary and whose time at the destination is limited, travel guidebooks may offer a convenient information source. The move towards less structured but still short trips within the Japanese outbound travel market (JTB Corp. 2002) may provide a particular impulse for the apparent preference amongst Japanese travellers for travel guidebooks over other types of information sources.

### Uncertainty

For several respondents, travel guidebooks functioned as a tool to reduce psychological risk over the course of the trip. Such respondents expressed a greater sense of security and confidence, when waking into shops or restaurants, when they had access to travel guidebooks incorporating the referral information. A number of respondents sensed that having a travel guidebook during their trip would make them feel better. In the words of Respondent [1] (F, 20), 'You feel safe just having it (travel guidebook) with you'. Those who expressed such comments during the interviews were either independent travellers in their twenties or four participants in their sixties. It is however a general observation and no statistical inference is implied. Respondent [12] (F, 20) who has been overseas on three occasions explained why she needed a travel guidebook during those trips:

I think it (travel guidebook) is a tool to alleviate my concerns. I'm sure I could get away without having one if I set my mind to it, but you do feel apprehensive if it's the first time around, and I think at those times it's necessary. And travel guidebooks that you find in Australia are all in English, and I don't understand the contents, and so I do feel they are necessary.

A similar comment was made by a more experienced traveller, Respondent [13] (M, 22) who is a regular overseas backpacker:

I feel more secure having it (travel guidebook) with me. If I go somewhere with no information whatsoever, then I'd be terrified on that first day. And it's really beneficial to have a travel guidebook with you if you can't find the information

centre, or it's closed. But I think the first, most important purpose of having a travel guidebook is that it makes you feel secure. So I think it's essential at first. I always take one with me. ... When you ask me what a travel guidebook is, I guess it's security, something that I can't do without.

Respondent [16] (M, 67) who had also travelled overseas on countless occasions strongly iterated the importance of having a travel guidebook with him during his travels.

Respondent: It (travel guidebook) is a necessity. I don't think I'd travel without a travel guidebook. In that sense, the travel guidebook would be one of the best sources of information that I'd select. Rather than something that you'd choose, it's actually a necessity. If I was told to go somewhere without a travel guidebook, I think I'd be too scared to go. I'd be so apprehensive.

Interviewer: So do you think your apprehension would be somewhat reduced if you had a travel guidebook with you?

Respondent: Not somewhat reduced. It would alleviate my apprehension. It really would.

The wife of the joint respondents, Respondent [14] (F, 60), who travelled with her husband stated that 'For me, the travel guidebook is a tranquilliser'. The couple further illustrated her feelings as follows:

Wife: We feel really apprehensive if we don't have a travel guidebook with us. For example, even if we were travelling with our daughter, each of us would have a travel guide with us, no matter how heavy it is. Because if we became lost, then the travel guidebook includes maps, and even simple phrases. Because when you're panicking the vocabulary just doesn't come out. ... I've used travel guidebooks since our first overseas trip, and I don't know what I'd do without it. It would make me feel quite concerned. But I feel that as long as I've got a travel guidebook, things will work out somehow. I always put the hotel's address and phone number in the travel guidebook, and even when we get off the bus, I make sure I have it. Even if it's heavy. ... When I went to Lyons this year with my daughter, a festival

happened to be on at the time, and it was 10 at night and we still couldn't find the hotel, and when my daughter told me 'Just stay here and don't move'. I was clutching my travel guidebook to my chest (laughs).

Husband: I think my wife feels that if she has her travel guidebooks with her, then things will be alright (laughs).

For the various respondents in the previous sections, travel guidebooks are regarded as a trustworthy source of information – a type of 'talisman' or 'security blanket' during travel.

In summary, a number of respondents discussed the use that they made of travel guidebooks during their travels. Unlike the prior to travel phase, only functional needs were evident. The outstanding components were efficiency and uncertainty, apart from product knowledge.

#### 4.3.1.3 After Travel

Several respondents continued to use their travel guidebooks after their return home. Prior to undertaking the interviews, the researcher assumed that any use at this stage would be dominated by the aspect described within Vogt and Fesenmaier's conceptualisation as non-functional, with no apparent decision-making required once the trip is completed. In fact, a representative comment on the usage at this phase is 'To reflect on those times' (Respondent [27], F, 20), which implies an hedonic type of use. Respondent [11] (F, 50), a house wife, appreciated her travel guidebook as 'a souvenir of my trip'. Other respondents talked about using their travel guidebooks in a more practical sense for 'confirmation' purposes. An elderly couple in their sixties, Respondent [14], spoke in unison:

Husband: When I get back, I'd read sections of the travel guidebook that I hadn't read before the trip, and confirm certain details.

Wife: I do that too. I read about the places we've visited during the flight back. And things are much more clear and fresh after the trip than before.



Somewhat unexpectedly, Respondent [24] (F, 20) who did not make a practice of looking at travel guidebooks prior to and during her trip because of what she perceived was a tight travel itinerary, described use of travel guidebooks after the trip with a view to 'confirm' her prior experience.

I looked at it (travel guidebook) when we got back to Japan, to confirm the places that we'd been to, but I didn't look at it much before we left. ...and also to remember the places that I'd been to.

Such extended use of travel guidebooks occurring following the return home may be interpreted as follows. Though the trip as a form of physical movement is complete, the trip as an experience lingers. A travel guidebook can play a prominent role during this recollection stage.

According to other respondents, the 'after travel' period of one trip may coincide with the 'prior to travel' period for subsequent travels. In some cases they may have a specific plan to visit the same or similar destination. Their 'after travel' travel guidebook use may be equivalent to what Bloch et al. (1986) has described as the 'ongoing search'. For example, Respondent [4] (F, 53) described a development and cycle of her use of travel guidebooks as follows:

I'm the type who looks at a travel guidebook as soon as I have this feeling that I want to go away somewhere. In the last few years we travel once or twice a year, and I am constantly aware of obtaining information. I didn't used to be like that at first. When I'd travel with my older daughter during the summer holidays, for example, I'd leave everything up to her, but if you do that, then I don't think the actual experience of the trip stays with you. And on two or three occasions, I'd come back from somewhere and look at a travel guidebook, and thought 'Oh, is this what that place is really like', or 'What a wonderful place. I should have looked at the travel guidebooks'. Since then, I've learnt to enjoy reading travel guidebooks.

Overall, the respondents of the present study indicated that travel guidebooks were used for a variety of purposes, not only prior to but also during and even after travel. Throughout these three phases, functional needs were clearly

predominant with product knowledge, efficiency, and uncertainty being key components. At the during travel stage, functional needs were particularly dominant. Some of the dimensions of non-functional needs, namely hedonic, aesthetic, and innovation needs were detected at the prior to and after travel stages albeit with less frequency than functional needs. During the 15 interviews with travel guidebook users, no sign needs were detected. It may be concluded that, sign needs are irrelevant for the use of travel guidebooks.

### **4.3.2 The Non-Users of Travel Guidebooks**

This section presents an analysis of interviews conducted with those who had not, or else had rarely used travel guidebooks for their recent trip to Australia. Twelve respondents identified themselves as such. For these respondents, the researcher asked whether they used travel guidebooks for any other travel occasions and discussed the possible reasons for this. To analyse interview contents of travel guidebook non-users, the framework developed by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) was not considered to be applicable. Instead, the researcher focused on identifying frequently-appearing words and any distinctive patterns emerging across the various interviews.

Two major reasons were found to be common across non-users of travel guidebooks. Firstly, for several respondents, their trips to Australia were already planned/organised by someone else and ‘there wasn’t much free-time’ (Respondent [5], F, 21). Secondly, for a smaller number of non-users, there was a genuine scepticism felt towards travel guidebooks. In this section, the results are shown separately for the two sub-groups.

#### **4.3.2.1 Occasional Users: Tour Participants**

All of the respondents who referred to the first issue were, coincidentally or not, participants in package or group tours to Australia. When asked about her reasons for not using travel guidebooks prior to or during travel, the answer from Respondent [24] (F, 20) who visited Cairns, Uluru (Ayers Rock), and Sydney on a six-day package tour from Japan with her family was straight to the point:

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Because our activities were pretty much organized. Once we'd done some sightseeing, then we'd be off to the next place, and we didn't have a lot of free time. We didn't have much free time to go shopping in the end. Because the trip included quite a bit, there simply wasn't the time for us to be able to go somewhere even if we wanted to.

Another respondent, Respondent [26] (M, 20) who participated in an eight-day package tour that 'did not have much free-time' to Brisbane and Sydney expressed a similar reason, and also indicated the possible use that might have occurred if he had had more freedom:

Well, we already know where we're going, and so we only have to know about those places. We spend the whole day at these places and then come back to the hotel, so I don't think I'd use one (travel guidebook). ... It would be good to have one, because if I had time I could see a lot, and could probably make use of it.

Those who travelled to Australia as part of a group, such as school excursion or short-term student exchange programme for international goodwill, attributed the reason for non-use correspondingly. They strongly suggested that their non-use of travel guidebooks was due to the particular travel circumstances of that trip to Australia. They indicated that for other overseas trips they would be more likely to use travel guidebooks. Respondent [1] (F, 20), who visited Australia for her senior high school excursion, provided considerable detail about her use of travel guidebooks for trips to Thailand and Bali. With respect to her Australian trip, she made a typical comment:

The school had already put together a schedule, and I wasn't that enthusiastic, and so I didn't think to buy it (travel guidebook). ... Because I assumed that the school would probably be getting all the information, and I had seen our travel schedule and knew it was really tight, and so I knew that I wouldn't have much time on my own anyway.

This view was shared by Respondent [27] (F, 19) who participated in a three-week student exchange programme. She stated 'I buy travel guidebooks to places that I

have some interest in, where I'd like to go one day', so:

If I was deciding on the course I was taking, then I would buy one (travel guidebook) and have a lot of discussions and imagine the various destinations, but for this Australian trip, it was very much leaving everything to the organisers and others, and I received all the information from the organization, and everything was pre-planned, and so I didn't do anything.

Some of those who did not use a travel guidebook for their trip to Australia contrasted this with other travel occasions when they had used a travel guidebook. For example, Respondent [6] (F, 18) went to the Gold Coast and Sydney on a five-day package tour with her mother. The mother was 'more enthusiastic about going', so the student 'left a lot of the organizing up to her'. She did not have a clear recollection about whether she used a travel guidebook for the trip. A trip that she took to Guam was also a package tour. She was readily able to describe the use that she made of the travel guidebook for that trip, especially for shopping. She recognised that the difference between the two trips was an enthusiasm towards shopping:

Probably because I wanted to look at American accessories and snacks and things (for the trip to Guam), and that it would be easier if I knew in advance what was available. So it was for shopping. I didn't really plan to do much shopping (for the trip to Australia).

Respondent [3] (M, 21) indicated that his use of a travel guidebook would be different if he was travelling independently.

The only time I'd use one (travel guidebook) was if I was going somewhere on my own. And when you're on a school trip it's not as though you can get around on your own. You can't leave the hotel, you're all together on the bus, and you don't use trains.

For those who attributed their reasons for non-use to issues such as tightness of schedule and pre-fixed travel itinerary, it is unlikely that they will always be in the

non-use category, because they will not always participate in package or group tours. The degree of freedom exercised in decision-making is clearly related to such choices.

#### 4.3.2.2 Purposeful Non-Users: Scepticism towards Travel Guidebooks

While some non-users of travel guidebooks for their trips in question indicated that their use may be subject to variation depending on the type of trip and involvement in the trip process as noted above, other non-users appeared to be more determined in their non-participation. For example, Respondent [2] (M, 20) acknowledged that he purposefully did not use travel guidebooks because he was sceptical towards them:

My friends and I were discussing this (whether to use travel guidebooks) and we came to the conclusion that it would be better not to look at any travel guidebooks. We decided that if we thought somewhere looked good at the time, then we'd just go there. And we all agreed that whatever's listed in the travel guidebook would be full of people and not that enjoyable. ...I don't want to go overseas and see Japanese people. I want to go places where there aren't any Japanese. ... I don't think going to a place that's too famous is very interesting. ... I don't like telling people that 'I've been to so and so' and they tell me 'I know that place'.

Respondent [19] (F, 19) expressed a similar preference for being independent of the places suggested in travel guidebooks. She was concerned about the tendency of Japanese tourists to be concentrated at the same sightseeing spots:

Rather than depending on what's written in a book, I'd rather look and ask around once I get there, and I think I'd be able to work things out once I'm there. ... In one sense, I feel that it (travel guidebook) is like a designer brand item. Because Japanese go overseas and only ever buy designer goods. And so, if something is listed, then everyone goes to that store, and I have a feeling that travel guidebooks tend to emphasize that trend. You know, just because it's in the travel guidebook, everyone ends up going there.

The comments by the two respondents noted above provide an interesting perspective on the concept of ‘innovation needs’. This was one of the five needs proposed by Vogt and Fessenmaier’s model of information needs (1998) (novelty seeking, variety seeking and creativity). Some travel guidebook non-users appear to believe that travel guidebooks will not provide any innovative information, and would lead to a ‘non-innovative’ trip experience. McGregor (2000:35) reported of similar attitude towards travel guidebooks in his study of independent travellers: ‘Few travellers indicated that they had intentionally visited places that were not mentioned in their guidebooks (despite expressing an obvious pride in experiencing “non-guidebook” places)’. In aggregating the attitudes of those who dislike or hesitate using travel guidebooks, travel guidebooks may be viewed as a symbol of standardised tourism product for such travellers. Those who seek ‘adventure’ from their trips and prefer ‘off the beaten track’ may have completely different ideas towards travel guidebooks. It is likely that they have low levels of need for travel guidebooks in general. Such travellers are, likely to remain non-users.

Respondent [23] (M, 18) who exhibited the scepticism mentioned previously stated overtly that ‘I personally don’t really like travel guidebooks’ when talking about a recent lone trip to Perth, Australia, where his relatives live. He admitted that he had used travel guidebooks in a previous family trip to Sydney, in that context he referred to the issue of safety:

I think it’s more interesting overall if there’s a bit of trouble (when travelling). If everything goes too smoothly, it might be enjoyable, but it’s a bit normal ...But not if I was with my family.

Safety or psychological risk reduction also appeared to be an important issue for respondents who might otherwise choose not to use travel guidebooks. This may lend support to the ‘uncertainty’ component in ‘function needs’, as defined by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998). Respondent [8] (F, 19) who used a travel guidebook for her Australian trip expressed her ambiguous perspective:

It (travel guidebook) is something that I would prefer to have, because I would feel a bit concerned if I were going somewhere for the first time. It's something that alleviates my concerns. I read an article recently in which the writer commented on the excitement of visiting an unfamiliar place and finding a fantastic shop on your own without the help of a travel guidebook, and how the feeling's not the same if you find it through the travel guidebook because the shop's already been described in the book. And so I think that it's better not to have a travel guidebook so that you can experience that kind of feeling during your travels. But at the same time, I feel a bit apprehensive without one. In particular, the degree of safety must be different in other countries, and so I would like to read about that sort of thing before I go.

In short, those who did not use a travel guidebook for their trip to Australia were classified either as those with a lower degree of freedom in decision-making during the trip or as those with genuine scepticism towards travel guidebooks. Whereas the former may change their attitudes at the next opportunity according to the type of trip, the latter are likely to remain as non-users, particularly because they have low levels of need for travel guidebooks generally. Such sceptical non-users may regard travel guidebooks as providing less innovative information for their experience. They therefore decline to make use of them to maintain the 'adventurousness' of their trip. For some other respondents, the need for risk-reduction prevents them from resisting travel guidebook use.

#### 4.3.3 Indications for Research Questions

The results obtained from qualitative research as above provide some indications in answering the four **Research Questions** specified in **Section 3.5, Chapter 3** (pp.75-78). They are noted in this section as follows.

As for **Research Question 1** ('Is the use of travel guidebooks restricted to prepurchase search for travel decision-making? If not, what are their other uses?'), it is evident from the results obtained from travel guidebook users in the interviews that travel guidebooks were used not only for prepurchase search but also for serving a variety of purposes. Therefore, the use of travel guidebook is NOT restricted to prepurchase search for travel decision-making. In the analysis of the qualitative data, such non-functional needs were classified within the

framework proposed by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998), ‘hedonic needs’, ‘aesthetic needs’, and ‘innovation needs’, though the respondents for the present study did not suggest ‘sign needs’. It should be noted that the dimensions proposed in the model by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) are regarded as only tentative for the purposes of the present study as stated in **Chapter 3** and thus the appropriateness of these dimensions is discussed later in **Section 4.3.4** (pp.123-126).

**Research Question 2** (‘Are there any differences in needs for travel guidebooks between users and non-users of travel guidebooks for a particular trip?’) and **Research Question 4** (‘Are there any differences in needs for travel guidebooks among tourists according to the factors influencing the search for travel information?’) are both concerned with difference in various needs for travel guidebooks. Since spontaneous comments from interviewees were more desirable to explore both expected and unexpected issues surrounding travel guidebook use, in-depth interviews were conducted in a semi-structured manner and no direct questions about each need (for example, ‘did you use travel guidebooks to make any travel decisions?’ to ask about functional needs) were asked to the respondents during the interviews. Therefore, the respondents did not make explicit comments which would help answering **Research Questions 2** and **4**. Nevertheless, it was observed that while travel guidebook users generally suggested strong functional needs, travel guidebook non-users did not. Thus, it can be said that the qualitative interview results indicated that there is a difference, at least, in functional needs between users and non-users of travel guidebooks for the trip in question.

Indications to **Research Question 3** (‘Are there any differences in characteristics between travel guidebook users and non-users for a particular trip?’) is covered in the next section.

#### **4.3.4 Factors Influencing the Use of Travel Guidebooks**

Having reported the qualitative analysis on both the use and non-use of travel guidebooks, factors which may differentiate these two groups are suggested in this



section. As already outlined in **Section 2.4, Chapter 2** (p.26-37), the present study deals with the following seven factors: type of tourist; purpose of travel; duration of trip; destination region; previous visits to the destination; general travel experience; and fluency in host language (in this case, English).

For the analyses, matrices were employed as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). In the present study, variable-by-variable matrices were constructed, i.e., two main variables in its rows and columns. One of the two main variables is either travel guidebook users (with three conceptual subvariables of function needs only, functional and non-functional needs, or non-functional needs only) or travel guidebook non-users (with two subvariables of purposeful non-users and occasional non-users). The other main variable is one of the seven factors noted above. Within the matrices, the cell entries consist of case numbers (the numbers allocated to each respondent). In visual form, they display those cases which have included a specific type of interaction with the two main variables.

From the matrix displays, results emerged suggested an interesting finding regarding the type of trip variable. Table 4.2 (p.125) is a matrix of travel guidebook use/non-use by flexibility in travel itinerary. The most concentrated cell is the ‘travel guidebook non-users (occasional users) and lower flexibility in travel itinerary’. No case is placed in any other cells within the same column. In other words, travel guidebook non-users who suggested use on other travel occasions had minimal freedom in travel decision-making in the case of the trip in question. In all cases, these respondents were either package tour participants or school excursion members. In the column ‘travel guidebook user (functional needs only)’, no case was placed in the cell named ‘lower flexibility in travel itinerary’. Two other cells include multiple cases, namely, those who used travel guidebooks for functional needs travelled with slightly limited or full freedom in their travel decision-making. It may be assumed that those who did not have a particular intention not to use travel guidebooks might have been travel guidebook users in cases where they were able to exercise freedom in their travel decision-making. Those who used travel guidebooks for functional needs only

**Table 4.2**  
**Use of Travel Guidebooks by Type of Tourist (N=27)**

	Travel Guidebook Users			Travel Guidebook Non-Users	
	Functional and Non-Functional Needs	Functional Needs Only	Non-Functional Needs Only	Occasional User	Purposeful Non-User
Lower Flexibility in Travel Itinerary (Comprehensive package tour)	[14][27]		[11]	[1][5][6][17][20][24][26]	[2][3]
Middle Flexibility in Travel Itinerary (Flexible package tour)	[9][16]	[8][18][25]			[23]
Higher Flexibility in Travel Itinerary (Independent Traveller)	[4][13][15][22]	[7][10][12][21]			[19]

might have been non-users if they had not had an opportunity to exercise freedom in their travel decision-making.

With the exception of the column 'travel guidebook users (non-functional needs only)' which has a single case, cases in the remaining columns are dispersed without any notable concentration. It may be assumed that, regardless of the type of trip, those who purposefully did not use travel guidebooks are always likely to be non-users regardless of the type of trip. Those who used travel guidebooks for (functional needs and) non-functional needs are likely to be users on a continuous basis. This finding clearly indicates that, while the use of travel guidebooks by individuals with functional needs for travel guidebooks is subject to their type of trip, those with non-functional needs use travel guidebooks anyway, because their use is not restricted to pre-trip travel decisions. This use has become habitual and ongoing.

In the matrices made up with other variables identified by the literature review, were fairly evenly scattered and no visible pattern was evident. However, some respondents explicitly indicated that their difficulty in speaking English was a factor which encourages them to use travel guidebooks.

#### **4.3.5 Implications for Quantitative Research**

This qualitative enquiry offers several important implications for the subsequent quantitative enquiry of the present study.

Firstly, it has become clear that functional needs (related to various travel decision-makings) of travel guidebooks can be investigated both in the before and during travel phases. As suggested in the literature review, **Chapter 2**, many previous studies on the search and use of travel information considered the issue within the context of prior to travel. This may be partly because they were solely interested in destination choice which is usually carried out before departure, and partly because of difficulties involved in collecting data relating to during travel. Since many respondents to the qualitative enquiry suggested their distinctive use

of travel guidebooks during travel, quantitative enquiry of the present study should attempt to collect information on the use of travel guidebooks regarding travel decision-making at both phases.

Throughout the qualitative data analysis, an effort was made to apply the framework of travel information needs conceptualised by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998). This attempt was partially successful. While it was fairly useful in classifying and explaining a variety of travel guidebook usages prior to the trip, its rigorous application was not possible. As for other types of needs for travel guidebooks (non-functional needs), it has been indicated that sign needs may be subtle or irrelevant in the case of travel guidebooks. Further, during the interviews, several new themes, such as its confirmatory role, emerged for travel guidebook usage which were not in the list of items used by Vogt and Fesenmaier to determine the dimensions of information needs. In addition, the model was not useful in analysing travel guidebook use at other stages of the trip, and non-use of travel guidebooks. Considering the fact that the focus of their study was not as specific as the present study, their framework should simply be regarded as a guideline for exploring the issues related to the use of a particular travel information source. In the case of the present study, that is travel guidebooks. Thus, the researcher recognised the possibility of modifying or restructuring the dimensions originally proposed by these authors to make it more appropriate to the context of travel guidebook use, for use in quantitative components of the current exploratory study.

Regarding factors influencing travel guidebook use, results of the qualitative enquiry have indicated that the type of tourist factor depending on the degree of freedom exercised in travel decision-making, was most promising. Along with other factors identified by the literature review, it is necessary to test this factor statistically in the quantitative component of the present study.

#### 4.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the methodology and results of the qualitative enquiry into the role and use of travel guidebooks. In the first section the methodology was reported. Having given a brief discussion on qualitative research, a description followed on the participant recruitment procedure. Using maximum variety sampling, 26 individuals and one couple were selected for in-depth interviews. Data collection techniques were also outlined, as well as a description on instruments such as an interview guide and cards. In the data analysis technique section, Miles and Humerman's approach (1984; 1994) was introduced and the use of Vogt and Fesenmaier's model (1998) as an analytical framework was explained. In addition to in-depth interviews, the diary method was initially attempted. Due to the difficulty of locating potential respondents and the poor response rate, this method was subsequently abandoned. As a result, the qualitative inquiry for the present study was based exclusively on the results obtained from the in-depth interviews.

In the second section, the results of the qualitative enquiry for the present study were presented. It was shown that many respondents used travel guidebooks not only prior to, but also during, and even after the trip. In the prior to travel phase, functional needs were dominant but other non-functional needs, namely hedonic, aesthetic, and innovation needs were also indicated. In the during travel phase, only functional needs were evident. As for the non-users of travel guidebooks, deliberate non-users and others were detected. With respect to the distinction between users and non-users, it was implied that explanation by the variable of the type of tourist appears promising for those with functional needs only. Use of travel guidebooks by individuals with functional needs as well as non-functional needs may not be affected by such a variable. In addition, indications for **Research Questions** and implications for the subsequent quantitative component of the present study were given.

In the next chapter, the methodology and results of the quantitative component of the present study is described.

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## CHAPTER 5

### QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH (1): METHODOLOGY

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#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is an introduction to the quantitative research of the present study, exploring methodological issues associated with quantitative research, such as data collection and analysis procedures. The focus of this chapter is on the development of the relevant instrument, based on the concepts and the models presented in **Chapter 3** and the implications obtained by the qualitative research presented in **Chapter 4**. It also provides the explanations of quantitative data analysis strategies including validity and reliability analysis of the survey instrument.

The chapter begins with the issues relating to the development of the survey instrument (a questionnaire) including translation and pre-testing. A detailed discussion on the contents of the questionnaire then follows. The sample used in data collection is reported, and an explanation is provided of data analysis procedures and techniques.

#### 5.2 DEVELOPMENT OF THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Having completed the qualitative component as reported in **Chapter 4**, a survey using a self-administered questionnaire was conducted to collect quantitative data for the purposes of the study. A survey using a self-administered questionnaire was the preferred method because it was economical in its design and could cover the large sample size required for the study.

The present study required the development of a survey instrument that could measure the following issues:

- 
- Whether various information sources, including travel guidebooks, were used or not used for making decisions on a variety of travel components such as destination, accommodation, local transport, places to visit at the destination, activities, meals and shopping, both at the prior to and during travel stages.
  - Usefulness evaluation of various information sources, including travel guidebooks, by their users, both at the prior to and during travel stages.
  - Perceived needs for travel guidebook use.

Travel-related information was also needed to be collected, namely:

- type of tourist, based on the degree of 'freedom' exercised in travel decision-making;
- purpose of travel;
- duration of trip;
- (destination region)
- previous visitation to the destination;
- prior overseas travel experience; and
- fluency in English

In addition, socio-demographic information, i.e., age and gender were collected.

Since there was no ready-made questionnaire to measure all of these items and adequate enough to handle the content specific to this exploratory study, an original questionnaire for the purpose of the present study had to be constructed. A self-designed questionnaire was carefully developed, keeping in mind the variables under investigation. The following sections describe the process followed in developing the questionnaire, including the principles and practices of questionnaire design, the pre-test procedure, and the structure of the questionnaire.

### 5.2.1 Questionnaire Design

To encourage a sufficient number of respondents to participate in the survey within the limited time frame allowed for the quantitative component of the present study, and to assist respondents answering questions easily, the questionnaire had to be simple and had to include detailed instructions. As Kinnear and Taylor (1996) suggested, the questionnaire should have a professional appearance, particularly in the case of a self-administered survey which must rely on the visual impact. The format, spacing and positioning of questions can have a significant effect on the results. The questionnaire used in the survey was designed to make it easy for respondents to go from one question to the next, without being confused about what to do next.

The wording of questions was also fundamental. The language was kept as simple as possible. Designing questions which the respondents can answer easily and accurately is likely to reduce non-response and measurement errors (de Vaus 2002). Considerable attention was given to developing clear, unambiguous and useful instructions and questions. Closed-ended questions were the predominant form used in the questionnaire, because they are less demanding for respondents, tend to be specific, and answers are easier to code and analyse at the later stages of investigation (de Vaus 2002).

All questionnaire items were initially developed in English and subsequently translated into Japanese because the study population of the present study was Japanese overseas tourists. Translation of the questionnaire had a critical importance for the present study, as it can affect conceptual, instrument and measurement equivalence (Cavusgil and Das 1997). To this end, a back-translation procedure was implemented as follows. Firstly, the original questionnaire items prepared in English were translated into Japanese by a bilingual translator. Secondly, five bilingual Japanese translators with various educational backgrounds were asked independently to translate the Japanese version back into English. The detailed comparison of the original and five back-translated versions of the questionnaire contents resulted in several



inconsistencies. As a result of these findings, necessary modifications were made in the Japanese version of the questionnaire to ensure equivalence of the substance until consensus was reached in discussions among those translators involved in the translation/back-translation process.

### 5.2.2 Pre-Test and Item Modification

As Kinnear and Taylor (1996) suggested, all aspects of the questionnaire should be tested before the questionnaire can be regarded as ready for administration. Since part of the measurement items were developed specifically for the purposes of the present study, pre-tests of the instrument were considered to be necessary to verify its clarity before it was used on the sample population. The pre-test was conducted in two stages. First, a draft of the Japanese version of the questionnaire was circulated to 10 Japanese individuals of different ages in Melbourne, Australia. The purpose of this pre-test was not only to avoid linguistic errors that might have occurred in the translation process but also to find out whether instructions could be followed readily by respondents, whether the questions could be easily understood, how long it would take to complete, and what comments and suggestions were made by respondents. Comments by the respondents of the first pre-test assured that the instructions and questions in the questionnaire in Japanese were fairly clear and understandable. By way of incorporating suggestions provided by the pre-test respondents, modifications of wording were made to make all instructions and questions sound more natural in Japanese without detracting from the meaning of the original sentences.

Moreover, after the first pre-test, it became evident that modification of the items used to measure the needs for travel guidebooks was necessary. At this stage of the questionnaire development, Vogt and Fesenmaier's (1998) full list of 42 items for measuring the needs for travel information sources was tentatively used (see Table 2.1, p.50). The majority of respondents in the first pre-test suggested the length of the questionnaire was excessive, especially the part which asks about their needs for travel guidebooks. In addition, responses to the first pre-test indicated that some of the items (for example, 'Show others I am knowledgeable')

were not suitable to measuring the needs for travel guidebooks. Furthermore, it was also considered to be appropriate to take account of the results obtained from the qualitative research for the present study. As reported in **Chapter 4**, some other notable needs for travel guidebooks were specified, such as extensive use of maps within travel guidebooks and the confirmatory role of travel guidebooks, which are not included in the items developed by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998). The inappropriateness of using the whole scale developed by them in the context of the present study may be attributable to the differences in the scope of the studies and sample populations. The goal of their study was ‘to develop a reliable and valid scale to measure a variety of needs for information search in a tourism context’ (p.552), and the population was ‘individuals who requested vacation information about a specific Midwest United States destination’ (p.564). In contrast, the scope of the present study has been specifically on the role and use of a particular information source, travel guidebooks, and the sample population was Japanese overseas tourists.

The second pre-test was then conducted for the purpose of facilitating the selection of only appropriate items for a shorter list for measuring the needs for travel guidebooks, using a convenience sample of 42 Japanese tourists in Melbourne. Drawing upon the results of the second pre-test as well as the qualitative analysis of the in-depth interviews (as reported in **Chapter 4**), modifications of the list of items were made and a new list of 20 items was drawn up as shown in Table 5.1 (p.134). The number of items in the scale was eventually reduced to 20, which allowed for conciseness of the questionnaire, while maintaining the original intention of measuring the variety of needs for travel guidebooks, both functional and non-functional ones. Validity and reliability of this scale is discussed later in **Sections 5.4.2** and **5.4.3** (pp.150-157). The structure of the whole questionnaire is outlined in the next section.

**Table 5.1**  
**Items for Measuring the Needs of Travel Guidebooks**

Item No.	Item Statement
1	To obtain background information about the destination
2	To estimate travel expenses
3	To know about the highlights
4	To use maps
5	To discuss information with my travel companion
6	To travel efficiently
7	To have information that is concise
8	To reduce the likelihood of accident and disaster during travel
9	To reduce the likelihood of being disappointed at the destination
10	To confirm the places I visit during the trip
11	To feel at ease by carrying one during the trip
12	To be original with my vacation choice
13	To find information about new experiences
14	To plan exotic or almost impossible trips
15	To excite myself about travel
16	To enjoy reading travel guidebooks
17	To experience the culture of the area
18	To understand the personality of the community
19	To imagine the area
20	To reflect on previous trips by reading travel guidebooks

Note: Dimensions were subsequently generated by factor analysis (see Section 5.4.3 for details.)

### 5.2.3 Questionnaire Structure

For the quantitative research of the present study, two types of questionnaires were prepared: one for use in Australia for those who were currently traveling in Australia (see Appendix 2); and another for use in Japan for those who had been on an overseas trip within the past five years (see Appendix 3). Explanations as to the reasons for conducting surveys in two different countries which resulted in preparing two types of questionnaire is given in **Sections 5.3.1 and 5.3.2** (pp.140-144). The main content of the two questionnaires is almost exactly the same, though there are a couple of differences between the two: firstly, in the questionnaire used in Japan, two questions were added at the beginning of the questionnaire to ask about when and where the recent overseas trip was undertaken, which were not necessary in the questionnaire used in Australia; secondly, the numbering of the questions is different because of the additions described above; and, where necessary, different wording of the questions was employed accordingly, e.g. ‘the trip to Australia’ was replaced by ‘the most recent overseas trip’ to suit multi-destination participants. Except for these points, both questionnaires share the same contents.

In its final format, the four page questionnaire was a folded booklet, double-sided, and printed on A3 sized paper. To minimize the non-response rate, the questionnaire was printed on both sides of the paper thus lessening its apparent size. The full instruments (both Japanese and English versions) are contained in Appendices 2 and 3. The contents start with a greeting and general instruction for respondents, including an assurance of confidentiality and anonymity. There are seven sections in total. By employing the funnel approach, the sequencing of sections was designed to create a flow of thought that respondents could follow in answering the questions, moving from the general to the specific (Kinnear and Taylor 1996).

#### *Section 1: Characteristics of the Trip*

As explained above, in the questionnaire used in Japan, two questions were added at the beginning of the questionnaire to ask about when and to which country the

recent overseas trip was undertaken. Apart from these, there are five items asking generally about the trip in question, including purpose of travel, duration of trip, whether it was their first trip to the country, prior overseas travel experience, and how the trip was organised. This section was designed to lead respondents into more specific issues included in the subsequent sections.

***Section 2: Freedom in Travel Decision-Making***

This section was specifically designed to measure the freedom of travel decision-making enjoyed by respondents surrounding the trip in question. Respondents were asked whether they (or their travel companion) had arranged or booked each of their travel components (air ticket, accommodation, local transport, places to visit at the destination, activities at the destination, meals, shopping, and other) personally. In cases where travel components had been arranged by themselves, respondents were asked to tick the appropriate boxes provided in the column named 'self' in the table. In being asked to give further consideration to the ticked components, respondents were asked to indicate 'when', by ticking either 'before departure' or 'during the trip'.

***Section 3: Use of Information Sources for Making Decisions on Multiple Travel Components and Perceived Usefulness of the Sources Used***

This section was designed to investigate the relationship between the use of various information sources and travel decision-making, by measuring the use/non-use of various information sources for different travel components as well as the perceived usefulness of the sources evaluated by users. It consequently provides data to identify the relative position of travel guidebooks in relation to other sources of information for travel decision-making.

There have been numerous studies which attempted to measure the use of information sources by tourists or potential tourists. Referring to data collection about the use of information sources, Snepenger et al. (1990) argued that a more sensitive approach should be adopted than had been the case in a number of studies including their own, which employed a use/not use dichotomous format.

In a similar vein, Fesenmaier and Vogt (1992) pointed to the importance of perceived utility (or usefulness) in the case of tourism information needs. Researchers of several previous studies asked their respondents to evaluate sources of information. One example was the study by Capella and Greco (1987) asking about 'importance' using a five-point scale, which did not include travel guidebooks as a source of information in the list. The study by Fesenmaier and Vogt (1992) which, again, did not list travel guidebooks asked about the 'helpfulness' of different information sources using a five-point scale. Finally, Bieger and Laesser's study (2001) asked about the 'importance' of information sources on a four-point scale. Since this study included travel guidebooks in their list of entry together with the evaluation of information sources, the relative 'importance' (or position) of travel guidebooks perceived by the study respondents in relation to other sources of information can be identified from the results.

Although these studies attempted to measure the evaluation of travel information sources by users, they dealt only with the trip as a whole, and not the evaluation of information sources for each travel component, such as accommodation and meals. As previously discussed in **Chapters 2 and 3**, travel decision-making is not necessarily confined to destination choice, but is likely to be a combination of multiple travel components, especially for those travelling independently. For the purposes of the present study, it was useful to consider the 'type of tourist' variable with a view to examining the 'usefulness' of information sources, including travel guidebooks, for the individual travel components. The travel components included in the questionnaire were: destination; accommodation; local transport, places to visit at the destination; activities; meals; and shopping.

The scale for the usefulness evaluation ranges from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful'. To ensure that only those who used the particular sources to provide answers, an instruction 'regarding the sources that you didn't use, leave the boxes blank' was supplemented. With this instruction, the questionnaire was equipped to simultaneously measure whether the respondent used or did not use particular

information sources as well as how s/he evaluated the usefulness of the information source used. By requesting the respondent not to fill out all the boxes for answers in this section, it attempted to save the respondents time.

For the purposes of the present study, it was important to consider the use of information sources at the periods of both prior to and during the actual trip. As noted in **Chapters 2 and 3**, previous studies were largely concentrated on the use of information sources prior to travel. However, travel decisions can also be made during travel, and information sources may be used to facilitate such on-site decisions as well. As reported in **Chapter 4**, the qualitative component of the present study indicated the use of travel guidebooks during travel. When evaluating the usefulness of various sources of information, it was regarded more appropriate to take both prior to and during travel stages into consideration. In terms of the use of information sources after returning from the trip, qualitative results suggested that it was predominantly used for non-functional purposes – naturally, there is no need for travel decisions at that stage. Thus, use of information sources after returning from the trip was not asked for in this section which attempted to measure the relationship between the use of information sources and travel decision-making.

The sources of information listed in the table for ‘before departure’ in the questionnaire were adopted from a range of previous studies. They included: travel agent; package tour brochure; travel guidebook; TV, newspaper/magazine; Internet; information pack by tourism commission; WoM from family/friends; past experience; and other source. For the ‘during the trip’ table in the questionnaire, the sources of information listed were: tour guide; travel guidebook; onsite information center; Internet; WoM from local residents; WoM from other tourists; past experience; and other source. Given the absence of any previous studies considering the use of travel information during travel, the sources of information that were listed here were those indicated by the respondents in the qualitative component of the present study (in-depth interviews).

In summary, this section of the questionnaire asked respondents to evaluate the ‘usefulness’ of various information sources for multiple travel elements both prior to and during travel. The approach was designed to provide data for comparisons of the number of users and the perceived usefulness among various information sources by users in order to identify the relative position of travel guidebooks for travel decision-making.

#### ***Section 4: Use/Non-Use of Travel Guidebooks***

This section was designed to lead the respondent into the topic of travel guidebooks. The first question included in this section was to differentiate respondents who should proceed immediately to the next question (prepared for travel guidebook users for the trip in question) from those who should not. The latter group of respondents were guided to jump to the questions prepared for travel guidebook non-users for the trip in question.

#### ***Section 5: Needs for Travel Guidebooks***

This section asked respondents to illustrate the various needs for travel guidebooks. Of the two sets of statements proposed, respondents were required to answer only one set, according to their answer to the previous section: those who indicated that they had used travel guidebooks for the trip in question were asked to answer the first set which concerns the use of travel guidebooks for the trip in question; and those who indicated that they did not use a travel guidebook for the trip in question were asked to answer the second set which concerns the use of travel guidebooks for overseas trips in general. The reason for measuring the perceptions of those who did not use travel guidebooks for the trip in question was to investigate the different perceptions towards travel guidebooks between users and non-users.

There were 20 item statements regarding needs for travel guidebooks (Table 5.1, p.134), which were selected through the process described in **Section 5.2.2** (pp.132-134). Respondents were asked to provide an answer to each statement on a five-point scale, ranging from ‘1’ = ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘5’ = ‘strongly agree’,



to respond to the leading statement, 'the reason I used a travel guidebook are for this trip is ....' in the case of those who used travel guidebooks for the trip in question. In the case of those who did not use travel guidebooks for the trip in question, the leading statement was 'the reason I usually use travel guidebooks for overseas trips is...'.

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### ***Section 6: Open-Ended Question***

In an effort to assess the level of congruence with the qualitative results and allow the respondents to answer freely within their own frame of reference rather than one imposed by the researcher, this part of the instrument contained an open-ended question. It was designed to encourage respondents to express their feelings and opinions towards travel guidebooks using their own words. The question statement was 'what is a travel guidebook to you?' and the answer started with the introductory short sentence 'For me, a travel guidebook is ...', to allow respondents to report their thoughts, ideas, or perceptions.

### ***Section 7: About the Respondent***

The final section requested individual information from respondents. This component was left until this late stage, since personal questions such as gender, age and fluency in English may embarrass respondents when included at the beginning of a survey. As for fluency in English, respondents were asked to provide a self-evaluation using a five-point scale between '5 = very fluently' to '1 = not at all'.

## **5.3 SAMPLE POPULATION AND DATA COLLECTION**

This section describes the sampling and data collection procedure that was implemented for the quantitative survey in the present study. It includes the sampling technique employed, data collection procedure both in Australia and Japan, and usable sample.

### 5.3.1 Sampling

The target population of the present study was 'Japanese tourists to Australia'. Since such a target population is mobile at the destination, constantly changing over time, and a list of names and contact details were unavailable to the researcher, it was impossible to specify the sampling frame for the present study. Common methods used to select potential respondents from the target population are probability sampling techniques in which each member of the population has a known nonzero chance of being drawn into the sample. It is usually based on random selection, where every member of the population has an equal known chance of being selected (Zikmund 2000). In the present study, when faced with such a situation where the sampling frame was unavailable, non-probability sampling techniques were considered to be appropriate (de Vaus 2002).

In non-probability sampling, the selection of a population element to be part of the sample is based in some part on the judgement of the researcher. There is no known chance of any particular member of the population being selected. Purposive sampling is a form of non-probability sampling in which the researcher selects the sample based on his or her judgement about some appropriate characteristic required for the sample members. It requires the selection of a sample to serve a specific purpose, even if this makes the sample less than fully representative. While lacking representativeness, such a method can provide useful information (de Vaus 2002; Zikmund 2000). Given the circumstances surrounding the sampling frame and bearing in mind the exploratory nature of this study, purposive sampling was considered the most practical and appropriate technique available for the quantitative part of the present study.

### 5.3.2 Data Collection Procedure

For the purposes of the present study, it was important to have representation from a wide range of 'type of tourist', which must include participants in package tours based on different degrees of packaging, and independent travellers with different degrees of independence in their travel itinerary. To find an opportunity to approach such diverse respondents, the researcher contacted several travel-related

companies (such as inbound tour operators, accommodations, and information centres for Japanese) in Australia that might allow the researcher to approach Japanese tourists travelling in Australia. As a result, one Melbourne-based inbound tour operator specialising in the Japanese market agreed to cooperate in the present study (referred to as 'Company A', hereafter). It should be noted that this company is not a subsidiary of a particular Japanese tour operator but deals with tourists sent by numerous tour operators in Japan. This means that their customers make travel arrangements prior to departure with various travel agents all over Japan. To enable tourists to answer the questions regarding the use of information sources during travel, only Japanese tourists who had already stayed in Australia at least two nights were considered eligible to fill out the questionnaire. With these instructions on such purposive selection of the respondents, the questionnaires and complimentary small gifts for those who completed the questionnaire were passed on to Company A, and the data collection for the quantitative enquiry commenced in April 2002. Distribution of the questionnaire was conducted either by tour guides or by drivers of the transport vehicle to the airport.

Since the mainstream customers of Company A are Japanese tourists to Australia travelling with package or group tours, collaborating with this company provided the researcher with an opportunity to collect data from those with less freedom in their travel decision-making during travel. During the early phase of data collection, the returned questionnaires revealed that most of the respondents contacted through Company A were package or group tour participants exhibiting different degrees of travel itinerary flexibility. It became evident that the number of respondents who travel to Australia on an independent basis needed to be expanded with a view to balancing the number of respondents based on the 'type of tourist' variable. Accordingly, another travel-related company in Melbourne that was likely to provide access to Japanese independent travellers was approached by the researcher and offered to cooperate with the present study. The company (referred to as 'Company B', hereafter) operates a general information centre for Japanese tourists, working holidaymakers and students in Melbourne

Central Business District. This provided the researcher with the possibility of collecting data from independent Japanese travellers, who were otherwise extremely difficult to identify in a multicultural city like Melbourne. The questionnaires and small gifts for the respondents were left at the reception of Company B's information centre, and a big notice requesting survey participation was put on the reception desk as well as a communication board.

After the first three months of the fieldwork, it became apparent that data collection was progressing very slowly. Even with the help of travel-related businesses like Companies A and B, collecting data from Japanese tourists was extremely difficult. The ineffectiveness of the outcome may be attributable to the following factors: it was the low season for Japanese tourists to Australia; the decrease in the number of Japanese overseas tourists due to economic slowdown and 'the events of September 11<sup>th</sup>' occurred in the previous year. In view of the limited time and budget allowed for the completion of the study, there was an urgent need to speed up the data collection process and somehow increase the number of respondents to make the statistical analysis of the collected data possible. While the data collecting effort in Australia proceeded, it was decided to carry out a parallel survey with Japanese residents in Japan who had travelled to Australia over the past five years. To minimise any recall bias, those who travelled more than five years ago were excluded from the survey.

Without a list of Japanese tourists to Australia prior to contacting the respondents, it was impossible to specify those who visited Australia. As a consequence, the survey in Japan was conducted with any Japanese resident who had undertaken an overseas trip. They were asked to comment on their most recent overseas trip.

There were two channels for the distribution of the questionnaire in Japan. One was a lecture at a Japanese University with approximately 300 participants on the day of distribution. The researcher was allowed by the lecturer to spend the first 30 minutes of the lecture conducting the survey. She distributed the questionnaires to the attendants in the lecture with the help of two postgraduate students in that

university, made an announcement asking those who had experience of overseas travel to fill out the questionnaire on the spot, and collected the questionnaires 20 minutes later. The other channel was the researcher's selected acquaintances in Japan of various ages and occupations. Each of the acquaintances was asked to distribute the questionnaires to their manifold acquaintances who had travelled to any overseas destination within the last five years.

Given the time and budget available to the researcher, the above sampling methods and procedures were one of only a few possible ways to conduct a survey of this size on the use of travel guidebooks by Japanese overseas tourists.

### **5.3.3 Usable Sample**

The total number of questionnaires returned by December 2002 were: 154 from Company A; 84 from Company B; and 1,296 from Japan. All of the received questionnaires were examined to exclude those which were not substantially responsive to the requirements of the questionnaire based on the following criteria: 1) those containing responses to few or no questions; 2) those completed in full but with ticks entered into the boxes provided for writing a numerical evaluation; 3) those completed in full but showing a 'halo effect' in their answers; and 4) among the questionnaires distributed in Japan, those regarding the overseas trip more than five years ago. By eliminating such unusable questionnaires, the usable sample collected through Company A, Company B and in Japan was 96, 80 and 1,035, respectively. In the case of Company A, high reduction in the number of usable questionnaire mainly resulted from uncompleted questionnaires. A possible explanation is that most respondents contacted through Company A were visiting Australia for a short period of time, and thus many of them did not have enough time to complete the questionnaire until the end.

### **5.3.4 Characteristics of Sample Population**

Table 5.2 (p.145) exhibits demographic profiles and travel-related characteristics of the sample population. The sample population for the quantitative survey consists of three groups according to the channels of data collection: responses

**Table 5.2**  
**Distribution of Sociodemographic and Travel-Related Characteristics of Survey Respondents**

	All respondents (N=1211)		Japanese tourists to Australia collected from Company A (N=96)		Japanese tourists to Australia collected from Company B (N=80)		Japanese overseas tourists collected in Japan (N=1,035)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Type of tourist</b>								
Comprehensive Package Tour	358	29.6	75	78.1	3	3.8	280	27.1
Flexible Package Tour	482	39.8	14	14.6	7	8.8	461	44.5
Independent traveller	371	36.0	7	7.3	70	87.5	294	28.5
<b>Gender</b>								
Male	409	33.8	46	47.9	33	41.3	330	31.9
Female	802	66.2	50	52.1	47	58.8	705	68.1
<b>Age</b>								
18-25	345	28.5	18	18.8	39	48.8	288	27.8
26-35	361	29.8	8	8.3	38	47.5	315	30.4
36-55	299	24.7	19	19.8	3	3.8	277	26.8
56+	206	17.0	51	53.1	0	0	155	15.0
<b>Overseas Travel Experience in General</b>								
Less experienced	663	54.7	52	54.2	51	63.8	560	54.1
More experienced	548	45.2	44	45.8	29	36.3	475	45.9
<b>English Fluency</b>								
1 (not fluent at all)	409	33.8	58	60.4	7	8.8	344	33.2
2	379	31.3	21	21.9	29	36.3	329	31.8
3 (more fluent)	423	34.9	17	17.7	44	55.0	362	35.0
<b>Destination Region*</b>								
Australia	234	20.1	96	100.0	80	100.0	67	6.5
North America	308	25.4	N/A		N/A		308	29.8
Europe	229	18.9	N/A		N/A		229	22.1
North-East Asia	199	16.4	N/A		N/A		199	19.2
South-East Asia	170	14.0	N/A		N/A		170	16.9
Other region	62	5.1	N/A		N/A		62	6.0
<b>Purpose of Travel</b>								
Holiday	916	75.6	88	91.7	23	28.8	805	77.8
Visiting Friends and/or Relatives (VFR)	98	8.1	2	2.1	6	7.5	90	8.7
Business	61	5.0	4	4.2	3	3.8	54	5.2
Study	80	6.6	2	2.1	33	41.3	45	4.3
Other	56	4.6	0	0	15	18.8	41	4.0
<b>Duration of Trip</b>								
Up to 10 days	960	79.3	82	85.4	8	10.0	870	84.1
More than 10 days	251	20.7	14	14.6	72	90.0	165	15.9
<b>First Time/Repeater to the Destination Region</b>								
First time	816	67.4	78	81.3	48	60.0	690	66.7
Repeater	395	32.6	18	18.8	32	40.0	345	33.3

\*'North America' includes Canada and USA; 'North East Asia' includes China, Korea and Taiwan; 'South East Asia' includes Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam.

collected from Company A (N=96); responses collected from Company B (N=88); responses collected in Japan (N=1,035). Therefore, Table 5.2 (p.145) has four columns representing all respondents (N=1,211) and those three groups to illustrate the similarities and differences of the percentage of characteristics among these groups. An examination of the characteristics of respondents was made on the basis of type of tourist, gender, age group, overseas travel experience in general, fluency in English, destination region, purpose of travel, duration of trip, first time/repeater to the destination region.

#### 5.3.4.1 Type of Tourist

For the purposes of the present study, the analysis particularly focused on the type of tourist variable. Regarding this variable, respondents were categorised into three groups of 'comprehensive package tour participant', 'flexible package tour participant' and 'independent traveller'. This division was made based on the responses to the question, 'which components of your trip were arranged (or booked) by yourself (or your travel companion)?'. Those who indicated no travel components arranged (or booked) by themselves were categorised as a 'comprehensive package tour participant' and those who arranged (or booked) at least either their air ticket or accommodation by themselves were categorised as an 'independent traveller'. The rest of the respondents, i.e., those who did not arrange air ticket and accommodation but arranged some other component(s), were all allocated into the category of 'flexible package tour participant'.

According to Table 5.2 (p.145), it is noticeable that a great majority of the respondents accessed through Company A (N=96) were comprehensive package tour participants (75 respondents; 78.1%), less common were flexible package tour participants (14 respondents; 14.6%), and the least number were independent travellers (7 respondents; 7.3%). By contrast, the respondents accessed through Company B (N=80) consist of an overwhelming majority of independent travellers (70 respondents; 87.5%), and smaller groups of flexible package tour participants (7 respondents; 8.8%) and comprehensive package tour participants (3 respondents; 3.8%). As described in **Section 5.3.2** (pp.141-144), the

unbalanced distribution of the type of tourist variable among these two groups was somewhat expected, and the small number of respondents in these groups was also recognized by the researcher. In terms of statistical data analysis, it was considered that data analysis using these two data sets alone would be highly infeasible or of no consequence.

Meanwhile, Japanese overseas tourist respondents collected in Japan have a fairly even distribution over the three categories of the type of tourist variable: 27.1% were comprehensive package tour participants (280 respondents); 44.5% were flexible package tour participants (461 respondents); and 28.5% were independent travellers (294 respondents).

Since the type of tourist variable is the main independent variable for the present study, it was critical that the respondents are reasonably evenly distributed across the categories specified by this variable. If all three data sets are added up together irrespective of the channel of data collection, the distribution based on the type of tourist variable becomes more balanced, with 29.6% (358 respondents) as comprehensive package tour participants, 39.8% (482 respondents) as flexible package tour participants, and 36.0% (371 respondents) as independent travellers, respectively. Thus, in order to ensure the appropriateness of data analysis, the researcher decided that subsequent data analysis should be performed using the combined data set consisting of all respondents ( $N=1,211$ ), in which the distribution of the sample into each type of tourist is well balanced. In addition, there was a secondary product of this amalgamation of the three data sets: because the sample collected in Japan had more variety and was more substantial in number, the amalgamation enriched the total sample (e.g., the purpose of travel variable).

In terms of external validity, it was found that distribution over the three groups according to type of tourist was very similar to those reported by JTB Corp. (2002) where 'full package tours' account for 30.6%, 'free-time type tours' 24.8%, 'individually arranged travel' 33.9%, and 'group travel' 6.7%. It therefore



indicated that the sample selected in this study was reasonably representative of the study population in terms of this fundamental variable.

#### **5.3.4.2 Other Variables**

The descriptions of sample distribution based on other variables are made from the combined data set (N=1,211).

Gender distribution of the sample population is skewed toward more female respondents. While male respondents constituted 33.8% (409 respondents), female respondents made up 66.2% (809 respondents). In 2002, the percentage of all Japanese overseas tourists was, male 55.2% and female 44.8% (Kokudokotsusho 2003).

Regarding Age distribution, 28.5% (345 respondents) fall into the category of 18 to 25 years old, 29.8% (361 respondents) were from 26 to 35 years old, 24.7% (299 respondents) were from 36 to 55 years old, and 17.0% (206 respondents) were 56 years old and above. A comparison with the statistics available regarding overall Japanese overseas tourists in 2002 were similar to these percentages (Kokudokotsusho 2003)

The analysis of Overseas Travel Experience in General showed that those with less experience (up to 5 times) constituted 54.7% (663 respondents) and those with more experience (more than 5 times) accounted for 45.2% (548 respondents).

The level of English Fluency for respondents was diverse. Those who perceived their English as 'not fluent at all' ('1' in the 5-point likert scale in the questionnaire) constituted 33.8% of all respondents (409 respondents), while those who positioned their English fluency as '2' in the 5-point likert scale made up 31.3% (379 respondents). The rest of the respondents, 34.9% (423 respondents), reported themselves as being '3' to '5' (very fluent) in the five-point scale of English fluency.

Regarding the respondents' Destination Region, those who traveled to Australia were the biggest in number and constitute 20.1% (234 respondents). Given the data collection procedure as outlined earlier in this study, such a large representation is inevitable. North America (Canada and USA) had 25.4% (308 respondents), Europe had 18.8% (229 respondents), North-East Asia (China, Korea and Taiwan) had 16.4% (199 respondents), and South-East Asia (Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam) had 14.0% (170 respondents). Other respondents (62 respondents; 5.1%) had visited miscellaneous countries in other regions, such as New Zealand (13 respondents), Egypt (7 respondents), India (6 respondents), Nepal (4 respondents), around the world (3 respondents), Morocco (2 respondents), etc.

The Purpose of Travel variable recorded that 75.6% of all respondents (916 respondents) had travelled for a holiday, 8.1% had visited friends and/or relatives (VFR) (98 respondents), 6.6% had travelled for study (80 respondents), and 5.0% for business (61 respondents). It was found that 4.6% of all respondents (56 respondents) had travelled for other reasons, such as a 'working holiday' or attending a wedding (themselves or their family/friend's).

The analysis of Duration of Trip showed that 79.3% of total respondents (960 respondents) had travelled for less than 10 days. The rest, 20.7% (251 respondents) travelled relatively longer, more than 10 days.

Regarding Previous Visitation to the same destination region, the majority of respondents, 67.4% (816 respondents), indicated the trip concerned in their response was their first visitation to the region. 32.6% of the total respondents (935 respondents) reported that they were repeat visitors.

In summary, the sample of the survey was a mixture of Japanese overseas tourists with a wide variety of demographic and travel-related characteristics. In particular, it included a range of types of tourists based on the degree of freedom in travel decision-making and had fairly even numbers of respondents who could be

categorised into each of the three groups. As outlined in **Section 5.3.1** (p.141), this quantitative research employed a purposive sampling strategy which does not ensure the representativeness of the chosen sample at all aspects of respondents' characteristics. However, the possibility of covering the whole population in a study like this one is practically impossible. Therefore, given the exploratory nature of the present study, the sample population was considered appropriate for the statistical analysis reported in **Chapters 6 and 7**.

## **5.4 DATA ANALYSIS**

This section explains the strategies used to analyse the quantitative data.

### **5.4.1 Data Preparation**

Once the quantitative data were obtained through questionnaires, it was checked for missing values, omissions, ambiguity, inconsistencies and any other response errors. A coding manual was constructed which contained general instructions on how each variable was coded. For quantitative data input and analysis, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. The coded data were rechecked visually for the detection of any possible data entry errors. Finally, univariate descriptive statistics were computed for all the variables for accuracy of input as follows: the range of each variable was checked for out-of-range values; frequency counts were performed; the distribution of each variable was analyzed to detect irregular answers, and cases with extreme values; and the means and standard deviations were computed. The descriptive statistics were used to obtain the preliminary ideas and 'feel' about how respondents reacted to each item in the questionnaire. The results of descriptive analysis are presented in **Chapter 6**.

### **5.4.2 Validity and Reliability**

Validity and reliability of the measures attest to the scientific rigor applied to the research study. There are various forms of validity and reliability as discussed below.

Validity refers to the accuracy of a measurement, or how well the measurement

suits to what it is designed to measure (Zikmund 2000). There are several types of validity, and a number of different terms are used to denote these validity tests. For clarity, three broad groups of validity are noted in this section as suggested by Sekaran (2000): content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity. Content validity can be assured by agreement among experts that the scale is measuring what it is supposed to measure. In the present study, the self-administered questionnaire was constructed based on concepts of the developed model. Criterion-related validity can be assured by establishing concurrent validity. Concurrent validity is established when the scale discriminates individuals who are known to be different. Construct validity testifies to how well the results obtained from the use of the measure fit the theories around which the test is designed. This is assessed through convergent and discriminant validity, which can be established by factor analysis, as explained in **Section 5.4.3** (pp.151-157) in detail.

Reliability deals with how consistently similar measures will produce similar results. It has two dimensions: stability and internal consistency (Sekaran 2000). The former can be assured by conducting test-retest and parallel-form reliability. The latter refers to the ability of a scale item to correlate with other items of the same scale that are intended to measure the same construct. It can be assessed by Cronbach's coefficient Alpha reliability and was used for the questionnaire section that measures the need for travel guidebooks. Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) noted that the generally agreed upon lower limit for an Alpha value is 0.70, although it may decrease to 0.60 in exploratory research. In the present exploratory study, Alphas greater or equal to 0.60 were accepted. The results of Cronbach's coefficient Alpha reliability tests are shown after the dimensions among 20 items are determined in **Section 5.4.3** (pp.151-157).

### 5.4.3 Factor Analysis

In order to validate the measurement instrument of the needs for travel guidebooks, exploratory factor analysis was performed on the 20 items, using the two data sets: one consists of the respondents who used travel guidebooks for the

trip in question (N=1,007), and the other consists of respondents who did not use travel guidebooks for the trip in question (N=204). In addition to establishing construct validity, exploratory factor analysis was also useful for the following reasons: to detect scale dimensionality; to reduce the number of variables by grouping items into several key factors; and to explore the relationship between the items (Zikmund 2000).

For the reliability of exploratory factor analysis, it is essential that sample size should be sufficiently large. Researchers provide different arguments as to what the sample size should be. Hair et al. (1998) suggested that the sample size should be 100 or larger. Comrey and Lee (1992) listed as a guide, sample sizes of 50 as very poor, 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good, 500 as very good and 1000 as excellent. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001: 588) noted that 'As a general rule of thumb, it is comforting to have at least 300 cases for factor analysis'. Give these definitions, the sample size of the survey was sufficiently large enough for exploratory factor analysis.

Factor analysis is based on correlations between items. If the correlations are small, the data are inappropriate for factor analysis. To determine appropriateness of factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were examined. A value of 0.60 or above from the KMO measure of sampling adequacy test indicate that the data is adequate for exploratory factor analysis (Tabachnick and Fidel 2001). The data were put to test and showed an acceptable level of 0.86 and 0.86 of KMO measure, respectively. For Bartlett's test of sphericity, a significant value less than 0.05 means the data were appropriate for an exploratory factor analysis. The Bartlett's tests for both data sets demonstrated significance at the level of  $p < 0.001$ .

Principal component analysis for factor extraction was used because it is less complicated than the other method of principle axis factoring (Hair et al. 1998). The Varimax with Kaiser normalization rotation was used to produce a clear factor structure as it produced a simple and more interpretable solution of factor

structure. The factor loadings of 0.40 and above were considered, as Hair et al. (1998) noted that factor loadings greater than 0.30 are considered to meet the minimum level; loadings of 0.40 are considered more important; and loadings of 0.50 or greater are considered practically significant.

Factor analysis of the two data sets (travel guidebook users and non-users) detected five underlying dimensions, which explained 58.0% and 63.4% of the variances, respectively. Results produced similarities in grouping the items. All 20 items loaded saliently (0.40 or greater) on five dimensions, as exhibited in Table 5.3 (p.154) and 5.4 (p.155) respectively. In the case that an item was loaded in two components, only the one with the greater loading was considered.

The constructs of the needs for travel guidebooks and the items included in each construct are displayed in Table 5.5 (p.156). The five constructs as suggested by factor analysis are named as: functional needs; forward-looking needs; enjoyment needs; learning needs; and travel guidebook enthusiast needs.

The first construct consists of six items. Each of these items indicated that this construct is related to immediate and direct utilitarian necessities that must be fulfilled for the completion of a trip. Since all these items were formally categorised in 'functional needs', it was decided to retain this label. It is expected that this is the core dimension, as reported by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) and the results of the qualitative component of the present study.

The second construct also includes six items. Although it is the aggregate part of the former 'functional needs' and former 'innovation needs', all the items appear to point to events to be happening in the subsequent trip. Therefore, this dimension was defined as 'forward-looking needs'.

The third construct is composed of three items. They are connected to feelings of arousal and being entertained by the use of travel guidebooks, which may or may not concern the actual trip or travelling plan. Thus, this construct was labelled as

**Table 5.3**  
**Rotated Component Matrix: Travel Guidebook Users (N = 1,007)**

No.	Item	Component				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	to obtain background information about the destination		.666			
2	to estimate travel expenses	.651				
3	to know about highlights		.715			
4	to use maps		.582			
5	to discuss information with my travel companion		.510			
6	to travel efficiently	.432	.639			
7	to have information that is concise		.515			
8	to reduce the likelihood of accident and disaster during travel	.518				
9	to reduce the likelihood of being disappointed at the destination	.552			.405	
10	to confirm the places I visit during the trip				.817	
11	to feel at ease by carrying one during the trip				.614	
12	to be original with my vacation choice	.725				
13	to find information about new experiences	.568				
14	to plan exotic or almost impossible trips	.706				
15	to excite myself about travel			.806		
16	to enjoy reading travel guidebooks			.795		
17	to experience the culture of the area					.738
18	to understand the personality of the community					.821
19	to imagine the area			.658		
20	to reflect on previous trips by reading travel guidebooks			.486	.582	

Extraction method: Principal component analysis  
Rotation method: Varimax with Kaizer normalization  
a. Rotation converged 6 iterations.

**Table 5.4**  
**Rotated Component Matrix: Travel Guidebooks Non-Users (N =204)**

No.	Item	Component				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	to obtain background information about the destination			.602		
2	to estimate travel expenses	.493				
3	to know about highlights			.726		
4	to use maps			.703		
5	to discuss information with my travel companion		.461	.415		
6	to travel efficiently			.719		
7	to have information that is concise					.465
8	to reduce the likelihood of accident and disaster during travel	.600				
9	to reduce the likelihood of being disappointed at the destination	.467	.615			
10	to confirm the places I visit during the trip	.771				
11	to feel at ease by carrying one during the trip	.617				
12	to be original with my vacation choice		.747			
13	to find information about new experiences		.697			
14	to plan exotic or almost impossible trips		.651			
15	to excite myself about travel			.818		
16	to enjoy reading travel guidebooks			.762		
17	to experience the culture of the area					.838
18	to understand the personality of the community					.850
19	to imagine the area				.622	
20	to reflect on previous trips by reading travel guidebooks	.685			.403	

Extraction method: Principal component analysis  
Rotation method: Varimax with Kaizer normalization  
a. Rotation converged 8 iterations.



**Table 5.5**  
**Constructs of the Needs for Travel Guidebook and Items**

Constructs	Item No.	Item Statements
Functional Needs	1	To obtain background information on the destination
	3	To know about highlights
	4	To use the maps
	5	To discuss information with my travel companion
	6	To travel efficiently
	7	To have information that is concise
Forward-Looking Needs	2	To estimate travel expenses
	8	To reduce the likelihood of accident and disaster during the trip
	9	To reduce the likelihood of being disappointed at the destination
	12	To be original with my vacation choice
	13	To find information about new experience
Enjoyment Needs	14	To plan exotic or almost impossible trips
	15	To excite myself about travel
	16	To enjoy reading travel guidebooks
Learning Needs	19	To imagine the area
	17	To experience the culture of the area
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	18	To understand the personality of the community
	10	To confirm the places I visit during the trip
	11	To feel at ease by carrying one during the trip
	20	To reflect on trip by reading travel guidebooks

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‘enjoyment needs’.

The fourth construct is formed by two items. Both denote acquiring knowledge or experience about different regions, which may or may not relate to an actual trip or travelling plan. Hence, the name of this construct was given as ‘learning needs’.

The final construct is based on three items, all of which are related to heavy use and reliance on travel guidebooks. For those within this component, travel guidebooks may not only be a tool to satisfy their needs, but acts of using a travel guidebook itself may fulfil their needs. Therefore, this construct was named as ‘travel guidebook enthusiast needs’.

Once the factors were extracted, each was calculated for its consistency using the Cronbach’s Alpha to ensure the reliability of a factor structure. Hair et al. (1998) noted that the generally agreed upon lower limit for an Alpha value is 0.70, although it may decrease to 0.60 in exploratory research. In the present exploratory study, Alphas greater or equal to 0.60 were accepted. Table 5.6 (p.158) displays the results of Cronbach’s Alpha. For all constructs, the Alpha values are above the criteria of 0.60 and none of ‘Alpha if the item deleted’ value shows the improvement of the scores. This result suggested strong internal consistency in factor structure.

## 5.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has focused on the methods used in the quantitative enquiry, including the development of the instrument, the pilot tests, data collection and analysis processes, and reliability and validity of the scale for measuring variety of the needs for travel guidebook. The research instrument developed specifically for the present study was pre-tested twice, once with the convenience sample of Japanese students in Australia, and the other with Japanese tourists in Melbourne, Australia. The data collection section included a discussion of the sample used, the survey procedure, the response rate, the useable sample, problems encountered

**Table 5.6**  
**Consistency of Factor Structure**

Construct	Alpha	Item No.	Item Statement	Alpha if item deleted
Functional Needs	0.71	1	to obtain background information about the destination	0.69
		3	to know about highlights	0.66
		4	to use maps	0.69
		5	to discuss information with my travel companion	0.70
		6	to travel efficiently	0.62
		7	to have information that is concise	0.68
Forward-Looking Needs	0.75	2	to estimate travel expenses	0.74
		8	to reduce the likelihood of accident and disaster during travel	0.72
		9	to reduce the likelihood of being disappointed at the destination	0.74
		12	to be original with my vacation choice	0.68
		13	to find information about new experiences	0.70
		14	to plan exotic or almost impossible trips	0.69
Enjoyment Needs	0.67	15	to excite myself about travel	0.45
		16	to enjoy reading travel guidebooks	0.63
		19	to understand the personality of the community	0.62
Learning Needs	0.83	17	to imagine the area	*
		18	to experience the culture of the area	*
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	0.78	10	to confirm the places I visit during the trip	0.67
		11	to feel at ease by carrying one during the trip	0.67
		20	to reflect on previous trips by reading travel guidebooks	0.75

\* Alpha if item deleted figures were not calculated because only two items were present in this category.

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in collecting data, and characteristics of sample population. This chapter also included discussions on reliability and validity of the scale designed to measure the needs for travel guidebooks. Based on the results of factor analysis, new five constructs were formed for the present study. Reliability and validity of the scale was also assured.

The results of the quantitative descriptive analysis are presented in the next chapter.

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## CHAPTER 6

### QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH (2): DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

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#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

**Chapter 5** presented methodology used for quantitative research in the present study. This chapter reports descriptive results of the quantitative analysis. The main objective of descriptive analysis is to determine the number, percentage, mean scores and standard deviations of responses on each of the variables. To achieve this objective, frequency tables are utilized throughout this chapter. It also attempts to indicate answers to **Research Questions 1** and **3**, specified in **Chapter 3**.

This chapter consists of two main sections. Firstly, responses on use of various information sources for travel decision-making purposes are presented. In this section, there are two sub-sections: respondents as a whole; and three groups of respondents categorised by the type of tourist. In each sub-section, responses are reported both prior to and during travel stages. Secondly, results of descriptive analysis on various needs for travel guidebooks are shown. The questionnaire used in the survey included 20 items which were designed to measure needs for travel guidebooks. As already reported in **Section 5.4.3, Chapter 5** (pp.151-157), the responses were factor analysed and five constructs were loaded, namely functional needs, forward-looking needs, enjoyment needs, learning needs, and travel guidebook enthusiast needs (see Table 5.5, p.156). Descriptive results obtained from travel guidebook users and non-users (for the trip in question) are reported separately.

#### 6.2 THE USE OF INFORMATION SOURCES FOR TRAVEL DECISION-MAKING

This section reports the numbers and percentages of users of various information sources for multiple travel components as well as their perceived usefulness

evaluated by users. Data described here is used to identify the relative position of travel guidebooks for travel decision-making purpose in relation to other sources of information, in **Chapter 7**.

Quantitative data were collected in a way so as the perceived useful evaluation of an item would only be provided by respondents who used the particular source of information for the particular travel component (for example, the perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks for accommodation information was only evaluated by those who used travel guidebooks for accommodation information). Therefore, the number of users for each item was drawn by counting the frequency of responses in the item, while the responses were also used to calculate the mean score of each item. The scale used for the usefulness evaluation ranges from ‘1’= ‘not at all’ to ‘5’= ‘very useful’.

This section consists of two sub-sections: all respondents as a whole; and three groups of respondents categorised by the type of tourist (i.e., comprehensive package tour participant, flexible package tour participant, and independent traveller). Since the present study is concerned with the temporal dimension of information use (use of information sources for pre-departure travel decision-making as well as for travel decision-making during travel), survey respondents were asked to provide responses about their use of information sources in the prior to travel stage and during travel stage separately. Consequently, the results in each sub-section are presented in two stages.

**6.2.1 All Respondents**

This section has two stages of prior to and during travel use.

**6.2.1.1 Prior to Travel**

Table 6.1 (p.162) shows the numbers of respondents who used various information sources prior to travel, their proportions among all respondents, mean scores of perceived usefulness evaluated by users and standard deviations. The ten information sources listed in this stage were: ‘travel guidebook’, ‘travel agent’,

**Table 6.1**  
**Information Source Use and Perceived Usefulness of Information Sources**  
**Evaluated by Users among All Respondents (N=1,211): Prior to Travel**

Information source	Travel component	Information source users			
		N	%	Mean	SD
Travel guidebook	Destination	681	56.2	3.97	0.90
	Accommodation	535	44.2	3.37	1.16
	Local transport	613	50.6	3.76	1.05
	Places to visit	683	56.4	3.96	0.94
	Activities	560	46.2	3.70	1.03
	Meals	631	52.1	3.52	1.10
	Shopping	666	55.0	3.62	1.05
Travel agent	Destination	552	45.6	3.50	1.04
	Accommodation	542	44.8	3.56	1.14
	Local transport	431	35.6	3.07	1.18
	Places to visit	411	33.9	3.22	1.15
	Activities	372	30.7	2.98	1.15
	Meals	393	32.5	2.69	1.11
	Shopping	361	29.8	2.71	1.14
Package tour brochure	Destination	497	41.0	3.38	0.96
	Accommodation	425	35.1	3.19	1.03
	Local transport	339	28.0	2.72	1.10
	Places to visit	380	31.4	3.23	1.09
	Activities	309	25.5	2.95	1.06
	Meals	340	28.1	2.70	1.11
	Shopping	330	27.3	2.67	1.10
TV	Destination	216	17.8	2.83	1.05
	Accommodation	147	12.1	2.01	0.99
	Local transport	141	11.6	1.93	0.96
	Places to visit	162	13.4	2.62	1.14
	Activities	152	12.6	2.41	1.07
	Meals	163	13.5	2.53	1.13
	Shopping	161	13.3	2.52	1.18
Newspaper/ Magazine	Destination	220	18.2	3.10	1.21
	Accommodation	171	14.1	2.57	1.28
	Local transport	160	13.2	2.41	1.24
	Places to visit	188	15.5	3.06	1.30
	Activities	168	13.9	2.85	1.28
	Meals	184	15.2	3.02	1.31
	Shopping	194	16.0	3.07	1.34
Internet	Destination	336	27.8	3.69	1.03
	Accommodation	266	22.0	3.46	1.29
	Local transport	213	17.6	3.06	1.38
	Places to visit	244	20.2	3.30	1.25
	Activities	212	17.5	3.19	1.30
	Meals	212	17.5	3.01	1.31
	Shopping	209	17.3	3.01	1.32
DMO Information Pack	Destination	226	18.7	3.12	1.11
	Accommodation	184	15.2	2.68	1.17
	Local transport	210	17.3	3.12	1.21
	Places to visit	217	17.9	3.15	1.18
	Activities	189	15.6	3.08	1.06
	Meals	184	15.2	2.78	1.14
	Shopping	188	15.5	2.80	1.16
WoM from family/friend	Destination	416	34.4	3.78	1.05
	Accommodation	301	24.9	3.42	1.31
	Local transport	287	23.7	3.34	1.32
	Places to visit	352	29.1	3.69	1.24
	Activities	295	24.4	3.50	1.30
	Meals	374	30.9	3.64	1.23
	Shopping	364	30.1	3.57	1.26
Past experience	Destination	403	33.3	3.75	1.11
	Accommodation	324	26.8	3.44	1.24
	Local transport	345	28.5	3.57	1.21
	Places to visit	326	26.9	3.49	1.21
	Activities	311	25.7	3.53	1.18
	Meals	355	29.3	3.54	1.11
	Shopping	364	30.1	3.62	1.14
Other sources	Destination	13	1.1	3.92	1.26
	Accommodation	9	0.7	4.00	1.41
	Local transport	9	0.7	4.00	1.22
	Places to visit	9	0.7	3.78	.97
	Activities	9	0.7	3.67	1.41
	Meals	9	0.7	3.33	1.32
	Shopping	10	0.8	3.40	1.17

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful') was used.

‘package tour brochure’, ‘TV’, ‘newspaper/magazine’, ‘internet’, ‘DMO information pack’, ‘WoM from family/friend’, ‘past experience’ and ‘other source’. The seven travel components included in this stage were: ‘destination’, ‘accommodation’, ‘local transport’, ‘places to visit’, ‘activities’, ‘meals’ and ‘shopping’.

According to Table 6.1 (p.162), the information source used by the largest number of respondents prior to travel was ‘travel guidebook’, with the exception of ‘accommodation’ information. ‘Travel guidebook’ was used for all travel components by roughly half of all respondents (ranging from 46.2% to 56.4% of all respondents). ‘Travel agent’ (ranging from 29.8% to 45.6% of all respondents) and ‘package tour brochure’ (ranging from 27.3% to 41.0% of all respondents) formed the second largest group for most travel components. Additionally, ‘travel agent’ was used by the largest number of respondents for ‘accommodation’ information. Considering the fact that approximately two-thirds of all respondents participated in a package tour (either comprehensive or flexible package tour), the popularity of these two sources is understandable. It is evident from Table 6.1 that the remaining sources were used by a much smaller number of respondents. These results indicate support for **Hypothesis 1** (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by all tourists prior to the travel stage’). It appears that across the multiple travel components, ‘travel guidebook’ was particularly heavily used for ‘destination’, ‘local transport’, ‘places to visit’, ‘meals’, and ‘shopping’ information, though the degree of differences between other information sources were not clear from these descriptive results. Testing of this hypothesis is presented in **Section 7.2.1.1** in **Chapter 7** (pp.193-200).

In terms of the mean scores of the perceived usefulness, Table 6.1 (p.162) shows that ‘travel guidebook’ was evaluated well above the neutral point of 3.00 in the five-point scale for multiple travel components (ranging from 3.52 to 3.97). Comparable results are displayed in the rows of ‘WoM from family/friend’ (ranging from 3.34 to 3.78) as well as ‘past experience’ (ranging from 3.44 to



3.75), though, interestingly, these sources were apparently used by a limited number of respondents in comparison to ‘travel guidebook’. These descriptive results warrant the testing of **Hypothesis 2** (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered by all tourists as more useful than other information sources prior to the travel stage’). The results of inferential analysis on this hypothesis is presented in **Section 7.2.1.1** in **Chapter 7** (pp.193-200).

In addition, while items in ‘other source’ indicated relatively high mean scores (ranging from 3.33 to 4.00), they were used by only a few percent of total respondents (ranging from 0.7% to 1.1%). Therefore, it was decided that these items would be excluded from further analysis.

In summary, the descriptive results shown in Table 6.1 (p.162) indicated that, prior to travel, ‘travel guidebook’ was the most popular information source for most of the travel components and users evaluated it relatively higher than other sources. ‘Travel agent’ and ‘package tour brochure’ were also popular, though users did not perceive their usefulness as high as those of ‘travel guidebook’. ‘WoM from family/friend’ and ‘past experience’ recorded higher mean scores of perceived usefulness evaluation by their users, though the number of users were limited. The rest of the sources were not as popular as the above sources and evaluated lower.

**6.2.1.2 During Travel**

Table 6.2 (p.165) displays the numbers of respondents who used various information sources during travel, their proportions among all respondents, mean scores of perceived usefulness evaluated by users and standard deviations. The eight information sources listed in this stage were: ‘travel guidebook’, ‘tour guide’, ‘onsite information centre’, ‘internet’, ‘WoM from local residents’, ‘WoM from other tourists’, ‘past experience’, and ‘other source’. The six travel components included in this stage were: ‘accommodation’, ‘local transport’, ‘places to visit’, ‘activities’, ‘meals’, and ‘shopping’.

**Table 6.2**  
**Information Source Use and Perceived Usefulness of Information Sources**  
**Evaluated by Users among All Respondents (N=1,211): During Travel**

Information source	Travel component	Information source users			
		N	%	Mean	SD
Travel guidebook	Accommodation	488	40.3	3.45	1.19
	Local transport	576	47.6	3.82	1.02
	Places to visit	628	51.9	3.97	0.89
	Activities	531	43.9	3.73	0.98
	Meals	611	50.5	3.64	1.03
	Shopping	630	52.0	3.70	1.02
Tour guide	Accommodation	474	39.1	3.65	1.05
	Local transport	465	38.4	3.76	1.01
	Places to visit	501	41.4	3.94	0.96
	Activities	439	36.3	3.76	0.96
	Meals	461	38.1	3.58	1.03
	Shopping	446	36.8	3.47	1.08
Onsite Information centre	Accommodation	228	18.8	3.22	1.26
	Local transport	289	23.9	3.62	1.17
	Places to visit	284	23.5	3.57	1.11
	Activities	267	22.0	3.59	1.13
	Meals	242	20.0	3.19	1.18
	Shopping	231	19.1	3.20	1.21
Internet	Accommodation	125	10.3	3.22	1.36
	Local transport	117	9.7	2.97	1.20
	Places to visit	125	10.3	3.08	1.20
	Activities	120	9.9	3.23	1.27
	Meals	111	9.2	3.00	1.19
	Shopping	108	8.9	3.06	1.26
WoM from local residents	Accommodation	214	17.7	3.58	1.36
	Local transport	264	21.8	3.98	1.20
	Places to visit	293	24.2	4.00	1.14
	Activities	275	22.7	3.90	1.15
	Meals	327	27.0	4.07	1.10
	Shopping	296	24.4	3.92	1.21
WoM from other tourists	Accommodation	170	14.0	3.25	1.36
	Local transport	182	15.0	3.43	1.30
	Places to visit	198	16.4	3.59	1.30
	Activities	186	15.4	3.49	1.24
	Meals	207	17.1	3.53	1.25
	Shopping	201	16.6	3.43	1.27
Past experience	Accommodation	292	24.1	3.53	1.20
	Local transport	327	27.0	3.67	1.14
	Places to visit	305	25.2	3.53	1.20
	Activities	282	23.3	3.52	1.12
	Meals	339	28.0	3.64	1.07
	Shopping	350	28.9	3.67	1.05
Other sources	Accommodation	14	1.2	4.14	1.17
	Local transport	19	1.6	4.00	1.20
	Places to visit	16	1.3	4.19	0.91
	Activities	17	1.4	3.94	0.97
	Meals	18	1.5	4.11	0.90
	Shopping	13	1.1	3.85	1.21

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful') was used.

According to Table 6.2 (p.165), the most popular information source for all travel components during travel was ‘travel guidebook’. Similar to the results of prior to travel, it was used by roughly half of all respondents (ranging from 40.3% to 52.0% of respondents). The only comparable results can be found in the numbers of ‘tour guide’ users (ranging from 36.8% to 41.4% of all respondents). These percentages are reasonable because approximately one-third of survey respondents participated in a comprehensive package tour. In regard to **Hypothesis 3** (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by all tourists during the travel stage’), descriptive results indicate some support. It appears that across the multiple travel components, ‘travel guidebook’ was particularly heavily used for ‘local transport’, ‘places to visit’, ‘meals’, and ‘shopping’ information at the during travel stage.

In terms of perceived usefulness of information sources evaluated by the users, descriptive results in Table 6.2 (p.165) suggest that three sources were similarly considered more useful than other sources during travel: ‘travel guidebook’ (ranging from 3.45 to 3.97); ‘tour guide’ (ranging from 3.47 to 3.94); and ‘WoM by local residents’ (ranging from 3.58 to 4.07). However, interestingly, while the former two sources which were used by about 30-50% of all respondents, the latter source was used by less than 20 % of all respondents (ranging from 14.0% to 17.1%). Testing of **Hypothesis 4** (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered by all tourists as more useful than other information sources during the travel stage’) by inferential analysis is reported in **Section 7.2.1.2 in Chapter 7** (pp.200-207).

It needs to be mentioned that, while the mean scores of perceived usefulness of ‘other source’ were also relatively higher (ranging from 3.85 to 4.19), these items will not be considered in further analysis because the number of users were only a few percent of all respondents (ranging from 1.1% to 1.6%).

In summary, during travel, the most popular information source among all respondents was ‘travel guidebook’. In fact, it was used by the largest number of respondents at both prior to and during travel stages, except for ‘accommodation information’ prior to travel stage. Other relatively popular information sources were all related to ‘package tour’, i.e., ‘travel agent’ and ‘package tour brochure’ prior to travel stage, and ‘tour guide’ during travel stage. In regard to perceived usefulness of information source, descriptive results showed that ‘travel guidebook’ was recognized as the most useful information source prior to travel, and regarded as one of the most useful sources during travel.

**6.2.2 Type of Tourist**

In the previous section, the number of users and perceived usefulness of various information sources were examined on the basis of all respondents as a whole. This section looks at the same issue across three different types of tourists categorised by their degree of freedom exercised in travel decision-making, namely: comprehensive package tour participants (N=358); flexible package tour participants (N=482); and independent travellers (N=371).

**6.2.2.1 Prior to Travel**

Table 6.3 (p.168) shows the number of users of various information sources prior to travel across the three groups and the percentage of information users within each group. The group with the highest percentage of travel guidebook use for most of travel components was independent travellers (ranging from 52.8% to 64.7%). The second highest group was flexible package tour participants (ranging from 44.6% to 57.3%). The only travel component which recorded a higher percentage of use among flexible tour participants than independent traveller was ‘shopping’ (60.6% and 57.4%, respectively). The lowest percentage of travel guidebook users within the group was recorded by comprehensive package tour participants for all travel components (ranging from 31.8% to 46.1%). Testing of **Hypothesis 5** (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater ‘freedom’ in their decision-making prior to the travel stage’) by inferential analysis is reported in

**Table 6.3**  
**Information Source Use across Three Types of Tourist : Prior to Travel**

Source of information	Travel components	Comprehensive package tour participants (N=358)		Flexible package tour participants (N=482)		Independent Travellers (N=371)	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Travel Guidebook	Destination	165	46.1	276	57.3	240	64.7
	Accommodation	124	34.6	215	44.6	196	52.8
	Local Transport	123	34.4	265	55.0	225	60.6
	Places to Visit	146	40.8	293	60.8	244	65.8
	Activities	114	31.8	237	49.2	208	56.1
	Meals	141	39.4	273	56.6	217	58.5
	Shopping	161	45.0	292	60.6	213	57.4
Travel Agent	Destination	166	46.4	261	54.1	125	33.7
	Accommodation	166	46.4	256	53.1	121	32.6
	Local Transport	140	39.1	197	40.9	94	25.3
	Place to Visit	138	38.5	195	40.5	78	21.0
	Activities	121	33.8	173	35.9	78	21.0
	Meals	145	40.5	172	35.7	76	20.5
	Shopping	128	35.8	159	33.0	74	19.9
Package Tour Brochure	Destination	154	43.0	259	53.7	84	22.6
	Accommodation	136	38.0	220	45.6	69	18.6
	Local Transport t	110	30.7	170	35.3	59	15.9
	Places to Visit	128	35.8	184	38.2	68	18.3
	Activities	99	27.7	152	31.5	58	15.6
	Meals	117	32.7	164	34.0	59	15.9
	Shopping	117	32.7	154	32.0	59	15.9
TV	Destination	57	15.9	95	19.7	64	17.3
	Accommodation	42	11.7	64	13.3	41	11.1
	Local Transport	38	10.6	61	12.7	42	11.3
	Places to Visit	47	13.1	68	14.1	47	12.7
	Activities	40	11.2	64	13.3	48	12.9
	Meals	47	13.1	71	14.7	45	12.1
	Shopping	44	12.3	71	14.7	46	12.4
Newspaper/ Magazine	Destination	57	15.9	91	18.9	72	19.4
	Accommodation	46	12.8	64	13.3	61	16.4
	Local Transport	41	11.5	63	13.1	56	15.1
	Places to Visit	48	13.4	74	15.4	66	17.8
	Activities	39	10.9	68	14.1	61	16.4
	Meals	49	13.7	73	15.1	62	16.7
	Shopping	47	13.1	80	16.6	67	18.1
Internet	Destination	61	17.0	122	25.3	153	41.2
	Accommodation	47	13.1	93	19.3	126	34.0
	Local Transport	36	10.1	72	14.9	105	28.3
	Places to Visit	43	12.0	90	18.7	111	29.9
	Activities	35	9.8	75	15.6	102	27.5
	Meals	40	11.2	77	16.0	95	25.6
	Shopping	42	11.7	74	15.4	93	25.1
DMO Information Pack	Destination	45	12.6	73	15.1	108	29.1
	Accommodation	38	10.6	56	11.6	90	24.3
	Local Transport	40	11.2	71	14.7	99	26.7
	Places to Visit	42	11.7	70	14.5	105	28.3
	Activities	36	10.1	61	12.7	92	24.8
	Meals	42	11.7	60	12.4	82	22.1
	Shopping	42	11.7	62	12.9	84	22.6
WoM from Family/Friend	Destination	87	24.3	150	31.1	179	48.2
	Accommodation	59	16.5	99	20.5	143	38.5
	Local Transport	53	14.8	102	21.2	132	35.6
	Places to Visit	73	20.4	130	27.0	149	40.2
	Activities	56	15.6	114	23.7	125	33.7
	Meals	76	21.2	142	29.5	156	42.0
	Shopping	82	22.9	137	28.4	145	39.1
Past Experience	Destination	78	21.8	147	30.5	178	48.0
	Accommodation	73	20.4	106	22.0	145	39.1
	Local Transport	67	18.7	123	22.0	155	37.2
	Places to Visit	72	20.1	103	21.4	151	40.7
	Activities	67	18.7	106	22.0	138	37.2
	Meals	79	22.1	132	27.4	144	38.8
	Shopping	80	22.3	135	28.0	149	40.2

**Section 7.2.2.1 in Chapter 7** (pp.208-219).

Table 6.4 (p.170) shows the mean scores of perceived usefulness of various information sources evaluated by users prior to travel across three types of tourist and standard deviations. In terms of ‘travel guidebook’, differences in mean scores across the three groups are not very evident. While flexible package tour participants and independent travellers are the two groups which had relatively high mean scores of travel guidebook usefulness (ranging from 3.35 to 4.07 and from 3.40 to 4.05, respectively), mean scores from comprehensive package tour participants did not differ significantly (ranging 3.15 to 3.83). From these descriptive results, it is not clear whether **Hypothesis 6** (‘for travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered as a more useful information source than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater ‘freedom’ in their decision-making prior to the travel stage’) is supported or not. Therefore, it was further examined by inferential analysis and the results are presented in **Section 7.2.2.1, in Chapter 7** (pp.208-219).

**6.2.2.2 During Travel**

Table 6.5 (p.171) displays the number of users of various information sources in the during travel stage across three groups based on the type of tourist variable and the proportion of information source users within each group. Whereas independent travellers achieved the highest percentages of ‘travel guidebook’ users for information on ‘accommodation’ (48.5%), ‘local transport’ (54.7%), ‘places to visit’ (59.8%) and ‘activities’ (50.4%), the percentage of ‘travel guidebook’ users among flexible package tour participants were higher for information on ‘meal’ (57.7%) and ‘shopping’ (59.8%). The category of comprehensive package tour participants had the lowest percentage of ‘travel guidebook’ users for all travel components.

Comparing across different sources of information, it was found that, among independent travellers, ‘travel guidebook’ was the most used information source for any travel component during travel. In the case of flexible package tour

**Table 6.4**  
**Perceived Usefulness of Information Sources Evaluated by Users across Three Types of Tourist : Prior to Travel**

Source of Information	Travel Components	Comprehensive Package Tour (N=358)		Flexible Package Tour (N=482)		Independent Travellers (N=371)	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Travel Guidebook	Destination	3.83	0.90	3.98	0.89	4.05	0.91
	Accommodation	3.15	1.02	3.35	1.10	3.53	1.27
	Local Transport	3.44	1.01	3.81	1.01	3.88	1.10
	Places to Visit	3.80	0.88	4.07	0.87	3.94	1.05
	Activities	3.57	1.01	3.78	0.94	3.69	1.14
	Meals	3.37	1.07	3.74	1.00	3.35	1.19
	Shopping	3.63	0.99	3.77	0.94	3.40	1.20
Travel Agent	Destination	3.63	0.97	3.51	1.02	3.34	1.16
	Accommodation	3.51	1.02	3.50	1.12	3.34	1.31
	Local Transport	3.22	1.07	3.14	1.16	2.68	1.33
	Places to Visit	3.49	1.03	3.24	1.09	2.68	1.33
	Activities	3.22	1.07	2.97	1.14	2.64	1.24
	Meals	3.04	1.02	2.67	1.09	2.05	1.02
	Shopping	3.13	1.06	2.67	1.12	2.09	1.04
Package Tour Brochure	Destination	3.47	0.90	3.42	0.95	3.06	1.05
	Accommodation	3.26	0.94	3.25	1.05	2.87	1.06
	Local Transport	2.96	1.01	2.69	1.13	2.37	1.07
	Places to Visit	3.44	0.99	3.25	1.08	2.78	1.17
	Activities	3.13	1.06	2.93	1.04	2.71	1.11
	Meals	2.85	0.98	2.74	1.14	2.27	1.19
	Shopping	2.91	1.02	2.60	1.08	2.37	1.19
TV	Destination	2.86	1.01	2.78	1.07	2.89	1.06
	Accommodation	2.10	0.85	2.08	1.06	1.83	1.02
	Local Transport	2.00	0.81	1.90	1.00	1.90	1.05
	Places to Visit	2.64	1.11	2.71	1.15	2.47	1.18
	Activities	2.40	1.13	2.45	1.02	2.35	1.10
	Meals	2.77	1.05	2.45	1.16	2.40	1.16
	Shopping	2.61	1.19	2.61	1.21	2.30	1.11
Newspaper/ Magazine	Destination	3.11	1.06	3.09	1.25	3.13	1.27
	Accommodation	2.52	1.05	2.52	1.21	2.66	1.50
	Local Transport	2.41	1.02	2.27	1.19	2.55	1.43
	Places to Visit	3.02	1.14	3.03	1.25	3.12	1.48
	Activities	2.82	1.19	2.74	1.22	2.98	1.40
	Meals	2.88	1.09	3.00	1.27	3.16	1.50
	Shopping	2.91	1.14	3.13	1.28	3.10	1.53
Internet	Destination	3.26	1.15	3.57	0.94	3.95	0.97
	Accommodation	3.13	1.13	3.20	1.27	3.77	1.29
	Local Transport	2.83	1.08	2.85	1.29	3.28	1.50
	Places to Visit	3.23	1.04	3.26	1.20	3.37	1.37
	Activities	3.09	1.04	3.08	1.18	3.30	1.45
	Meals	2.83	1.08	3.06	1.30	3.04	1.40
	Shopping	2.95	1.21	3.07	1.31	3.00	1.38
DMO Information Pack	Destination	3.02	1.08	2.99	1.01	3.26	1.18
	Accommodation	2.74	1.03	2.54	1.11	2.74	1.27
	Local Transport	2.93	1.12	3.13	1.07	3.21	1.33
	Places to Visit	3.14	0.95	3.16	1.12	3.15	1.31
	Activities	2.94	1.01	3.02	0.92	3.18	1.17
	Meals	2.83	0.96	2.90	1.14	2.66	1.21
	Shopping	3.00	1.01	2.94	1.14	2.60	1.22
WoM from Family/Friend	Destination	3.63	1.04	3.61	1.10	3.99	0.97
	Accommodation	2.98	1.17	3.04	1.34	3.87	1.21
	Local Transport	3.04	1.22	3.16	1.26	3.61	1.36
	Places to Visit	3.52	1.09	3.62	1.25	3.84	1.29
	Activities	3.16	1.11	3.47	1.28	3.67	1.38
	Meals	3.45	1.01	3.53	1.24	3.85	1.30
	Shopping	3.44	1.11	3.53	1.26	3.67	1.33
Past Experience	Destination	3.44	1.00	3.64	1.12	3.97	1.10
	Accommodation	3.10	0.97	3.27	1.28	3.72	1.27
	Local Transport	3.28	1.08	3.41	1.23	3.81	1.20
	Places to Visit	3.18	0.95	3.38	1.22	3.72	1.27
	Activities	3.19	1.08	3.45	1.16	3.75	1.21
	Meals	3.24	0.91	3.48	1.09	3.76	1.18
	Shopping	3.29	0.96	3.56	1.12	3.85	1.20

**Table 6.5**  
**Information Source Use across Three Types of Tourist : During Travel**

Source of Information	Travel Components	Comprehensive Package tour Participants (N=358)		Flexible Package tour participants (N=482)		Independent Travellers (N=371)	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Travel Guidebook	Accommodation	118	33.0	190	39.4	180	48.5
	Local Transport	122	34.1	251	52.1	203	54.7
	Places to Visit	138	38.5	268	55.6	222	59.8
	Activities	111	31.0	233	48.3	187	50.4
	Meals	139	38.8	278	57.7	194	52.3
	Shopping	151	42.2	288	59.8	191	51.5
Tour guide	Accommodation	209	58.4	212	44.0	53	14.3
	Local Transport	197	55.0	217	45.0	51	13.7
	Places to Visit	222	62.0	223	46.3	56	15.1
	Activities	178	49.7	207	42.9	54	14.6
	Meals	211	58.9	202	41.9	48	12.9
	Shopping	197	55.0	199	41.3	50	13.5
Onsite Information Centre	Accommodation	46	12.8	82	17.0	100	27.0
	Local Transport	48	13.4	101	21.0	140	37.7
	Places to Visit	48	13.4	105	21.8	131	35.3
	Activities	40	11.2	113	23.4	114	30.7
	Meals	45	12.6	107	22.2	90	24.3
	Shopping	42	11.7	103	21.4	86	23.2
Internet	Accommodation	27	7.5	35	7.3	63	17.0
	Local Transport	26	7.3	31	6.4	60	16.2
	Places to Visit	27	7.5	35	7.3	63	17.0
	Activities	25	7.0	34	7.1	61	16.4
	Meals	26	7.3	33	6.8	52	14.0
	Shopping	26	7.3	32	6.6	50	13.5
WoM from Local Residents	Accommodation	40	11.2	57	17.2	117	38.0
	Local Transport	40	11.2	83	17.8	141	38.1
	Places to Visit	48	13.4	85	17.6	160	43.1
	Activities	48	13.4	88	18.3	139	37.5
	Meals	51	14.2	105	21.8	171	46.1
	Shopping	51	14.2	93	19.3	152	41.0
WoM from Other Tourists	Accommodation	32	8.9	51	10.6	87	23.5
	Local Transport	32	8.9	64	13.3	86	23.2
	Places to Visit	37	10.3	70	14.5	91	24.5
	Activities	33	9.2	68	14.1	85	22.9
	Meals	41	11.5	70	14.5	96	25.9
	Shopping	42	11.7	72	14.9	87	23.5
Past Experience	Accommodation	68	19.0	95	19.7	129	34.8
	Local Transport	67	18.7	118	24.5	142	38.3
	Places to Visit	67	18.7	105	21.8	133	35.8
	Activities	62	17.3	106	22.0	114	30.7
	Meals	71	19.8	126	26.1	142	38.3
	Shopping	76	21.2	132	27.4	142	38.3



participants, ‘travel guidebook’ was the most used information source for all travel components except ‘accommodation’. The percentages for ‘tour guide’ users are generally more in line with ‘travel guidebook’ users than the other information sources. As for comprehensive package tour participants, ‘tour guide’ was the most used information source and ‘travel guidebook’ was the second.

From these descriptive results, it is inconclusive whether **Hypothesis 7** (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater ‘freedom’ in their decision-making during the travel stage’) is supported or not. Thus, further inferential analysis was conducted and reported in **Section 7.2.2.2, in Chapter 7** (pp.219-232).

Table 6.6 (p.173) shows mean scores of perceived usefulness of various information sources evaluated by users during travel across three types of tourists and standard deviations. As far as the evaluations on ‘travel guidebook’ are concerned, higher mean scores were recorded by flexible package tour participants (ranging from 3.32 to 4.02) and independent travellers (ranging from 3.59 to 4.04). Comprehensive package tour participants generally perceived the usefulness of ‘travel guidebook’ lower than the other two groups, except for ‘shopping’ where the difference with independent travellers was almost none. It was found that, for independent travellers there are other information sources which are perceived to be more useful than ‘travel guidebook’, namely ‘WoM from local residents’ (ranging from 4.03 to 4.35), ‘WoM from other tourists’ (ranging from 3.64 to 3.98) and ‘past experience’ (ranging from 3.83 to 3.97). In the case of comprehensive package tour participants and flexible package tour participants, the only comparable mean scores can be found in the rows of ‘tour guide’. From these descriptive results, it is not clear whether **Hypothesis 8** (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered as a more useful information source than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater ‘freedom’ in their decision-making during the travel stage’) is supported or not. Therefore, further inferential analysis was performed and the results are presented in **Section 7.2.2.2, in Chapter 7** (pp.219-232).

**Table 6.6**  
**Perceived Usefulness of Information Sources Evaluated by Users across Three Types of Tourist : During Travel**

Source of Information	Travel Components	Comprehensive package tour participants (N=358)		Flexible package tour Participants (N=482)		Independent Travellers (N=371)	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Travel Guidebook	Accommodation	3.29	1.04	3.32	1.17	3.70	1.26
	Local Transport	3.44	1.10	3.86	0.95	3.99	1.01
	Places to Visit	3.75	0.83	4.02	0.83	4.04	0.97
	Activities	3.47	0.95	3.77	0.92	3.82	1.04
	Meals	3.38	1.00	3.80	0.95	3.60	1.14
	Shopping	3.58	0.96	3.84	0.93	3.59	1.18
Tour guide	Accommodation	3.64	1.00	3.67	1.01	3.58	1.34
	Local Transport	3.67	0.99	3.85	0.97	3.75	1.25
	Places to Visit	3.91	0.90	3.98	0.93	3.93	1.25
	Activities	3.68	0.94	3.83	0.92	3.74	1.14
	Meals	3.60	0.92	3.60	1.06	3.40	1.28
	Shopping	3.55	1.04	3.47	1.08	3.16	1.18
Onsite Information Centre	Accommodation	3.15	0.97	3.05	1.26	3.40	1.36
	Local Transport	3.35	1.06	3.44	1.14	3.85	1.19
	Places to Visit	3.13	0.96	3.51	1.16	3.78	1.07
	Activities	3.28	0.96	3.61	1.16	3.68	1.15
	Meals	3.24	1.00	3.33	1.12	3.00	1.32
	Shopping	3.33	1.05	3.26	1.21	3.08	1.29
Internet	Accommodation	2.89	1.09	3.06	1.33	3.44	1.46
	Local Transport	2.77	0.91	2.84	1.10	3.12	1.35
	Places to Visit	2.74	0.90	3.00	1.16	3.27	1.31
	Activities	2.76	0.97	2.97	1.03	3.57	1.41
	Meals	2.88	0.91	2.91	1.21	3.12	1.31
	Shopping	3.00	1.06	2.97	1.18	3.16	1.42
WoM from Local residents	Accommodation	3.13	1.29	2.98	1.36	4.03	1.22
	Local Transport	3.53	1.41	3.59	1.26	4.35	0.97
	Places to Visit	3.42	1.32	3.72	1.25	4.33	0.90
	Activities	3.44	1.27	3.78	1.16	4.14	1.05
	Meals	3.51	1.41	4.07	1.07	4.23	0.96
	Shopping	3.57	1.33	3.80	1.32	4.11	1.05
WoM from Other tourists	Accommodation	2.59	1.10	2.78	1.29	3.77	1.29
	Local Transport	2.78	1.13	3.19	1.30	3.85	1.22
	Places to Visit	3.08	1.14	3.34	1.32	3.98	1.24
	Activities	2.82	1.07	3.37	1.20	3.86	1.21
	Meals	3.12	1.10	3.37	1.24	3.82	1.26
	Shopping	3.14	1.05	3.34	1.33	3.64	1.28
Past experience	Accommodation	3.15	1.08	3.32	1.24	3.90	1.14
	Local Transport	3.27	1.15	3.53	1.07	3.97	1.13
	Places to Visit	3.03	1.11	3.31	1.21	3.96	1.08
	Activities	3.11	1.06	3.43	1.14	3.83	1.06
	Meals	3.24	1.02	3.60	1.08	3.87	1.03
	Shopping	3.37	1.03	3.65	1.01	3.85	1.05

6.3 THE NEED FOR TRAVEL GUIDEBOOKS

This section reports the results of descriptive analysis on the need for travel guidebooks. Among all respondents, Table 6.7 (p.175) shows results from ‘travel guidebook users’ (those who used a travel guidebook for the trip in question), and Table 6.8 (p.177) displays results from ‘travel guidebook non-users’ (those who did not use a travel guidebook for the trip in question), respectively. While ‘travel guidebook users’ answered in relation to the trip in question, ‘travel guidebook non-users’ responded about their use of travel guidebooks for overseas travel in general, because this group of people are not necessarily ‘travel guidebook non-users’ for all of their previous overseas trips. As a consequence, the results from these two groups of respondents are described separately.

6.3.1 The Users of Travel Guidebooks

Table 6.7 (p.175) shows mean scores and standard deviations for five constructs and 20 items, which were designed to measure needs for travel guidebooks, by travel guidebook users (N=1,007). The highest mean score among all constructs was achieved by functional needs which had a very small standard deviation (mean=4.07, SD=0.57). This result can be interpreted as, among all travel guidebook users for the trip in question, functional needs were the strongest. This is congruent with the qualitative results of the present study. Specific items with which respondents most strongly agreed with, were ‘to obtain background information about the destination’ (mean=4.46) and ‘to know about highlights’ (mean=4.40). Learning needs were the next highest rated (mean=3.59). Enjoyment needs (mean=3.49) and travel guidebook enthusiast needs (mean=3.21) also recorded mean scores above 3.00 on the five-point scale. The only construct which recorded a mean score smaller than the neutral position of the five-point scale was forward-looking needs (mean=2.89). These results can be interpreted that, while travel guidebook users in the present study generally identified functional needs most evidently, other non-functional needs including learning, enjoyment and travel guidebook enthusiast needs also existed. However, descriptive results indicated lower forward-looking needs among travel guidebook users in general.

**Table 6.7**  
**Needs for Travel Guidebooks by Travel Guidebook Users (N=1007)**

Construct			Item		
	Mean	SD	No.	Statement	Mean SD
Functional Needs	4.07	0.57	1	to obtain background information about the destination	4.46 0.63
			3	to know about highlights	4.40 0.67
			4	to use maps	4.19 0.90
			5	to discuss information with my travel companion	3.61 1.18
			6	to travel efficiently	3.93 0.98
			7	to have information that is concise	3.82 0.93
Forward-Looking Needs	2.89	0.78	2	to estimate travel expenses	2.89 1.19
			8	to reduce the likelihood of accident and disaster during travel	3.10 1.10
			9	to reduce the likelihood of being disappointed at the destination	2.87 1.16
			12	to be original with my vacation choice	2.57 1.07
			13	to find information about new experiences	3.46 1.14
			14	to plan exotic or almost impossible trips	2.43 1.10
Enjoyment Needs	3.49	0.93	15	to excite myself about travel	3.54 1.16
			16	to enjoy reading travel guidebooks	3.54 1.11
			19	to understand the personality of the community	3.40 1.08
Learning Needs	3.59	0.90	17	to imagine the area	3.63 0.98
			18	to experience the culture of the area	3.56 0.98
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	3.21	0.89	10	to confirm the places I visit during the trip	3.42 1.13
			11	to feel at ease by carrying one during the trip	3.35 1.12
			20	to reflect on previous trips by reading travel guidebooks	2.87 1.19

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.

Therefore, **Research Question 1** ('Is the use of travel guidebooks restricted to prepurchase search for travel decision-making? If not, what are its other uses?') can be answered as follows. The use of travel guidebooks is not restricted to prepurchase search for travel decision-making. Other uses of travel guidebooks are to fulfil learning needs, enjoyment needs, and travel guidebook enthusiast needs. The use of travel guidebooks to fulfil forward-looking needs was not clear from this data.

### 6.3.2 The Non-Users of Travel Guidebook

Table 6.8 (p.177) displays the results of needs for travel guidebooks by travel guidebook non-users for five constructs and 20 items (N=204). It is interesting to note that, similar to the results by travel guidebook users as described above, the highest mean score among the constructs was achieved by functional needs (mean=3.92). In addition, ranking of mean scores were in same order, namely: learning needs (mean=3.38); enjoyment needs (mean=3.29); travel guidebook enthusiast needs (mean=3.02); and forward-looking needs (mean=2.86). Again, forward-looking needs recorded mean scores smaller than the neutral position of the five point scale.

By comparing Table 6.7 (p.175) and 6.8 (p.177), it can be suggested that the mean scores from travel guidebook users are generally slightly higher than those from travel guidebook non-users. This may indicate that the former group had stronger needs for travel guidebooks in general, though the degree of difference is not clear from these descriptive results. Therefore, regarding **Research Question 2** ('Are there any differences in needs for travel guidebooks between users and non-users of travel guidebooks for a particular trip?'), inferential analysis is necessary to examine the degree of differences and whether the differences are significant.

Interestingly, both groups exhibited very similar trends in relation to mean scores, i.e., the order of constructs from high to low mean score across five constructs on the whole. Therefore, it can be assumed that the reason for not using travel guidebooks may not be attributable to their differences in needs, but there may be

**Table 6.8**  
**Needs for Travel Guidebooks by Travel Guidebook Non-Users (N=204)**

Construct			Item			
	Mean	SD	No.	Statement	Mean	SD
Functional Needs	3.92	0.59	1	to obtain background information about the destination	4.27	0.73
			3	to know about highlights	4.26	0.80
			4	to use maps	4.04	0.87
			5	to discuss information with my travel companion	3.54	1.05
			6	to travel efficiently	3.80	1.00
			7	to have information that is concise	3.63	0.95
Forward-Looking Needs	2.86	0.79	2	to estimate travel expenses	3.08	1.18
			8	to reduce the likelihood of accident and disaster during travel	3.01	1.10
			9	to reduce the likelihood of being disappointed at the destination	2.84	1.17
			12	to be original with my vacation choice	2.52	1.01
			13	to find information about new experiences	3.24	1.06
			14	to plan exotic or almost impossible trips	2.45	1.08
Enjoyment Needs	3.29	0.94	15	to excite myself about travel	3.34	1.12
			16	to enjoy reading travel guidebooks	3.33	1.14
			19	to understand the personality of the community	3.21	1.12
Learning Needs	3.38	0.97	17	to imagine the area	3.43	1.02
			18	to experience the culture of the area	3.34	1.05
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	3.02	0.92	10	to confirm the places I visit during the trip	3.19	1.15
			11	to feel at ease by carrying one during the trip	3.05	1.12
			20	to reflect on previous trips by reading travel guidebooks	2.82	1.13

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.

some other factors involved, such as their travel-related characteristics.

If this assumption is correct, it is very important to explore **Research Question 3**, ('Are there any differences in characteristics between travel guidebook users and non-users for a particular trip?'). In an attempt to provide an answer to this research question, cross-tabulation tables were constructed for the following variables: type of tourist; purpose of travel; duration of trip; destination region; previous visitation to the destination; general travel experience; fluency in English; age; and gender. For each cell in the cross-tabulation tables, observed frequency, percentage within the category, and adjusted standard residual (ASR) score were calculated. ASR provides a measure to test whether an element of a matrix is less or greater than would be expected by chance. Its purpose is to serve as a criterion to assess whether the observed data are consistent with expected data. If the ASR score is greater than 1.96 or less than -1.96, there is less than a 5% probability of it occurring by chance and thus it is considered significant (Haberman 1979).

Table 6.9 (p.179) shows that, whereas the proportions of travel guidebook users among flexible package tour participants (88.3%; ASR=4.2) and independent travellers (87.1%; ASR=2.3) are significantly larger than the proportions reasonably expected, the proportion of travel guidebook users among comprehensive package tour participants (72.1%; ASR=-6.8) is significantly smaller. This result indicates that the type of tourist influences the use of travel guidebooks. To be more precise, the less freedom in travel decision-making, the less travel guidebooks are used. In a sense, this result is reasonable because comprehensive package tour participants have different sources of information closely connected to their type of trip (travel agent and package tour brochure prior to travel; and tour guide during travel) and therefore the necessity of other information sources, including travel guidebooks, for them is relatively lower. As seen in Table 6.7 (p.175) and Table 6.8 (p.177), the most evident needs for travel guidebooks was that of functional needs, which is a decision-making related need. Therefore, the result can provide support to the proposed model of the travel

**Table 6.9**  
**Number of Users/Non-Users of Travel Guidebooks by Type of Tourist**

	Travel Guidebook Users	Travel Guidebook Non-Users	Total
Comprehensive Package Tour Participants	258 (72.1%) <b>ASR=-6.8</b>	100 (27.9%) <b>ASR=6.8</b>	358 (100%)
Flexible Package Tour Participants	428 (88.8%) <b>ASR=4.2</b>	54 (11.2%) <b>ASR=-4.2</b>	482 (100%)
Independent Travellers	323 (87.1%) <b>ASR=2.3</b>	48 (12.9%) <b>ASR=-2.3</b>	371 (100%)
Total	1,009 (83.3%)	202 (16.7%)	1,211 (100%)

Significant ASR scores are in **bold**.



decision-making process and use of information sources in **Section 3.2**, in **Chapter 3** (Figure 3.1; p.66), which deals with the use of information sources for decision-making purposes. Yet, the result that 72.1% of comprehensive package tour participants were travel guidebook users appears to be very high and the popularity of travel guidebooks among them is evident.

Previously in **Chapter 4**, a matrix was constructed from qualitative data using the type of tourist variable and shown as Table 4.2 (p.125). To make a comparison between this matrix and quantitative results possible to some extent, an effort was made to construct another cross-tabulation table from quantitative data using the type of tourist variable, as shown in Table 6.10 (p.181). Since direct questions asking the reason for not using travel guidebooks were not included in the questionnaire, the categories shown in Table 6.10 are not identical to those of Table 4.2. In Table 6.10, travel guidebook users and non-users were categorised into four groups based on their needs for travel guidebooks within each group: those who had both functional and non functional needs for travel guidebooks (the score of functional needs was more than 3.00 and one of the scores for non-functional needs was more than 3.00); those who had only functional needs for travel guidebook (the score of functional needs was more than 3.00 and none of the scores for non-functional needs was more than 3.00); those who had only non-functional needs for travel guidebooks (the score of functional needs was equal or less than 3.00 and one of the scores for non-functional needs was more than 3.00); and those who had no needs for travel guidebooks (the scores of functional and non-functional needs were equal or less than 3.00).

In Table 6.10 (p.181), the largest ASR score can be found in the cell of travel guidebook non-users with functional and non-functional needs among comprehensive package tour participants (ASR=6.8). This means that, among comprehensive package tour participants, the proportion of those who had both functional and non-functional needs but did not use travel guidebooks was significantly bigger than the proportion reasonably expected. In the same column,

Table 6.10

Number of Users/Non-Users of Travel Guidebooks with Different Needs by Type of Tourist

	Travel Guidebook Users (N=1,007)				Travel Guidebook Non-Users (N=204)				Total
	Functional and Non-functional needs	Functional needs only	Non-functional Needs only	No needs	Functional and Non-functional needs	Functional needs only	Non-functional Needs only	No needs	
Comprehensive Package tour Participants	229 (64.0%) <b>ASR=-3.4</b>	11 (3.1%) <b>ASR=-4.0</b>	16 (4.5%) ASR=1.4	2 (0.6%) ASR=-1.4	84 (23.5%) <b>ASR=6.8</b>	9 (2.5%) ASR=1.2	3 (0.8%) ASR=0.5	4 (1.1%) ASR=0.3	358 (100%)
Flexible Package tour Participants	370 (76.8%) <b>ASR=3.7</b>	43 (8.9%) ASR=1.1	13 (2.7%) ASR=-1.1	2 (0.4%) <b>ASR=-2.1</b>	41 (8.5%) <b>ASR=-3.9</b>	7 (1.5%) ASR=-0.8	2 (0.4%) ASR=-0.9	4 (0.8%) ASR=-0.5	482 (100%)
Independent Travellers	259 (69.8%) ASR=-0.5	41 (11.1%) <b>ASR=2.8</b>	12 (3.2%) ASR=-0.2	11 (3.0%) <b>ASR=-3.6</b>	35 (9.4%) <b>ASR=-2.6</b>	6 (1.6%) ASR=-0.3	3 (0.8%) ASR=0.4	4 (1.1%) ASR=0.2	371 (100%)
Total	858 (70.9%)	95 (7.8%)	41 (3.4%)	15 (1.2%)	160 (13.2%)	22 (1.8%)	8 (0.7%)	12 (1.0%)	1,211 (100%)

Significant ASR scores are in **bold**.

opposite results are displayed in the cells of flexible package tour participants (ASR=-3.9) and independent travellers (ASR=-2.6). Among these groups of tourists, the proportion of those who had both functional and non-functional needs but did not use travel guidebooks was significantly less than the proportion reasonably expected. Then, where were the rest of the respondents who were expected to be placed in these cells? In the case of flexible package tour participants, the cell which has a positively significant score of ASR is found in the column of travel guidebook user with functional and non-functional needs (ASR=3.7). From these results, it may be assumed that flexible package tour participants with functional and non-functional needs are more likely to use travel guidebooks in comparison with survey respondents on the whole. The reverse may be applicable to comprehensive package tour participants. The proportion of travel guidebook users with functional and non-functional needs among comprehensive package tour participants was significantly less than the proportion reasonably expected (ASR=-3.4). Therefore, it may be possible to assume that comprehensive package tour participants with functional and non-functional needs were, somehow, less likely to use travel guidebooks. Or else, it may also be possible to state that those with functional and non-functional needs are more likely to use travel guidebooks if they travel on a flexible package tour, and less likely to use travel guidebooks if they travel on a comprehensive package tour. This was indicated in the qualitative results in **Chapter 4**.

Analyses using ASR scores were also performed on other variables. The results showed in Table 6.11 (p.183) suggest that use of travel guidebooks was influenced by the purpose of travel. However, it should also be noted that 76.3% of those who travelled for non-holiday purposes were travel guidebook users.

Table 6.12 (p.183) shows that the proportion of travel guidebook users among those traveling for less than 10 days was slightly smaller than expected but the result was not significant. From this result, it cannot be said that use of travel guidebooks is influenced by the duration of a trip.

**Table 6.11**  
**Number of Users/Non-Users of Travel Guidebooks by Purpose of Travel**

	Travel Guidebook Users	Travel Guidebook Non-Users	Total
Holiday	784 (85.6%) <b>ASR=3.7</b>	132(14.4%) <b>ASR=-3.7</b>	916 (100%)
Non-holiday	225 (76.3%) <b>ASR=-3.7</b>	70(23.7%) <b>ASR=3.7</b>	295 (100%)
Total	1,009 (83.3%)	202 (16.7%)	1,211 (100%)

Significant ASR scores are in **bold**.

**Table 6.12**  
**Number of Users/Non-Users of Travel Guidebooks by duration of trip**

	Travel Guidebook Users	Travel Guidebook Non-Users	Total
Up to 10 days	792 (82.5%) ASR=-1.5	168(17.5%) ASR=1.5	960 (100%)
More than 10 days	217 (86.5%) ASR=1.5	34 (13.5%) ASR=-1.5	251 (100%)
Total	1,009 (83.3%)	202 (16.7%)	1,211 (100%)

**Table 6.13**  
**Number of Users/Non-Users of Travel Guidebooks by Destination Region**

	Travel Guidebook Users	Travel Guidebook Non-Users	Total
Australia	193 (79.4%) ASR=-1.8	50 (20.6%) ASR=1.8	243 (100%)
Europe	212 (92.6%) <b>ASR=4.2</b>	17 (7.4%) <b>ASR=-4.2</b>	229 (100%)
North America	254 (82.5%) ASR=-0.5	54 (17.5%) ASR=0.5	308 (100%)
North-East Asia	150 (75.4%) <b>ASR=-3.3</b>	49 (24.6%) <b>ASR=3.3</b>	199 (100%)
South-East Asia	153 (90.0%) <b>ASR=2.5</b>	17 (10.0%) <b>ASR=-2.5</b>	170 (100%)
Other region	47 (75.8%) ASR=-1.6	15 (24.2%) ASR=1.6	62 (100%)
Total	1,009 (83.3%)	202 (16.7%)	1,211 (100%)

Significant ASR scores are in **bold**.

Table 6.13 (p.183) shows that, while the proportion of travel guidebook users among those traveling to Europe and those traveling to South East Asia are significantly bigger than reasonably expected, the proportion of travel guidebook users among those traveling to North East Asia is significantly smaller. Those who travelled to the rest of the destination regions did not show skewed distributions. These are inconclusive results regarding whether the destination region influences the use of travel guidebooks or not.

In Table 6.14 (p.185), it is suggested that repeat visitors to a destination region are less likely to use travel guidebooks. However, it should be noted that 80.3% of repeat visitors used travel guidebooks for their trip.

Table 6.15 (p.185) shows that the proportion of travel guidebook users among less experienced travellers was almost identical to that of more experienced travellers.

In Table 6.16 (p.185), no ASR scores indicate a significant result. Thus, from this result, it is not suggested that the use of travel guidebooks is subject to an individual's fluency in English.

In Table 6.17 (p.186), it is indicated that female travellers used travel guidebooks significantly more than male travellers in general, though it should be noted that 78.5% of male travellers were travel guidebook users.

Table 6.18 (p.186) shows that while the proportion of travel guidebook users among the 26-35 year old group was significantly bigger than the proportion reasonably expected, the proportion of travel guidebook users among the group more than 55 years old was significantly smaller than the proportion reasonably expected. However, the result also shows that there was no inconsistency in proportions in other age groups. It is not possible to conclude that use of travel guidebooks is subject to tourist's age from this result.

**Table 6.14**  
**Number of Users/Non-Users of Travel Guidebooks by Previous Visitation to the Destination Region**

	Travel Guidebook Users	Travel Guidebook Non-Users	Total
First time to the region	692 (84.8%) <b>ASR=2.0</b>	124 (15.2%) <b>ASR=-2.0</b>	816 (100%)
Repeat Visitor to the region	317 (80.3 %) <b>ASR=-2.0</b>	78 (19.7%) <b>ASR=2.0</b>	395 (100%)
Total	1,009 (83.3%)	202 (16.7%)	1,211 (100%)

Significant ASR scores are in **bold**.

**Table 6.15**  
**Number of Users/Non-Users of Travel Guidebooks by Previous Overseas Travel Experience in General**

	Travel Guidebook Users	Travel Guidebook Non-Users	Total
Less experienced	553 (83.4%) ASR=-0.1	110 (16.6%) ASR=0.1	663 (100%)
More experienced	456 (83.2%) ASR=0.1	92 (16.8%) ASR=-0.1	548 (100%)
Total	1,009 (83.3%)	202 (16.7%)	1,211 (100%)

**Table 6.16**  
**Number of Users/Non-Users of Travel Guidebooks by Fluency in English**

	Travel Guidebook Users	Travel Guidebook Non-Users	Total
Not fluent	329 (80.4%) ASR=-1.9	80 (19.6%) ASR=1.9	409 (100%)
Less fluent	325 (85.8%) ASR=1.5	54 (14.2%) ASR=-1.5	379 (100%)
More fluent	355 (83.9%) ASR=0.4	68 (16.1%) ASR=-0.4	423 (100%)
Total	1,009 (83.3%)	202 (16.7%)	1,211 (100%)

**Table 6.17**  
**Number of Users/Non-Users of Travel Guidebooks by Gender**

	Travel Guidebook Users	Travel Guidebook Non-Users	Total
Male	321 (78.5%) <b>ASR=-3.2</b>	88 (21.5%) <b>ASR=3.2</b>	409 (100%)
Female	688 (85.8%) <b>ASR=3.2</b>	114 (14.2%) <b>ASR=-3.2</b>	802 (100%)
Total	1,009 (83.3%)	202 (16.7%)	1,211 (100%)

Significant ASR scores are in **bold**.

**Table 6.18**  
**Number of Users/Non-Users of Travel Guidebooks by Age Group**

	Travel Guidebook Users	Travel Guidebook Non-Users	Total
18-25	293 (84.9%) ASR=0.9	52 (15.1%) ASR=-0.9	345 (100%)
26-35	314 (87.0%) <b>ASR=2.2</b>	47 (13.0%) <b>ASR=-2.2</b>	361 (100%)
36-55	243 (81.3%) ASR=-1.1	56 (18.7%) ASR=1.1	299 (100%)
56-	159 (77.2%) <b>ASR=-2.6</b>	47 (22.8%) <b>ASR=2.6</b>	206 (100%)
Total	1,009 (83.3%)	202 (16.7%)	1,211 (100%)

Significant ASR scores are in **bold**.

To summarise the attempt to answer **Research Question 3** ('Are there any differences in characteristics between travel guidebook users and non-users for a particular trip?'), the results reported as above suggested that differences between travel guidebook users and non-users were found in type of tourists, purpose of travel, previous visitation to the destination region, and gender. Those who were more likely to use travel guidebooks were flexible package tour participants or independent travellers, traveling for holiday purposes, for the first time to the destination region, and female. Inconclusive results were reported regarding destination region and age, and no significant results were detected regarding duration of trip, previous overseas travel experience, and fluency in English.

#### 6.4 OPEN-ENDED QUESTION

This section reports the results of content analysis of the responses to an open-ended question in the questionnaire. Although content analysis is not a quantitative but a qualitative analysis technique, the results need to be reported in this chapter because the open-ended question itself was included in the survey questionnaire. Briefly, in an effort to assess the level of congruence with the qualitative results and allow the respondents to answer freely within their own frame of reference rather than one imposed by the researcher, an open-ended question was designed to encourage respondents to express their feelings and opinions towards travel guidebooks using their own words. The question statement was 'what is a travel guidebook to you?' and the answer started with an introductory short sentence 'For me, a travel guidebook is ...', to allow respondents to report their thoughts, ideas, or perceptions.

Of all 1,007 respondents, 804 wrote some comments in the space provided. Most of those who responded to the open-ended question provided brief comments, using only the first line, though four lines were provided. Long comments were rarely offered. As has been argued throughout this thesis, needs for travel guidebooks are not a uni-dimensional concept, and therefore such brief comments to the open-ended questions should not automatically be regarded as the only perceptions that respondents had towards travel guidebooks. Comments should



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rather be considered as their first impressions.

Overall, the range of responses to the open-ended question were very similar to what was found in qualitative interviews reported in **Chapter 4**. Firstly, the most frequent responses were those concerning obtaining background information, getting a rough idea about the trip and making rough plans for the trip. All of which can be classified as functional needs, which was also dominant in qualitative interview results. Some respondents added a caution after those comments like ‘however I cannot rely on travel guidebooks 100%’. Some other comments delimited such usage of travel guidebooks to ‘the destination I haven’t visited’. This type of comment implied less likelihood of travel guidebook use for repeat visitation.

The next most common response was ‘to make the trip more enjoyable’. Many respondents who wrote this rather vague comment combined their comments with time efficiency, which perhaps reflects a relatively short duration of Japanese overseas travel. Travel guidebooks were recognised as a tool to plan overseas trips, in an as enjoyable as possible way, within the limited time.

The issue of safety was also frequently mentioned in the responses. This was evident in qualitative interviews, too. From responses to the open-ended question, it appears that there were at least three dimensions in the relationship between use of travel guidebooks and safety for the trip. Firstly, some respondents want to obtain knowledge prior to travel to prevent or avoid accidents during travel. Secondly, other respondents use travel guidebooks for psychological reasons during travel. A typical comment from those respondents was: ‘(For me, a travel guidebook is) a way to feel secure by having it with me while travelling’. The third group of respondents saw the role of travel guidebooks as an ‘emergency tool’, which is used to find out important contact numbers if something has happened during travel. Of course, comments provided by respondents were sometimes a mixture of those dimensions, such as a comment like: ‘(For me, a travel guidebook is) a reference, a talisman, a yellow pages’.

Related to the issue of safety or similar, the word ‘map’ was very frequently found in the comments to the open-ended question. Some respondents made very simple and clear comments, ‘(For me, a travel guidebook is) maps’. Others made longer and strong comments on this element, ‘sometimes only maps (of the destination in travel guidebook) are necessary rather than a whole book’. There were more implicit comments like: ‘not to get lost at the destination’; and ‘to recognise where I am at the destination’. A couple of respondents mentioned ‘maps written in Japanese’.

As already apparent from the comments reported so far, many comments indicated their use of travel guidebooks not only prior to travel, but also during and after travel. As for during travel use, comments regarding maps and ‘confirming’ what they had just visited at the destination were representative ones. Both were also evident in qualitative interviews and the confirmatory role of travel guidebooks was already discussed in **Chapter 4**. A number of respondents suggested their travel guidebook use after travel, by making comments like: ‘(For me, a travel guidebook is) to help reflect on the trip afterwards’; and ‘to confirm where I visited during travel after returning home’. Some respondents directly commented that their travel guidebook use spread over time. ‘My trip always begins by buying travel guidebooks and concludes with remembering the trip by reading them afterwards’.

The travel guidebook was primarily recognised as an imagination expander or expectation expander for their trips in the near future by some respondents. Such roles were also detected in qualitative interviews.

One of the other notable roles of travel guidebooks among the respondents was to use them for learning. In their comments, verbs like ‘to learn’ or ‘to understand’ were frequently used with nouns like ‘history’, ‘culture’, ‘geography’, ‘characteristics’ and ‘customs’ of the destination. From their comments, it was not clear if such use for learning was purely for the purpose of learning about foreign countries or for the purpose of getting knowledge to enjoy their subsequent trips.

In addition, as similarly reported in qualitative interviews, hedonic needs for travel guidebooks was also evident in the comments to the open-ended question. Clearly, apart from making their trip enjoyable as reported earlier, some respondents insisted that they enjoy reading a travel guidebook itself. Comments like '(For me, a travel guidebook is) fun to read' and 'to feel as if I am on the holiday without actually going' were provided by manifold respondents.

Other respondents even used some personified expressions to describe travel guidebooks: '(For me, a travel guidebook is) my travel companion'; 'the best friend'; and 'my hands and feet'. These appear to be a reflection on their reliance and familiarity. These comments and a comment such as 'I want to buy *Chikyu no arukikata* (a popular travel guidebook series in Japanese) of all countries I have been and put them in a bookshelf as my collection' indicates strong travel guidebook enthusiast needs.

Issues of language were mentioned in some responses, which shows the importance of travel guidebooks in their own language, Japanese.

The relationship between travel guidebook use and type of tourist was pointed out in several responses to the open-ended question, which coincided with responses in qualitative interviews. While some respondents perceived that travel guidebooks are necessary for independent travel, other respondents provided comments such as 'I didn't use travel guidebooks this time because I travelled by a package tour which made me feel secure enough'. In relation to type of tourist, comments like 'to find out what to do during free-time on a package tour' was also provided by multiple respondents.

Many comments contained positive adjectives such as 'necessary' 'useful' 'important' to describe their perceptions towards travel guidebooks.

In contrast to such positive comments, a few comments pointed out the negative aspects of travel guidebook use. The most common critique provided by the

survey respondents questions the quality of information included in terms of accuracy, thoroughness and freshness. Therefore, most of these respondents also made additional comments on their precautionary measures: firstly, not to fully depend on the information there; and secondly, to use the Internet. In addition, other comments criticise the homogeneous contents of different Japanese travel guidebooks, which, in their opinion, consequently results in homogenous travelling patterns of Japanese tourists at overseas destinations. 'The trip should be created by myself' and 'It's boring if I rely on travel guidebooks too much' are typical of those comments. In qualitative interviews, several travel guidebook non-users showed similar attitudes to travel guidebooks.

In summary, responses to the open-ended question in the survey questionnaire, comments expressing functional needs for travel guidebooks were most frequent. This result is congruent with both qualitative interview results reported in **Chapter 4** and quantitative results in the survey reported in this chapter. However, other needs or use of travel guidebooks were also indicated in the responses, such as travel efficiency, safety, enjoyment, learning and so on. Comments were generally positive towards travel guidebooks, though part of the comments criticised them. This was also seen in qualitative interviews.

## 6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The results of descriptive analyses of the quantitative data for the present study were reported in this chapter. The main purpose of this descriptive analysis was to determine the number, percentage, mean scores and standard deviations of responses on each of the variables. To achieve this purpose, frequency tables were utilized throughout this chapter. It also attempted to indicate answers to **Research Questions 1 and 3**.

The responses regarding use of various information sources for travel decision-making purposes were reported first. The results have largely shown that travel guidebooks were used by more people relative to other information sources

both prior to and during travel, though perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks in comparison with other sources needs to be examined further by inferential analysis. As for the use of travel guidebooks across different types of tourists, descriptive analysis did not produce clear answers and thus inferential analysis is also required. The subsequent section showed results of descriptive statistics on needs for travel guidebooks, by both travel guidebook users and non-users. Based on these results, **Research Question 1** was answered positively. Regarding **Research Question 3**, cross-tabulation analyses with ASR scores revealed differences in type of tourists, purpose of travel, previous visitation to the destination region, and gender.

Finally, the comments provided to the open-ended question in the survey questionnaire were to assess the level of congruence with the qualitative results presented in **Chapter 4**. Content analysis of the responses to the open-ended question revealed very similar results to qualitative interviews.

In an attempt to test **Hypotheses 1-8** and provide answers to **Research Questions 2 and 4**, inferential analysis was conducted and is reported in the next chapter.

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## CHAPTER 7

### QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH (3): INFERENCE ANALYSIS

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#### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

Having reported quantitative survey data on a descriptive level in **Chapter 6**, the results of inferential analysis are shown in this chapter. It consists of two main sections. The first section presents results of inferential analysis on the use of information sources for travel decision-making in an attempt to test **Hypotheses 1-8**, specified in **Chapter 3**. The following section reports results of inferential analysis on needs for travel guidebooks. It aims at providing answers to **Research Questions 2 and 4**, also specified in **Chapter 3**.

#### 7.2 THE USE OF INFORMATION SOURCES FOR TRAVEL DECISION-MAKING

This section displays inferential results for the use of various information sources in travel decision-making. The specific objective of the analyses presented in this section is two-fold: to compare the proportion of users/non-users between travel guidebooks and other information sources; and to differentiate the perceived usefulness of information sources evaluated by users between travel guidebook and other information sources. The data analyses were performed on the basis of all respondents as well as across three different types of tourist based on their degree of freedom exercised in travel decision-making.

##### 7.2.1 All Respondents

The results of the use and perceived usefulness of information sources among all respondents are reported here. This section includes results for prior to and during travel.

##### 7.2.1.1 Prior to Travel

The results shown here provide a general picture of how information sources are

used and evaluated in relation to various travel components prior to travel. The relative position of travel guidebooks in comparison with other information sources is therefore examined. The specific objective here is to test **Hypotheses 1** and **2**.

Table 7.1 (p.195) shows the number of users of nine information sources for seven travel components prior to travel, and results of the McNemar tests. The McNemar test, or paired Chi-square test, was employed to investigate whether the proportion of travel guidebook users differs significantly from the proportion of those who used each of the other information sources for the same travel component. (For the complete table with Chi-square values for each item, see Appendix 4.1). The McNemar test was considered appropriate for this purpose because it compares the proportions for two correlated dichotomous variables, such as ‘used/not used’. For performing The McNemar test, all respondents were allocated in dichotomous variables of ‘users’ and ‘non-users’ for each of the nine information sources and seven travel components. The test evaluates whether the proportion of participants who fall into a category on one variable differs significantly from the proportion of participants who fall into the same category on the second variable (Green, Salkind, and Akey 1997; Siegel and Caltellan 1988). Thus, analyses for the McNemar test involve comparing the proportion of travel guidebook users for a particular travel component with the proportion of another information source’s users for the same travel component.

As already shown in Table 6.1 (p.162) in **Chapter 6**, the number of travel guidebook users were more than that of users of other information sources for all travel components, except one item, ‘travel agent for accommodation information’. In Table 7.1 (p.195), McNemar tests showed that all items except this item have a significantly smaller proportion of users than the proportion of travel guidebook users, as indicated by the **shaded areas**. These results provide support for **Hypothesis 1** (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are more used than other information sources by all tourists prior to the travel stage’ for almost all travel components).

**Table 7.1**  
**Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources among All Respondents (N=1,211) : Prior to Travel**

	Travel guidebook	Travel Agent	Package Tour Brochure	TV	Newspaper/ Magazine	Internet	DMO Information Pack	WoM from family/friends	Past Experience
Destination	681	<b>552</b>	<b>497</b>	<b>216</b>	<b>220</b>	<b>336</b>	<b>226</b>	<b>416</b>	<b>403</b>
Accommodation	535	542	<b>425</b>	<b>147</b>	<b>171</b>	<b>266</b>	<b>184</b>	<b>301</b>	<b>324</b>
Local Transport	643	<b>431</b>	<b>339</b>	<b>141</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>213</b>	<b>210</b>	<b>287</b>	<b>345</b>
Places to Visit	683	<b>411</b>	<b>380</b>	<b>162</b>	<b>188</b>	<b>244</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>326</b>
Activities	560	<b>372</b>	<b>309</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>168</b>	<b>212</b>	<b>189</b>	<b>295</b>	<b>311</b>
Meals	631	<b>393</b>	<b>340</b>	<b>163</b>	<b>184</b>	<b>212</b>	<b>184</b>	<b>374</b>	<b>355</b>
Shopping	666	<b>361</b>	<b>330</b>	<b>161</b>	<b>194</b>	<b>209</b>	<b>188</b>	<b>364</b>	<b>364</b>

Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are in **bold** (McNemar test).  
Shaded areas indicate significant items with a smaller number of users than 'travel guidebook'.

Note: This is a summary table. Detailed information is provided in Appendix 4.1.

**Table 7.2**  
**Differences in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources: Prior to Travel**

	Travel guidebook	Travel Agent	Package Tour Brochure	TV	Newspaper/ Magazine	Internet	DMO Information Pack	WoM from family/friends	Past Experience
Destination	3.97	<b>3.50</b>	<b>3.38</b>	<b>2.83</b>	<b>3.10</b>	<b>3.67</b>	<b>3.12</b>	<b>3.78</b>	<b>3.75</b>
Accommodation	3.37	3.46	<b>3.19</b>	<b>2.01</b>	<b>2.57</b>	3.46	<b>2.68</b>	3.42	3.44
Local Transport	3.76	<b>3.07</b>	<b>2.72</b>	<b>1.93</b>	<b>2.41</b>	<b>3.06</b>	<b>3.13</b>	<b>3.34</b>	<b>3.57</b>
Places to Visit	3.96	<b>3.22</b>	<b>3.23</b>	<b>2.62</b>	<b>3.06</b>	<b>3.30</b>	<b>3.15</b>	<b>3.69</b>	<b>3.49</b>
Activities	3.70	<b>2.98</b>	<b>2.95</b>	<b>2.41</b>	<b>2.85</b>	<b>3.19</b>	<b>3.08</b>	<b>3.50</b>	<b>3.53</b>
Meals	3.52	<b>2.69</b>	<b>2.27</b>	<b>2.53</b>	<b>3.02</b>	<b>3.01</b>	<b>2.78</b>	3.64	3.54
Shopping	3.62	<b>2.27</b>	<b>2.67</b>	<b>2.52</b>	<b>3.07</b>	<b>3.01</b>	<b>2.80</b>	3.57	3.62

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful') was used.  
Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are in **bold**, significant items at  $p < 0.01$  are in *Italic*, and a significant item at  $p < 0.05$  is underlined (One sample t-test).  
Shaded areas indicate significant items with a lower mean score than 'travel guidebook'.

Note: This is a summary table. Detailed information is provided in Appendix 4.2.



To illustrate the results reported in Table 7.1 (p.195) in visual form, a two-dimensional perceptual map was produced as Figure 7.1 (p.197) by using the correspondence analysis procedure. The value of correspondence analysis for market research has been well documented and described by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002). Its application in tourism studies has been numerous (Cai 2002; Calatone, di Benedetto, Hakam, and Bojanic 1989; Chen and Uysal 2002; Fodness and Murray 1998; Goodrich 1978; Gartner 1989; Haahti 1986; Kim 1998; King and Edwardson 1996; Moscardo, Morrison, Pearce, Lang, and O'Leary 1996). To perform correspondence analyses for producing perceptual maps, the ANACOR programme was accessed via SPSS.

This technique provides graphical outputs or perceptual maps revealing relative positions of multiple information sources, including travel guidebook, in relation to travel components by way of spatial configuration. In perceptual maps, the distances between points are reproduced as closely as possible to the original similarities of input data. Thus, the closeness between the sources and travel components reflects the degree to which a source tended to be used for. Proximities also indicate the degree of similarity or dissimilarity among the relationships in terms of use. Correspondence analysis is generally known to produce easily interpretable, insightful results while being relatively simple to understand and execute using readily obtained categorical data, such as 'used/not used'. It shows how variables are related, not just that a relationship exist and handles problems of spatial configuration with categorical data where other multi-attribute analytical methods cannot. It must be emphasized that this technique has no built-in procedure for labeling dimensions (Hair et al. 1998).

For a perceptual map, a reliable measure of goodness-of-fit is  $R^2$ , and Hair et al. (1998) suggested that measures of 0.60 or better are considered acceptable. An  $R^2$  of 0.87 for the solution was sufficiently high, which indicated a good fit for the two-dimensional model.



In Figure 7.1 (p.197), there are 16 points representing the number of users of nine information sources for seven travel components among all respondents prior to travel. It provides a graphical representation of the relative positions of nine information sources, including travel guidebook, in relation to their use for seven travel components. The key to interpreting a perceptual map such as this is to recognize that points which are close in space are closely associated, since the distance between points reflects the degree to which they are similar.

An examination of Figure 7.1 (p.197) suggests a clear division of the travel components from 'activities', 'places to visit', 'meals' and 'shopping' to others. 'Destination' and 'accommodation' in particular are situated at a considerable distance from the group at the other side of the quadrants. The closeness of the points within the group indicates the similarity in terms of the use of information sources for these travel components. For this group of travel components, it can be seen that information sources such as 'past experience', 'newspaper/magazine', 'travel guidebook', 'WoM from family/friend' are situated nearby, demonstrating their closer interrelationship. The closer association is also evident between 'destination' and 'internet', and 'accommodation' and 'travel agent'. In addition, the perceptual map shows that 'package tour brochure' is situated in between 'destination' and 'accommodation', indicating that use of this source is more associated with these travel components than other components.

Focusing on the position of 'travel guidebook', the proximities between travel components may be interpreted that its use prior to travel is more closely related to the decisions on 'activities', 'places to visit', 'meals' and 'shopping', than 'accommodation' in comparison with the use of other information sources at the prior to travel stage. Instead, a close proximity between 'accommodation' and 'travel agent' is evident in the Figure 7.1 (p.197) as also seen in Table 7.1 (p.195).

Turning to perceived usefulness of information sources prior to travel, Table 7.2 (p.195) displays mean scores of perceived usefulness of nine information sources for seven travel components evaluated by users, and the results of one-sample t

test between the mean scores of travel guidebook and other information sources (For the complete table with standard deviations and t values, see Appendix 4.2). One-sample t test evaluates whether the mean on a test variable is significantly different from a constant, called a test value (Green et al. 1997). In the case of the present study, this technique was used to assess whether the mean values of travel guidebook usefulness (test value) were significantly different from the mean values of each of other information sources usefulness for the same travel component.

It may appear that other statistical techniques such as ANOVA, MANOVA or correlation analysis are more suitable for examining the differences in mean scores like in Table 7.2 (p.195) and for producing easy-to-interpret results, since they consider all mean scores in the same row at once. However, in the case of the data analysed here, meaningless results would be delivered by using such an approach, because those techniques embrace only the respondents who responded to all information sources. As noted in **Section 5.2.3 in Chapter 5** (pp.135-140), the questionnaire for this study was purposefully designed to ensure that only those who used a particular source could provide evaluation of it and consequently there were unequal numbers of respondents in each item and only a few respondents answered for all information sources. Therefore, when comparing mean scores of the current data, comparisons must be conducted one by one and the best possible statistical technique for this situation was a one-sample t test.

In Table 7.2 (p.195), most of the items recorded significantly lower mean scores in terms of their perceived usefulness in comparison to travel guidebooks, as indicated by the shaded areas. However, it is interesting to note that no significant difference is indicated in the item ‘travel agent for accommodation information’. This item was not significant in Table 7.1 (p.195), either, which indicates that it is an exceptional case in the sense that the level of use and level of usefulness was similar to those of travel guidebooks. In addition, several non-significant items were seen in the columns of ‘internet’, ‘WoM from family and friends’, and ‘past experience’ for ‘destination’, ‘local transportation’ ‘places to visit’ and ‘activities’,

in Table 7.2 (p.195). However, as shown in Table 7.1 (p.195), the number of users of these information sources were significantly smaller than the number of 'travel guidebook' users ( $p < 0.001$ ).

To help understand the data shown in Table 7.2 (p.195) visually, a line graph of perceived usefulness mean scores for information sources prior to travel was produced and shown as Figure 7.2 (p.201). It clearly shows that, prior to travel, the level of evaluation was diverse across different information sources and travel guidebooks were evaluated higher or at least similar to other information sources throughout all travel components considered here.

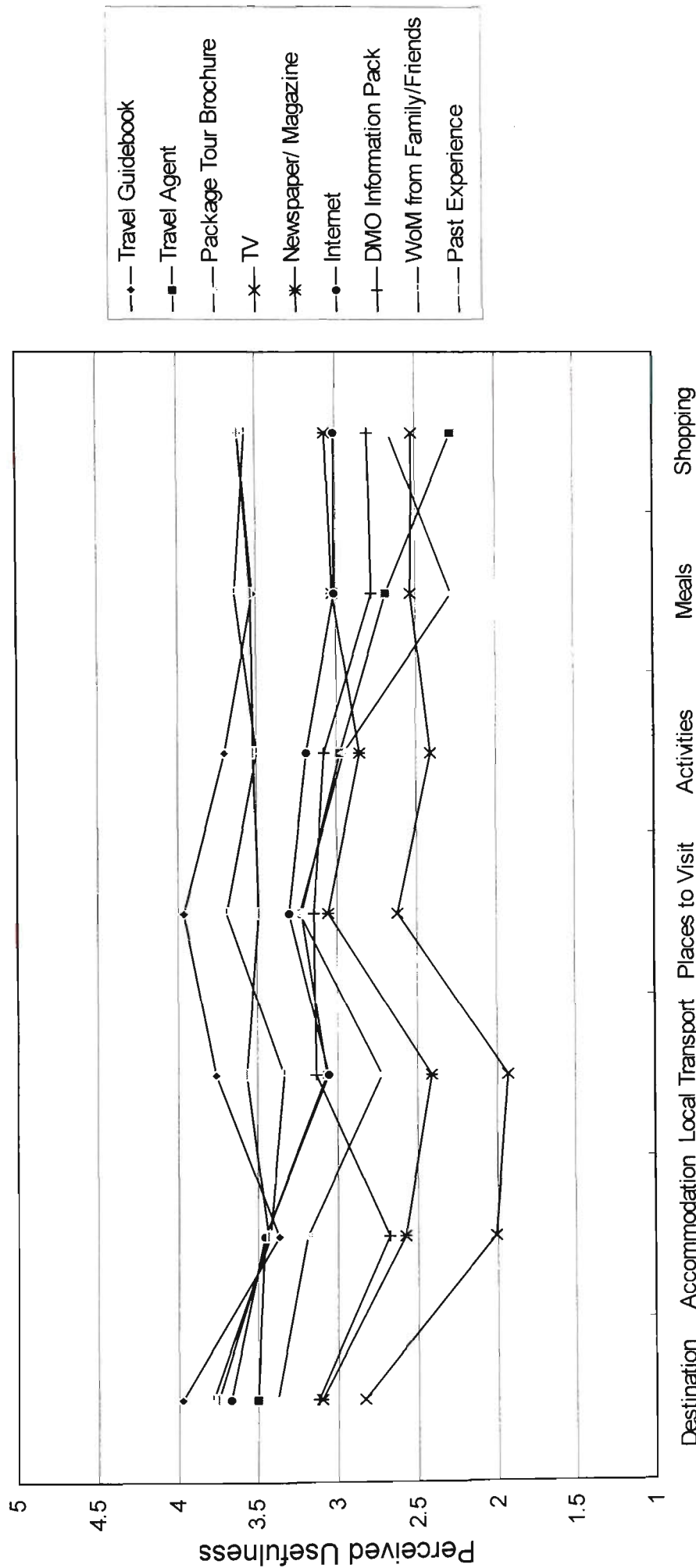
In summary, travel guidebooks were generally considered to be more useful information sources for most travel components among all respondents prior to travel. This is based on the results that there was no information source which was considered to be more useful than travel guidebooks for any travel components prior to travel among all respondents. Therefore, the result supports **Hypothesis 2** ('For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered by all tourists as more useful than other information sources prior to the travel stage').

#### 7.2.1.2 During Travel

The number of users and perceived usefulness of travel information sources for various travel components during travel among all respondents are considered here. It provides a general picture of how information sources were used and evaluated in relation to various travel components during travel. Consequently, the relative position of travel guidebooks in comparison with other information sources can be examined. The specific objective here is to test **Hypotheses 3 and 4**.

Table 7.3 (p.202) shows the number of users of seven information sources for six travel components among all respondents during travel, and results of the McNemar test which evaluates whether the proportion of travel guidebook users

Figure 7.2  
Perceived Usefulness of Information Sources: Prior to Travel



**Table 7.3**  
**Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources among All Respondents (N=1211): During Travel**

	Travel guidebook	Tour guide	Onsite information centre	Internet	WoM from local residents	WoM From other tourists	Past experience
Accommodation	488	474	<b>228</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>214</b>	<b>170</b>	<b>292</b>
Local Transport	576	<b>465</b>	<b>289</b>	<b>117</b>	<b>264</b>	<b>182</b>	<b>327</b>
Places to Visit	628	<b>501</b>	<b>284</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>293</b>	<b>198</b>	<b>305</b>
Activities	531	<b>439</b>	<b>267</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>275</b>	<b>186</b>	<b>282</b>
Meals	611	<b>461</b>	<b>242</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>327</b>	<b>207</b>	<b>339</b>
Shopping	630	<b>446</b>	<b>231</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>296</b>	<b>201</b>	<b>350</b>

Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are in **bold** (McNemar test).  
Shaded areas indicate significant items with a smaller number of users than 'travel guidebook'.

Note: This is a summary table. Detailed information is provided in Appendix 4.3.

**Table 7.4**  
**Differences in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebook and Other Information Sources: During Travel**

	Travel guidebook	Tour guide	Onsite information centre	Internet	WoM from local residents	WoM From other tourists	Past experience
Accommodation	3.45	<b>3.65</b>	3.22	3.22	3.58	3.25	3.53
Local Transport	3.82	3.76	3.62	<b>2.97</b>	3.98	<b>3.43</b>	3.67
Places to Visit	3.97	3.94	<b>3.58</b>	<b>3.08</b>	4.00	<b>3.59</b>	<b>3.53</b>
Activities	3.73	3.76	3.59	<b>3.23</b>	3.90	3.49	3.52
Meals	3.64	3.58	<b>3.19</b>	<b>3.00</b>	<b>4.07</b>	3.53	3.64
Shopping	3.70	<b>3.47</b>	<b>3.21</b>	<b>3.06</b>	3.92	3.43	3.67

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful') was used.  
Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are in **bold**, significant items at  $p < 0.01$  are in *italic*, and significant items at  $p < 0.05$  are underlined (One sample t-test).  
Shaded areas indicate significant items with a higher mean score and with a lower mean score than 'travel guidebook', respectively.

Note: This is a summary table. Detailed information is provided in Appendix 4.4.

for a travel component differs significantly from the proportion of those who used each of the other eight information sources for the same travel component. (For the complete table with Chi-square values for each item, see Appendix 4.3). For the McNemar test, all respondents were allocated in a dichotomous variable of ‘users’ or ‘non-users’ for each of seven information sources in terms of six travel components.

As previously reported in Table 6.2 (p.165) in **Chapter 6**, the number of ‘travel guidebook’ users during travel was more than the number of users of other information sources for all travel components. In Table 7.3 (p.202), McNemar tests showed that all the items except ‘tour guide for accommodation information’ have a significantly smaller proportion of users than the proportion of travel guidebook users, as indicated by the **shaded areas**. These results can be read that, during travel, travel guidebooks were generally used more than other sources of information for almost all travel components among all respondents. Therefore, it provides support for **Hypothesis 3** (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are more used than other information sources by all tourists during the travel stage’).

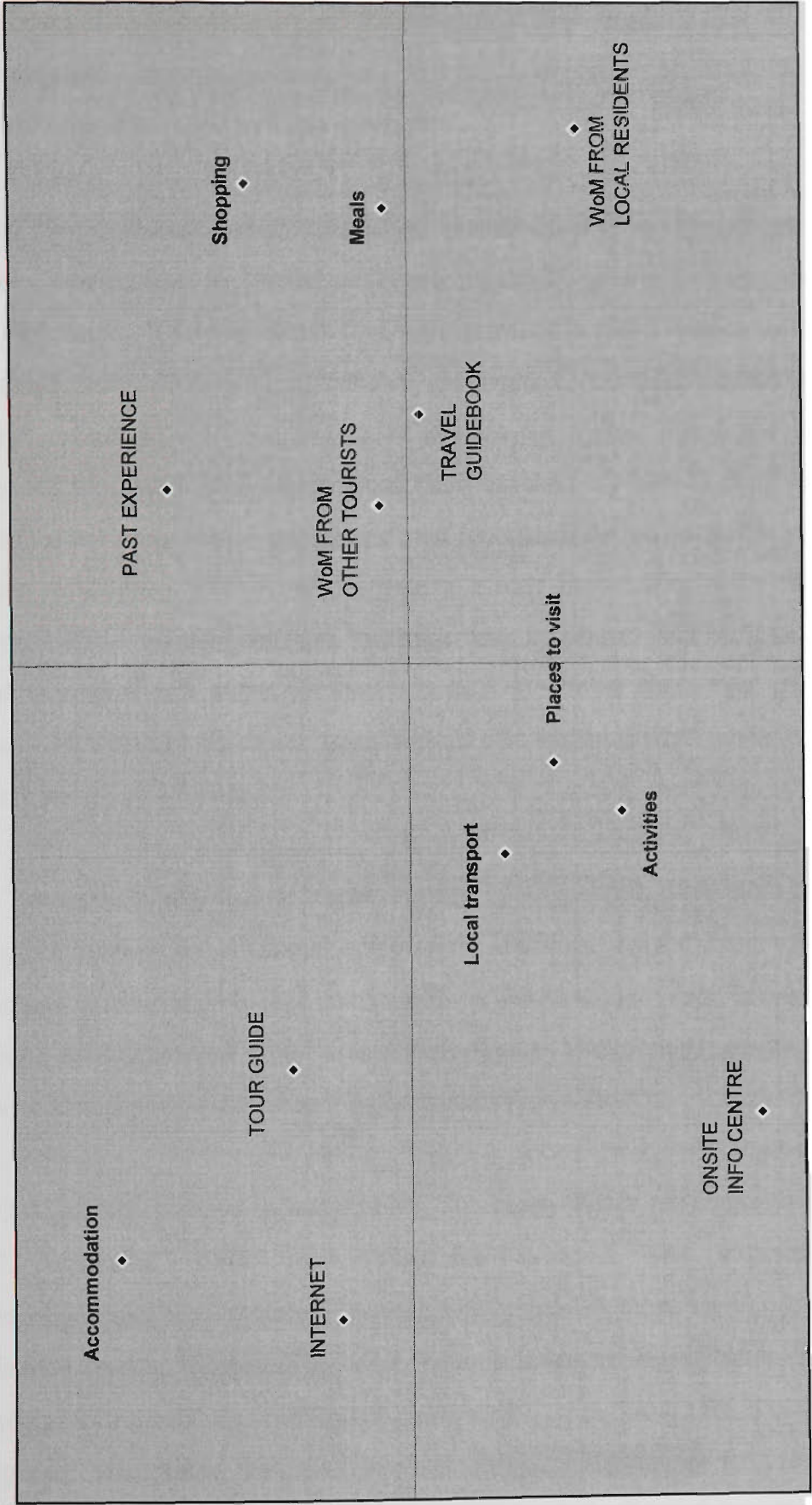
To graphically illustrate the results in Table 7.3 (p.202), Figure 7.3 (p.204), a two-dimensional perceptual map representing the number of users of nine information sources for seven travel components among all respondents at the during travel stage, was produced by using correspondence analysis procedure. The solution generated a high  $R^2$ , 0.85, which indicates a good fit for the two-dimensional model.

Figure 7.3 (p.204) shows that, regarding the interrelationship among travel components, whereas ‘accommodation’ is clearly very different from other travel components, ‘local transport’, ‘places to visit’ and ‘activities’ are relatively closer together and forms a group, and ‘shopping’ and ‘meals’ forms another group. For ‘accommodation’ information, ‘internet’ and ‘tour guide’ are relatively closer, indicating their association in use. For the first group, information sources such as



Figure 7.3

Perceptual Map of Information Source Use by All Respondents: During Travel



‘tour guide’, ‘onsite information centre’ and ‘WoM from other tourists’ are positioned in closer proximity, indicating their closer interrelationship. For the second group of travel components, the perceptual map suggests that ‘WoM from local residents’, ‘travel guidebooks’, ‘WoM from other tourists’, and ‘past experience’ are more used by their positions.

As far as the position of ‘travel guidebook’ is concerned, it is situated between the first and second group in similar proximity. It can be interpreted that the use of travel guidebooks for decision-making during travel is more related to the travel components included in both of the two groups, i.e., ‘meals’, ‘shopping’, ‘local transport’, ‘places to visit’ and ‘activities’ at a similar degree. It is also evident that its level of association with ‘accommodation’ is relatively low. A relatively weak relationship between ‘travel guidebook’ and ‘accommodation’ was also seen prior to travel, in Figure 7.1 (p.197), where a closer association with this travel component and ‘travel agent’ and ‘package tour brochure’ was indicated. In the case of during travel stage, Figure 7.3 (p.204) shows that ‘tour guide’ and ‘internet’ are situated in closer proximity to ‘accommodation’, indicating their relatively strong relationship.

Table 7.4 (p.202) shows the mean scores of perceived usefulness of seven information sources for six travel components evaluated by their users among all respondents during travel, and the results of one-sample t test between travel guidebook usefulness and other information sources usefulness (For the complete table with standard deviations and t values, see Appendix 4.4).

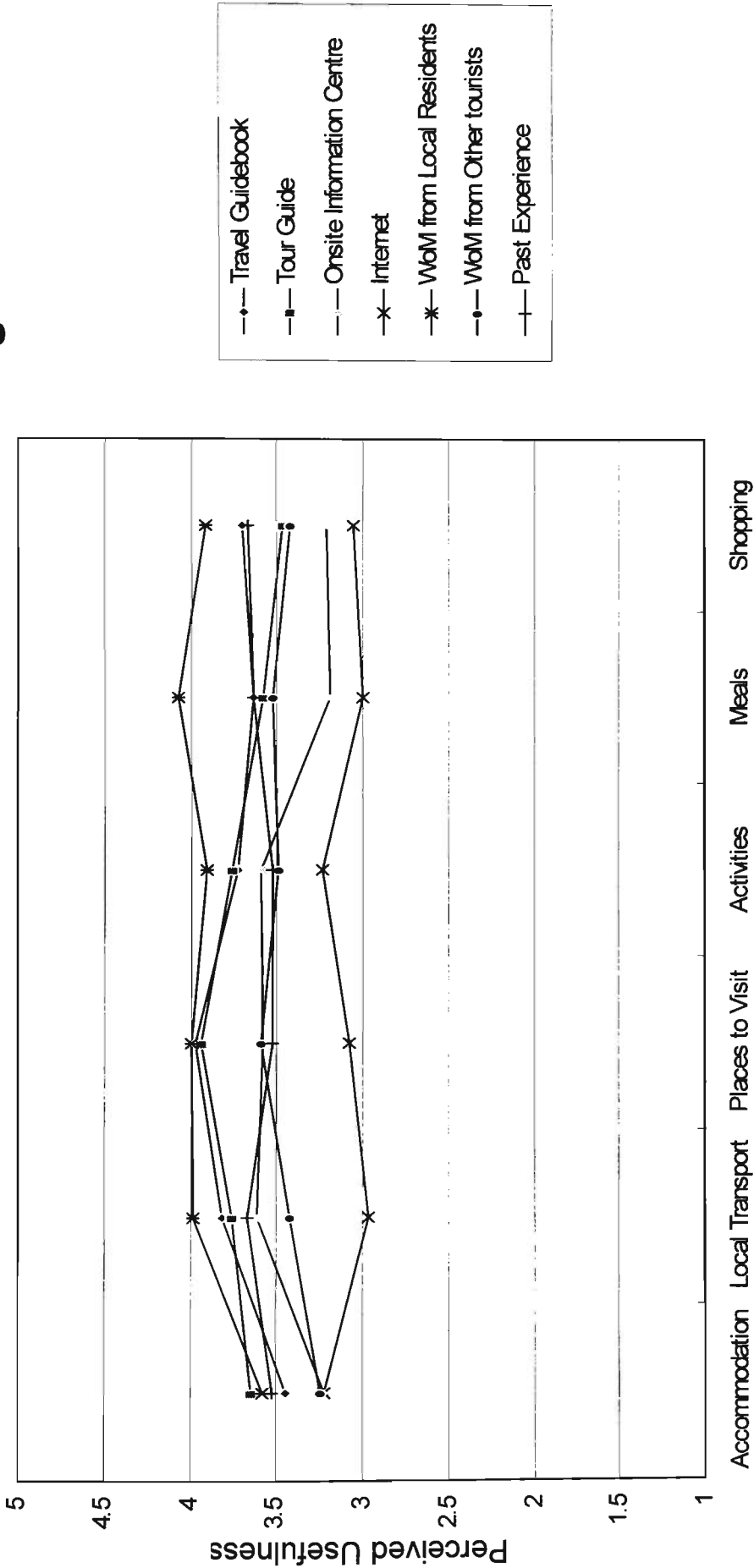
Table 7.4 (p.202) displays mixed results. The mean scores of ‘onsite information centre’, ‘internet’, ‘WoM from other tourists’ and ‘past experience’ are significantly lower than those of ‘travel guidebook’ for most travel components, as indicated by the **shaded areas** with various levels of significance. However, comparing ‘tour guide’ against ‘travel guidebook’, even though the mean score of ‘tour guide’ usefulness for ‘shopping’ is **significantly lower** ( $p<0.001$ ), it is **significantly higher** for ‘accommodation’. ( $p<0.001$ ). In Table 7.3 (p.202), it was

shown that the proportion of 'travel guidebook' users was not significantly different from the proportion of 'tour guide' users for the same component. Therefore, in terms of 'accommodation' information during travel, 'travel guidebook' was considered to be less useful than 'tour guide' by a similar number of users. In addition, in Table 7.4 (p.202), the column of 'WoM from local residents' shows that there are four significant items with higher mean scores, namely 'local transport' ( $p < 0.05$ ), 'activities' ( $p < 0.05$ ), 'meals' ( $p < 0.001$ ) and 'shopping' ( $p < 0.01$ ), as indicated by the shaded areas. Nevertheless, in Table 7.3 (p.202), the proportion of 'WoM from local residents' users for all travel components were significantly smaller than those of 'travel guidebook', as indicated by the shaded areas. Therefore, these results can be interpreted that, although 'travel guidebook' was used by significantly more respondents than 'WoM from local residents' during travel, those who used 'WoM from local residents' evaluated it higher than those who used 'travel guidebook'.

To visually illustrate the data shown in Table 7.4 (p.202), a line graph of mean scores of perceived usefulness of information sources during travel was produced and presented as Figure 7.4 (p.207). Closer examination of the graph reveals the highest mean scores come from 'WoM from local residents' for most of travel components, though the levels for 'travel guidebook' and 'tour guide' appear to be close to it in general. The mean scores of other sources are not as high as those three sources.

In summary, during travel, travel guidebooks were considered to be more useful information sources for most travel components than 'onsite information centre', 'internet', 'WoM from other tourists' and 'past experience' by users among all respondents. However, in comparison with 'tour guide' and 'WoM from local residents', the evaluation of travel guidebook was lower, except in the case of 'tour guide for shopping information'. Therefore, **Hypothesis 4** ('For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered by all tourists as more useful than other information sources during the travel stage') was partly supported.

Figure 7.4  
Perceived Usefulness of Information Sources: During Travel



### 7.2.2 Type of Tourist

In the previous section, the number of users and perceived usefulness of information sources were examined on the basis of answers from all respondents. This section is interested in the same issues across three different types of tourist categorised by their degree of freedom exercised in travel decision-making, namely: comprehensive package tour participants (N=358); flexible package tour participants (N=482); and independent travelers (N=371). It provides a picture of how these three different groups used and evaluated various information sources. The relative position of travel guidebooks is thus examined by taking the differences of these three groups into consideration. The results of prior to and during travel use are displayed separately.

#### 7.2.2.1 Prior to Travel

The specific objective is to test **Hypotheses 5** and **6**.

Table 7.5 (p.209) displays the number of users of nine information sources for seven travel components prior to travel across three different types of tourist. It also shows the results of the McNemar test which compares the proportion of those who used each of the other information sources for the same travel component. (For the complete table with Chi-square values for each item, see Appendix 4.5).

Table 7.5 (p.209) clearly illustrates some differences across the three groups. Among independent travelers (N=371), McNemar tests showed that all items are significant, with a smaller number of users than ‘travel guidebook’, indicated by the **shaded areas**. Among flexible package tour participants (N=482), all items except for four are shown to be significant with a smaller number of users than ‘travel guidebook’, as indicated by the **shaded areas**. In the exceptional four items, ‘travel agent for accommodation information’ was recorded as being significant with the larger number of users than ‘travel guidebook’, as indicated by shade. Among comprehensive package tour participants (N=358), while the majority of items are still significant with a smaller number of users than ‘travel guidebook’,

**Table 7.5**  
**Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: Prior to Travel**

		Travel guidebook	Travel Agent	Package Tour Brochure	TV	Newspaper/Magazine	Internet	DMO Information Pack	WoM from family/friends	Past Experience
Comprehensive Package Tour Participants (N=358)	Destination	165	166	154	<b>57</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>78</b>
	Accommodation	124	<b>166</b>	136	<b>42</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>73</b>
	Transport	123	140	110	<b>38</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>67</b>
	Places to Visit	146	138	128	<b>47</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>72</b>
	Activities	114	121	99	<b>40</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>67</b>
	Meals	141	145	<b>117</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>79</b>
	Shopping	161	<b>128</b>	<b>117</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>80</b>
Flexible Package Tour Participants (N=482)	Destination	276	261	259	<b>95</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>122</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>147</b>
	Accommodation	215	256	220	<b>64</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>106</b>
	Transport	265	<b>197</b>	<b>170</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>106</b>
	Places to Visit	293	<b>195</b>	<b>184</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>103</b>
	Activities	237	<b>173</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>114</b>	<b>106</b>
	Meals	273	<b>172</b>	<b>164</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>142</b>	<b>132</b>
	Shopping	292	<b>159</b>	<b>154</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>137</b>	<b>135</b>
Independent Travellers (N=371)	Destination	240	<b>125</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>153</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>179</b>	<b>178</b>
	Accommodation	196	<b>121</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>143</b>	<b>145</b>
	Transport	225	<b>94</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>132</b>	<b>138</b>
	Places to Visit	244	<b>78</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>149</b>	<b>151</b>
	Activities	208	<b>78</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>138</b>
	Meals	217	<b>76</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>95</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>156</b>	<b>144</b>
	Shopping	213	<b>74</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>149</b>

Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are in **bold**, significant items at  $p < 0.01$  are in *italic*, and a significant item at  $p < 0.05$  is underlined (McNemar test). Shaded areas indicate significant items with a larger number of users and a smaller number of users than 'travel guidebook', respectively.

Note: This is a summary table. Detailed information is provided in Appendix 4.5.

as indicated by the shaded areas, there are more exceptional items, including four exceptional items found in flexible package tour participants. Particularly, ‘travel agent for accommodation information’ was recorded as being significant with a larger number of users than ‘travel guidebook’, as indicated by shade, as with the results obtained from flexible package tour participants.

In summarising the results shown in Table 7.5 (p.209), across the three types of tourist, the proportion of ‘travel guidebook’ users within each group were significantly greater than the proportion of users of ‘TV’, ‘newspaper/magazine’, ‘internet’, ‘DMO information pack’, ‘WoM from family/friend’ and ‘past experience’ for all travel components prior to travel. However, in terms of the proportions of ‘travel agent’ and ‘package tour brochure’ users in comparison with ‘travel guidebook’ users, the results were inconsistent across the three groups. It is indicated that, while independent travellers were likely to depend on travel guidebooks more than any other source, ‘travel agent’ and ‘package tour brochure’ were used by a similar or greater number of tourists among flexible and comprehensive package tour participants.

Table 7.6 (p.211) is a reorganization of the numbers contained in Table 7.5 (p.209) with percentages within each type of tourist. The purpose of this reorganization is to facilitate easier comparisons across the three types of tourist. This table also shows the results of Chi-square tests of independence which examined whether there is an association between two categorical variables (‘type of tourist’ variable and use/non-use of information sources). Significant results indicate that there is an association between the type of tourist and whether that information source was used or not.

In Table 7.6 (p.211), significant results were recorded in ‘travel guidebook’, ‘travel agent’, ‘package tour brochure’, ‘internet’, ‘DMO information pack’, ‘WoM from family/friend’, and ‘past experience’ for all travel components ( $p < 0.001$ ). By examining the significant results in the rows for ‘travel guidebook’

**Table 7.6**  
**Comparison of the Number of Information Source Users across Different Types of Tourist:**  
**Prior to Travel**

Source of information	Travel components	Comprehensive package tour participants (N=358)		Flexible package tour participants (N=482)		Independent Travellers (N=371)		$\chi^2$
		N	%	N	%	N	%	
Travel Guidebook	Destination	165	46.1	276	57.3	240	64.7	<b>25.96</b>
	Accommodation	124	34.6	215	44.6	196	52.8	<b>24.51</b>
	Local Transport	123	34.4	265	55.0	225	60.6	<b>56.46</b>
	Places to Visit	146	40.8	293	60.8	244	65.8	<b>52.53</b>
	Activities	114	31.8	237	49.2	208	56.1	<b>45.93</b>
	Meals	141	39.4	273	56.6	217	58.5	<b>33.24</b>
	Shopping	161	45.0	292	60.6	213	57.4	<b>21.48</b>
Travel Agent	Destination	166	46.4	261	54.1	125	33.7	<b>35.49</b>
	Accommodation	166	46.4	256	53.1	121	32.6	<b>36.09</b>
	Local Transport	140	39.1	197	40.9	94	25.3	<b>24.81</b>
	Place to Visit	138	38.5	195	40.5	78	21.0	<b>40.12</b>
	Activities	121	33.8	173	35.9	78	21.0	<b>24.04</b>
	Meals	145	40.5	172	35.7	76	20.5	<b>37.12</b>
	Shopping	128	35.8	159	33.0	74	19.9	<b>25.62</b>
Package Tour Brochure	Destination	154	43.0	259	53.7	84	22.6	<b>84.58</b>
	Accommodation	136	38.0	220	45.6	69	18.6	<b>69.18</b>
	Local Transport t	110	30.7	170	35.3	59	15.9	<b>40.89</b>
	Places to Visit	128	35.8	184	38.2	68	18.3	<b>42.86</b>
	Activities	99	27.7	152	31.5	58	15.6	<b>29.12</b>
	Meals	117	32.7	164	34.0	59	15.9	<b>39.43</b>
	Shopping	117	32.7	154	32.0	59	15.9	<b>34.79</b>
TV	Destination	57	15.9	95	19.7	64	17.3	2.14
	Accommodation	42	11.7	64	13.3	41	11.1	1.05
	Local Transport	38	10.6	61	12.7	42	11.3	0.89
	Places to Visit	47	13.1	68	14.1	47	12.7	0.40
	Activities	40	11.2	64	13.3	48	12.9	0.90
	Meals	47	13.1	71	14.7	45	12.1	1.27
	Shopping	44	12.3	71	14.7	46	12.4	1.43
Newspaper/ Magazine	Destination	57	15.9	91	18.9	72	19.4	1.76
	Accommodation	46	12.8	64	13.3	61	16.4	2.41
	Local Transport	41	11.5	63	13.1	56	15.1	2.12
	Places to Visit	48	13.4	74	15.4	66	17.8	2.69
	Activities	39	10.9	68	14.1	61	16.4	4.73
	Meals	49	13.7	73	15.1	62	16.7	1.30
	Shopping	47	13.1	80	16.6	67	18.1	3.49
Internet	Destination	61	17.0	122	25.3	153	41.2	<b>55.59</b>
	Accommodation	47	13.1	93	19.3	126	34.0	<b>49.47</b>
	Local Transport	36	10.1	72	14.9	105	28.3	<b>45.73</b>
	Places to Visit	43	12.0	90	18.7	111	29.9	<b>37.40</b>
	Activities	35	9.8	75	15.6	102	27.5	<b>41.70</b>
	Meals	40	11.2	77	16.0	95	25.6	<b>27.58</b>
	Shopping	42	11.7	74	15.4	93	25.1	<b>24.73</b>
DMO Information Pack	Destination	45	12.6	73	15.1	108	29.1	<b>39.36</b>
	Accommodation	38	10.6	56	11.6	90	24.3	<b>34.27</b>
	Local Transport	40	11.2	71	14.7	99	26.7	<b>34.39</b>
	Places to Visit	42	11.7	70	14.5	105	28.3	<b>40.29</b>
	Activities	36	10.1	61	12.7	92	24.8	<b>35.36</b>
	Meals	42	11.7	60	12.4	82	22.1	<b>19.89</b>
	Shopping	42	11.7	62	12.9	84	22.6	<b>20.86</b>
WoM from Family/Friend	Destination	87	24.3	150	31.1	179	48.2	<b>50.04</b>
	Accommodation	59	16.5	99	20.5	143	38.5	<b>55.47</b>
	Local Transport	53	14.8	102	21.2	132	35.6	<b>46.34</b>
	Places to Visit	73	20.4	130	27.0	149	40.2	<b>36.25</b>
	Activities	56	15.6	114	23.7	125	33.7	<b>32.43</b>
	Meals	76	21.2	142	29.5	156	42.0	<b>37.76</b>
	Shopping	82	22.9	137	28.4	145	39.1	<b>23.70</b>
Past Experience	Destination	78	21.8	147	30.5	178	48.0	<b>59.07</b>
	Accommodation	73	20.4	106	22.0	145	39.1	<b>41.75</b>
	Local Transport	67	18.7	123	22.0	155	37.2	<b>51.04</b>
	Places to Visit	72	20.1	103	21.4	151	40.7	<b>51.80</b>
	Activities	67	18.7	106	22.0	138	37.2	<b>38.32</b>
	Meals	79	22.1	132	27.4	144	38.8	<b>26.10</b>
	Shopping	80	22.3	135	28.0	149	40.2	<b>29.11</b>

Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are in **bold** (Chi-square test of independence).

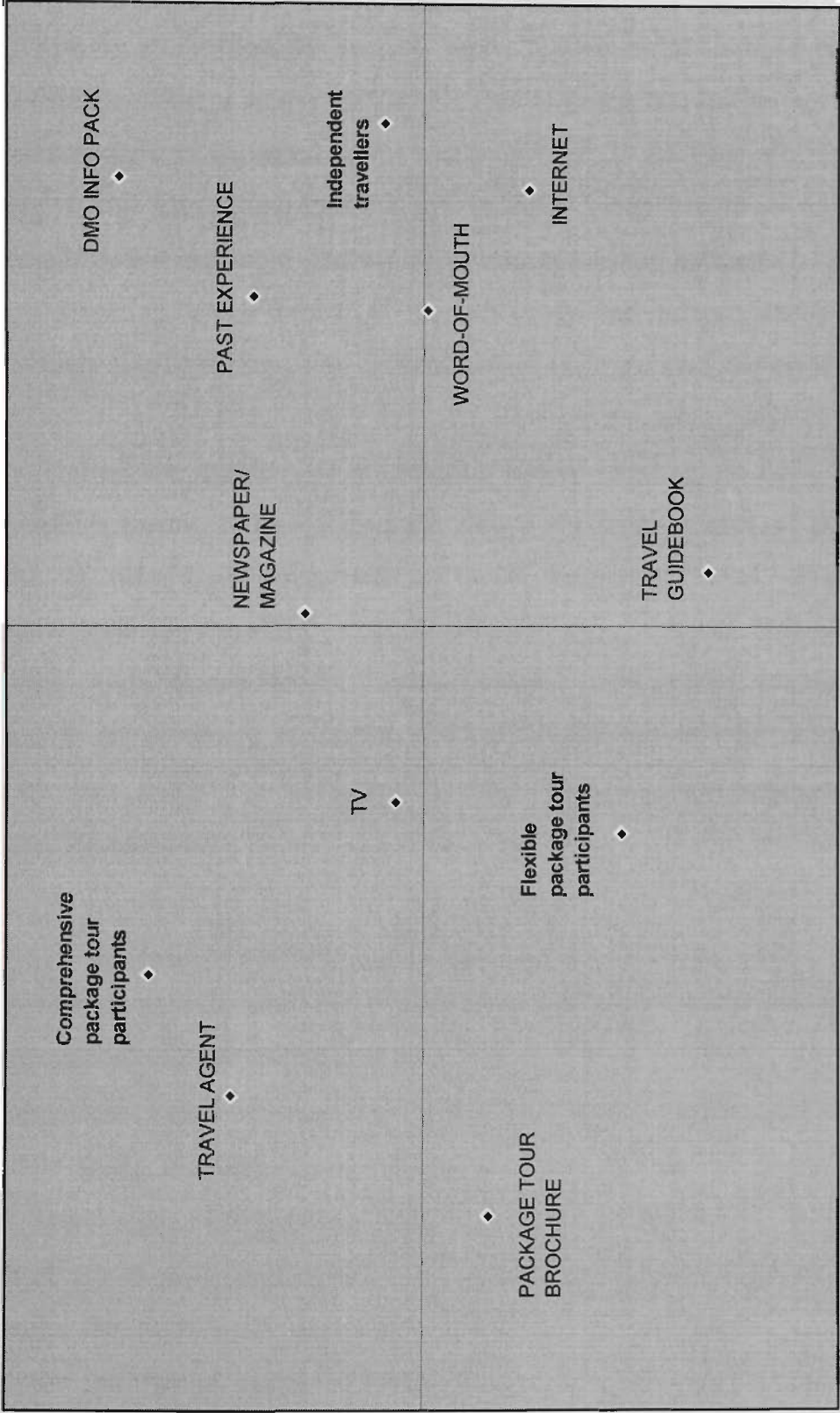


more closely, it was found that for all travel components except 'shopping', the percentage of users among independent travellers are greater than with the other two types of tourist. As for 'shopping', the percentage of users among flexible package tour participants are slightly higher than those among independent travelers. These results can be interpreted that the more freedom that respondents exercised in travel decision-making, the more that travel guidebooks were used for most travel components prior to travel. The results displayed in Table 7.5 (p.209) and 7.6 (p.211) provide support for **Hypothesis 5** ('For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater 'freedom' in their decision-making prior to the travel stage').

Figure 7.5 (p.213) is a two-dimensional perceptual map produced by correspondence analysis using the data shown in Table 7.5 (p.209) and 7.6 (p.211). To avoid a congested-looking map and for ease of interpretation, the frequency scores of seven travel components were aggregated into one value for each source of information. Instead, points representing three types of tourist are depicted. By employing such a perceptual map, the relative position of information sources including travel guidebooks can be visually presented in relation to three types of tourist prior to travel. The closeness between a type of tourist and any information sources represents the extent to which information sources match the type of tourist as a whole. The measure of goodness-of-fit,  $R^2$  for the solution was 1.00, indicating that the two dimensional model fully represents the model.

The position of points in Figure 7.5 (p.213) provide an obvious conclusion that different types of tourist indicate a strong attachment to different information sources. For example, comprehensive package tour participants and 'travel agent' found to be close to each other and in the same quadrant, suggesting a tight and close association. 'Package tour brochure' is situated in about the same distance from comprehensive package tour participants and flexible package tour participants, indicating uses by both groups at a similar degree. A close association is also evident between independent travellers and 'internet', 'WoM',

**Figure 7.5**  
**Perceptual Map of Information Source Use by Three Types of Tourist: Prior to Travel**



‘past experience’, and ‘DMO information pack’. Focusing on ‘travel guidebook’, its relative position in the perceptual map does not indicate a strong relationship to any particular type of tourist because travel guidebooks were generally the most popular information source across all three types of tourist. However, by examining the proximities between ‘travel guidebook’ and the three types of tourist, it can be found that the use of ‘travel guidebook’ is located relatively closer to flexible package tour participants. This is partly due to the fact that the number of respondents classified in this group (N=482, 39.8%) was slightly larger than the other two groups and thus the sum of travel guidebook users within this group became relatively larger. But still, the perceptual map indicates a relatively high dependence on ‘travel guidebook’ by this group and independent travellers, and a relatively low dependence by comprehensive package tour participants.

Having examined the numbers of information source users across three types of tourist prior to travel, Table 7.7 (p.215) shows the mean scores of perceived usefulness of nine information sources used for seven travel components evaluated by their users across three types of tourist prior to travel. This table also provides the results of one-sample t test to examine whether there are significant differences in the perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks to other information sources by their users (For the complete table with standard deviations and t values, see Appendix 4.6).

In Table 7.7 (p.215), one-sample t test showed that, across the three types of tourist, perceived usefulness of ‘travel guidebook’ was considerably different from most information sources for most travel components. Among these, there were several significant items which scored higher than those of ‘travel guidebook’, as indicated in shade. Among comprehensive package tour participants, the mean score of ‘travel agent’ for ‘accommodation’ information was significantly higher than that of ‘travel guidebook’ ( $p<0.001$ ). Likewise, among flexible package tour participants, the same item was significantly higher ( $p<0.001$ ). In Table 7.5 (p.209), the number of users of these two items were greater than ‘travel guidebook’ users. Thus, for these two items, ‘travel guidebook’ was less used and

**Table 7.7**  
**Difference in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: Prior to Travel**

Type of Tourist	Travel Component	Travel guidebook	Travel Agent	Package Tour Brochure	TV	Newspaper Magazine	Internet	DMO InfoPack	WoM from family/friend	Past Experience
Comprehensive Package Tour Participants (N=358)	Destination	3.83	<b>3.63</b>	<b>3.47</b>	<b>2.86</b>	<b>3.11</b>	<b>3.26</b>	<b>3.02</b>	3.63	<b>3.44</b>
	Accommodation	3.15	<b>3.51</b>	3.26	<b>2.10</b>	<b>2.52</b>	3.13	<b>2.74</b>	2.98	3.10
	Transport	3.44	<b>3.22</b>	<b>2.96</b>	<b>2.00</b>	<b>2.41</b>	<b>2.83</b>	<b>2.93</b>	<b>3.04</b>	3.28
	Places to Visit	3.80	<b>3.49</b>	<b>3.44</b>	<b>2.64</b>	<b>3.02</b>	<b>3.23</b>	<b>3.14</b>	<b>3.52</b>	<b>3.18</b>
	Activities	3.57	<b>3.22</b>	<b>3.13</b>	<b>2.40</b>	<b>2.82</b>	<b>3.09</b>	<b>2.94</b>	<b>3.16</b>	<b>3.19</b>
	Meals	3.37	<b>3.04</b>	<b>2.85</b>	<b>2.77</b>	<b>2.88</b>	<b>2.83</b>	<b>2.83</b>	3.45	3.24
	Shopping	3.63	<b>3.13</b>	<b>2.91</b>	<b>2.61</b>	<b>2.91</b>	<b>2.95</b>	<b>3.00</b>	3.44	<b>3.29</b>
Flexible Package Tour Participants (N=482)	Destination	3.98	<b>3.51</b>	<b>3.42</b>	<b>2.78</b>	<b>3.09</b>	<b>3.57</b>	<b>2.99</b>	<b>3.61</b>	<b>3.64</b>
	Accommodation	3.35	<b>3.50</b>	3.25	<b>2.08</b>	<b>2.52</b>	3.20	<b>2.54</b>	<b>3.04</b>	3.27
	Transport	3.81	<b>3.14</b>	<b>2.69</b>	<b>1.90</b>	<b>2.27</b>	<b>2.85</b>	<b>3.13</b>	<b>3.16</b>	<b>3.41</b>
	Places to Visit	4.07	<b>3.24</b>	<b>3.25</b>	<b>2.71</b>	<b>3.03</b>	<b>3.26</b>	<b>3.16</b>	<b>3.62</b>	<b>3.38</b>
	Activities	3.78	<b>2.97</b>	<b>2.93</b>	<b>2.45</b>	<b>2.74</b>	<b>3.08</b>	<b>3.02</b>	<b>3.47</b>	<b>3.45</b>
	Meals	3.74	<b>2.67</b>	<b>2.74</b>	<b>2.45</b>	<b>3.00</b>	<b>3.06</b>	<b>2.90</b>	<b>3.53</b>	<b>3.48</b>
	Shopping	3.77	<b>2.67</b>	<b>2.60</b>	<b>2.61</b>	<b>3.13</b>	<b>3.07</b>	<b>2.94</b>	<b>3.53</b>	<b>3.56</b>
Independent Travellers (N=371)	Destination	4.05	<b>3.34</b>	<b>3.06</b>	<b>2.89</b>	<b>3.13</b>	3.95	<b>3.26</b>	3.99	3.97
	Accommodation	3.53	3.34	<b>2.87</b>	<b>1.83</b>	<b>2.66</b>	<b>3.77</b>	<b>2.74</b>	<b>3.87</b>	3.72
	Transport	3.88	<b>2.68</b>	<b>2.37</b>	<b>1.90</b>	<b>2.55</b>	<b>3.28</b>	<b>3.21</b>	<b>3.61</b>	3.81
	Places to Visit	3.94	<b>2.68</b>	<b>2.78</b>	<b>2.47</b>	<b>3.12</b>	<b>3.37</b>	<b>3.15</b>	3.84	<b>3.72</b>
	Activities	3.69	<b>2.64</b>	<b>2.71</b>	<b>2.35</b>	<b>2.98</b>	<b>3.30</b>	<b>3.18</b>	3.67	3.75
	Meals	3.35	<b>2.05</b>	<b>2.27</b>	<b>2.40</b>	3.16	<b>3.04</b>	<b>2.66</b>	<b>3.85</b>	<b>3.76</b>
	Shopping	3.40	<b>2.09</b>	<b>2.37</b>	<b>2.30</b>	3.10	<b>3.00</b>	<b>2.60</b>	<b>3.67</b>	<b>3.85</b>

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful') was used.

Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are in **bold**, significant items at  $p < 0.01$  are in *italic*, and significant items at  $p < 0.05$  are underlined (One sample t-test).

Shaded areas indicate significant items with a higher mean score and with a lower mean score than 'travel guidebook', respectively.

Note: This is a summary table. Detailed information is provided in Appendix 4.6.

considered to be less useful by users among comprehensive package tour and flexible package tour participants. Among independent travelers, there are more significant items with higher mean scores than 'travel guidebook', as indicated in *shade*, though the number of users of these items in Table 7.5 (p.209) were smaller than those of travel guidebooks, as indicated by the *shaded areas*.

In summary, Table 7.7 (p.215) indicated that, regardless of tourist type, 'travel guidebook' was considered to be a more useful information source for the majority of travel components in comparison with other information sources prior to travel. Among comprehensive package tour participants and flexible package tour participants, however, 'travel agent' was considered to be significantly more useful for 'accommodation' information than 'travel guidebook', and the number of users were also significantly greater.

Table 7.8 (p.217) is a reorganization of the mean scores displayed in Table 7.7 (p.215). The purpose of this reorganization is to facilitate easier comparisons of the mean scores across the three groups of tourist type. This table also shows the results of one-way ANOVA to compare the differences in mean scores across three types of tourist.

In Table 7.8 (p.217), significant results were recorded in the rows of 'travel guidebook' for 'accommodation', 'local transport', places to visit', 'meals' and 'shopping'. Closer examination of these items reveals that, among the three types of tourist, while independent travellers recorded the highest mean scores for 'accommodation' and 'local transport', flexible package tour participants earned the highest mean scores for 'places to visit', 'meals' and 'shopping'.

To visually illustrate the results shown in Tables 7.7 (p.215) and 7.8 (p.217), a line graph representing the mean scores of perceived usefulness of information sources across three types of tourist prior to travel was produced and presented as Figure 7.6 (p.218). It is evident that travel guidebooks generally received higher

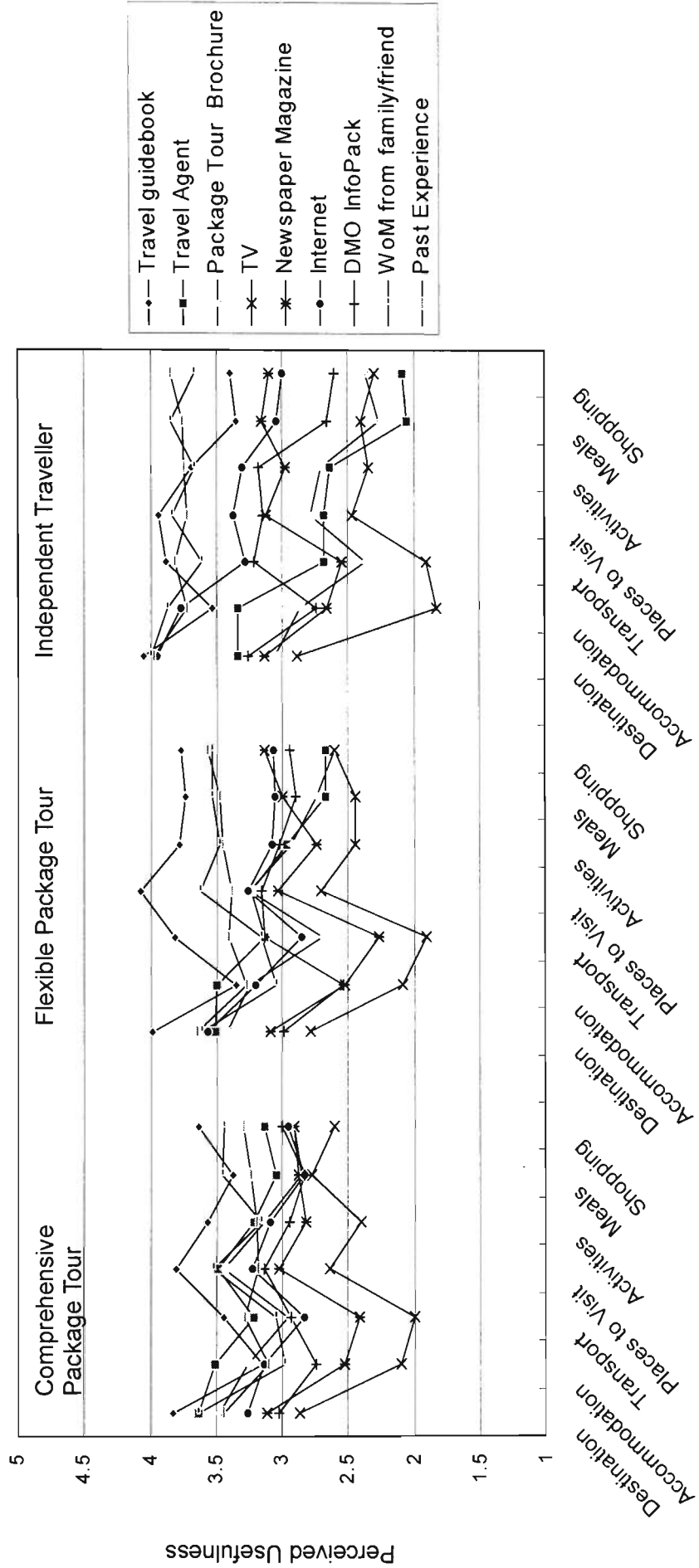
**Table 7.8**  
**Difference in Perceived Usefulness of Information Sources Evaluated by Users across Different Types of Tourist: Prior to Travel**

Source of Information	Travel Components	Comprehensive Package Tour Participants (N=358)	Flexible Package Tour Participants (N=482)	Independent Travellers (N=371)	F
Travel Guidebook	Destination	3.83	3.98	4.05	2.96
	Accommodation	3.15	3.35	3.53	<u>4.33</u>
	Local Transport	3.44	3.81	3.88	7.53
	Places to Visit	3.80	4.07	3.94	<u>4.11</u>
	Activities	3.57	3.78	3.69	1.56
	Meals	3.37	3.74	3.35	<b>9.45</b>
	Shopping	3.63	3.77	3.40	<b>8.05</b>
Travel Agent	Destination	3.63	3.51	3.34	2.79
	Accommodation	3.51	3.50	3.34	0.95
	Local Transport	3.22	3.14	2.68	6.76
	Places to Visit	3.49	3.24	2.68	<b>13.22</b>
	Activities	3.22	2.97	2.64	6.25
	Meals	3.04	2.67	2.05	<b>22.07</b>
	Shopping	3.13	2.67	2.09	<b>21.80</b>
Package Tour Brochure	Destination	3.47	3.42	3.06	5.74
	Accommodation	3.26	3.25	2.87	<u>4.08</u>
	Local Transport	2.96	2.69	2.37	5.92
	Places to Visit	3.44	3.25	2.78	<b>8.55</b>
	Activities	3.13	2.93	2.71	3.03
	Meals	2.85	2.74	2.27	5.80
	Shopping	2.91	2.60	2.37	<u>5.51</u>
TV	Destination	2.86	2.78	2.89	0.24
	Accommodation	2.10	2.08	1.83	0.98
	Local Transport	2.00	1.90	1.90	0.14
	Places to Visit	2.64	2.71	2.47	0.61
	Activities	2.40	2.45	2.35	0.12
	Meals	2.77	2.45	2.40	1.51
	Shopping	2.61	2.61	2.30	1.10
Newspaper/ Magazine	Destination	3.11	3.09	3.13	0.02
	Accommodation	2.52	2.52	2.66	0.23
	Local Transport	2.41	2.27	2.55	0.78
	Places to Visit	3.02	3.03	3.12	0.12
	Activities	2.82	2.74	2.98	0.61
	Meals	2.88	3.00	3.16	0.66
	Shopping	2.91	3.13	3.10	0.40
Internet	Destination	3.26	3.57	3.95	<b>11.84</b>
	Accommodation	3.13	3.20	3.77	7.38
	Local Transport	2.83	2.85	3.28	2.67
	Places to Visit	3.23	3.26	3.37	0.29
	Activities	3.09	3.08	3.30	0.78
	Meals	2.83	3.06	3.04	0.50
	Shopping	2.95	3.07	3.00	0.11
DMO InfoPack	Destination	3.02	2.99	3.26	1.56
	Accommodation	2.74	2.54	2.74	0.60
	Local Transport	2.93	3.13	3.21	0.80
	Places to Visit	3.14	3.16	3.15	0.00
	Activities	2.94	3.02	3.18	0.85
	Meals	2.83	2.90	2.66	0.85
	Shopping	3.00	2.94	2.60	2.38
WoM from Family/Friend	Destination	3.63	3.61	3.99	6.70
	Accommodation	2.98	3.04	3.87	<b>17.48</b>
	Local Transport	3.04	3.16	3.61	5.20
	Places to Visit	3.52	3.62	3.84	1.99
	Activities	3.16	3.47	3.67	<u>3.05</u>
	Meals	3.45	3.53	3.85	<u>3.75</u>
	Shopping	3.44	3.53	3.67	0.95
Past Experience	Destination	3.44	3.64	3.97	7.67
	Accommodation	3.10	3.27	3.72	<b>7.88</b>
	Local Transport	3.28	3.41	3.81	6.09
	Places to Visit	3.18	3.38	3.72	5.75
	Activities	3.19	3.45	3.75	5.41
	Meals	3.24	3.48	3.76	6.14
	Shopping	3.29	3.56	3.85	6.72

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful') was used.

Significant items at 0.001 are in **bold**, significant items at 0.01 are in *italic*, and significant items at 0.05 are underlined (One-way ANOVA).

Figure 7.6  
Perceived Usefulness of Information Sources  
by Three Types of Tourist: Prior to Travel



evaluation than other sources across three different types of tourist, even among comprehensive package tour participants. However, the level of evaluation for ‘travel guidebook’ given by flexible package tour participants appear to stand out, as no other source was evaluated higher or similar to ‘travel guidebook’ with the exception of ‘accommodation’ information. Among independent travellers, while the evaluation of ‘travel guidebook’ was generally higher, two other sources, namely ‘WoM from family/friends’ and ‘past experience’ recorded comparable scores.

Combining the results reported as above, **Hypothesis 6** (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered as a more useful information source than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater ‘freedom’ in their decision-making prior to the travel stage’) is only partly supported. This hypothesis was supported regarding ‘local transport’ and ‘places to visit’, because these are the only items which achieved highest useful mean scores in comparison with other information sources among independent travellers and across the three groups. Regarding the rest of the travel components, the hypothesis was rejected. Instead, flexible package tour participants evaluated ‘travel guidebook’ more useful than other information sources for ‘places to visit’, ‘meals’ and ‘shopping’ information and their mean scores of usefulness were significantly higher than other types of tourists.

**7.2.2.2 During Travel**

In the previous section, the differences in the use of information sources prior to travel across three types of tourists was examined. In this section, the same issue at the during travel stage is investigated. The objective of this section is to test **Hypotheses 7 and 8**.

Table 7.9 (p.220) displays the number of users of nine information sources for seven travel component prior to travel across three types of tourist. It also shows the results of McNemar tests which compare the proportion of those who used each of the other information sources for the same travel component. (For the



Table 7.9  
Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: During Travel

		Travel guidebook	Tour guide	Onsite information centre	Internet	WoM from local residents	WoM From other tourists	Past experience
Comprehensive Package tour Participants (N=358)	Accommodation	118	<b>209</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>68</b>
	Local Transport	122	<b>197</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>67</b>
	Places to Visit	138	<b>222</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>67</b>
	Activities	111	<b>178</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>62</b>
	Meals	139	<b>211</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>71</b>
	Shopping	151	<b>197</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>76</b>
Flexible Package tour Participants (N=482)	Accommodation	190	212	<b>82</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>95</b>
	Local Transport	251	<u>217</u>	<b>101</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>118</b>
	Places to Visit	268	<b>223</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>105</b>
	Activities	233	207	<b>113</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>106</b>
	Meals	278	<b>202</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>126</b>
	Shopping	288	<b>199</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>132</b>
Independent Travelers (N=371)	Accommodation	180	<b>53</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>117</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>129</b>
	Local Transport	203	<b>51</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>141</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>142</b>
	Places to Visit	222	<b>56</b>	<b>131</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>133</b>
	Activities	187	<b>54</b>	<b>114</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>139</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>114</b>
	Meals	194	<b>48</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>171</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>142</b>
	Shopping	191	<b>50</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>142</b>

Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are in **bold**, significant items at  $p < 0.01$  are in *italic*, and a significant item at  $p < 0.05$  is underlined (McNemar test). Shaded areas indicate significant items with a larger number of users and with a smaller number of users than 'travel guidebook', respectively.

Note: This is a summary table. Detailed information is provided in Appendix 4.7.

complete table with Chi-square values for each item, see Table in Appendix 4.7).

In Table 7.9 (p.220), the results clearly show the differences across three types of tourist. Among independent travelers (N=371), all but one item are shown to be significantly smaller than the proportions of ‘travel guidebook’ users, as indicated by the shaded areas. Among flexible package tour participants (N=482), while the predominant majority of items are significant with a smaller number of users than ‘travel guidebook’ as indicated by the shaded areas, non-significant items are increased to two, which are both in the column of ‘tour guide’. Among comprehensive package tour participants (N=358), although the proportion of users of the five sources, namely ‘onsite information centre’, ‘internet’, ‘WoM from local residents’, ‘WoM from other tourists’ and ‘past experience’ for all travel components are significantly larger than ‘travel guidebook’ users as indicated by the shaded areas, all items in the column of ‘tour guide’ are significant with a larger number of users than ‘travel guidebook’ as indicated in shade.

In summary, across the three groups, the proportions of ‘travel guidebook’ users were significantly greater than the proportion of users of information sources including ‘onsite information centre’, ‘internet’, ‘WoM from local residents’, ‘WoM from other tourists’ and ‘past experience’ for all travel components at the stage of during travel, with one exception (‘WoM from local residents for meals information’ among independent travelers). However, in terms of the proportion of ‘tour guide’ users in comparison with ‘travel guidebook’ users, the results were inconsistent across three types of tourist. It is interesting that a similar pattern was observed in Table 7.5 (p.209) regarding ‘travel agent’ and ‘package tour brochure’.

Table 7.10 (p.222) is a reorganization of the numbers contained in Table 7.9 (p.220) with percentages within each type of tourist. The purpose of this reorganization is to facilitate easier comparisons of the numbers and proportions of users across three types of tourist. This table also shows the results of

**Table 7.10**  
**Comparison of the Number of Users across Different Types of Tourist: During Travel**

Source of Information	Travel Components	Comprehensive Package tour Participants (N=358)		Flexible Package tour participants (N=482)		Independent Travellers (N=371)		$\chi^2$
		N	%	N	%	N	%	
Travel Guidebook	Accommodation	118	33.0	190	39.4	180	48.5	<b>156.59</b>
	Local Transport	122	34.1	251	52.1	203	54.7	<b>146.11</b>
	Places to Visit	138	38.5	268	55.6	222	59.8	<b>173.25</b>
	Activities	111	31.0	233	48.3	187	50.4	<b>113.02</b>
	Meals	139	38.8	278	57.7	194	52.3	<b>168.53</b>
	Shopping	151	42.2	288	59.8	191	51.5	<b>142.04</b>
Tour guide	Accommodation	209	58.4	212	44.0	53	14.3	<b>18.58</b>
	Local Transport	197	55.0	217	45.0	51	13.7	<b>37.65</b>
	Places to Visit	222	62.0	223	46.3	56	15.1	<b>37.58</b>
	Activities	178	49.7	207	42.9	54	14.6	<b>34.41</b>
	Meals	211	58.9	202	41.9	48	12.9	<b>29.92</b>
	Shopping	197	55.0	199	41.3	50	13.5	<b>25.48</b>
Onsite Information Centre	Accommodation	46	12.8	82	17.0	100	27.0	<b>25.44</b>
	Local Transport	48	13.4	101	21.0	140	37.7	<b>63.08</b>
	Places to Visit	48	13.4	105	21.8	131	35.3	<b>49.93</b>
	Activities	40	11.2	113	23.4	114	30.7	<b>41.44</b>
	Meals	45	12.6	107	22.2	90	24.3	<b>18.03</b>
	Shopping	42	11.7	103	21.4	86	23.2	<b>18.20</b>
Internet	Accommodation	27	7.5	35	7.3	63	17.0	<b>25.64</b>
	Local Transport	26	7.3	31	6.4	60	16.2	<b>26.14</b>
	Places to Visit	27	7.5	35	7.3	63	17.0	<b>25.64</b>
	Activities	25	7.0	34	7.1	61	16.4	<b>25.57</b>
	Meals	26	7.3	33	6.8	52	14.0	<i>15.16</i>
	Shopping	26	7.3	32	6.6	50	13.5	<i>13.78</i>
WoM from Local Residents	Accommodation	40	11.2	57	17.2	117	38.0	<b>86.80</b>
	Local Transport	40	11.2	83	11.8	141	31.5	<b>70.73</b>
	Places to Visit	48	13.4	85	17.6	160	43.1	<b>106.52</b>
	Activities	48	13.4	88	18.3	139	37.5	<b>69.12</b>
	Meals	51	14.2	105	21.8	171	46.1	<b>104.80</b>
	Shopping	51	14.2	93	19.3	152	41.0	<b>81.95</b>
WoM from Other Tourists	Accommodation	32	8.9	51	10.6	87	23.5	<b>39.72</b>
	Local Transport	32	8.9	64	13.3	86	23.2	<b>30.86</b>
	Places to Visit	37	10.3	70	14.5	91	24.5	<b>28.79</b>
	Activities	33	9.2	68	14.1	85	22.9	<b>27.24</b>
	Meals	41	11.5	70	14.5	96	25.9	<b>30.48</b>
	Shopping	42	11.7	72	14.9	87	23.5	<b>19.67</b>
Past Experience	Accommodation	68	19.0	95	19.7	129	34.8	<b>33.26</b>
	Local Transport	67	18.7	118	24.5	142	38.3	<b>37.95</b>
	Places to Visit	67	18.7	105	21.8	133	35.8	<b>33.30</b>
	Activities	62	17.3	106	22.0	114	30.7	<b>19.09</b>
	Meals	71	19.8	126	26.1	142	38.3	<b>32.11</b>
	Shopping	76	21.2	132	27.4	142	38.3	<b>26.66</b>

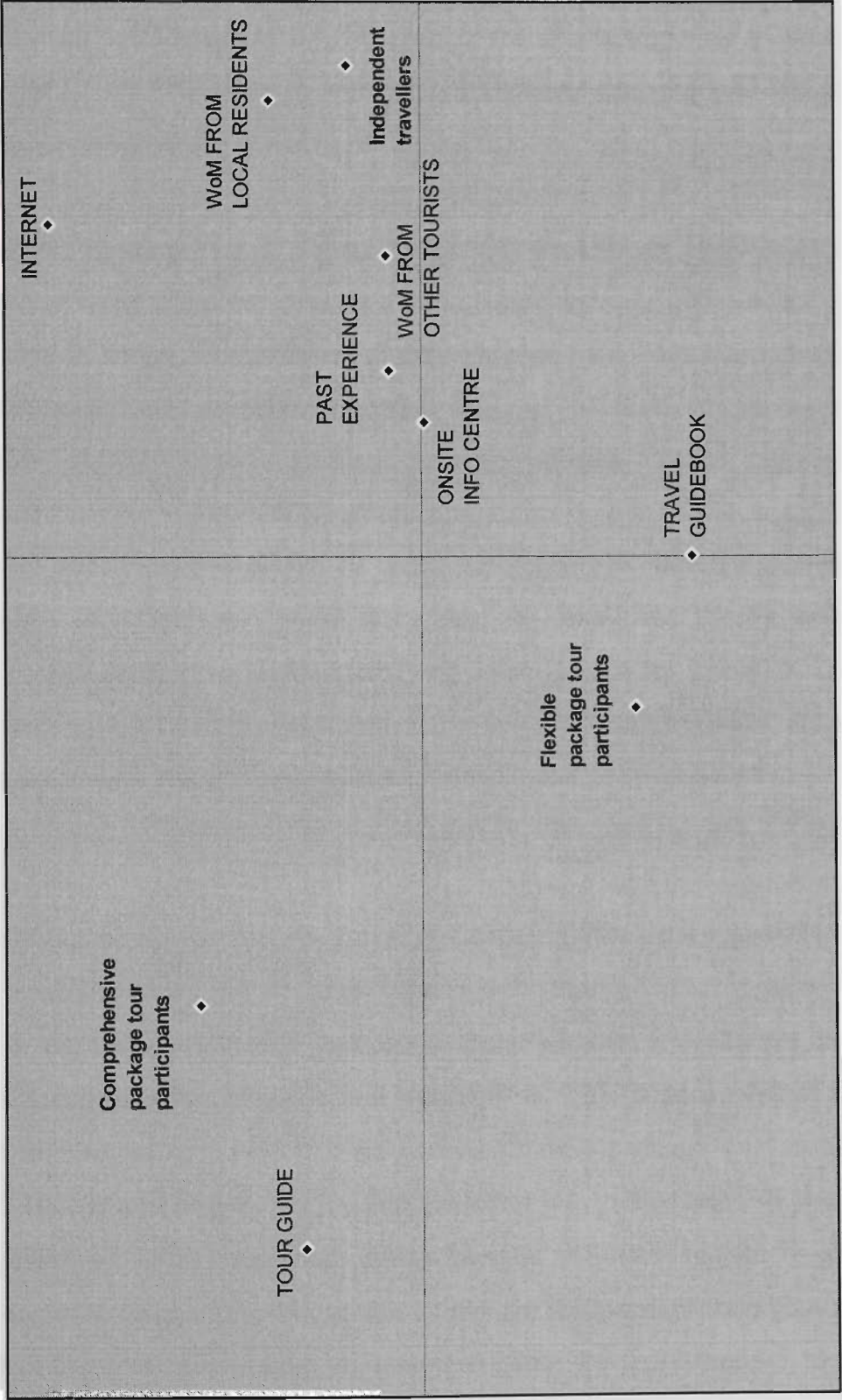
Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are **bolded**, and significant items at  $p < 0.01$  are in *Italic*, and significant items at  $p < 0.05$  are underlined (Chi-square test of Independence)

Chi-square tests of independence which examined whether there is an association between two categorical variables ('type of tourist' variable and use/non-use of information sources). Highly significant results indicate that there is an association between the type of tourist and whether particular information sources were used or not.

In Table 7.10 (p.222), significant results were recorded in all information sources for all travel components. By examining the results in the rows of 'travel guidebook' more closely, it can be found that the percentage of users becomes greater from left (comprehensive package tour participants) to right (independent travelers) for 'accommodation', 'local transportation', 'places to visit' and 'activities'. These results can be interpreted that the more freedom in travel decision-making, the more users of travel guidebook there were for these travel components. In the case of the other two components, 'meals' and 'shopping', the highest proportions of 'travel guidebook' users were recorded among flexible package tour participants, while those of independent travelers were still much higher than comprehensive travellers. As far as other information sources are concerned, with the exception of 'tour guide' which was used by comprehensive package tour participants the most, the highest proportion of users was recorded by independent travellers. These results can be interpreted that, in general, independent travellers used a variety of information sources except 'tour guide' more than other types of tourists for all travel components during travel. In addition, the proportion of 'travel guidebook' users among independent travellers was significantly greater than those of other information sources. Incorporating these results together, supports **Hypothesis 7** ('For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater 'freedom' in their decision-making during the travel stage').

To graphically illustrate the results shown in Table 7.9 (p.220) and Table 7.10 (p.222), a two-dimensional perceptual map was produced by using correspondence analysis procedure, as shown in Figure 7.7 (p.224). To avoid a congested-looking map and for ease of interpretation, the frequency scores of each

**Figure 7.7**  
**Perceptual Map of Information Source Use by Three Types of Tourist: During Travel**



information source user for all travel components were combined. Instead, points representing three types of tourist were depicted in the map. By employing such a figure, the relative position of information sources including travel guidebooks can be visually presented in relation to three types of tourist during travel. The closeness between a type of tourist and any information source represents the extent to which information sources match the tourist type as a whole. The measure of  $R^2$  for the solution was 1.00, indicating that the two dimensional model fully represents the model.

The position of the points in Figure 7.7 (p.224) provide an obvious conclusion that different types of tourist indicate a strong attachment to different information sources during travel. Comprehensive package tour participants and 'tour guide' were found to be close to each other and in the same quadrant, suggesting a strong association. As for flexible package tour participants, 'travel guidebook' is situated in the closest proximity, indicating a higher degree of use in comparison with other information sources. A close association is also evident between independent travellers and 'WoM from local residents' and 'WoM from other tourists', since these sources were relatively heavily used by this group, and not by the other types of tourist. Judging from the proximity of the points, the level of information source use such as 'past experience' and 'onsite information centre' were similar among independent travellers and flexible package tour participants.

By examining the distances from 'travel guidebook' to the three types of tourist, it can be found that the use of 'travel guidebook' during travel is more closely related in the order of flexible package tour participants, independent travelers, and then comprehensive package tour participants. This is partly due to the fact that the number of respondents classified as flexible package tour participants ( $N=482$ , 39.8%) was slightly bigger than the other two groups and thus the sum of travel guidebook users within this group became relatively bigger. In addition, even though the level of travel guidebook use by independent travellers was not lower than the other two groups, as shown in Table 7.9 (p.220) and 7.10 (p.222), the relative position of 'travel guidebook' from independent traveller is greater

because this group also made use of sources which were rarely used by other groups, i.e., 'WoM from local residents', 'WoM from other tourists', 'past experience' and 'onsite information centre'.

As the final set of analysis on the difference in the use of information sources across three types of tourist, Table 7.11 (p.227) displays the mean scores of perceived usefulness of eight information sources for six travel components evaluated by users across three types of tourist during travel. It also provides the results of one-sample t test between travel guidebook usefulness and other information source usefulness (For the complete table with standard deviations and t values, see Appendix 4.8). One-sample t test was conducted for comparing the evaluation of usefulness mean scores, in order to explore the difference in responses between the users of 'travel guidebook' and the users of other information sources for each travel component.

Table 7.11 (p.227) shows that perceived usefulness of 'travel guidebook' in comparison with other information sources was different across three types of tourist. Among comprehensive package tour participants, while the mean scores of 'tour guide' usefulness for all travel components except 'shopping' were significantly higher than those of 'travel guidebook' as indicated in shade, the mean scores of 'internet' and 'WoM from other tourists' usefulness for most travel components were significantly lower than those of 'travel guidebook' as indicated by the shaded areas. In comparison to the rest of the sources, however, no significant difference in mean scores of perceived usefulness was found. These results can provide useful information when combined with the results shown in Table 7.9 (p.220). That is, among comprehensive package tour participants, 'tour guide' was the most used information source during travel and evaluated most useful. 'Travel guidebook' comes second after 'tour guide' in terms of both the number of users and perceived usefulness. Comprehensive package tour participants regarded other information sources as either significantly less useful than, or at a similar level of usefulness as 'travel guidebook' and the number of users among comprehensive package tour participants was significantly less.



**Table 7.11**  
**Difference in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: During Travel**

		Travel guidebook	Tour guide	Onsite information centre	Internet	WoM From local residents	WoM From other tourists	Past experience
Comprehensive Package tour Participants (N=358)	Accommodation	3.29	<b>3.64</b>	3.15	2.89	3.13	<b>2.59</b>	3.15
	Local Transport	3.44	<b>3.67</b>	3.35	<b>2.77</b>	3.53	<b>2.78</b>	3.27
	Places to Visit	3.75	<b>3.91</b>	<b>3.13</b>	<b>2.74</b>	3.42	<b>3.08</b>	<b>3.03</b>
	Activities	3.47	<b>3.68</b>	3.28	<b>2.76</b>	3.44	<b>2.82</b>	<b>3.11</b>
	Meals	3.38	<b>3.60</b>	3.24	<b>2.88</b>	3.51	3.12	3.24
	Shopping	3.58	3.55	3.33	<b>3.00</b>	3.57	<b>3.14</b>	3.37
Flexible Package tour Participants (N=482)	Accommodation	3.32	<b>3.67</b>	3.05	3.06	2.98	<b>2.78</b>	3.32
	Local Transport	3.86	3.85	<b>3.44</b>	<b>2.84</b>	3.59	<b>3.19</b>	<b>3.53</b>
	Places to Visit	4.02	3.98	<b>3.51</b>	<b>3.00</b>	<b>3.72</b>	<b>3.34</b>	<b>3.31</b>
	Activities	3.77	3.83	3.61	<b>2.97</b>	3.78	<b>3.37</b>	<b>3.43</b>
	Meals	3.80	<b>3.60</b>	<b>3.33</b>	<b>2.91</b>	<b>4.07</b>	<b>3.37</b>	<b>3.60</b>
	Shopping	3.84	<b>3.47</b>	<b>3.26</b>	<b>2.97</b>	3.80	<b>3.34</b>	<b>3.65</b>
Independent Travelers (N=371)	Accommodation	3.70	3.58	<b>3.40</b>	3.44	<b>4.03</b>	3.77	<b>3.90</b>
	Local Transport	3.99	3.75	3.85	<b>3.12</b>	<b>4.35</b>	3.85	3.97
	Places to Visit	4.04	3.93	<b>3.78</b>	<b>3.27</b>	<b>4.33</b>	3.98	3.96
	Activities	3.82	3.74	3.68	3.57	<b>4.14</b>	3.86	3.83
	Meals	3.60	3.40	<b>3.00</b>	<b>3.12</b>	<b>4.23</b>	3.82	<b>3.87</b>
	Shopping	3.59	<b>3.16</b>	<b>3.08</b>	<b>3.16</b>	<b>4.11</b>	3.64	<b>3.85</b>

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful') was used.

Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are in **bold**, significant items at  $p < 0.01$  are in *Italic*, and significant items at  $p < 0.05$  are underlined (One sample t-test).

Shaded areas indicate significant items with a higher mean score and with a lower mean score than 'travel guidebook', respectively.

Note: This is a summary table. Detailed information is provided in Appendix 4.8.



Among flexible package tour participants, Table 7.11 (p.227) shows that the mean scores of perceived usefulness for the majority of items are significantly lower than those of ‘travel guidebook’, as indicated by the **shaded areas**. However, inconsistent results are found in the column of ‘tour guide’. While this source was regarded as significantly less useful than ‘travel guidebook’ for ‘meals’ and ‘shopping’ as indicated by the **shaded areas**, it was considered to be significantly more useful for ‘accommodation’ information as indicated in shade. Another inconsistent result can be found in the column of ‘WoM by local resident’, where the source was evaluated as significantly less useful than travel guidebook for ‘places to visit’ as indicated by the **shaded areas**, but more useful for ‘meals’ as indicated in shade. In conjunction with Table 7.9 (p.220), the results in Table 7.11 (p.227) for flexible package tour participants can be interpreted as follows. Among flexible package tour participants, ‘travel guidebook’ was used by significantly more respondents than other information sources for almost all travel components, and it was evaluated similar to, or significantly more useful than other sources during travel. The only exception was the use of ‘tour guide for accommodation’ information, which was used by more respondents (though there was no statistically significant difference) and evaluated as being more useful than travel guidebooks.

Among independent travellers, in comparison with the results obtained from the other two types of tourist, there were less numbers of negatively significant items (lower mean scores than those of ‘travel guidebook’) as indicated by the **shaded areas** and greater number of positively significant items (higher mean scores than those of ‘travel guidebook’) as indicated in shade. For example, ‘WoM from local residents’ recorded significantly higher mean scores for all travel components and ‘past experience’ recorded significantly higher mean scores for ‘accommodation’, ‘meals’ and ‘shopping’ in comparison to ‘travel guidebook’. Nevertheless, as shown in Table 7.9 (p.220), these sources were used by significantly less numbers of respondents among independent travellers during travel, as indicated by the **shaded areas**.

In summary, the results of the perceived usefulness of ‘travel guidebook’ during travel in comparison to other information sources differed across the three types of tourist. Travel guidebooks were evaluated as the second most useful information source for most travel components after ‘tour guide’ by comprehensive package tour participants. Among flexible package tour participants, it was considered the most useful information source with few exceptions. In the case of independent travellers, ‘WoM from local residents’ and ‘past experience’ were evaluated significantly more useful than ‘travel guidebook’, though these information sources were used by a significantly less number of respondents.

Table 7.12 (p.230) is a reorganization of the scores contained in Table 7.11 (p.227). The purpose of this reorganization is to facilitate easier comparison of the mean scores across three types of tourist. This table also shows the results of one-way ANOVA to compare the difference in mean scores across three types of tourists.

In Table 7.12 (p.230), significant results were shown in the rows of ‘travel guidebook’ for all travel components. It was found that for information on ‘accommodation’, ‘local transportation’, ‘places to visit’ and ‘activities’, the mean scores obtained by independent travellers were higher than those by the other two groups. However, for ‘meals’ and ‘shopping’, flexible package tour participants recorded the highest mean scores among the three types of tourist.

To illustrate the results presented in Tables 7.11 (p.227) and 7.12 (p.230), a line graph representing mean score of perceived usefulness of information sources by three different types of tourist during travel was produced and presented as Figure 7.8 (p.231). Interestingly, independent travellers tend to give higher evaluations to all information sources. Of these, ‘WoM from local residents’ recorded the highest mean scores, and results for ‘travel guidebook’ were not distinctive. Among flexible package tour participants, ‘travel guidebook’, ‘tour guide’ and ‘WoM from local residents’ appear to receive higher mean scores than other sources in general. Among comprehensive package tour participants, the highest perceived

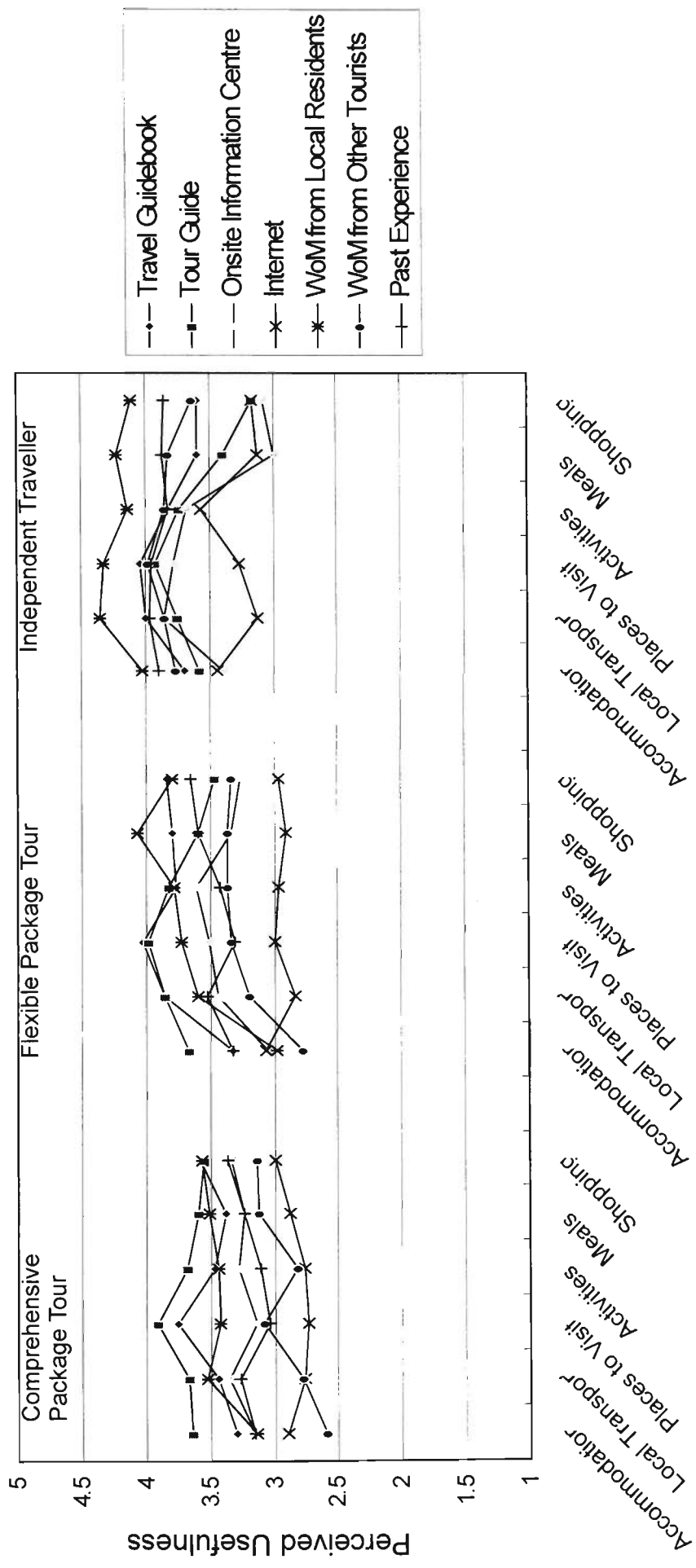
**Table 7.12**  
**Differences in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users across Different Types of Tourist: During Travel**

Source of Information	Travel Components	Comprehensive package tour participants (N=358)	Flexible package tour Participants (N=482)	Independent Travellers (N=371)	F
Travel Guidebook	Accommodation	3.29	3.32	3.70	6.34
	Local Transport	3.44	3.86	3.99	<b>11.64</b>
	Places to Visit	3.75	4.02	4.04	5.61
	Activities	3.47	3.77	3.82	5.14
	Meals	3.38	3.80	3.60	<b>7.82</b>
	Shopping	3.58	3.84	3.59	5.21
Tour guide	Accommodation	3.64	3.67	3.58	0.15
	Local Transport	3.67	3.85	3.75	1.60
	Places to Visit	3.91	3.98	3.93	0.32
	Activities	3.68	3.83	3.74	1.21
	Meals	3.60	3.60	3.40	0.86
	Shopping	3.55	3.47	3.16	2.69
Onsite Information Centre	Accommodation	3.15	3.05	3.40	1.86
	Local Transport	3.35	3.44	3.85	5.39
	Places to Visit	3.13	3.51	3.78	6.57
	Activities	3.28	3.61	3.68	1.98
	Meals	3.24	3.33	3.00	1.94
	Shopping	3.33	3.26	3.08	0.80
Internet	Accommodation	2.89	3.06	3.44	1.94
	Local Transport	2.77	2.84	3.12	0.99
	Places to Visit	2.74	3.00	3.27	1.97
	Activities	2.76	2.97	3.57	4.98
	Meals	2.88	2.91	3.12	0.46
	Shopping	3.00	2.97	3.16	0.27
WoM from Local residents	Accommodation	3.13	2.98	4.03	<b>16.41</b>
	Local Transport	3.53	3.59	4.35	<b>15.32</b>
	Places to Visit	3.42	3.72	4.33	<b>16.96</b>
	Activities	3.44	3.78	4.14	7.58
	Meals	3.51	4.07	4.23	<b>8.88</b>
	Shopping	3.57	3.80	4.11	4.56
WoM from Other tourists	Accommodation	2.59	2.78	3.77	<b>15.32</b>
	Local Transport	2.78	3.19	3.85	<b>10.62</b>
	Places to Visit	3.08	3.34	3.98	<b>8.88</b>
	Activities	2.82	3.37	3.86	<b>9.86</b>
	Meals	3.12	3.37	3.82	5.63
	Shopping	3.14	3.34	3.64	2.50
Past experience	Accommodation	3.15	3.32	3.90	<b>11.86</b>
	Local Transport	3.27	3.53	3.97	<b>10.48</b>
	Places to Visit	3.03	3.31	3.96	<b>18.04</b>
	Activities	3.11	3.43	3.83	<b>9.35</b>
	Meals	3.24	3.60	3.87	<b>8.82</b>
	Shopping	3.37	3.65	3.85	<u>5.30</u>

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful') was used.

Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are in **bold**, significant items at  $p < 0.01$  are in *italic*, and a significant item at  $p < 0.05$  is underlined (One-way ANOVA).

**Figure 7.8**  
**Perceived Usefulness of Information Sources**  
**by Three Types of Tourist: During Travel**



usefulness is for ‘tour guide’, though ‘travel guidebook’ was evaluated relatively higher than the rest of the sources. Comparing the three groups, the difference in the evaluation of ‘travel guidebook’ is not very clear from this graph.

By the results reported as above, **Hypothesis 8** (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered as a more useful information source than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater ‘freedom’ in their decision-making during travel stage’) is not supported. Among independent travellers, perceived usefulness of ‘travel guidebook’ was significantly lower than those of ‘WoM from local residents’ for all travel components and those of ‘past experience’ for ‘accommodation’, ‘meals’ and ‘shopping’. Instead, flexible package tour participants evaluated ‘travel guidebook’ more useful than other information sources for ‘shopping’ and the mean scores of this type of tourist for ‘travel guidebook’ was significantly higher than other types of tourists.

7.3 THE NEED FOR TRAVEL GUIDEBOOKS

This section outlines inferential results of the quantitative data on the needs for travel guidebooks by travel guidebook users and non-users for the trip in question. The objective of the analyses in this section is to provide answers to **Research Questions 2** and **4**. Each is dealt with in the following separate sub-sections.

7.3.1 Differences in Needs between Travel Guidebook Users and Non-Users

In an attempt to answer **Research Question 2** (‘Are there any differences in needs for travel guidebooks between users and non-users of travel guidebooks for a particular trip?’), inferential analysis was conducted by employing independent-samples t test, which examines the difference in mean scores between two groups. By way of factor analysis, the present study has identified five constructs of needs for travel guidebooks as shown in Table 5.5 (p.156) in **Chapter 5**. Table 7.13 (p.233) presents the results of differences in each of five constructs between travel guidebook users and non-users. It illustrates that there were significant differences in functional needs ( $p<0.001$ ), enjoyment needs

**Table 7.13**  
**Difference in Needs for Travel Guidebooks between Travel Guidebook Users and Non-Users**

	Travel guidebook users (N=1007)		Travel guidebook non-users (N=204)		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Functional needs	4.07	0.57	3.92	0.59	-3.38***
Forward-looking needs	2.89	0.78	2.86	0.79	-0.51
Enjoyment needs	3.49	0.93	3.29	0.94	-2.84**
Learning needs	3.59	0.90	3.38	0.97	-3.01**
Travel guidebook enthusiast needs	3.21	0.89	3.02	0.92	-2.83**

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.

\*\*\* Significant item at  $p<0.001$ ;

\*\* Significant items at  $p<0.01$  (Independent-samples t test)

( $p<0.01$ ), learning needs ( $p<0.01$ ) and travel guidebook enthusiast needs ( $p<0.01$ ) between two groups. The mean scores of travel guidebook users were higher than those of non-users in all constructs. Nevertheless, the differences in the actual mean scores for these four constructs between the two groups looks very subtle, less than 0.20 in the five-point scale. In addition, as reported by descriptive analysis in **Chapter 6**, both groups exhibited very similar trends in terms of mean scores, i.e., the order of constructs from high to low mean score across five constructs on the whole is the same. Therefore, although there are statistical differences in the mean scores of needs for travel guidebooks between users and non-users, they need to be interpreted with caution.

The results for forward-looking needs did not indicate a significant difference between the two groups. Indeed, the mean scores for users and non-users were almost identical. In addition, the mean scores for forward-looking needs from both groups are smaller than 3.00, the neutral position in the five-point scale. Thus, it can be said that the respondents had generally lower forward-looking needs irrespective of their travel guidebook use, and it is unlikely that this dimension influences an individual's choice of whether or not to use a travel guidebook.

7.3.2 Differences in Needs across Various Groups

The final set of analyses in this chapter examines differences in needs for travel guidebooks among various groups. In an attempt to explore **Research Question 4** ('Are there any differences in needs for travel guidebooks among tourists according to the factors influencing the search for travel information?'), inferential analyses by using independent-samples t test and oneway ANOVA were conducted to examine the differences in needs for travel guidebooks according to the following seven independent variables: type of tourist; purpose of travel; duration of trip; destination region; previous visitation to the destination region; overseas travel experience in general; fluency in English. In addition, two demographic factors, gender and age were also used to explore the differences. The results obtained by employing those nine variables are individually shown in Tables 7.14 to 7.22.

In Table 7.14 (p.236), it is shown that ANOVA detected significant differences among three types of tourist in functional, enjoyment and travel guidebook enthusiastic needs ( $p < 0.001$ ). For these three needs, independent travellers were likely to have lower needs.

In Table 7.15 (p.236), it is shown that those who travelled for a holiday were likely to have higher enjoyment needs ( $p < 0.001$ ) and functional needs ( $p < 0.05$ ).

In Table 7.16 (p.236), no difference by duration of trip was detected in any of the five constructs.

In Table 7.17 (p.237), four out of the five tests were found to be significant, except for functional needs. Those who travelled to Australia and Europe were likely to have higher forward-looking needs, those who travelled to Europe, NE Asia and SE Asia were likely to have higher enjoyment needs, those who travelled to Europe and SE Asia were likely to have higher learning needs, and those who travelled to Europe and NE Asia had higher travel guidebook enthusiast needs. These results indicated that those who travelled to Europe had higher needs for travel guidebooks in most constructs.

Table 7.18 (p.237) shows that those who travelled for the first time to the destination region were likely to have higher functional needs ( $p < 0.01$ ), enjoyment needs ( $p < 0.01$ ), learning needs ( $p < 0.01$ ) and travel guidebook enthusiast needs ( $p < 0.001$ ). These results indicated that first time travellers to the destination region generally had higher needs for travel guidebooks.

Table 7.19 (p.237) shows that less experienced travellers have higher forward-looking needs ( $p < 0.05$ ) and enjoyment needs ( $p < 0.05$ ).



**Table 7.14**  
**Difference in Needs for Travel Guidebooks by Type of Tourist**

	Comprehensive Package Tour (N=358)		Flexible Package Tour (N=482)		Independent Traveller (N=371)		F
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Functional Needs	3.97	0.57	4.13	0.54	4.01	0.63	9.03***
Forward-Looking Needs	2.92	0.81	2.86	0.73	2.88	0.80	0.80
Enjoyment Needs	3.56	0.86	3.52	0.90	3.29	1.02	9.30***
Learning Needs	3.62	0.88	3.55	0.92	3.51	0.95	1.55
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	3.36	0.86	3.20	0.82	2.98	0.97	17.18***

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.

\*\*\*Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  (ANOVA)

**Table 7.15**  
**Difference in Needs for Travel Guidebooks by Purpose of Travel**

	Holiday (N=916)		Non-Holiday (N=295)		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Functional Needs	4.07	0.57	3.98	0.60	2.18*
Forward-Looking Needs	2.90	0.77	2.84	0.81	1.18
Enjoyment Needs	3.52	0.90	3.27	1.02	3.85***
Learning Needs	3.56	0.91	3.55	0.95	0.26
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	3.21	0.87	3.09	0.96	1.89

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.

\*\*\* Significant item at  $p < 0.001$ ;

\* Significant item at  $p < 0.05$  (Independent-samples t test).

**Table 7.16**  
**Difference in Needs for Travel Guidebooks by Duration of Trip**

	Up to 10 days (N=960)		More than 10 days (N=251)		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Functional Needs	4.07	0.57	3.98	0.63	1.91
Forward-Looking Needs	2.89	0.76	2.87	0.83	0.31
Enjoyment Needs	3.48	0.91	3.39	1.01	1.22
Learning Needs	3.55	0.90	3.59	0.99	-0.62
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	3.20	0.87	3.10	0.99	1.50

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.  
(Independent-samples t test)

**Table 7.17**  
**Difference in Needs for Travel Guidebooks by Destination Region**

	Australia (N=243)		Europe (N=229)		N America (N=308)		NE Asia (N=199)		SE Asia (N=170)		Other region (N=62)		F
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Functional Needs	3.97	0.64	4.07	0.59	4.05	0.56	4.07	0.59	4.11	0.52	3.92	0.50	2.01
Forward-Looking Needs	2.99	0.84	2.90	0.79	2.86	0.77	2.81	0.75	2.93	0.71	2.63	0.76	2.66*
Enjoyment Needs	3.36	0.93	3.55	0.95	3.44	0.98	3.54	0.82	3.53	0.84	3.18	1.09	2.64*
Learning Needs	3.54	0.89	3.68	0.90	3.37	0.98	3.63	0.94	3.71	0.79	3.47	0.86	4.86***
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	3.20	0.93	3.33	0.87	3.02	0.88	3.27	0.87	3.18	0.98	3.02	0.84	4.10**

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.

\*\*\* Significant item at  $p < 0.001$ ;

\*\* Significant item at  $p < 0.01$ ;

\* Significant items at  $p < 0.05$  (ANOVA).

**Table 7.18**  
**Difference in Needs for Travel Guidebooks by Previous Visitation to the Destination Region**

	First time to the destination region (N=816)		Repeat Visitor to the destination region (N=395)		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Functional Needs	4.08	0.57	3.98	0.59	2.79**
Forward-Looking Needs	2.91	0.77	2.82	0.80	1.86
Enjoyment Needs	3.52	0.90	3.35	0.99	2.84**
Learning Needs	3.61	0.88	3.44	0.98	3.00**
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	3.25	0.87	3.04	0.93	3.71***

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.

\*\*\*Significant item at  $p < 0.001$ ;

\*\* Significant items at  $p < 0.01$  (Independent-samples t test).

**Table 7.19**  
**Difference in Needs for Travel Guidebooks by Overseas Travel Experience in General**

	Less experienced travellers (N=663)		More experienced Travellers (N=548)		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Functional Needs	4.06	0.59	4.03	0.56	0.97
Forward-Looking Needs	2.93	0.78	2.82	0.77	2.55*
Enjoyment Needs	3.52	0.92	3.39	0.94	2.34*
Learning Needs	3.56	0.94	3.56	0.90	0.08
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	3.22	0.86	3.13	0.93	1.72

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.

\* Significant items at  $p < 0.05$  (Independent-samples t test)

In Table 7.20 (p.239), ANOVA detected significant differences in enjoyment needs ( $p < 0.01$ ) and travel guidebook enthusiast needs ( $p < 0.001$ ) across the range of groups based on fluency in English. Those who were not fluent and less fluent were likely to have higher enjoyment needs, and those who were not fluent were also likely to have higher travel guidebook enthusiast needs.

In Table 7.21 (p.239), female tourists were more likely to have higher functional needs ( $p < 0.001$ ), enjoyment needs ( $p < 0.001$ ), learning needs ( $p < 0.001$ ), and travel guidebook enthusiast needs ( $p < 0.001$ ). These results indicated that female tourists had higher needs for travel guidebooks in general.

In Table 7.22 (p.239), ANOVA detected significant differences across a range of age groups in all needs ( $p < 0.001$ ). Especially, the youngest group (18-25 years old) had higher functional needs, forward-looking needs and enjoyment needs. In addition, the oldest group (over 56 years old) had higher forward-looking needs, learning needs and travel guidebook enthusiast needs.

To summarise the attempt to answer **Research Question 4**, significant differences in needs for travel guidebooks were found when all variables except the duration of trip were employed for analyses. Functional needs were higher among those who participated in flexible package tours, traveling for holiday purposes, first time visitation to the destination, female and 18-25 years old. Differences in forward-looking needs were found, particularly when variables including destination region, overseas travel experience in general and age were employed. Enjoyment needs were particularly high among those who participated in comprehensive or flexible package tours, traveling for holiday, to a destination in Europe, NE Asia or SE Asia, first time visitation to the destination, with less experience of overseas travel, not or less fluent in English, female and 18-25 years old. Learning needs were higher among those who travelled to SE Asia or Europe, for the first time, female and over 56 years old. Lastly, travel guidebook enthusiast needs were higher among those who participated in comprehensive package tours, to a destination in Europe or NE Asia, for the first time, not fluent in English,

**Table 7.20**  
**Difference in Needs for Travel Guidebook by Fluency in English**

	Not fluent (N=409)		Less fluent (N=379)		More fluent (N=423)		F
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Functional Needs	4.01	0.56	4.08	0.58	4.06	0.59	1.85
Forward-Looking Needs	2.91	0.81	2.85	0.77	2.88	0.76	0.58
Enjoyment Needs	3.56	0.88	3.51	0.88	3.32	1.01	7.06**
Learning Needs	3.59	0.86	3.61	0.90	3.48	0.99	2.36
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	3.30	0.84	3.19	0.85	3.05	0.97	7.99***

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.

\*\*\*Significant items at  $p < 0.001$ ;

\*\*Significant items at  $p < 0.01$  (ANOVA)

**Table 7.21**  
**Difference in Needs for Travel Guidebook by Gender**

	Male (N=409)		Female (N=802)		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Functional Needs	3.96	0.59	4.09	0.57	-3.96***
Forward-Looking Needs	2.85	0.81	2.90	0.76	-1.21
Enjoyment Needs	3.22	1.01	3.58	0.87	-6.19***
Learning Needs	3.42	0.98	3.63	0.88	-3.54***
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	3.04	0.91	3.25	0.88	-3.90***

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.

\*\*\* Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  (Independent-samples t test)

**Table 7.22**  
**Difference in Needs for Travel Guidebook by Age Group**

	18-25 (N=345)		26-35 (N=361)		36-55 (N=299)		56- (N=206)		F
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Functional Needs	4.15	0.59	4.07	0.58	4.04	0.55	3.85	0.55	12.05***
Forward-Looking Needs	3.02	0.76	2.76	0.77	2.82	0.76	2.98	0.82	8.33***
Enjoyment Needs	3.67	0.90	3.38	0.98	3.30	0.95	3.47	0.81	9.98***
Learning Needs	3.64	0.95	3.39	0.99	3.48	0.86	3.81	0.74	11.04***
Travel Guidebook Enthusiast Needs	3.24	0.89	2.95	0.95	3.18	0.81	3.48	0.81	16.59***

A five-point scale (from '1' = 'strongly disagree' to '5' = 'strongly agree') was used.

\*\*\* Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  (ANOVA)

female and over 56 years old.

#### 7.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the results of inferential analyses of quantitative data for the present study were reported. The main purpose of these analyses were to test **Hypotheses 1-8** and provide answers to **Research Questions 2** and **4**.

In the first section, inferential analysis on the use of information sources for travel decision-making were reported, using McNemar tests, correspondence analysis, one-sample t test, Chi-square of independence, and ANOVA. The results showed a varying degree of support to **Hypotheses 1-8**. Regarding the analyses of the respondents on the whole, it was found that, in comparison with other information sources, 'travel guidebook' was used by significantly larger numbers of respondents both prior to and during travel. In addition, perceptual maps revealed that 'travel guidebook' was used fairly evenly for all travel components. In terms of perceived usefulness, while 'travel guidebook' was generally evaluated significantly more useful than other sources prior to travel, 'WoM from local residents' and 'tour guide' were evaluated higher for some travel components by users during travel. But still, its perceived usefulness was significantly higher than the rest of the sources.

Mixed results were reported regarding analyses based on the three different types of tourists. As far as the proportion of travel guidebook users within the groups are concerned, independent travellers (and partly flexible package tour participants) were significantly more likely to use travel guidebooks both prior to and during travel. Preferred information sources by comprehensive package tour participants and flexible package tour participants were 'travel agent' and 'package tour brochure' prior to travel, and 'tour guide' during travel. In terms of perceived usefulness, however, independent travellers tended to give higher evaluation to 'WoM from family and friend' prior to travel, 'WoM from local residents' during travel, and 'past experience' at both stages, than to 'travel

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guidebook’.

The results of inferential analysis on the needs for travel guidebooks in view to answering **Research Questions 2** and **4** was also provided in this chapter. Statistical analyses indicated significant differences in needs for travel guidebooks when the following variables were employed: use/non-use of travel guidebook; type of tourist, purpose of travel; destination region; previous visitation to the destination region; overseas travel experience in general; fluency in English; gender; and age. In terms of the difference in needs between travel guidebook users and non-users, however, the patterns of mean scores of both groups were similar and the actual differences in the mean scores appeared very subtle.

In the next chapter, discussions on the results in conjunction with past literature are provided.

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## CHAPTER 8

### DISCUSSION

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#### 8.1 INTRODUCTION

**Chapter 4** reported qualitative research and **Chapters 5, 6 and 7** presented quantitative research for the present study. In this chapter, testing of **Hypotheses 1-8** and answers to **Research Questions 1-4** are summarized, and findings from qualitative and quantitative research are incorporated. Efforts are made to link the findings of the present study with past studies. The discussion in this chapter is divided into two major sections. The first section discusses use of travel guidebooks for decision-making purposes. The second section discusses various needs for travel guidebooks.

#### 8.2 THE USE OF TRAVEL GUIDEBOOKS FOR TRAVEL DECISION-MAKING

Table 8.1 (p.243) summarises the outcomes of **Hypotheses 1-8** by quantitative inferential analysis in **Chapter 7**. Related discussions are presented in the following two sections: all respondents and type of tourist.

##### 8.2.1 All Respondents

Overall, empirical results of the present study suggest that travel guidebooks are a heavily used information source and are perceived as useful by respondents in general. In comparison with other information sources, the high use and beneficial evaluation of travel guidebooks clearly stands out.

Both qualitative and quantitative results of the present study clearly showed that travel guidebooks are used for making travel decisions not only prior to travel but also during travel. As advocated by Woodside and his colleagues (1994, 2000, 2001), for some tourists decisions on each element of the trip may be made at different times, even during travel. Nevertheless, most previous studies on travel

Table 8.1  
Outcomes of Hypotheses

	Quantitative Inferential
<b>Hypothesis 1</b> For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by all tourists prior to the travel stage.	Supported
<b>Hypothesis 2</b> For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered by all tourists as more useful than other information sources prior to the travel stage.	Supported
<b>Hypothesis 3</b> For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by all tourists during the travel stage.	Supported
<b>Hypothesis 4</b> For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered by all tourists as more useful than other information sources during the travel stage.	Partly Supported
<b>Hypothesis 5</b> For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater 'freedom' in their decision-making prior to the travel stage.	Supported
<b>Hypothesis 6</b> For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered as a more useful information source than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater 'freedom' in their decision-making prior to the travel stage.	Partly Supported
<b>Hypothesis 7</b> For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater 'freedom' in their decision-making during the travel stage.	Supported
<b>Hypothesis 8</b> For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered as a more useful information source than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater 'freedom' in their decision-making during the travel stage.	Rejected



information search and use have only considered the issue of prior to travel, as pointed out in **Chapters 2 and 3**. Qualitative and quantitative research for the present study indicated that many tourists used travel guidebooks and other sources of information during travel, as well. Qualitative results even indicated that the use of travel guidebooks continues after travel by some respondents. When the topic of travel information use is examined, it is more appropriate to incorporate such temporal dimensions because of the possibilities of making constant travel decisions during travel.

Regarding the degree of travel guidebook use, quantitative results revealed that travel guidebooks were the most heavily used information source both prior to and during travel. **Hypothesis 1**, ('For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by all tourists prior to the travel stage') and **Hypothesis 3**, ('For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by all tourists during the travel stage') were both supported. For all travel components, travel guidebooks were used by roughly half of all respondents at both stages. Among multiple travel components, correspondence analysis illustrated that travel guidebooks were particularly heavily used for 'destination', 'local transport', 'places to visit', 'meals', and 'shopping' information prior to travel (Figure 7.1, p.197). The same results were obtained for during travel use, except for 'destination' (This item was not included in the questionnaire which asked about during travel use) (Figure 7.3 p.204). The only travel component that did not show significant reliance on travel guidebooks at both prior to and during travel was 'accommodation' information. However, none of the other information sources were used more than travel guidebooks for this item.

Apart from travel guidebooks, other relatively popular information sources were all related to package tours, i.e., 'travel agent' and 'package tour brochure' prior to travel, and 'tour guide' during travel. Considering the fact that approximately two-thirds of all respondents travelled with a package tour (either comprehensive or flexible package tour), the popularity of 'travel agent' and 'package tour

brochure' prior to travel is understandable. The popularity of 'tour guide' during travel is also reasonable because approximately one-third of survey respondents travelled with a comprehensive package tour.

The results of the present study confirm the findings of other studies on information use by Japanese tourists, in which Japanese preference for printed media was repeatedly reported. (Uysal et al. 1990; Mihalik et al 1995; Andersen et al. 2000). Nevertheless, the category of 'newspaper/magazine', which is also a printed media, was not found to be popular among the respondents of the present study. Therefore, the question remains as to whether Japanese tourists simply prefer printed information sources or whether they particularly like using travel guidebook and package tour brochures.

In addition, it is inconclusive from the present study alone whether such popularity of travel guidebooks would also be found among tourists from other countries, or if it is only attributable to the preference for printed media by Japanese overseas tourists.

In regard to the perceived usefulness of information sources evaluated by users, 'travel guidebook' was recognized as the most useful information source prior to travel, and as one of the most useful sources during travel. Specifically, the survey results provided support for **Hypothesis 2**, ('For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered by all tourists as more useful than other information sources prior to the travel stage'). 'WoM from family/friend' and 'past experience' were perceived as similarly useful as travel guidebooks prior to travel, though these sources were used by a relatively limited number of respondents in comparison to 'travel guidebook'. During travel, while 'travel guidebook' was perceived to be a more useful information source for most of travel components than 'onsite information centre', 'internet', 'WoM from other tourists' and 'past experience' by users, it was considered to be less useful than 'tour guide' and 'WoM from local residents' by users (except in the case of 'tour guide' for shopping information). Therefore, the survey results only partly supported

**Hypothesis 4** ('For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered by all tourists as more useful than other information sources during the travel stage'). It should be noted however that, while 'tour guide' and 'travel guidebook' was used by about 30-50% of all respondents, depending on different travel components, 'WoM by local residents' was used by less than 20 % of all respondents.

A review of the literature relevant to the present study has revealed that attempts to collect data regarding the usefulness or importance of travel information sources are few and far between (Snepenger et al. 1990; Fesenmaier and Vogt 1992). The present study adopted an approach which allows for collection of data about perceived usefulness as well as for use/non-use dichotomous data. As such, the present study is a useful addition to the previous studies which attempted to evaluate sources of information, such as Bieger and Laesser (2001), Capella and Greco (1987), and Fesenmaier and Vogt (1992). Moreover, unlike these studies which attempted to measure the evaluation of information sources for a trip as a whole, the present study investigated the issue in detail by asking for evaluation of information sources for each travel component.

To summarise the use and perceived usefulness of information sources evaluated by users among all respondents, prior to travel, 'travel guidebook' was the most popular information source for most travel components and users evaluated it relatively higher than other sources. 'Travel agent' and 'package tour brochure' were also popular, though users did not perceive their usefulness as high as that of 'travel guidebook'. 'WoM from family/friend' and 'past experience' recorded higher mean scores for perceived usefulness evaluation by their users, though the number of users were limited. The rest of the sources were not as popular as the above sources in terms of the degree of use, and were evaluated lower, for prior to travel. During travel, 'travel guidebook' was the most popular information source for most travel components and users evaluated it as one of the most useful information sources. 'Tour guide' was the second most popular information source and evaluated as equally useful as 'travel guidebook' by its users. 'WoM from

local residents' was evaluated higher than 'travel guidebook' for most travel components, though the number of users was significantly lower.

On the whole, the respondents showed that they used multiple information sources for a trip. This result provides support to the study of Fodeness and Murray (1998), which concluded that travellers did not depend solely on one type of information source and may use more than one source.

Apart from travel guidebooks, WoM information received high evaluation in terms of usefulness both prior to and during travel. This result confirms findings of previous studies which suggested the importance of such information sources (Capella and Greco 1987; Gitelson and Crompton 1983; Gitelson and Kerstetter 1994; Bieger and Laesser 2000). For the purposes of the present study, it is worth noting that the perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks prior to a trip was similar or significantly higher than 'WoM from family/friends' and the number of travel guidebook users was far greater.

Like travel guidebooks, the Internet is a source of information which is available to tourists both prior to and during travel. However, intensive use was not evident and the evaluation of its usefulness was only around neutral on the five-point scale at both stages among respondents of the present study. Although some respondents suggested their use of Internet as a substitute for travel guidebooks in the open-ended question of the questionnaire as reported in **Section 6.4** in **Chapter 6** (pp.187-191), its overall popularity among all respondents was far lower than that of travel guidebooks.

As far as direct efforts by DMO are concerned, their information sources (i.e., 'DMO information pack' prior to travel, and 'onsite information centre' during travel) were not as popular as travel guidebooks, and were not perceived to be as useful as travel guidebooks among the survey respondents. No particular mention of these sources were made during qualitative interviews either.

Mass media, e.g., 'TV' and 'newspaper/magazine' were, in general, the least used information sources and evaluated among the survey respondents as being the least useful.

### 8.2.2 Type of Tourist

In addition to examining relative use of travel guidebooks by Japanese overseas tourists in general as summarized above, one of the aims of the present study was to investigate the use of travel guidebooks by different types of tourist according to the degree of freedom exercised in travel decision-making, as illustrated in Figure 3.1 (p.66) in **Chapter 3**. In the analysis of quantitative data, the respondents were divided into the three categories of comprehensive package tour participants, flexible package tour participants and individual travellers.

Quantitative results indicated that those with greater freedom in travel decision-making were more likely to use travel guidebooks. **Hypothesis 5**, ('For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater 'freedom' in their decision-making prior to the travel stage') and **Hypothesis 7**, ('For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are used more than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater 'freedom' in their decision-making during the travel stage') were both supported.

Concerning the perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks, **Hypothesis 6**, ('For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered as a more useful information source than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater 'freedom' in their decision-making prior to the travel stage'), was only partly supported. The hypothesis was supported regarding 'local transport' and 'places to visit', because these are the only items which achieved higher useful mean scores in comparison with other information sources among independent travellers and across the three groups. Regarding the rest of the travel components, the hypothesis was rejected. Instead, flexible package tour participants evaluated 'travel guidebook' more useful than other information sources for 'meals' and

‘shopping’ information and their mean scores of usefulness were significantly higher than those of other types of tourists.

As for perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks during travel, quantitative results did not provide support for **Hypothesis 8**, (‘For travel decision-making, travel guidebooks are considered as more useful information source than other information sources by tourists who exercise greater ‘freedom’ in their decision-making during the travel stage’). This is because among independent travellers, perceived usefulness of ‘travel guidebook’ was significantly lower than those of ‘WoM from local residents’ for all travel components and those of ‘past experience’ for information on ‘accommodation’, ‘meals’ and ‘shopping’. Instead, ‘travel guidebook’ was evaluated as more useful than other information sources for ‘shopping’ information by flexible package participants, and their mean scores were significantly higher than those of other types of tourists.

The results of the present study are broadly in line with those of a study of Swiss pleasure travellers by Bieger and Laesser (2001), where the degree of trip packaging is in significant interrelation with the cluster of information source usages. In their study, the cluster which showed the highest scores in the importance of ‘travel guides/travel books/journals’ among four clusters, consisted of 46% from ‘no package at all’, 30% from ‘single package tour’, and 9% from ‘group package tour’. The present study provides further evidence that travel guidebooks are more likely to be used by those who have more flexibility in their travel itinerary.

The present study also found that different types of tourists had different preferences for information sources, though ‘travel guidebook’ was certainly one of the most popular sources for all types of tourists. Overall, popular and useful information sources among comprehensive package tour participants were ‘travel guidebook’, ‘travel agent’ and ‘package tour brochure’ prior to travel, and ‘tour guide’ during travel. Especially for accommodation information, ‘travel agent’ and ‘tour guide’ were the most popular sources for them. As for flexible package tour

participants, similar results were shown, but travel guidebooks were used more, and evaluated higher by this group than the comprehensive package tour participants. Indeed, for some travel components, flexible package tour participants relied on 'travel guidebook' more than independent travellers during travel. In general, although independent travellers used 'travel guidebook' extensively, they also used other information sources which were not used by other types of tourists such as 'WoM' or 'past experience'. Therefore, in a relative sense, their reliance on 'travel guidebook' may be weaker than those of flexible package tour participants. For example, among independent travellers, while the number of 'travel guidebook' users was the largest of all sources, perceived usefulness of 'WoM' and 'past experience' were generally higher than those of travel guidebooks.

Such results regarding independent travellers largely coincide with the findings of a study of Japanese independent travellers in Scotland by Andersen, Prentice, and Watanabe (2000). In their study, while 'friends and relatives' was the most important source influencing travel decisions, travel guidebooks including unspecified books and one of the most popular series of travel guidebooks *Chikyu no arukikata* were second and third in importance. Along with the general preference for travel guidebooks by Japanese tourists, the present study added evidence that independent travellers prefer travel guidebooks.

In summary, the overall results indicated that use of travel guidebooks is influenced by the type of tourist. Generally speaking, the more that they had freedom in travel decision making, the more that travel guidebook was used both prior to and during travel. This finding largely confirms previous studies which suggested that the type of tourist is likely to influence search and use of information sources (e.g., Bieger and Laesser 2001; Snepenger 1987). For example, a study by Snepenger (1987) reported that 'tour brochures/guide books' were used more by 'individual mass tourists', followed by 'explorers' and 'organized mass tourists'. However, it is important to note that, in the quantitative research of the present study, 30-40% of comprehensive package tour participants

still made use of travel guidebooks for each of the different travel elements and 72.1% of comprehensive package tour participants used travel guidebooks in total. In terms of perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks, flexible package tour participants and independent travellers were inclined to evaluate it higher, both prior to and during travel, though independent travellers occasionally evaluated other sources, such as WoM and past experience, higher than travel guidebooks.

Regarding the proposed model of the travel decision-making process and use of information sources, shown as Figure 3.1 (p.66) in **Chapter 3**, overall results indicated support for the model, because the preference of information sources among the respondents was different according to the type of tourist, as already discussed. Nevertheless, in the case of travel guidebooks, the results revealed that it was a popular source of information among all types of tourists. These results may be interpreted as suggesting that reasons for using travel guidebooks are not exclusively limited to decision-making purposes. In other words, those who do not have to make multiple travel decisions during travel still make use of travel guidebooks because they need to use travel guidebooks for other purposes. Discussion on such broader usage of travel guidebooks is provided in the next section.

### 8.3 THE NEED FOR TRAVEL GUIDEBOOKS

Along with relative use of travel guidebooks for decision-making purposes as discussed in the previous section, another aim of the present study was to examine the use of travel guidebooks for broader purposes, as illustrated in Figure 3.2 (p.74) in **Chapter 3**. Table 8.2 (p.252) summarises the outcomes of **Research Questions 1-4**. Discussion related to each question is presented as follows.

As for **Research Question 1** ('Is the use of travel guidebooks restricted to prepurchase search for travel decision-making? If not, what are its other uses?'), both qualitative and quantitative results of the present study indicated that travel guidebooks are used for a variety of purposes. Additionally, some comments to



Table 8.2  
Outcomes of Research Questions

	Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
<b>Research Question 1</b> Is the use of travel guidebooks restricted to prepurchase search for travel decision making? If not, what are their other uses?	No	No
<b>Research Question 2</b> Are there any differences in needs for travel guidebooks between users and non-users of travel guidebooks for a particular trip?	Not clear	Yes, but...
<b>Research Question 3</b> Are there any differences in characteristics between travel guidebook users and non-users for a particular trip?	Yes	Yes
<b>Research Question 4</b> Are there any differences in needs for travel guidebooks among tourists according to the factors influencing the search for travel information?	N/A	Yes

the open-ended question in the survey questionnaire also provided the same indication. Apart from functional needs, qualitative results suggested hedonic needs, aesthetic needs, and innovation needs prior to travel and hedonic needs after travel (These concepts were borrowed from Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) to analyse qualitative data). As explained in **Chapter 5**, by way of factor analysis of 20 items included in the survey questionnaire, quantitative results suggested that forward-looking needs, learning needs, enjoyment needs, and travel guidebook enthusiast needs, along with functional needs, were found in the sample population of the present study.

This finding of the present study adds more evidence to the results of past studies which found that consumers had broader usages of travel information sources. As outlined in **Section 2.6** in **Chapter 2** (pp.43-54), it was suggested that use of travel information sources is not necessarily confined to prepurchase, decision-making purposes, but also ongoing, non-functional purposes (Fesenmaier et al. 1993; Messmer and Johnson 1993; Perdue 1993; Vogt and Fesenmaier 1998).

Both qualitative and quantitative results of the present study showed inconsistencies with the conceptualisation of travel information needs by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998). In the qualitative study, sign needs, one of the dimensions in their model was not detected from the respondents of in-depth interviews and several sub-constructs appear to be inapplicable. Additionally, some travel guidebook usages discussed during the interviews were difficult to allocate into any constructs/sub-constructs proposed by their model. Having conducted qualitative research, the researcher of the present study decided to regard their model as a guideline for exploring broader needs for travel guidebooks rather than as a concrete conceptualisation to be employed in the quantitative component of the present study. The dimensions identified through factor analysis of the quantitative data shared one construct, functional needs, with Vogt and Fesenmaier's model (1998). Other constructs were modified to suit the quantitative data.

Such inconsistencies between the present study and Vogt and Fesenmaier's study (1998) may partly be attributable to differences in the scope of the study. While the population of the present study was Japanese overseas tourists, the population of Vogt and Fesenmaier's study used to develop their model was those who requested travel information about a specific midwest US destination from DMO. It is highly likely that the latter is investigating domestic tourists living in the US, and therefore their need for information sources are considerably different from those of Japanese overseas tourists.

Regarding the model of travel guidebook use for broader purposes, that was specifically proposed for the purpose of the present study and presented as Figure 3.2 (p.74) in **Chapter 3**, both qualitative and quantitative results suggest some modifications. This model was originally adopted from 'model of information needs' by Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998). Therefore, the present study which explores broader needs for travel guidebooks can be considered as an extension of the model and an attempt to establish external validation of it. According to the results of the present study, the needs included in the model should be modified to functional needs, forward-looking needs, enjoyment needs, learning needs and travel guidebook enthusiast needs. Further research is necessary to identify subconstructs of each construct.

Among the respondents of both qualitative research and quantitative research for the present study, it was found that some tourists did not use travel guidebooks for their overseas trips. Therefore, **Research Question 2**, ('Are there any differences in needs for travel guidebooks between users and non-users of travel guidebooks for a particular trip?') is to explore whether there are differences in various needs for travel guidebooks between travel guidebook users and non-users.

Quantitative research for the present study identified five needs for travel guidebooks. Among these needs, quantitative inferential results indicated significant differences in functional needs, enjoyment needs, learning needs and travel guidebook enthusiast needs between travel guidebook users and non-users.

Nevertheless, by looking at the actual mean scores for each construct, the differences between the two groups appeared to be very subtle. Therefore, it is doubtful that these differences are substantial.

It should be noted that the comparison made by using quantitative data for the present study was a comparison between those who used travel guidebooks for the trip in question and those who did not use travel guidebooks for the trip in question. The second group consequently responded about their needs for travel guidebooks for other overseas travel occasions. Therefore, the results should be considered with caution.

In addition, interestingly, the differences in mean scores between users and non-users were quite consistent across different constructs. Both groups exhibited very similar trends in mean scores, i.e., the order of constructs from high to low mean scores across five constructs on the whole. Therefore, it can be assumed that the reason for not using travel guidebooks may not be attributable to their differences in needs, but there may be some other factors involved, such as their travel-related characteristics.

As suggested by qualitative research in **Section 4.3.2** in **Chapter 4** (pp.117-122), there were two types of travel guidebook non-users among the interview respondents. The first non-user group indicated their experience of using travel guidebooks on other travel occasions and largely attributed their non-use for the trip in question to the tight and fixed travel itinerary of package/group tour. Therefore, as far as this type of travel guidebook non-users is concerned, it is possible that they may use travel guidebooks on their next overseas travel occasion. Qualitative data analysis employing a matrix (Miles and Huberman 1984, 1994) further found that while those who had only functional needs for travel guidebooks were more inclined to be travel guidebook users if they had flexibility in their travel decision-making, they were less inclined to use travel guidebooks if they did not have flexibility in travel decision-making. The second group of travel guidebook non-users indicated in qualitative research were

purposeful non-users, who explicitly display their reluctance or dislike of travel guidebooks. They generally showed lower needs for travel guidebooks and are likely to remain as non-users. Therefore, it is probably inappropriate to discuss the difference of travel guidebook users and non-users without considering their reasons for use/non-use, because they are not an homogeneous group. Consequently, it appears useful to look at these groups from different angles, such as their characteristics, as discussed below.

While **Research Question 2** is about differences between travel guidebook users and non-users in their needs for travel guidebooks, **Research Question 3** ('Are there any differences in characteristics between travel guidebook users and non-users for a particular trip?') concerns differences in their characteristics. The objective of this research question is to provide a general picture as to which tourists are more likely to be travel guidebook users or non-users.

Qualitative results in **Chapter 4** indicated that those who participated in package/group tours were likely to be travel guidebook non-users. Many of those interviewees spoke of their previous use of travel guidebooks when they travelled on their own. Comments provided in the open-ended question in the survey questionnaire showed an agreement with such qualitative interview results. Regarding differences in other characteristics between users and non-users, both qualitative interviews and comments to open-ended questions did not show any obvious indications.

In the quantitative component of the present study, selected factors suggested by past studies as influencing the search for travel information were considered. The factors selected to explore the characteristics of travel guidebook users and non-users are: type of tourist; purpose of travel; duration of trip; destination region; previous visitation to the destination region; previous overseas travel experience; fluency in host language. Demographic variables, such as gender and age were also considered. Quantitative analysis by using cross tabulation with ASR scores reported in **Chapter 6** suggested that differences between travel

guidebook users and non-users were found in type of tourists, purpose of travel, previous visitation to the destination region, and gender. According to the results, those who were more likely to use travel guidebooks were flexible package tour participants or independent travellers, for holiday purpose, for the first time to the destination region, and female.

Therefore, all of the results from the qualitative interviews, the open-ended question in the questionnaire, and the quantitative analysis agreed that type of tourist influences the choice of travel guidebook use/non-use. To be more precise, all of the results suggested that, in general, the less freedom in travel itinerary the tourist has, the less likely s/he uses travel guidebooks. However, this is merely a comparison across different types of tourists, suggesting relatively lower degree of travel guidebook use among comprehensive package tour participants. In a sense, this is reasonable because comprehensive package tour participants have different sources of information closely connected to their type of trip (travel agent and package tour brochure prior to travel; and tour guide during travel) and therefore the necessity of other information sources including travel guidebooks for them is relatively lower. Yet, quantitative research of the present study revealed that 30-40% of comprehensive package tour participants still made use of travel guidebooks for each of the different travel components and 72.1% of comprehensive package tour participants used travel guidebooks on the whole. Based on these figures, it cannot be assumed that travel guidebooks are an unpopular source of information among comprehensive package tour participants. What is more appropriate to say is that, travel guidebooks are popular among all types of tourists and they are extremely popular among those who have freedom in their travel itinerary.

Cross tabulation analysis of quantitative data also suggested previous visitation to the destination region as one of the factors influencing the choice of travel guidebook use/non-use. The results showed that those who visited the destination region for the first time were more inclined to use travel guidebooks. Supportive indications to this factor were also evident in some comments for the open-ended

question in the questionnaire. In qualitative in-depth interviews, however, this factor was not raised by any respondents. This finding is consistent with general consumer behaviour literature which suggests that the degree of external information search is influenced by the degree of prior product knowledge, i.e., internal information, and consumers who already have knowledge of the product will usually engage in limited external search activity, perceiving that the benefits of additional information search are minimal (Brucks 1985). Similar results are also reported in the relationship between previous visitation to the destination and use of external information (Andereck and Caldwell 1993; Gitelson and Crompton 1983; van Raaij 1986). In terms of use of travel guidebooks in particular, this finding adds an example of Japanese overseas tourists to Chen and Gursoy's study (2000), in which the difference in travel guidebook use between first time and repeat German travellers was found.

As for the rest of the characteristics which quantitative analysis using cross tabulation suggested significantly different between travel guidebook users and non-users, there was no indication detected from the qualitative interviews and the responses to the open-ended question. They are: purpose of travel; and gender. In cross tabulation analysis, those who travelled for holiday purposes and female tourists were more likely to use travel guidebooks.

Inconclusive results were reported regarding destination region and age, and no significant results were detected regarding duration of trip, previous overseas travel experience, and fluency in English.

Turning to the next research question, **Research Question 4** ('Are there any differences in needs for travel guidebooks among tourists according to the factors influencing the search for travel information?'), while **Research Question 2** looked at differences in needs for travel guidebooks between travel guidebook users and non-users, this research question concerns differences in needs across a range of groups of tourist categorised by factors influencing the search for travel information. While, these factors have been suggested in the context of

prepurchase search in the literature, their relevance to other contexts (i.e., use of information sources for broader purposes) is not known. Thus, by answering this research question, the present study attempts to explore the relationship between these factors and levels of various needs for travel guidebooks.

Quantitative inferential results reported in **Chapter 7** suggested that significant differences in needs for travel guidebooks were found when the following variables are considered: type of tourist; purpose of travel; destination region; previous visitation to the destination region; previous overseas travel experience in general; fluency in English; gender; and age. Each type of needs for travel guidebooks was related to selected variables. Functional needs were higher among those who participated in flexible package tours, traveling for holiday purposes, first time visitation to the destination, female and 18-25 years old. Differences in forward-looking needs were found by few variables. Enjoyment needs were particularly higher among those who participated in comprehensive or flexible package tours, traveling for holiday, to a destination in Europe, NE Asia or SE Asia, first time visitation to the destination, with less experience of overseas travel, not or less fluent in English, female and 18-25 years old. Learning needs were higher among those who travelled to SE Asia or Europe, for the first time, female and over 56 years old. Lastly, travel guidebook enthusiast needs were higher among those who participated in comprehensive package tours, to a destination in Europe or NE Asia, for the first time, not fluent in English, female and over 56 years old.

These finding can be useful for examining the nature of each need for travel guidebooks. If one can identify what kinds of tourists are more likely to have high/low level of which needs for travel guidebooks, it can be used to perform segmentation analysis based on the needs for travel guidebooks, a particular source of information. It can provide potentially useful information for tourism industry and destination marketing activities when developing marketing strategies.



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## 8.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, findings from qualitative and quantitative research of the present study in conjunction with relevant literature were discussed. The discussion centred on the outcomes of **Hypotheses** and **Research Questions**. It highlighted the high use and beneficial evaluation of travel guidebooks in comparison with other information sources by the sample population, and the different preferences for travel information sources according to their type of tourist. It also explored broad reasons for using travel guidebooks and the difference in needs for travel guidebooks by various segments of the market.

Conclusions and implications of the present study are presented in the next chapter.

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## CHAPTER 9

### CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

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#### 9.1 INTRODUCTION

This is the concluding chapter of the present study. In this chapter, research conclusions are given, implications of the present study in theoretical, methodological, and practical aspects are noted, and limitations of the present study along with suggestions for future research are stated.

#### 9.2 RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS

This has been an exploratory study on the use of travel guidebooks by Japanese overseas tourists. The present study has achieved its aims. The overall aim of the study was to develop a better understanding of the use of travel guidebooks as a source of information by tourists. This was achieved through the previous eight chapters by fulfilling the following four specific aims.

One of the four specific aims was to ascertain the degree of use and the usefulness of travel guidebooks as an information source for making travel decisions by tourists, relative to other sources of information. This was accomplished by testing **Hypotheses 1-8** using quantitative data for the present study. Overall, travel guidebooks were the most used information source amongst the sample population of Japanese overseas tourists prior to and during travel. Roughly half of the respondents made use of the information source at both stages. They perceive travel guidebooks as the most useful information source prior to travel, and as one of the most useful information sources during travel. In addition, the present study found that type of tourist based on the degree of freedom exercised in travel decision-making had considerable influence on the choice of travel information source and use of travel guidebooks. Among the survey respondents for the present study, the greater the degree of freedom in travel decision-making tourists had, the more travel guidebooks were used both prior to and during travel.

In terms of perceived usefulness of travel guidebooks across different types of tourists, the survey results indicated that independent travellers and flexible package tour participants were likely to evaluate them higher at the prior to travel stage, and flexible package tour participants were likely to evaluate them higher at the during travel stage.

The second specific aim of the present study was to investigate the use of travel guidebooks by tourists as an information source for travel decision-making and for other purposes. This aim was related to **Research Question 1** and was achieved by carrying out qualitative and quantitative research for the present study. Both results suggested that, like other sources of information, travel guidebooks are largely used for functional reasons or to plan and take trips. However, a variety of other needs for travel guidebooks clearly do exist. Respondents of the present study rated, on average, functional needs as the highest. Learning, enjoyment, travel guidebook enthusiast needs were rated as second, third, and fourth in importance, respectively. Forward-looking needs were, on average, scored slightly below the neutral position and rated as the least important.

The third specific aim was to compare and contrast users and non-users of travel guidebooks and the fourth specific aim was to locate factors which are likely to influence the use/non-use of travel guidebook for a trip. These aims were achieved by comparing these two groups of tourists in terms of their need for travel guidebooks (**Research Question 2**) and their characteristics (**Research Question 3**). In the present study, the type of tourist variable appeared to be promising as a factor influencing use of travel guidebooks. However, it was also revealed that a large majority of comprehensive package tour participants did use travel guidebooks and some travel guidebook non-users were likely to remain as non-users no matter how they travel.

Needs for travel guidebooks were also related to selected travel-related and demographic variables (**Research Question 4**) and indications were given regarding who had what needs for travel guidebooks.

Several conclusions can be drawn from the findings of this study. Clearly, the use of travel guidebooks has temporal dimensions: they can be used prior to, during and after travel. Rather than considering travel information search and use only within the process of pre-trip travel decision-making, the present study demonstrated that it is a continuing activity occurring throughout the course of the trip. For such constant consumption of travel information for ongoing travel decision-making during travel, travel guidebooks taken from home appear to play a significant role in particular. Travel guidebooks were a preferred information medium throughout these stages amongst Japanese overseas tourists generally. They were the most popular information source and were perceived as one of the most useful information sources, though reasons for such popularity were not investigated in the present study. These findings strongly support the notion that travel guidebooks have a decisive impact on the choices made in multiple components of a trip. Travel guidebooks are an integral part of the travel decision-making processes and provide information on a number of different areas. Moreover, the use of travel guidebooks may continue over long periods of time, from pre-trip planning and anticipation through to post-trip retrospective reflection. Through the duration of such use, travel guidebooks are likely to be used repeatedly but with different levels of frequency and purpose. On the other hand, evidence in the study also suggested that some Japanese overseas tourists refuse to make use of travel guidebooks, as they believe that it would lead to a 'non-innovative' trip experience.

The present study also revealed that use of information source, and travel guidebooks in particular, is subject to the type of tourists based on the degree of freedom in travel decision-making, among the study population. Generally, the more freedom they have, the more they depend on travel guidebooks. However, it should be noted that use of travel guidebooks by comprehensive package tour participants recorded 72.1%, which indicates that use of travel guidebooks is not restricted to prepurchase search or trip-planning purposes. Indeed, the present study found that travel guidebooks can be used to fulfil multiple purposes, such as learning needs, enjoyment needs, and travel guidebook enthusiast needs. There is

much yet to learn about the use of travel information for planning trips and for its own sake. However, this study provided additional insight into the use of travel guidebooks by adding the perspective of its use for broader purposes.

When one travels, what s/he really buys is an intangible travel experience as a whole, not simply each travel component such as a return air ticket or a hotel voucher. Travel guidebooks provide thorough information necessary for travelling and suggest ways to experience things. They illustrate all travel components as well as background information on the destination, and the compilation of various information pieces possibly produces the images and atmosphere during travel for the readers. In the present study, the results indicated that package tour participants were more likely to rely on travel agents, package tour brochures and tour guides. But still, travel guidebooks were used by the large majority of these people. How can it be explained? The reason may be that information sources other than travel guidebooks can only provide fragmentary information to potential and actual tourists. Travel guidebooks are a synthetic medium of travel information which can communicate and inspire travel experience. The importance of travel guidebooks lies in its multifunctionality and flexibility which can be useful for any type of tourist. They can be used anytime, anywhere in anyway, at any degree one needs.

### **9.3 IMPLICATIONS**

This study has many important implications, which are illustrated from theoretical, methodological, and practical perspectives as follows.

#### **9.3.1 Theoretical Implications**

The unique contribution of this study has been made to theoretical knowledge in being the first study to explore the role and use of travel guidebooks from marketing and consumer behaviour perspectives. As such, this study helped to fill the gap in knowledge in the field of search and use of travel information, concerning travel guidebook in particular. Consequently it improved the

understanding of the use of information sources for travel decision-making in various segments of the tourism market. It can potentially provide a better link between the use of information sources by tourists and destination marketing strategies.

The traditional mainstream research in the area of travel information search and use has emphasised prepurchase search, particularly for destination choice. In the present study, it was found that many tourists searched and used travel information throughout the duration of travel. Therefore, when the topic of travel information use is examined, it needs to incorporate temporal dimensions, in considering possibilities of making constant travel decisions during travel.

This study strongly indicated that there is a relationship between the choice of travel information sources, particularly travel guidebooks, and type of tourist based on the freedom exercised in travel decision-making. In other words, type of tourist is a promising factor influencing search for travel information.

Moreover, this study contributed evidence to the literature that the use of travel information sources can be viewed not only from the traditional perspective of 'consumer as a problem-solver'. An holistic approach, such as this one, may be useful in understanding the overall information environment of potential/actual tourists.

### **9.3.2 Methodological Implications**

In the survey questionnaire used for the quantitative component of the present study, the type of tourist variable was measured based on their degree of freedom exercised in travel decision-making. Instead of relying on a respondents' self-reported category, the degree of travel arrangements they made during the trip in question was used to determine the type of tourist they were. It provided a methodology that has not been presented in previous studies

The survey questionnaire was also designed to measure use and perceived usefulness of information sources simultaneously. Specifically, it requested that respondents answer whether they used each information source and evaluated only the source which they used. While this design was employed for the purpose of space saving in the questionnaire, it resulted in missing values when it came to data analysis, and consequently data analysis techniques applicable were limited. Therefore, when this instrument is used, researchers should balance benefits against limitations.

### 9.3.3 Practical Implications

The present study has enhanced the understanding of how travel guidebooks are used in tourist decision-making and in the wider context of information usage by potential and actual tourists. It has explored how this independent, or non-marketer-dominated information source is used and perceived by different segments of the Japanese overseas tourist market. Tourism enterprises and organizations would be well advised to have a thorough understanding of the entire information environment encountered by tourists. In addition the study provided practical insights into how diverse segments within the Japanese outbound travel market make use of travel information sources, especially travel guidebooks. Consequently, it should allow for the development of specific marketing programmes for each segment of this significant market, such as group-based travellers and independent travellers.

This study indicated a heavy reliance on travel guidebooks by Japanese overseas tourists both prior to and during travel in general. From a destination marketing perspective, it is important to recognise that the travel information source most likely to be referenced is not necessarily the one over which destinations have direct control. The results of the survey indicated that there were few alternative sources of information to travel guidebooks that account for an equivalent number of users: travel agents and package tour brochures prior to travel; and tour guides during travel. These three sources are provided directly by the travel and tourism industry. In contrast, travel guidebooks are produced by peripheral forces. The

degree to which travel guidebooks create travel demand may be small yet they appear to be more widely used. Such a strong tendency to use travel guidebooks suggests that an opportunity exists to use them not only as tools to influence destination choice but also as devices to influence on-site behaviour. It therefore can be used to enhance the tourists' on-site experience and thereby the probability of repeat visits and more favourable recommendations of the destination to friends and relatives.

It cannot be emphasized enough that every piece of travel information consumers may come across both on a daily basis and during travel has the potential to influence and even determine their travel decisions and travel experience. In a broad view of the information environment, all such information should be taken into consideration. Although travel guidebooks are only one part of the complex information environment, destination marketing activities must focus on not only marketing efforts targeting one trip but also on the overall image of the destination and travel experience they can provide.

#### **9.4 OPPORTUNITIES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

As an exploratory study, the current study should be seen as a starting point rather than as a conclusive one. Although many significant findings have been reported in this study, there are several issues that can be improved in future studies.

The sampling method used in the quantitative part of this study may be a potential source of error. The original intention of the study to examine Japanese tourists to Australia was unsuccessful due to the difficulty of data collection. Therefore, it broadened the scope of study to Japanese overseas tourists and samples in quantitative study were selected on a non-random basis in the absence of sampling frame. Although the survey respondents consisted of a relatively broad cross-section of the population of Japanese overseas tourists, there is no guarantee that they are representative of the target population of the present study, Japanese overseas tourists at large. Even though the possibility of covering all the



population in a study like this one is practically impossible, it is recommended in future research that sampling strategies be modified. If possible, sampling from those who are returning from a destination country at airport departure lounge would be ideal.

The above issue also enhances the need to replicate this study in other contexts and on different samples. The present study covered only outbound tourists from a single country in Asia-Pacific region, Japan. Preference of travel information sources may be different with tourists from other countries who have different cultural backgrounds and needs for travel information. Therefore, the findings of this research cannot automatically be generalized beyond the specific setting of the study. It is not possible to conclude whether findings are applicable to other national groups. Reasonable caution should therefore be exercised when applying these results to different populations. To assess the external validity of the findings, the study should be replicated and conducted in other settings. Further research using samples from other parts of the world, such as Europe, would be useful.

Moreover, further work is needed in construct development and validation. This is important as little empirical work has been previously done on the measurement of broader needs for travel information. As with most exploratory research which include scale development, statistical tests were conducted in this study to confirm the reliability of the scale to measure the needs for travel guidebooks. However, scale refinement in a variety of contexts should be attempted in future research. For example, studies focusing on other travel information sources, especially printed media such as tour brochures, would be useful to compare the results from this study. Extra dimensions of travel information use may be revealed when other sources are considered.

In addition, the quantitative results of this study are ‘unweighted’. While some travel guidebook users may have consulted it once, others may have used it many more times. Therefore, further research in this regard is recommended.

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Based on the overall understanding of use of travel guidebooks and needs for travel guidebooks provided by this study, considerations on how to utilise such broader use of travel guidebooks to improve overall tourist experiences. For example, future research may focus on the relationship between the use of travel guidebooks and the levels of travel satisfaction which are likely to be derived from the comparison between the levels of pre-visit expectation.

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**APPENDICES**

APPENDIX 1:  
INTERVIEW GUIDE

APPENDIX 2:  
SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN AUSTRALIA

APPENDIX 3:  
SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN JAPAN

APPENDIX 4:  
SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

## **APPENDIX 1: INTERVIEW GUIDE**

- for those who have travelled to Australia within the last five years

Questions	Related/more specific questions
Did you use travel guidebooks	If not, why?
Which travel guidebooks were used? (title of travel guidebook)	
Why did you choose that book?	
How do you evaluate the book?	
What was your expectation toward the book?	Accuracy Reliability Objectivity / Subjectivity Accessibility / Availability Cost Lots of pictures / descriptions Maps etc.
What is a 'travel guidebook' to you?	

## **APPENDIX 2: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN AUSTRALIA**

- Questionnaire developed for the survey in Australia (Original Japanese version)
- Questionnaire developed for the survey in Australia (English translated version)

# 海外旅行の情報源に関するアンケート

【日本人旅行者の方へ】

- ・ 18 歳以上の日本人旅行者の方を対象に、海外旅行のさまざまな「情報源」に関するアンケートを実施しております。今回のオーストラリアへのご旅行について、ご回答ください。
- ・ 無記名式で、10 分程度でご記入いただける内容です。
- ・ 日本人の海外旅行に関する行動の学術研究を目的として実施される調査ですので、ご記入いただいた内容がそのままの形で公表されることはありません。
- ・ ご協力いただいた方には、ささやかですがおみやげを進呈しております。
- ・ ご記入が終わりましたら、配布者へお渡しください。

ビクトリア大学（オーストラリア） 研究員 西村 幸子

（ご不明な点がございましたら、[sachiko.nishimura@research.vu.edu.au](mailto:sachiko.nishimura@research.vu.edu.au) までご連絡ください。）

Q.1 ご旅行の主な目的はなんですか？

（当てはまるもの一つだけにチェック（✓）してください）

- ☐ 観光
- ☐ 親族や友人を訪問
- ☐ ビジネス
- ☐ 勉強
- ☐ その他 \_\_\_\_\_

Q.3 オーストラリアへのご旅行は  
今回が初めてですか？

- ☐ はい      ☐ いいえ

Q.4 海外旅行は何回目ですか？

今回を含めて \_\_\_\_\_ 回目

Q.2 何日間のご旅行ですか？

\_\_\_\_\_ 日間

Q.5 ご旅行の形態は次のどれですか？

- ☐ 旅行会社のツアーに参加
- ☐ 職場・学校などのツアーに参加
- ☐ 個人旅行
- ☐ その他 \_\_\_\_\_

Q.6 今回のご旅行に際し、下記の項目の中であなたご自身あるいはご同行の方が  
個人で手配（予約等）された項目はございますか？

もしございましたら、当てはまる欄にチェック（✓）してください。

また、その手配（予約等）をされた時期（旅行出発前、あるいは現地到着後）についても  
当てはまる欄にチェック（✓）してください。

	個人で 手配	いつ？	
		出発前に 日本で	出発後 現地にて
航空券			
現地での宿泊先			
現地での交通機関			
現地での訪問場所			
現地での アクティビティ（遊び等）			
現地での食事			
現地での買い物			
その他 ( )			

海外旅行に際し、情報を入手するにはさまざまな「情報源」があります。  
次に挙げる「情報源」は、今回のご旅行に関してどの程度役に立ちましたか？  
ご旅行へのご出発前とご旅行中の両方について、それぞれお答えください。

- 1 = 全く役立たなかった  
2 = あまり役立たなかった  
3 = 普通  
4 = まあ役立った  
5 = とても役立った

左記の 5 段階の評価でご回答ください。  
なお、お使いにならなかった「情報源」に関しては  
空欄のままで結構です。

Q.7 ご出発前に、日本で

	旅行代理店	パック旅行のパンフレット	旅行ガイドブック	テレビ	新聞・雑誌	インターネット	オーストラリアの観光局の資料	友人・家族からの口コミ	過去の旅行経験	その他
旅行先について										
宿泊先について										
現地での交通機関										
現地での訪問場所										
アクティビティ（遊び等）										
食事について										
買い物について										

Q.8 ご旅行中に、オーストラリアの現地にて

	ツアーガイドの人	旅行ガイドブック	現地の観光インフォメーションセンター	インターネット	現地に住んでいる人からの口コミ	他の旅行者からの口コミ	過去の旅行経験	その他
宿泊先について								
現地での交通機関								
現地での訪問場所								
アクティビティ（遊び等）								
食事について								
買い物について								

3 ページ目にお進みください→



Q.9 今回のご旅行のために「旅行ガイドブック」は使用されましたか？

- ☐ はい（このまま「Q.10」へお進みください）
- ☐ いいえ（次のページの「Q.11」へお進みください）

Q.10 次のそれぞれの文章についてどのように思いますか？  
もっとも近いと思う数字に○をつけてください。

「私が今回の旅行のために  
旅行ガイドブックを使った理由は・・・」

	とても そう 思う	そう 思う	ど ち ら で も な い	そ う は 思 わ な い	全 く そ う 思 わ な い
1. 旅行先についての様々な予備知識を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
2. 旅行費用を見積もっておくため	5	4	3	2	1
3. 見どころについて知っておくため	5	4	3	2	1
4. 地図を利用するため	5	4	3	2	1
5. 一緒に旅行する人と相談するのに使用するため	5	4	3	2	1
6. 効率よく旅行するため	5	4	3	2	1
7. 簡潔にまとめた情報を持つため	5	4	3	2	1
8. 旅行中の事故や災害の可能性を減らすため	5	4	3	2	1
9. 旅行先でがっかりさせられる可能性を減らすため	5	4	3	2	1
10. 旅行中に訪れた場所を確認するため	5	4	3	2	1
11. 旅行中に持ち歩いて安心感を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
12. ほかに人がしないような休暇を過ごすため	5	4	3	2	1
13. 新しい経験をするための情報を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
14. 実現しそうでないような夢をかなえる旅行を計画するため	5	4	3	2	1
15. 旅行についてわくわくするため	5	4	3	2	1
16. 読んで楽しむため	5	4	3	2	1
17. その地域の文化に触れるため	5	4	3	2	1
18. その社会の特性を理解するため	5	4	3	2	1
19. その場所のことを想像してみるため	5	4	3	2	1
20. 旅行後に読んで、この旅行を振り返るため	5	4	3	2	1

次のページの「Q.11」にご回答なさらずに、「Q.12」へお進み下さい

「Q.11」は「Q.9」で「いいえ」と回答した方のみへの質問です

Q. 11 次のそれぞれの文章についてどのように思いますか？  
もっとも近いと思う数字に○をつけてください。

「私が海外旅行のために  
旅行ガイドブックを使う理由は・・・」

1. 旅行先についての様々な予備知識を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
2. 旅行費用を見積もっておくため	5	4	3	2	1
3. 見どころについて知っておくため	5	4	3	2	1
4. 地図を利用するため	5	4	3	2	1
5. 一緒に旅行する人と相談するのに使用するため	5	4	3	2	1
6. 効率よく旅行するため	5	4	3	2	1
7. 簡潔にまとめた情報を持つため	5	4	3	2	1
8. 旅行中の事故や災害の可能性を減らすため	5	4	3	2	1
9. 旅行先でがっかりさせられる可能性を減らすため	5	4	3	2	1
10. 旅行中に訪れた場所を確認するため	5	4	3	2	1
11. 旅行中に持ち歩いて安心感を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
12. ほかに人がしないような休暇を過ごすため	5	4	3	2	1
13. 新しい経験をするための情報を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
14. 実現しそうでないような夢をかなえる旅行を計画するため	5	4	3	2	1
15. 旅行についてわくわくするため	5	4	3	2	1
16. 読んで楽しむため	5	4	3	2	1
17. その地域の文化に触れるため	5	4	3	2	1
18. その社会の特性を理解するため	5	4	3	2	1
19. その場所のことを想像してみるため	5	4	3	2	1
20. 旅行後に読んで、この旅行を振り返るため	5	4	3	2	1

Q.12 あなたにとって「旅行ガイドブック」とはどのようなものですか？

私にとって旅行ガイドブックとは、\_\_\_\_\_

Q.13 あなたご自身について教えてください

性別 ☐ 男性 ☐ 女性

年齡 \_\_\_\_\_ 歲

Q.14 英語はどの程度流暢に話せますか？

(「流暢に話せる」～「全く話せない」の5段階で当てはまる数字に○をしてください。)

流暢に話せる： 5      4      3      2      1      : 全く話せない

アンケートへのご協力、ありがとうございました。

この用紙は、はじめにお受け取りになられた方にご返却ください。  
ささやかですが感謝のしるしとしておみやげをお受け取りください。

OVERSEAS TRAVEL INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

[Dear Japanese Tourist]

- I am currently conducting a survey on travel information with Japanese tourists to Australia whose age is over 18 years old. Please answer the questions regarding this Australian trip.
- This anonymous questionnaire takes only 10 minutes to complete.
- All your answers will be strictly confidential.
- Please accept the attached souvenir upon completion of this questionnaire.
- Please return the questionnaire to the person you received it from.

Sachiko Nishimura  
Victoria University (Australia)

(if you have any inquiry regarding the survey, please contact [sachiko.nishimura@research.vu.edu.au](mailto:sachiko.nishimura@research.vu.edu.au))

Q.1 What is the main purpose of your trip?

(Please tick only one answer.)

- ☐ Holiday
- ☐ Visiting family/friend
- ☐ Business
- ☐ Study
- ☐ Other

\_\_\_\_\_

Q.2 How long is your trip?

\_\_\_\_\_ days

Q.3 Is this your first trip to Australia?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Q.4 How many times have you travelled abroad?

\_\_\_\_\_ times, including this time

Q.5 What is the type of this trip?

- ☐ Participating in a package tour
- ☐ Participating in a group tour organised by work place or school
- ☐ Independent travel
- ☐ Other \_\_\_\_\_

Q.6 Which components of this trip were arranged (or booked) by yourself (or your travel companion), and when?

	Self	When	
		Before departure	During the trip
Air ticket			
Accommodation			
Local transport			
Place to visit at the destination			
Activities at the destination			
Meal			
Shopping			
Other ( )			

PLEASE GO TO PAGE 2→

There are various 'information sources' for overseas trips.  
Regarding this Australian trip, how useful was each of the following sources?  
Please fill out the tables for both before departure and during the trip.

- 1 = Not useful at all  
2 = Not so useful  
3 = Average  
4 = Somehow useful  
5 = Very useful

For your answers,  
please use the 5 point scale on the left.  
Regarding the sources that you did not use,  
please leave the boxes blank.

Q.7 Before departure for the trip, in Japan

	Travel agent	Package tour brochure	Travel guidebook	TV	Newspaper/Magazine	Internet	Information pack by tourism commission	Word-of-Mouth from family/friend	Past experiences	Other ( )
Destination										
Accommodation										
Local transport										
Place to visit at the destination										
Activity										
Meal										
Shopping										

Q.8 During the trip, in Australia

	Tour guide	Travel guidebook	On-site information centre	Internet	Word-of Mouth from local resident	Word-of-Mouth from other tourist	Past experiences	Other ( )
Accommodation								
Local transport								
Place to visit at the destination								
Activity								
Meal								
Shopping								

Q. 9 Have you used travel guidebook(s) for this trip?

- ☐ Yes (PLEASE GO TO Q. 10)
- ☐ No (PLEASE GO TO Q. 11 ON THE NEXT PAGE)

Q. 10 To what extent do you agree with the following statements?  
Please tick the most appropriate number for each statement.

“The reasons I have used travel guidebooks  
for this trip are to ...”

	Strongly agree	Tend to agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Tend to disagree	Strongly disagree
1. obtain background information on the destination	5	4	3	2	1
2. estimate travel expenses	5	4	3	2	1
3. know about highlights	5	4	3	2	1
4. use the maps	5	4	3	2	1
5. discuss information with my travel companion	5	4	3	2	1
6. travel efficiently	5	4	3	2	1
7. have information that is concise	5	4	3	2	1
8. reduce the likelihood of accident and disaster during the trip	5	4	3	2	1
9. reduce the likelihood of being disappointed at the destination	5	4	3	2	1
10. confirm the places I visit during the trip	5	4	3	2	1
11. feel at ease by carrying one during the trip	5	4	3	2	1
12. be original with my vacation choice	5	4	3	2	1
13. find information about new experiences	5	4	3	2	1
14. plan exotic or almost impossible dream	5	4	3	2	1
15. excite myself about travel	5	4	3	2	1
16. enjoy reading travel guidebook	5	4	3	2	1
17. experience the culture of the area	5	4	3	2	1
18. understand the personality of the community	5	4	3	2	1
19. imagine the area	5	4	3	2	1
20. reflect on trip by reading travel guidebooks	5	4	3	2	1

PLEASE DO NOT ANSWER Q. 11 and GO TO Q. 12

Q.11 is for only those who answered 'No' to Q.9

**Q. 11** To what extent do you agree with the following statements?  
Please tick the most appropriate number for each statement.

“The reasons I use travel guidebooks  
for overseas trip are to …”

Q. 11 is for only those who answered 'No' to Q. 9		Strongly agree	Tend to agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Tend to disagree	Strongly disagree
<p><b>Q. 11 To what extent do you agree with the following statements?</b>  Please tick the most appropriate number for each statement.</p> <p>"The reasons I use travel guidebooks  for overseas trip are to ..."</p>						
1. obtain background information on the destination	5	4	3	2	1	
2. estimate travel expenses	5	4	3	2	1	
3. know about highlights	5	4	3	2	1	
4. use the maps	5	4	3	2	1	
5. discuss information with my travel companion	5	4	3	2	1	
6. travel efficiently	5	4	3	2	1	
7. have information that is concise	5	4	3	2	1	
8. reduce the likelihood of accident and disaster during the trip	5	4	3	2	1	
9. reduce the likelihood of being disappointed at the destination	5	4	3	2	1	
10. confirm the places I visit during the trip	5	4	3	2	1	
11. feel at ease by carrying one during the trip	5	4	3	2	1	
12. be original with my vacation choice	5	4	3	2	1	
13. find information about new experiences	5	4	3	2	1	
14. plan exotic or almost impossible trips	5	4	3	2	1	
15. excite myself about travel	5	4	3	2	1	
16. enjoy reading travel guidebook	5	4	3	2	1	
17. experience the culture of the area	5	4	3	2	1	
18. understand the personality of the community	5	4	3	2	1	
19. imagine the area	5	4	3	2	1	
20. reflect on trip by reading travel guidebooks	5	4	3	2	1	

Q.12 What is a travel guidebook to you?

For me, a travel guidebook is: \_\_\_\_\_

**Q. 13 Please answer about yourself**

Gender ☐ Male ☐ Female      Age \_\_\_\_\_ years old

**Q.14** How fluently can you speak English?

(Please evaluate by a 5 point scale from 'very fluently' to 'not at all')

**Very fluently:**     5    4    3    2    1       : Not at all

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Please accept the attached souvenir  
and return the questionnaire to the person you received it from.

### **APPENDIX 3: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN JAPAN**

- Questionnaire developed for the survey in Japan (Original Japanese version)
- Questionnaire developed for the survey in Japan (English Translated version)

## 海外旅行の情報源に関するアンケート

### 【調査へのご協力をお願い】

- ・ 過去5年以内に海外旅行を経験した18歳以上の方を対象に、海外旅行のさまざまな「情報源」に関するアンケートを実施しております。一番最近の海外旅行について、ご回答ください。
- ・ 無記名式で、10分程度でご記入いただける内容です。
- ・ 日本人の海外旅行に関する行動の学術研究を目的として実施される調査ですので、ご記入いただいた内容がそのままの形で公表されることはありません。
- ・ ご記入が終わりましたら、配布者へお渡してください。

ビクトリア大学（オーストラリア） 研究員 西村 幸子

（ご不明な点がございましたら、[sachiko.nishimura@research.vu.edu.au](mailto:sachiko.nishimura@research.vu.edu.au) までご連絡ください。）

Q.1 一番最近の海外旅行はいつでしたか？

\_\_\_\_\_ 年前

Q.4 何日間のご旅行でしたか？

\_\_\_\_\_ 日間

Q.2 どちらの国・地域へのご旅行でしたか？

\_\_\_\_\_

Q.5 その国・地域へのご旅行は  
そのときが初めてでしたか？

☐ はい ☐ いいえ

Q.3 そのご旅行の主な目的はなんでしたか？

（当てはまるもの一つだけにチェック（✓）してください）

- ☐ 観光  
☐ 親族や友人を訪問  
☐ ビジネス  
☐ 勉強  
☐ その他 \_\_\_\_\_

Q.6 海外旅行は何回目でしたか？

その旅行を含めて \_\_\_\_\_ 回目

Q.7 そのご旅行の形態は次のどれでしたか？

- ☐ 旅行会社のツアーに参加  
☐ 職場・学校などのツアーに参加  
☐ 個人旅行  
☐ その他 \_\_\_\_\_

Q.8 そのときの海外旅行に際し、下記の項目の中であなたご自身あるいはご同行の方が  
個人で手配（予約等）された項目はございますか？

もしございましたら、当てはまる欄にチェック（✓）してください。

また、その手配（予約等）をされた時期（旅行出発前、あるいは現地到着後）についても  
当てはまる欄にチェック（✓）してください。

	個人で 手配	いつ？	
		出発前に 日本で	出発後 現地にて
航空券			
現地での宿泊先			
現地での交通機関			
現地での訪問場所			
現地での アクティビティ（遊び等）			
現地での食事			
現地での買い物			
その他 ( )			

2 ページ目にお進みください→



海外旅行に際し、情報を入手するにはさまざまな「情報源」があります。  
次に挙げる「情報源」は、そのときの海外旅行に関してどの程度役に立ちましたか？  
ご旅行へのご出発前とご旅行中の両方について、それぞれお答えください。

- 1 = 全く役立たなかった  
2 = あまり役立たなかった  
3 = 普通  
4 = まあ役立った  
5 = とても役立った

左記の 5 段階の評価でご回答ください。  
なお、お使いにならなかった「情報源」に関しては  
空欄のままで結構です。

Q.9 ご出発前に、日本で

	旅行代理店	パンク旅行の	旅行ガイドブック	テレビ	新聞・雑誌	インターネット	観光局の資料	友人・家族からの 口コミ	過去の旅行経験	その他 ( )
旅行先について										
宿泊先について										
現地での交通機関										
現地での訪問場所										
アクティビティ(遊び等)										
食事について										
買い物について										

Q.10 ご旅行中に、現地に

	ツアーガイドの人	旅行ガイドブック	観光局の インフォメーションセンター	インターネット	現地に住んでいる 人からの口コミ	他の旅行者からの 口コミ	過去の旅行経験	その他 ( )
宿泊先について								
現地での交通機関								
現地での訪問場所								
アクティビティ(遊び等)								
食事について								
買い物について								

3 ページ目にお進みください→

Q.11 その海外旅行のために「旅行ガイドブック」は使用されましたか？

- ☐ はい（このまま「Q.12」へお進みください）
- ☐ いいえ（次のページの「Q.13」へお進みください）

Q.12 次のそれぞれの文章についてどのように思いますか？  
もっとも近いと思う数字に○をつけてください。

「私が今回の旅行のために  
旅行ガイドブックを使った理由は・・・」

	とても そう 思う	そう 思う	ど ち ら で も な い	そ う は 思 わ な い	全 く そ う 思 わ な い
1. 旅行先についての様々な予備知識を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
2. 旅行費用を見積もっておくため	5	4	3	2	1
3. 見どころについて知っておくため	5	4	3	2	1
4. 地図を利用するため	5	4	3	2	1
5. 一緒に旅行する人と相談するのに使用するため	5	4	3	2	1
6. 効率よく旅行するため	5	4	3	2	1
7. 簡潔にまとまった情報を持つため	5	4	3	2	1
8. 旅行中の事故や災害の可能性を減らすため	5	4	3	2	1
9. 旅行先でがっかりさせられる可能性を減らすため	5	4	3	2	1
10. 旅行中に訪れた場所を確認するため	5	4	3	2	1
11. 旅行中に持ち歩いて安心感を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
12. ほかに人がしないような休暇を過ごすため	5	4	3	2	1
13. 新しい経験をするための情報を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
14. 実現しそうでないような夢をかなえる旅行を計画するため	5	4	3	2	1
15. 旅行についてわくわくするため	5	4	3	2	1
16. 読んで楽しむため	5	4	3	2	1
17. その地域の文化に触れるため	5	4	3	2	1
18. その社会の特性を理解するため	5	4	3	2	1
19. その場所のことを想像してみるため	5	4	3	2	1
20. 旅行後に読んで、この旅行を振り返るため	5	4	3	2	1

次のページの「Q.13」にご回答なさらずに、「Q.14」へお進み下さい

「Q.13」は「Q.11」で「いいえ」と回答した方のみへの質問です

Q.13 次のそれぞれの文章についてどのように思いますか？  
もっとも近いと思う数字に○をつけてください。

「私が海外旅行のために  
旅行ガイドブックを使う理由は・・・」

1. 旅行先についての様々な予備知識を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
2. 旅行費用を見積もっておくため	5	4	3	2	1
3. 見どころについて知っておくため	5	4	3	2	1
4. 地図を利用するため	5	4	3	2	1
5. 一緒に旅行する人と相談するのに使用するため	5	4	3	2	1
6. 効率よく旅行するため	5	4	3	2	1
7. 簡潔にまとめた情報を持つため	5	4	3	2	1
8. 旅行中の事故や災害の可能性を減らすため	5	4	3	2	1
9. 旅行先でがっかりさせられる可能性を減らすため	5	4	3	2	1
10. 旅行中に訪れた場所を確認するため	5	4	3	2	1
11. 旅行中に持ち歩いて安心感を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
12. ほかが人がしないような休暇を過ごすため	5	4	3	2	1
13. 新しい経験をするための情報を得るため	5	4	3	2	1
14. 実現しそうでないような夢をかなえる旅行を計画するため	5	4	3	2	1
15. 旅行についてわくわくするため	5	4	3	2	1
16. 読んで楽しむため	5	4	3	2	1
17. その地域の文化に触れるため	5	4	3	2	1
18. その社会の特性を理解するため	5	4	3	2	1
19. その場所のことを想像してみるため	5	4	3	2	1
20. 旅行後に読んで、この旅行を振り返るため	5	4	3	2	1

Q.14 あなたにとって「旅行ガイドブック」とはどのようなものですか？

私にとって旅行ガイドブックとは、

Q.15 あなたご自身について教えてください

性別 ☐ 男性 ☐ 女性 年齡 \_\_\_\_\_ 歲

**Q. 16 英語はどの程度流暢に話せますか？**

(「流暢に話せる」～「全く話せない」の5段階で当てはまる数字に○をしてください。)

流暢に話せる： 5      4      3      2      1      : 全く話せない

アンケートへのご協力、ありがとうございました。

この用紙は、はじめにお受け取りになられた方にご返却ください。

OVERSEAS TRAVEL INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Japanese Tourist

- I am currently conducting a survey on travel information with those who have travelled abroad in the last five years and whose age is over 18 years old. Please answer the questions regarding your most recent overseas trip.
- This anonymous questionnaire takes only 10 minutes to complete.
- All your answers will be strictly confidential.
- Please return the questionnaire to the person you received it from.

Sachiko Nishimura  
Victoria University (Australia)

(if you have any inquiry regarding the survey, please contact sachiko.nishimura@research.vu.edu.au)

Q.1 When did you go on your most recent overseas trip?

\_\_\_\_\_ years ago

Q.2 Which country/area did you travel?

\_\_\_\_\_

Q.3 What was the main purpose of the trip?

(Please tick only one answer.)

- ☐ Holiday
- ☐ Visiting family/friend
- ☐ Business
- ☐ Study
- ☐ Other

\_\_\_\_\_

Q.4 How long was the trip?

\_\_\_\_\_ days

Q.5 Was it your first trip to the country/area?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Q.6 How many times have you travelled abroad including the most recent trip?

\_\_\_\_\_ times

Q.7 What was the type of the trip?

- ☐ Participating in a package tour
- ☐ Participating in a group tour organised by work place or school
- ☐ Independent travel
- ☐ Other \_\_\_\_\_

Q.8 Which components of the trip were arranged (or booked) by yourself (or your travel companion), and when?

	Self	When	
		Before departure	During the trip
Air ticket			
Accommodation			
Local transport			
Place to visit at the destination			
Activities at the destination			
Meal			
Shopping			
Other ( )			

There are various 'information sources' for overseas trips.  
Regarding your most recent overseas trip, how useful was each of the following sources?  
Please fill out the tables for both before departure and during the trip.

- 1 = Not useful at all

2 = Not so useful

3 = Average

4 = Somehow useful

5 = Very useful

For your answers,  
please use the 5 point scale on the left.  
Regarding the sources that you did not use,  
please leave the boxes blank.

Q.9 Before departure for the trip, in Japan

	Travel agent	Package tour brochure	Travel guidebook	TV	Newspaper/Magazine	Internet	Information pack by tourism commission	Word-of-Mouth from family/friend	Past experiences	Other ( )
Destination										
Accommodation										
Local transport										
Place to visit at the destination										
Activity										
Meal										
Shopping										

Q.10 During the trip, at the destination

	Tour guide	Travel guidebook	On-site information centre	Internet	Word-of Mouth from local resident	Word-of-Mouth from other tourist	Past experiences	Other ( )
Accommodation								
Local transport								
Place to visit at the destination								
Activity								
Meal								
Shopping								

PLEASE GO TO PAGE 3→

Q.11 Did you use travel guidebook(s) for your most recent overseas trip?

- ☐ Yes (PLEASE GO TO Q. 12)
- ☐ No (PLEASE GO TO Q.13 IN THE NEXT PAGE)

Q. 12 To what extent do you agree with the following statements?  
Please tick the most appropriate number for each statement.

“The reasons I used travel guidebooks  
for the trip were to ...”

	Strongly agree	Tend to agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Tend to disagree	Strongly disagree
1. obtain background information on the destination	5	4	3	2	1
2. estimate travel expenses	5	4	3	2	1
3. know about highlights	5	4	3	2	1
4. use the maps	5	4	3	2	1
5. discuss information with my travel companion	5	4	3	2	1
6. travel efficiently	5	4	3	2	1
7. have information that is concise	5	4	3	2	1
8. reduce the likelihood of accident and disaster during the trip	5	4	3	2	1
9. reduce the likelihood of being disappointed at the destination	5	4	3	2	1
10. confirm the places I visit during the trip	5	4	3	2	1
11. feel at ease by carrying one during the trip	5	4	3	2	1
12. be original with my vacation choice	5	4	3	2	1
13. find information about new experiences	5	4	3	2	1
14. plan exotic or almost impossible trips	5	4	3	2	1
15. excite myself about travel	5	4	3	2	1
16. enjoy reading travel guidebooks	5	4	3	2	1
17. experience the culture of the area	5	4	3	2	1
18. understand the personality of the community	5	4	3	2	1
19. imagine the area	5	4	3	2	1
20. reflect on trip by reading travel guidebooks	5	4	3	2	1

PLEASE DO NOT ANSWER Q. 13 and GO TO Q. 14

Q.13 is for only those who answered 'No' to Q.11

**Q.13** To what extent do you agree with the following statements?  
Please tick the most appropriate number for each statement.

"The reasons I use travel guidebooks  
for overseas trip are to ..."

	Strongly agree	Tend to agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Tend to disagree	Strongly disagree
1. obtain background information on the destination	5	4	3	2	1
2. estimate travel expenses	5	4	3	2	1
3. know about highlights	5	4	3	2	1
4. use the maps	5	4	3	2	1
5. discuss information with my travel companion	5	4	3	2	1
6. travel efficiently	5	4	3	2	1
7. have information that is concise	5	4	3	2	1
8. reduce the likelihood of accident and disaster during the trip	5	4	3	2	1
9. reduce the likelihood of being disappointed at the destination	5	4	3	2	1
10. confirm the places I visit during the trip	5	4	3	2	1
11. feel at ease by carrying one during the trip	5	4	3	2	1
12. be original with my vacation choice	5	4	3	2	1
13. find information about new experiences	5	4	3	2	1
14. plan exotic or almost impossible trips	5	4	3	2	1
15. excite myself about travel	5	4	3	2	1
16. enjoy reading travel guidebooks	5	4	3	2	1
17. experience the culture of the area	5	4	3	2	1
18. understand the personality of the community	5	4	3	2	1
19. imagine the area	5	4	3	2	1
20. reflect on trip by reading travel guidebooks	5	4	3	2	1

**Q.14** What is a travel guidebook to you?

For me, a travel guidebook is: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

**Q.15** Please answer about yourself

Gender ☐ Male ☐ Female Age \_\_\_\_\_ years old

**Q.16** How fluently can you speak English?

(Please evaluate by a 5 point scale from 'very fluently' to 'not at all')

Very fluently: 5 4 3 2 1 : Not at all  
← →

**THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION**

Please return the questionnaire to the person you received it from.

**APPENDIX 4:  
SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES**

- Appendix 4.1: Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources among All Respondents (N=1,211): Prior to Travel**
- Appendix 4.2: Differences in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources: Prior to Travel**
- Appendix 4.3: Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources among All Respondents (N=1,211): During Travel**
- Appendix 4.4: Differences in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources: During Travel**
- Appendix 4.5: Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: Prior to Travel**
- Appendix 4.6: Difference in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: Prior to Travel**
- Appendix 4.7: Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: During Travel**
- Appendix 4.8: Difference in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: During Travel**



**Appendix 4.1**  
**Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources among All Respondents (N=1211): Prior to Travel**

	Travel Guide-book		Travel Agent		Package Tour Brochure		TV		Newspaper/ Magazine		Internet		DMO Information Pack		WoM from Family/Friends		Past Experience	
	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$
Destination	681	552	34.93	85.43	497	85.43	216	433.19	220	436.29	336	260.08	228	414.72	416	159.49	403	171.27
Accommodation	535	542	0.11	33.19	425	33.19	147	376.30	171	344.95	266	188.51	184	313.30	301	139.20	324	114.55
Local Transport	643	431	68.83	176.61	339	176.61	141	464.10	160	434.36	213	361.82	210	358.32	287	236.83	345	161.29
Places to Visit	683	411	145.72	194.47	380	194.47	162	501.67	188	468.40	244	387.56	217	420.67	352	222.70	326	243.14
Activities	560	372	85.85	171.27	309	171.27	152	397.20	168	371.88	212	303.08	189	337.03	295	179.19	311	152.52
Meals	631	393	121.05	197.88	340	197.88	163	450.60	184	424.13	212	337.37	184	417.02	374	134.57	355	161.59
Shopping	666	361	188.99	247.19	330	247.19	161	487.56	194	436.70	209	413.39	188	444.39	364	179.58	364	176.26

Significant items at p<0.001 are in **bold** (McNemar test).

Shaded areas indicate significant items with **less** than 'travel guidebook'.

**Appendix 4.2**  
**Differences in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources: Prior to Travel**

	Travel Guidebook		Travel Agent			Package Tour Brochure			TV			Newspaper/ Magazine			Internet			DMO Information Pack			WoM from Family/Friends			Past Experience		
	M	S.D	M	S.D	t	M	S.D	t	M	S.D	t	M	S.D	t	M	S.D	t	M	S.D	t	M	S.D	t	M	S.D	t
Destination	3.97	0.90	3.60	1.04	-10.47	3.38	0.96	-13.72	2.83	0.90	-15.91	3.10	1.21	-10.62	3.67	1.03	-4.96	3.12	1.11	-11.44	3.78	1.06	-3.63	3.75	1.11	-4.00
Accommodation	3.37	1.15	3.46	1.14	1.97	3.19	1.03	-3.66	2.01	0.99	-16.64	2.57	1.28	-8.19	3.46	1.29	1.15	2.68	1.17	-7.96	3.42	1.31	0.71	3.44	1.24	0.97
Local Transport	3.76	1.05	3.07	1.18	-12.15	2.72	1.10	-17.43	1.93	0.96	-22.63	2.41	1.24	-13.91	3.06	1.38	-7.47	3.13	1.21	-7.60	3.34	1.32	-5.38	3.57	1.21	-3.00
Places to Visit	3.96	0.94	3.22	1.15	-13.17	3.23	1.09	-13.21	2.62	1.14	-15.01	3.06	1.30	-8.53	3.30	1.25	-8.25	3.15	1.18	-10.13	3.69	1.24	-4.14	3.49	1.21	-7.05
Activities	3.70	1.03	2.98	1.15	-12.05	2.96	1.06	-12.40	2.41	1.07	-14.91	2.85	1.28	-8.66	3.19	1.30	-5.76	3.08	1.06	-7.97	3.50	1.30	-2.67	3.53	1.18	-2.60
Meals	3.62	1.10	2.69	1.11	-14.94	2.27	1.11	-13.62	2.53	1.13	-11.24	3.02	1.31	-6.18	3.01	1.31	-5.70	2.78	1.14	-8.89	3.64	1.23	1.93	3.54	1.11	3.78
Shopping	3.62	1.05	2.27	1.14	-15.01	2.67	1.10	-15.69	2.52	1.18	-11.81	3.07	1.34	-5.75	3.01	1.32	-6.63	2.80	1.16	-9.69	3.57	1.26	-0.80	3.62	1.14	-0.01

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from ‘1’ = ‘not at all’ to ‘5’ = ‘very useful’) was used. Significant items at p<0.001 are in **bolded**, significant items at p<0.01 are in *italic*, and a significant item at p<0.05 is underlined (One sample t-test). Shaded areas indicate significant items with a **lower mean scores** than ‘travel guidebook’.

**Appendix 4.3**  
**Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources among All Respondents (N=1211): During Travel**

	Travel Guidebook		Tour Guide		Onsite Information Centre		Internet		WoM from Local Residents		WoM from Other Tourists		Past Experience	
	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$
Accommodation	488	0.38	474	0.38	228	195.00	125	326.79	214	189.16	170	267.26	292	100.60
Local Transport	576	24.74	465	24.74	289	195.22	117	430.73	264	207.56	182	338.70	327	130.98
Places to Visit	628	30.83	501	30.83	284	253.55	125	476.38	293	216.61	198	374.07	305	208.62
Activities	531	19.44	439	19.44	267	171.21	120	381.18	275	148.46	186	279.75	282	154.15
Meals	611	45.12	461	45.12	242	286.31	111	480.70	327	149.98	207	319.70	339	151.11
Shopping	630	71.56	446	71.56	231	321.31	108	506.42	296	205.35	201	348.92	350	157.57

Significant items at p<0.001 are in **bold** (McNemar test).

Shaded areas indicate significant items with a smaller number of users than 'travel guidebook'.

Appendix 4.4

Differences in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources: During Travel

	Travel Guidebook		Tour Guide			Onsite Information Centre			Internet			WoM from Local Residents			WoM from Other Tourists			Past Experience		
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t
Accommodation	3.45	1.19	<b>3.65</b>	<b>1.05</b>	<b>4.01</b>	3.22	<b>1.26</b>	-2.75	3.22	1.36	-1.95	3.58	1.36	1.42	3.25	1.36	-1.92	3.53	1.20	1.16
Local Transport	3.82	1.02	3.76	1.01	-1.20	3.62	1.77	-2.84	<b>2.97</b>	<b>1.20</b>	<b>-7.66</b>	3.98	1.20	<b>2.26</b>	<b>3.43</b>	<b>1.30</b>	<b>-4.05</b>	<u>3.67</u>	<u>1.14</u>	<u>-2.34</u>
Places to Visit	3.97	0.89	3.94	0.96	-0.59	<b>3.58</b>	<b>1.11</b>	<b>-6.05</b>	<b>3.08</b>	<b>1.20</b>	<b>-8.26</b>	4.00	1.14	0.48	<b>3.59</b>	<b>1.30</b>	<b>-4.14</b>	<b>3.53</b>	<b>1.20</b>	<b>-6.33</b>
Activities	3.73	0.98	3.76	0.96	0.69	3.59	1.13	-1.95	<b>3.23</b>	<b>1.27</b>	<b>-4.26</b>	3.90	1.15	<u>2.52</u>	<u>3.49</u>	<u>1.24</u>	<u>-2.56</u>	<u>3.52</u>	<u>1.12</u>	<u>-3.02</u>
Meals	3.64	1.03	3.58	1.03	-1.24	<b>3.19</b>	<b>1.18</b>	<b>-5.89</b>	<b>3.00</b>	<b>1.19</b>	<b>-5.65</b>	<b>4.07</b>	<b>1.10</b>	<b>7.03</b>	3.53	1.25	-1.23	3.64	1.07	-0.02
Shopping	3.70	1.02	<b>3.47</b>	<b>1.08</b>	<b>-4.53</b>	<b>3.21</b>	<b>1.21</b>	<b>-6.19</b>	<b>3.06</b>	<b>1.26</b>	<b>-5.24</b>	3.92	1.21	3.05	<b>3.43</b>	<b>1.27</b>	<b>-3.01</b>	3.67	1.05	-0.59

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful') was used.

Significant items at  $p < 0.001$  are in **bold**, significant items at  $p < 0.01$  are in *italic*, and a significant items at  $p < 0.05$  are underlined (One sample t-test).

Shaded areas indicate significant items with a higher mean score and with a lower mean score than 'travel guidebook', respectively.



Appendix 4.5  
Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: Prior to Travel

	Travel guidebook	Travel Agent		Package Tour Brochure		TV		Newspaper Magazine		Internet		DMO Information Pack		WoM from family/friend		Past Experience	
		N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$
Comprehensive Package Tour Participants (N=358)	Destination	165		166	0.00	154	1.10	57	95.41	61	86.96	45	104.13	87	47.82	78	62.15
	Accommodation	124	12.01	136	1.38	42	78.11	46	70.58	47	62.11	38	76.86	59	45.01	73	27.47
	Local Transport	123	1.98	110	1.87	38	83.01	41	78.11	36	76.25	40	70.78	53	56.68	67	33.61
	Places to Visit	146	0.37	128	3.01	47	91.47	48	87.12	43	87.43	42	93.06	73	47.56	72	46.75
	Activities	114	0.36	99	2.93	40	72.01	39	73.01	35	71.58	36	70.58	56	42.75	67	27.48
	Meals	141	0.07	117	6.61	47	86.49	49	86.26	40	91.74	42	88.11	76	36.26	79	35.78
	Shopping	161	7.16	117	18.87	44	111.21	47	108.21	42	107.94	42	103.14	82	44.41	80	48.86
Flexible Package Tour Participants (N=482)	Destination	276		261	1.20	259	1.93	95	166.15	122	123.21	73	191.57	150	86.81	147	94.71
	Accommodation	215	9.04	220	0.13	64	141.51	64	143.31	93	95.07	56	147.72	99	87.01	106	77.25
	Local Transport	265	24.13	170	54.21	61	196.23	63	194.24	72	183.40	71	175.73	102	126.78	106	102.48
	Places to Visit	293	49.01	184	65.16	68	215.35	74	209.36	90	184.63	70	204.50	130	120.94	103	163.86
	Activities	237	25.12	152	51.50	64	165.27	68	155.93	75	145.62	61	162.90	114	84.09	106	98.83
	Meals	273	56.50	164	65.90	71	192.39	73	188.58	77	179.36	60	201.54	142	78.61	132	94.69
	Shopping	292	89.35	154	97.76	71	211.35	80	193.57	74	202.97	62	220.34	137	104.48	135	105.35
Independent Travellers (N=371)	Destination	240		125	82.78	84	143.01	64	168.27	72	162.15	153	51.72	179	27.07	178	23.85
	Accommodation	196	40.56	69	108.00	41	153.01	61	127.35	126	35.53	90	86.13	143	18.40	145	17.48
	Local Transport	225	104.97	59	149.59	42	181.01	56	163.15	105	99.73	99	108.51	132	54.61	138	30.13
	Places to Visit	244	152.95	68	157.86	47	191.12	66	168.44	111	112.41	105	119.77	149	54.21	151	45.75
	Activities	208	113.98	58	140.51	48	156.06	61	139.32	102	83.52	92	100.19	125	50.56	138	31.32
	Meals	217	126.45	59	146.72	45	168.05	62	145.50	95	103.11	82	123.83	156	22.64	144	33.02
	Shopping	213	126.12	59	142.74	46	161.05	67	131.41	93	99.73	84	117.87	145	29.53	149	26.12

Significant items at 0.001 are in **bold**, and significant items at 0.01 are in *italic* (McNemar test).  
Shaded areas indicate significant items with a larger number of users and a **smaller number of users** than 'travel guidebook', respectively.

Appendix 4.6

Difference in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: Prior to Travel

	Travel Guidebook		Travel Agent				Package Tour Brochure				TV				Newspaper Magazine				Internet				DMO nformation Pack				WoM from Family/Friend				Past Experience			
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t					
Comprehensive Package Tour Participants (N=358)	Destination	3.83	0.90	3.63	0.97	-2.70	3.47	0.90	-4.90	2.86	1.01	-7.27	3.11	1.06	-5.14	3.26	1.15	-3.85	3.02	1.08	-5.03	3.63	1.04	-1.78	3.44	1.00	-3.47	3.10	0.97	-0.48				
	Accommodation	3.15	1.02	3.51	1.02	4.50	3.26	0.94	1.33	2.10	0.85	-8.04	2.52	1.05	-4.06	3.13	1.13	-0.14	2.74	1.03	-2.47	2.98	1.17	-1.10	3.10	0.97	-0.48							
	Local Transport	3.44	1.01	3.22	1.07	-2.43	2.96	1.01	-4.93	2.00	0.81	-11.02	2.41	1.02	-6.41	2.83	1.08	-3.36	2.93	1.12	-2.91	3.04	1.22	-2.39	3.28	1.08	-1.18							
	Places to Visit	3.80	1.14	3.49	1.03	-3.51	3.44	0.99	-4.16	2.64	1.11	-7.16	3.02	1.34	-4.74	3.23	1.04	-3.57	3.14	0.85	-4.47	3.52	1.09	-2.18	3.18	0.95	-5.51							
	Activities	3.57	1.19	3.22	1.07	-3.57	3.13	1.06	-4.13	2.40	1.12	-6.56	2.82	1.19	-3.93	3.09	1.04	-2.76	2.94	1.01	-3.71	3.16	1.11	-2.76	3.19	1.08	-2.86							
	Meals	3.37	1.07	3.04	1.02	-3.88	2.85	0.98	-5.66	2.77	1.05	-3.96	2.88	1.09	-3.16	2.83	1.08	-3.18	2.83	0.96	-3.62	3.45	1.01	0.67	3.24	0.91	-1.27							
Flexible Package Tour Participants (N=482)	Shopping	3.63	0.99	3.13	1.06	-5.31	2.91	1.02	-7.57	2.61	1.19	-5.89	2.91	1.14	-4.31	2.95	1.21	-3.63	3.00	1.01	-4.03	3.44	1.11	-1.56	3.29	0.96	-3.20							
	Destination	3.98	0.89	3.51	1.02	-7.53	3.42	0.95	-9.47	2.78	1.07	-10.90	3.09	1.25	-6.79	3.57	0.94	-4.75	2.99	1.01	-8.43	3.61	1.10	-4.09	3.64	1.12	-3.66							
	Accommodation	3.35	1.10	3.50	1.12	2.09	3.25	1.05	-1.41	2.08	1.06	-9.61	2.52	1.21	-5.52	3.20	1.27	-1.10	2.54	1.11	-5.48	3.04	1.34	-2.30	3.27	1.28	-0.61							
	Local Transport	3.81	1.13	3.14	1.16	-8.11	2.69	1.13	-12.98	1.90	1.00	-14.98	2.27	1.19	-10.24	2.85	1.29	-6.38	3.13	1.07	-5.39	3.16	1.26	-5.22	3.41	1.23	-3.55							
	Places to Visit	4.07	0.87	3.24	1.09	-10.72	3.25	1.08	-10.32	2.71	1.15	-9.81	3.03	1.25	-7.18	3.28	1.20	-6.42	3.16	1.12	-6.79	3.62	1.25	-4.13	3.38	1.22	-5.74							
	Activities	3.78	1.01	2.97	1.14	-9.44	2.93	1.03	-10.14	2.45	1.02	-10.38	2.74	1.22	-7.08	3.08	1.18	-5.13	3.02	0.92	-6.47	3.47	1.28	-2.56	3.45	1.16	-2.91							
Independent Travellers (N=371)	Meals	3.74	1.00	2.67	1.09	-12.86	2.74	1.14	-11.21	2.45	1.16	-9.40	3.00	1.27	-4.98	3.06	1.30	-4.55	2.90	1.15	-5.68	3.53	1.24	-2.03	3.48	1.09	-2.68							
	Shopping	3.77	0.94	2.87	1.12	-12.39	2.60	1.08	-13.39	2.61	1.21	-8.09	3.13	1.28	-4.52	3.07	1.31	-4.62	2.94	1.14	-5.75	3.53	1.26	-2.20	3.56	1.12	-2.15							
	Destination	4.05	0.91	3.34	1.16	-6.86	3.06	1.05	-8.68	2.89	1.06	-8.78	3.13	1.27	-6.20	3.95	0.97	-1.22	3.26	1.18	-6.97	3.99	0.97	-0.63	3.97	1.10	-0.95							
	Accommodation	3.53	1.27	3.34	1.31	-1.60	2.87	1.06	-5.20	1.83	1.02	-10.65	2.56	1.50	-4.54	3.77	1.29	2.09	2.74	1.27	-5.88	3.87	1.21	3.34	3.72	1.27	1.84							
	Local Transport	3.88	1.10	2.68	1.33	-8.74	2.37	1.07	-10.87	1.90	1.05	-12.14	2.55	1.43	-6.96	3.28	1.50	-4.13	3.21	1.33	-5.01	3.61	1.36	-2.32	3.81	1.20	-0.76							
	Places to Visit	3.94	1.05	2.68	1.33	-8.35	2.78	1.17	-8.12	2.47	1.18	-8.58	3.12	1.48	-4.48	3.37	1.37	-4.34	3.15	1.31	-6.18	3.84	1.29	-0.95	3.72	1.27	-2.12							
	Activities	3.69	0.94	2.64	1.24	-7.49	2.71	1.11	-6.76	2.35	1.10	-8.41	2.98	1.41	-3.92	3.30	1.45	-2.69	3.18	1.17	-4.15	3.67	1.38	-0.15	3.75	1.21	0.55							
	Meals	3.35	1.19	2.05	1.02	-11.11	2.27	1.19	-6.98	2.40	1.16	-5.51	3.16	1.51	-0.99	3.04	1.40	-2.15	2.66	1.21	-5.18	3.85	1.30	4.78	3.76	1.18	4.20							
	Shopping	3.40	1.20	2.09	1.04	-10.84	2.37	1.19	-6.64	2.30	1.11	-6.68	3.10	1.53	-1.58	3.00	1.38	-2.79	2.60	1.22	-6.03	3.67	1.33	2.44	3.85	1.20	4.53							

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful') was used.

Significant items at p<0.001 are in **bold**, significant items at p<0.01 are in *italic*, and a significant items at p<0.05 are underlined (One sample t-test). Shaded areas indicate significant items with a higher mean score and with a lower mean score than 'travel guidebook', respectively.



Appendix 4.7

Comparison of the Number of Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: During Travel

	Travel Guide-book		Tour Guide		Onsite Information Centre		Internet		WoM from Local Residents		WoM from Other Tourists		Past Experience	
	N	N	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$	N	$\chi^2$
Comprehensive Package tour Participants (N=358)	Accommodation	118	209	60.00	46	54.79	27	87.10	40	63.07	32	78.53	68	29.28
	Local Transport	122	197	41.80	48	57.92	26	92.09	40	64.32	32	80.83	67	35.13
	Places to Visit	138	222	47.84	48	74.73	27	109.01	48	66.01	37	90.09	67	50.51
	Activities	111	178	39.96	40	56.32	25	84.01	48	41.33	33	67.38	62	30.72
	Meals	139	211	36.53	45	78.63	26	111.01	51	61.04	41	79.74	71	46.76
	Shopping	151	197	16.88	42	96.40	26	123.01	51	72.07	42	93.21	76	47.62
Flexible Package tour Participants (N=482)	Accommodation	190	212	2.72										
	Local Transport	251	217	5.73	82	84.18	35	143.73	57	116.94	51	129.55	95	64.50
	Places to Visit	268	223	10.14	101	115.63	31	212.22	83	135.38	64	170.42	118	92.19
	Activities	233	207	3.72	105	122.07	35	223.34	85	149.88	70	181.35	105	129.28
	Meals	278	202	28.13	113	76.96	34	191.24	88	106.34	68	142.31	106	93.94
	Shopping	288	199	40.12	107	125.11	33	237.20	105	120.75	70	187.94	126	102.71
					103	144.07	32	250.10	93	154.88	72	189.45	132	112.27
Independent Travelers (N=371)	Accommodation	180	53	111.02										
	Local Transport	203	51	135.72	100	53.80	63	94.10	117	25.46	87	61.78	129	15.72
	Places to Visit	222	56	151.25	140	28.47	60	123.71	141	23.55	86	86.81	142	20.34
	Activities	187	54	116.94	131	56.64	63	141.04	160	21.39	91	101.20	133	39.30
	Meals	194	48	136.53	114	38.98	61	104.17	139	14.72	85	69.87	114	33.45
	Shopping	191	50	126.45	90	80.37	52	129.10	171	2.93	96	58.08	142	15.48
					86	78.95	50	129.80	152	8.97	87	68.01	142	13.96

Significant items at p<0.001 are in **bold**, significant items at p<0.01 are in *italic*, and a significant item at p<0.05 is underlined (McNemar test). Shaded areas indicate significant items with a larger number of users and with a smaller number of users than 'travel guidebook', respectively.

Appendix 4.8

Difference in Perceived Usefulness Evaluated by Users between Travel Guidebooks and Other Information Sources within Different Types of Tourist: During Travel

	Travel Guidebook		Tour Guide			Onsite Information Centre			Internet			WoM from Local Residents			WoM from Other Tourists			Past Experience			
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	M	S.D.	t	
Comprehensive Package tour Participants (N=358)	Accommodation	3.29	1.04	3.64	1.00	5.00	3.15	0.97	-0.97	2.89	1.09	-1.92	3.13	1.28	-0.81	2.59	1.10	-3.57	3.15	1.08	-1.09
	Local Transport	3.44	1.10	3.67	0.99	3.25	3.35	1.06	-0.56	2.77	0.91	-3.77	3.53	1.41	0.38	2.78	1.13	-3.30	3.27	1.15	-1.22
	Places to Visit	3.75	0.83	3.91	0.90	2.64	3.13	0.96	-4.51	2.74	0.90	-5.81	3.42	1.32	-1.75	3.08	1.14	-3.57	3.03	1.11	-5.29
	Activities	3.47	0.95	3.68	0.94	2.99	3.28	0.96	-1.28	2.76	0.97	-3.66	3.44	1.27	-0.18	2.82	1.07	-3.49	3.11	1.06	-2.66
	Meals	3.38	1.00	3.60	0.92	3.42	3.24	1.00	-0.91	2.88	0.91	-2.78	3.51	1.41	0.66	3.12	1.10	-1.50	3.24	1.02	-1.16
	Shopping	3.58	0.96	3.55	1.04	-0.36	3.33	1.05	-1.52	3.00	1.06	-2.80	3.57	1.33	-0.06	3.14	1.05	-2.70	3.37	1.03	-1.79
Flexible Package tour Participants (N=482)	Accommodation	3.32	1.17	3.67	1.01	5.02	3.05	1.26	-1.96	3.06	1.33	-1.17	2.98	1.36	-1.88	2.78	1.29	-2.98	3.32	1.24	-0.03
	Local Transport	3.86	0.95	3.85	0.97	-0.18	3.44	1.14	-3.76	2.84	1.10	-5.18	3.59	1.26	-1.95	3.19	1.30	-4.15	3.53	1.07	-3.32
	Places to Visit	4.02	0.83	3.98	0.93	-0.61	3.51	1.16	-4.46	3.00	1.16	-5.19	3.72	1.25	-2.23	3.34	1.32	-4.30	3.31	1.21	-5.97
	Activities	3.77	0.92	3.83	0.92	0.95	3.61	1.16	-1.46	2.97	1.03	-4.53	3.78	1.16	0.11	3.37	1.20	-2.78	3.43	1.14	-3.04
	Meals	3.80	0.95	3.60	1.06	-2.62	3.33	1.12	-4.36	2.91	1.21	-4.24	4.07	1.07	2.56	3.37	1.24	-2.89	3.60	1.08	-2.12
	Shopping	3.84	0.93	3.47	1.08	-4.88	3.26	1.21	-4.84	2.97	1.18	-4.19	3.80	1.32	-0.32	3.34	1.33	-3.14	3.65	1.01	-2.14
Independent Travelers (N=371)	Accommodation	3.70	1.26	3.58	1.34	-0.63	3.40	1.36	-2.20	3.44	1.46	-1.39	4.03	1.22	2.97	3.77	1.29	0.51	3.90	1.14	1.99
	Local Transport	3.99	1.01	3.75	1.25	-1.40	3.85	1.19	-1.40	3.12	1.36	-5.00	4.35	0.97	4.37	3.85	1.12	-1.07	3.97	1.13	-0.19
	Places to Visit	4.04	0.97	3.93	1.25	-0.67	3.78	1.07	-2.80	3.27	1.31	-4.67	4.33	0.90	4.00	3.98	1.24	-0.48	3.96	1.08	-0.83
	Activities	3.82	1.04	3.74	1.14	-0.51	3.68	1.15	-1.26	3.57	1.41	-1.37	4.14	1.05	3.55	3.86	1.21	0.30	3.83	1.06	0.13
	Meals	3.60	1.14	3.40	1.28	-1.10	3.00	1.32	-4.33	3.12	1.31	-2.67	4.23	0.97	8.58	3.82	1.26	1.74	3.87	1.03	3.16
	Shopping	3.59	1.18	3.16	1.18	-2.56	3.08	1.29	-3.67	3.16	1.42	-2.14	4.11	1.05	6.05	3.64	1.29	0.39	3.85	1.05	2.88

A five-point scale for usefulness evaluation (from '1' = 'not at all' to '5' = 'very useful') was used. Significant items at p<0.001 are in **bold**, significant items at p<0.01 are in *italic*, and a significant items at p<0.05 are underlined (One sample t-test). Shaded areas indicate significant items with a higher mean score and with a **lower mean score** than 'travel guidebook', respectively.





