

THE PACKAGED TOURIST: A JAPANESE AND AMERICAN PERSPECTIVE

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Japan Travel Bureau recently reported that 48.7% of Japanese overseas travelers, in 2008, were part of a packaged tour, while 47.7% arranged their own travel. Interestingly, very little is actually known regarding demographic and consumption differences between Japanese packaged and independent tourists, especially regarding their shopping behaviors, or how Japanese -package tourists differ from another segment, such as packaged tourists from America. The objective of this article is to address this chasm by exploring demographic and consumption differences between, and among, Japanese and American packaged and non-packaged tourists who are vacationing in Honolulu, Hawaii. The sample includes 198 and 127 Japanese independent and packaged tourists, respectively, as well as 383 and 76 American independent and packaged tourists, respectively.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

A recent study completed by Japan Tourism Marketing Company (JTM, 2008) revealed that 48.7% of Japanese overseas travelers, in 2008, participated in packaged tours, while 47.7% of them traveled independently. This study suggests that the gap between packaged and independent tourists is closing. In fact, between 1986 and 1988, the number of Japanese tourists partaking in overseas tour packages declined from 80% to 60% (Yamamoto & Gil, 1999). Although interest in packaged tourism among Japanese tourists is waning, Yamamoto and Gil (1999) emphasized that packaged tourism will always be important to tourists who seek to save money and to those who have little experience

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traveling abroad (Wong & Kwong, 1999). Other researchers continue to emphasize that packaged tours are still popular among tourists who seek to engage in pre-arranged tours during their sojourns, including nature tours (Bowie & Chang, 2005; Roper, Jensen, & Jergervatn, 2005)

The Hawaii Tourism Authority (HTA) indicated that 74.5% of all Japanese visitors to Hawaii came on a package tour (2010). HTA also identified that of the 1,239,481 Japanese tourists that visited Hawaii in 2010 two thirds had previously visited the island state. Japanese tourists in Hawaii also spent approximately \$1.9 billion (USD) during their 5.87 day average stay, with 87.3% staying in hotels (HTA, 2010). JTM reported that package tours remained extremely popular with women. For example, in 2008, 66.3% of elderly women and married housewives, 61.3% of middle-aged women, 64.3% of employed married women, 62.2% of single women between the ages of 15-29, and 45.1% of single women between the ages of between the ages of 30-44 participated in package tours during their overseas travels (JTM, 2008; Hashimoto, 2000). This statistic is quite interesting and worthy of exploration because Japanese tourists are the best-known shoppers of all traveling nationalities (Timothy, 2005). Given that shopping remains a popular option among Japanese tourists abroad, especially a desire for luxury brands and duty-free shopping (Rosenbaum 2007; Rosenbaum & Spears 2005; 2006a; 2006b), understanding consumption activities among Japanese packaged tour group participants is worthy of exploration (Ahmed & Krohn 1992; Mak, 2004; Oh, Cheng, Lehto, & O'Leary, 2004; Reisinger & Turner, 2002). Fueled by the propensity of Japanese overseas travelers to engage in shopping during their overseas jaunts, the importance of Japanese tourism to shopping destinations such as Singapore, Hong Kong, Honolulu, Dubai, Guam, and Los Angeles cannot be overstated (Ambler, 1992; Timothy, 2005).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Packaged Tourists

Hardy (1990) explored that tourist can be differentiated on the basis of their cultural background and states that "tourist activity is socially differentiated" (p. 541). This study indicated that there is a cultural difference between the tourists belonging to different countries as well. For example, Japanese tourists see family togetherness as a major benefit of their tourism activity, on the other hand Americans and Canadians place more emphasis on relaxation and cultural experience during their travel

(Woodside & Jacobs, 1985). Tourist can be differentiated not only on the basis of their cultural background, but also in their choices for different tours/locations (Purcell & Nicholas, 2001) as well as their spending behavior and involvement in activities while traveling.

Yamamoto & Gill (1999) identified three different categorizes of packaged tourists; escorted tours, package tours, and partially package tours. Escorted tours can be further classified into fully escorted tours and partially escorted tours, according to the usage of tour guides. In a similar fashion, packaged tourists can also be categorized into two types, complete packages and partial packages, as per the amount of prearranged tourists services such as, bus ride, hotel stay, food etc. and fully independent travelers who travel without any help from travel agencies. Packaged tourists are different than independent travelers as they seek uniqueness during their travels (Shallan, 2005). Packaged tourists are price conscious and are more interested in low price package tours. Hence, it is clear that there is a difference in price perceptions between packaged and non-packaged tourists. Yamamoto & Gill (1999) also identified that Japanese females are indicative of those who chose package tours. Furthermore, it was identified that most Japanese packaged tourists are less confident in using English (reading, writing and speaking) and representative of lower income groups, whereas, higher income Japanese tourists are indicative of non-packaged independent travelers. There are several studies focused on European packaged tourists (Pearce, 1987; Quiroga, 1990). A study conducted on New Zealand packaged tourists examined the various reasons behind the selection of tour packages by travelers (Tucker, 2005). The author identified numerous motivational factors that encouraged tourists to opt for tour packages (e.g., see and acquire knowledge of iconic places they are visiting in a short period of time, social interaction, etc.). Similarly, Canadian tourists opted for packaged tours based upon products sold by the tour operator and the travel images they created (Reimer, 1990). However, the literature is extant of research related to differences in shopping behavior of packaged and non-packaged tourists.

Shopping Behavior of Packaged Tourists

The significant increase in outbound travel from Asian countries in recent years has attracted the attention of tourism marketers from all over the world (Wang, Hsieh, & Huan, 2000; Wang, Hsieh, Chou, & Lin, 2007). The growth in Asia's outbound market has provided significant opportunities for marketers as they market tour packages and destinations.

Several researchers have identified that as restrictions on overseas travel were lifted in Asian countries outbound travel, especially among the Japanese drastically increased (Yamamoto & Gill, 1999; Imanishi, 2007). Additionally, Japanese tourists and their shopping behavior has been the main theme for many studies in recent years, identifying the Japanese consumer as one of largest consumer of luxury goods (Park, Reisinger, & Noh, 2010; Keown, 1989; Kim & Agrusa, 2008; Rosenbaum, 2007; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005, 2006a, 2006b; Schaefer, 2004).

Wang et al., (2007) identified six factors when evaluating service quality of group package tours that included “hotel,” “transportation,” “shopping arrangement,” “optional tour,” “tour leader,” and “local guide.” The authors suggested that tourism marketers must increase the weight given to shopping when designing and evaluating service quality of group package tours (Wang et al., 2007). Similarly, Hsieh and Chang (2006) identified that when designing a package tour, shopping must be considered as an important part of a tourists’ activity because “shopping is an inseparable part of tourism” (p. 139). The authors further suggested that diversity, on-site business activity and friendly atmosphere are the main factors which attract tourists to indulge in shopping. Another study on Chinese tourists in Hong Kong identified that packaged Chinese tourists spent more money on shopping and sightseeing during their visit than other activity (Law, To, & Goh, 2008). Dimanche (2003) identified that tourism shopping is mainly related to souvenirs purchases or things that are not easily available or are very expensive in their home countries. However, Japanese tourists’ tend to be more interested in luxury goods during their travels (Rosenbaum, 2007; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005; 2006a).

Shopping Behavior of American Tourists

Goss (1993) stated that “shopping is the second most important leisure activity in North America” (p.18). Gerlach and Janke (2001) stated that “tourists like to shop,” especially when tourism is taken into account (p. 13). Previous research has suggested that shopping is the top activity among domestic and international tourists (LeHew & Wesley, 2007; Timothy & Butler, 1995; Wang et al., 2007). Similarly, other researchers identified that shopping is the most popular way of spending time in the US during their travels (Josiam, Kinley, & Kim, 2005). The authors also indicated that there is an abundance of malls throughout the US however, American tourists when travelling domestically like to shop at comparable malls (malls with similar layout and stores). For example,

Minneapolis's Mall of America is a major tourist shopping destination which has 40 million visitors annually (Baedeker, 2009; Geralch & Janke, 2001). Josiam et al., (2005) concluded that shopping is an inseparable part of tourism, despite the fact that malls in the US are more or less similar in every city.

Shopping is a favorite leisure activity for many domestic or international American tourists (Josiam et al., 2005), but recent economic downturn has caused a drastic decline in shopping expenditures of Americans. According to a report by International Council of Shopping Centers (ICSC), about 39% of the participants (Americans) reported that the number of visits to a shopping mall has declined in the past 6 months (ICSC, 2009). The decline in shopping expenditures could also be the result of a drop in tourism and tourism shopping, specifically by domestic shoppers. Additionally, Americans travel for a variety of reasons (USTA, 2010), for example, business and/or leisure, at the same time tourist demographics vary widely. This affects their shopping behavior and expenditure in various ways. For instance, Josiam et al. (2005) explained that some tourists are pushed to shop only because they forget to bring basic necessities when travelling. The authors categorized these types of tourists as functional shoppers and are indicative of shoppers who do not have enough time to shop for themselves or their family and end up buying the basic necessities when travelling.

Another study indicated that money spent by leisure and business travelers in America helps thriving local economy in terms of their expenditure on nearby hotels, eating at local restaurants, shopping or visiting a local attractions, etc. (Chandler & Keefe, 2010). These expenditures by domestic and international travelers are rising very rapidly. For instance in 2009, travel spending by US and international visitors resulted in \$111.5 billion in tax revenue for the government (federal, state, and local), of which leisure travel contributed \$77.3 billion. Chandler and Keefe (2010) also indicated that the tourism industry is worth \$704 billion and generates tax revenue and jobs across the country. Therefore, from a monetary as well as tourism perspective it is very important to identify and target tourists for marketing purposes.

Shopping Behavior of Japanese Tourists

The shopping behavior of Japanese tourists is significantly different than that of American, European, or even other Asians tourists (Mak, Tsang, & Cheung, 1999; Rosenbaum, 2007; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005; 2006a; 2006b). Japanese tourists are one of the most sought after groups

in Hawaii mainly due to their high spending capacity (Kim & Agrusa, 2008; Rosenbaum, 2007; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005; 2006a; 2006b). In 2010, the average Japanese tourist visiting Hawaii spent \$261 per day out of which \$92 was spent on shopping (HTA, 2010). Daily spending among the Japanese in Hawaii was only second to the Chinese visitor who spent \$350 per day with \$101 being spent on shopping. The year 2010 marks the first time the Japanese market visiting Hawaii was surpassed by another international market, the Chinese in daily spending and shopping expenditure. This is important to note as Hawaii is one of top international destinations for the Japanese. However, between 2000 and 2010, Japanese tourists to Hawaii have decreased on average 3.4 percent (JTM, 2011). Given this trend coupled with recent natural and nuclear disasters in Japan it is expected that outbound travelers, daily spending, and shopping expenditures within this market to decline. However, this contention has yet to be researched in depth.

Previous research indicated that planned expenditures of Japanese tourists in Hawaii were US\$1,416 as opposed to US\$644 spent by North American visitors (Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005; Schaefer, 2004). In Hawaii, when compared to American tourists Japanese visitors spend twice the amount of money on entertainment and shopping (Kim & Agrusa, 2008). Japanese tourists spent 30% of their travel budget on themselves, 25% on families, 20% on friends, 15% on work colleagues, and 10% on others (Keown, 1989). The most popular shopping areas for Japanese tourists in Hawaii are duty-free stores, convenience stores, and designer boutiques (Natarajan, 2003; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005; 2006a; 2006b). The shopping behavior of Japanese travelers is observed to vary with demographics. Japanese women mainly purchase luxury fashion items such as bags, leather goods, shoes, and clothes (Rosenbaum 2007; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005; 2006a, 2006b). Furthermore it is observed that most Japanese women buy luxury brands for themselves and other less expensive brands or local souvenirs such as gifts (*omiyage*) for others (Park & Park, 2000; Rosenbaum 2007; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005; 2006a; 2006b).

Japanese outbound tourists are often given monetary gifts known as *senbetsu* by family, friends, and co-workers prior to an international trip (Ikkai, 1988; Park & Park, 2000). Traditionally, these tourists in turn are obligated to bring back gifts which typically cost half of what was received (*sebetsu*). This customary tradition of bringing back gifts for friends, family, and co-workers in the Japanese culture is known as *omiyage* (Ikkai, 1988; Park & Park, 2000; Pigliasco, 2005; Rosenbaum 2007; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005; 2006b). Japanese outbound tourists

are also expected to bring back local souvenirs from their travel destination, known as *kinen* to make their travel legitimate (Park & Park, 2000; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005). Buying these gifts for friends, family, and colleagues may account for three-fourths of a Japanese traveler's budget (Keown, 1989).

Although Yamamoto and Gill (1999) presented one of the first empirical articles that highlighted consumption differences between Japanese packaged and non-packaged overseas tourists, they did not explore differences regarding their shopping behaviors. This knowledge can be useful to marketing/tourism planners in major markets that depend upon Japanese tourists for retail sales and to academics who explore tourism shopping behavior, which still remains an under-researched topic in the literature (Hobson, Timothy, & Kim, 2004). The literature is extant of research related to differences in shopping behavior of packaged and non-packaged tourists, especially among Japanese and American packaged and non-packaged tourists.

OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study were to uncover demographic and consumption differences between Japanese packaged and independent tourists in Hawaii. Given that Hawaii remains a top destination among Japanese travelers, including female office-ladies who have a propensity to shop overseas (Pigliasco, 2005; Rosenbaum, 2007; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005; 2006b), the choice of this sample site for these objectives is ideal. More specifically, we compared and contrasted the differences between Japanese and American packaged and independent tourists who are vacationing in Honolulu, Hawaii. The plan for this study began by firstly, discussing the demographic differences among the groups and then we discuss consumption differences based upon three logistic regression analyses. Secondly, conclude with a discussion of managerial and theoretical implications.

METHOD

Research Instrument

The goal of the questionnaire were to uncover product and service consumption differences among tourists based upon their country-of-origin and their tourist status (i.e., packaged or independent). Therefore, the questionnaire asked respondents whether they planned to engage in

services, including recreational, cultural, and shopping activities during their stay, by indicating “yes” or “no.” To ensure the content validity of the questionnaire, items were obtained from two reliable sources in tourism and retailing; these are the 2006 Hawaii Visitor Satisfaction and Activity Survey (State of Hawaii, 2006), and Carol Pregill, Executive Director, Retail Merchants of Hawaii. Each response was binary coded (1 = yes, 0 = no). In addition to product and to service consumption, other questions were probed including gender, age, education, employment status, planned expenditures (dollar amount) on products and services, length of stay, and the purpose of the trip.

The questionnaires were available to the respondents in English and Japanese. The double translation (back translation) method was utilized in designing the questionnaire. This process has been described as one of the most adequate translation processes, even though issues of literal translation and missing information may arise. The procedure for this method follows; first, an English version of the questionnaire was created. Second, the English version was translated into versions in each of the aforementioned languages by two independent bilingual individuals for each language and were then compared for any inconsistencies, mistranslations, meaning, cultural gaps and/or lost words (of which there were few). Third, two different independent bilingual individuals back translated the questionnaires to English. Lastly, the English version was translated again addressing those inconsistencies, mistranslations, meanings, cultural gaps and/or lost words identified in the second and third phases to ensure accurate interpretation (Marin & Marin, 1991; McGorry, 2000). It is also worth noting that questionnaire administrators included native speakers from Japan and thusly, were able to communicate with the respondents in Japanese.

Sample & Procedure

A pilot test was conducted on 44 visitors in Waikiki Beach (not included in the main sample) and minor adjustments were made to the questionnaire and layout. Researchers utilized a convenience sample of 1,056 domestic and international respondents, aged 18 years and older, which were vacationing in Honolulu, Hawaii. The researchers set up survey stations at various locations in Waikiki on the main thoroughfare in Waikiki and at Queens Beach. Tourists volunteered to participate in the study. Respondents received a small gift worth \$2.00 (e.g., macadamia nuts, Hawaiian keychain) for their participation. Nine

respondents were removed from the study due to failing to indicate their origin.

In an ideal situation, the questionnaire would have been administered to respondents at a point of departure in order to assess the products that tourists actually purchased and the activities that they actually did. However, due to heightened security concerns, authorities at Honolulu International Airport denied the researchers request for access. Although intentions may not reflect actual behaviors, the results uncover significant differences in purchase intentions, which correspond to their actual behaviors.

RESULTS

800 respondents indicated that they were either from American or Japan. Three hundred eighty three (48%) of the respondents were American independent tourists and 76 (9%) were American packaged tourists. Two hundred and nine (26%) of the respondents were Japanese packaged tourists, and 132 (17%) were Japanese independent tourists. Table 1 provides a demographic profile of the respondents.

Gender. A two-way contingency table analysis were conducted to determine to evaluate whether packaged and independent tourists differed in terms of gender. Gender and tourist status were found to be significantly related, Pearson $\chi^2(3, N = 784) = 17.82, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .15$. Overall, the data reveals that 65% of the Japanese packaged tourists in Hawaii are likely to be female, compared to 55% among American packaged tourists.

Age. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to evaluate the relationship between age (measured in years) and tourist status. The ANOVA was significant, $F(3, 762) = 23.47, p < .001$. Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. Because the design had unequal cell sizes and homogeneity of variance assumptions could not be assumed, post-hoc comparisons were conducted with the Games-Howell test (Stevens, 1999). This test is robust to unbalanced designs and does not assume equal variances among the groups. Overall, the results reveal that the mean ages between American independent ($M = 40$) and packaged ($M = 45$) and between Japanese independent ($M = 33$) and packaged ($M = 32$) do not differ. However, there are significant differences in age between American and Japanese respondents. Thus, Japanese respondents tend to be younger than American respondents, regardless of their tourist status.

Purpose of Trip. A two-way contingency table analysis were conducted to determine whether a relationship existed between the primary purpose of a trip and tourist status. In terms of respondents who plan to vacation, the results reveal a mild relationship, Pearson $\chi^2(3, N = 800) = 6.39, p < .10$. Cramer's $V = .09$. However, the relationship between respondents who are in Hawaii to vacation and their tourist status was stronger among American respondents, Pearson $\chi^2(1, N = 459) = 3.81, p = .05$, Cramer's $V = .09$. For example, 87% of American packaged respondents reported that they were in Hawaii primarily to vacation or to engage in leisure activities, compared to 77% of American independent respondents. In contrast, although 81% and 74% of Japanese packaged and independent respondents were in Hawaii to vacation, these proportions did not significantly differ.

In terms of honeymooning, the results illustrate significant proportional differences, Pearson $\chi^2(3, N = 800) = 22.25, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .17$. Two additional tests were probed this relationship in more depth. 12% of Japanese packaged respondents reported that they were in Hawaii to honeymoon, this percentage is significantly less than the 4.5% of Japanese independent who are in paradise to honeymoon (Pearson $\chi^2(1, N = 341) = 5.38, p = .02$, Cramer's $V = .13$. In contrast, none of the American packaged respondents were in Hawaii to honeymoon, while 3.9% of independent American respondents were in Hawaii to do so.

Education. A two-way contingency table analysis were conducted to determine to evaluate whether packaged and independent tourists differed in terms of education. Education and tourist status were found to be significantly related, Pearson $\chi^2(18, N = 774) = 92.85, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .35$. The data reveal that Japanese respondents are significantly less educated than the American respondents are. For example, 31% of Japanese packaged tourists reported that the highest education level completed was a high school degree, compared to 21.3% of American packaged tourists. In addition, whereas 13% of American packaged respondents have a master's degree, only 2% of Japanese packaged respondents attained a similar level of education. Two follow-up tests indicate the proportional differences do not significantly between American and Japanese packaged/independent tourists, respectively. Therefore, Japanese respondents are less educated than American respondents, regardless of their tourist status.

Planned Expenditures. An ANOVA were conducted to explore the relationship between planned expenditures on products and services, excluding lodging expenses, and tourist status. The ANOVA was

significant, $F(3, 741) = 6.56, p < .001$. Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means with the Games-Howell test. Among planned expenditures among all four groups, spending among Japanese packaged respondents was highest at \$1,666, with Japanese independent respondents next at \$1,007. In contrast, planned spending among American packaged respondents was the lowest at \$440 and below that of spending among American independent respondents at \$687. The results of the pairwise comparisons reveal that the mean differences between American and Japanese respondents significantly differ, while the mean differences among American and Japanese respondents are the same.

Length of Stay. Not only do Japanese packaged respondents spend the most, they are also on vacation the shortest time compared to the other respondents. The ANOVA results, $F(3, 769) = 19.51, p < .001$, reveal significant differences between length of stay among the four groups. The results of a post-hoc analysis, using the Games-Howell test, reveal that the length of stay among packaged Japanese respondents ($M = 6$) is significantly less than the planned stay among Japanese independent ($M = 9$), American packaged ($M = 8$), and American independent ($M = 12$) respondents.

Table 1
Demographic Profile

	USA Packaged	USA Independent	Japan Packaged	Japan Independent
Number of Respondents	383	76	209	132
<i>Percentage</i>	<i>48</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>26</i>	<i>17</i>
Gender				
Male	34	186	69	39
<i>Percentage</i>	<i>45</i>	<i>49</i>	<i>35</i>	<i>31</i>
Female	42	197	129	88
<i>Percentage</i>	<i>55</i>	<i>51</i>	<i>65</i>	<i>69</i>
Average Age (years)	45	40	32	33
Age (%)				
18-30	28	34	58	54
31-50	30	39	24	33
51-70	35	18	10	7
71+	7	9	8	6
Purpose of Trip (%)				
To Vacation/Leisure	87	77	81	74
To Honeymoon	0	4	12	5
To Get Married	0	1	5	5
Won an Incentive Trip	1	1	.5	1
To Attend Sport Event	1	1	2	0
To Attend a Convention	0	3	0	2
To Conduct Business	0	7	0	4
To Visit Family/Friends	3	17	1	8
To Attend a Wedding	0	4	3	5
To Attend a Meeting	0	1	.5	2
To Attend School	0	1	.5	7
For Military Purposes	0	.5	0	1
Highest Level of Education:				
High School	21	10	31	29
Some College	23	26	23	21
Associate Degree	9	10	15	11
Bachelor's Degree	27	28	27	33
Some Graduate School	5	4	2	2
Graduate School	15	22	2	4
Additional Trip Details:				
First Time Visitor (%)	57	42**	53	29***
Number of Trips taken to HI	2	5***	2	6***
Planned Expenditures on Products (\$)	440	687*	1,666	1,007*
Length of Stay in Hawaii (days)	8	11**	6	9***

Planned Consumption

Given that each statement regarding the likelihood to engage in services was binary coded, it is possible to interpret the means among, and between, the four groups, as shown in Table 2. Overall, the findings are interesting to marketing planners, and to academics, in the sense that they illustrate key differences between American and Japanese respondents.

Table 2 Analysis of Planned Activities During Hawaii Vacation

Planned to Engage in the following (0 = No, 1 = Yes)	U.S. Packaged	U.S. Independent	Japan Packaged	Japan Independent
<i>Services: Tours</i>				
Helicopter or Airline Tour	.17	.17	.02	.01
Boat/Submarine Tour	.51	.41*	.21	.21
Tour Bus Excursion	.66	.25***	.31	.15***
Private Limousine/Van Tour	.11	.10	.14	.16
Own (self-guided) Tour	.54	.75***	.42	.63***
<i>Services: Water Activities</i>				
Swim/Sunbath at Beach	.86	.89	.75	.81
Surfing/Body Boarding	.28	.43**	.17	.24*
Scuba	.41	.50	.19	.21
Diving/Snorkeling				
Jet ski/Parasail/Windsurf	.12	.18	.11	.06
<i>Services: Land Activities</i>				
Golf	.08	.19**	.04	.08*
Tennis	.00	.09**	.02	.08**
Running/Jogging/Fitness Walking	.33	.44*	.07	.14**
Health Spa/Gym	.17	.23	.08	.11
Backpacking/Hiking/Camping	.22	.33*	.04	.08
Sport Event or	.05	.08	.02	.02

Tournament

Services:

Entertainment

Lunch/Dinner Cruise	.62	.54	.37	.24**
Lounge Act or Stage Show	.45	.36	.16	.16
Nightclub/Dancing/Karaoke	.26	.44***	.08	.18***
Fine Dining	.55	.61	.05	.14***
Movies/Plays/Concerts	.17	.30**	.03	.13***

Services: Shopping

Department Stores	.43	.54*	.63	.68
Designer Boutiques	.34	.36	.65	.50***
Hotel Stores	.47	.49	.40	.28**
Mall Stores	.61	.64	.73	.76
Swap Meets or Flea Markets	.46	.47	.11	.24***
Discount/Outlet Stores	.24	.24	.47	.48
Grocery Stores	.39	.47	.50	.69***
Convenience Stores	.62	.67	.63	.75**
Duty Free Stores	.25	.24	.78	.72

Services: Cultural

Cultural/Historic/Sacred Site	.54	.59	.29	.24
Museum/Art Gallery	.30	.37	.14	.21*
Polynesian Show/Luau	.71	.58**	.18	.13
Art/Craft Fair	.12	.21*	.03	.03
Festival	.20	.19	.03	.11**
Parade	.17	.19	.02	.14***

Note. *** $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$.

In order to probe specific consumption differences between packaged and independent tourists, three logistic regression analyses were conducted. The first analysis focused on planned consumption differences between American packaged and independent respondents. The second analysis focused on consumption differences between Japanese packaged and independent respondents. The third analyses focused on consumption differences between American and Japanese packaged respondents.

American Packaged vs. Independent. Logistic regression were employed to predict the probability that a respondent was either part of a packaged tour or an independent traveler from America. The predictor variables were the respondents expressed likelihood to engage in a variety of services and activities, as shown in Table 2, during their stay. The model was able to successfully classify 85% of the respondents, and the Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicated that the null hypothesis regarding overall model fit could not be rejected, $\chi^2(8) = 4.78, p = .78$.

Table 3 Logistic Regression Coefficients

Predictor	β	Wald χ^2	<i>p</i>	Odds Ratio
<i>America: Independent (0) vs. Packaged (1)</i>				
Tour bus excursions	1.84	29.13	.000	6.28
Shop at department stores	-.75	.37	.04	.47
<i>Japan: Independent (0) vs. Packaged (1)</i>				
Jet ski/Parasail/Windsurf	1.50	5.14	.02	4.47
Designer Boutiques	.98	7.82	.01	2.66
Hotel Stores	.72	4.78	.03	2.05
Swap Meet/Flea Markets	-.91	4.17	.04	.40
Parade	-	6.72	.01	.13
<i>Japanese Packaged (0) vs. American Packaged (1)</i>				
Fine Dining	2.78	20.07	.000	16.17
Swap Meet/Flea Markets	2.16	13.66	.000	8.64
Polynesian Show/Luau	1.99	14.81	.000	7.28
Own (self-guided) tour	1.94	9.50	.00	6.97
Tour Bus Excursion	1.57	9.77	.00	4.79
Discount/Outlet Stores	-	5.21	.02	.27

Duty-Free Stores	-	31.35	.00	.02
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Table 3 shows the logistic regression coefficient, Wald test, and odds ratio for each of the significant predictors. Employing a .05 criterion of statistical significance, only two of predictors had significant effects. The odds ratio illustrates that American packaged respondents are 6 times more likely than independent respondents to take a tour bus excursion and about half as likely, compared to independent travelers, to shop at department stores during their stay.

Japanese Packaged vs. Independent. Logistic regression were employed to predict the probability that a respondent was part of a packaged tour or an independent traveler from Japan. The predictor variables were the same as above. The model successfully classified 76% of the respondents, and the Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicated the model fit the data well, $\chi^2(8) = 4.13, p = .79$ Table 3 shows the logistic regression coefficient, Wald test, and odds ratio for each of the significant predictors. Employing a .05 criterion of statistical significance, only five predictors were significant. The odds ratio indicates that Japanese packaged respondents are over four times as likely as independent respondents to engage in jet ski, parasail, or windsurfing activities. Perhaps, these activities are part of the pre-planned package. In addition, Japanese packaged respondents are over two and half more times likely than independent respondents to plan to shop at designer boutiques, and two times more likely to shop at hotel stores, during their Hawaii vacation. Interestingly, Japanese packaged respondents are considerably less likely than independent respondents to travel to swap meets/flea markets or to see parades during their stay. Given their shorter time duration on the island and their planned shopping activities, packaged tourists probably lack the time to browse flea markets or to attend a parade.

American Packaged vs. Japanese Packaged. Logistic regression were employed to predict the probability that a respondent was part of a packaged tour and was from either Japan or America. The predictor variables were the same as above. The model successfully classified 91% of the respondents, and the Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicated the model fit the data well, $\chi^2(8) = 2.97, p = .94$ Table 3 illustrates the logistic regression coefficient, Wald test, and odds ratio for each of the significant predictors. Employing a .05 criterion of statistical significance, seven predictors were significant. Overall, American packaged respondents are 16 times more likely than Japanese packaged respondents to engage in fine dining during their stay. In addition, American packaged respondents are about nine times more likely than

Japanese respondents to attend swap meets/flea markets, seven more times more likely to attend a luau and to take a self-guided tour, and nearly five times as likely to take a tour bus excursion during their Hawaiian vacation. In contrast, Japanese packaged respondents are 54 times more likely than American packaged respondents to engage in duty-free shopping during their stay and about four times as likely to engage in discount/outlet store shopping during their stay. Thus, while American packaged tourists seem to engage in fine dining and to attending luau, Japanese tourists are content with duty-free shopping.

CONCLUSIONS

The goal of this study was to uncover demographic and consumption differences between Japanese packaged and independent travelers, as well as to compare and to contrast these differences to American packaged and independent travelers. Based upon questionnaire data obtained from 800 American and Japanese respondents vacationing in Honolulu, Hawaii, we were able to achieve this goal and to fill an apparent void in the marketing/tourism literature.

In terms of demographics, the data revealed that Japanese travelers in Hawaii are younger, less educated, and more likely to be female, compared to American travelers, regardless of their status as either a packaged or an independent tourist. Perhaps, Hawaii represents one of the first international destinations for younger-aged Japanese travelers. The results also showed that 12% of Japanese packaged respondents were in Hawaii to honeymoon, compared to less than 4.5% for Japanese independent respondents. Marketing planners, especially those in the bridal and related industries, should take note of this finding. Plentiful opportunities may exist for bridal-themed packages that target not only the bride and groom, but also, for friends and family members.

Marketing planners should also note that Japanese packaged tourists spend about \$600 more on products and services, other than lodging, compared to Japanese independent tourists during their stay. In contrast, American packaged tourists spend about \$250 less than American independent tourists. This finding indicated that Japanese packaged tourists may be an economic boon for international destinations, especially those that taut shopping opportunities. Indeed, free from having to allocate monies to lodging, tours, or to food during their stay, Japanese packaged tourists may relish the opportunity to spend heavily on designer and luxury merchandise.

The results from a series of logistic regression analyses supported the propensity among Japanese packaged tourists to engage in shopping. In fact, packaged tourists are over two and half more times likely than independent tourists to plan to shop at designer boutiques and two times more likely to shop at hotel stores. It is worth noting that hotel stores in Hawaii that cater to Japanese tourists tend to be high-end boutiques. Once again, marketing planners, especially those in shopping destinations should use this knowledge to actively encourage Japanese packaged tour groups to visit their sites. Along these same lines, research opportunities exist for academics to probe the designer-oriented shopping habits among Japanese packaged tourists.

The results between American and Japanese packaged tourists were astounding. The data revealed that Japanese packaged tourists are 54 times more likely than American packaged tourists to engage in duty-free shopping and 4 times more likely to shop at a discount/outlet store during their stay. In contrast, American packaged tourists are 16 times more likely than Japanese packaged tourists to engage in fine dining, seven times more likely to attend a luau, and five times more likely to take a bus tour. Whereas American packaged tourists plan to engage in leisure activities during their stay and to participate in cultural related activities and tours during their stay in Hawaii, the Japanese packaged tourist is in paradise primarily to shop.

Not only are Japanese tourists seen shopping at luxury boutiques in Honolulu, they can also be seen shopping at the new Wal-Mart in Honolulu, which is in walking distance from the exclusive Ala Moana Shopping Center. Interestingly, the Japanese tourists typically purchase multiple boxes of Hawaiian chocolates and macadamia nuts; most likely for omiyage upon their return to Japan. In sum, Japanese packaged tourists seem to take pleasure in shopping at both designer boutiques and discount mass-merchandisers. Again, future researchers are urged to explore tourism shopping behaviors among Japanese packaged tourists in more depth.

Limitations to this study do exist. Firstly, all of the questionnaires were administered in Waikiki. On one hand, the Waikiki area is a prime tourist destination for a wide variety of tourists; however, it is extremely popular among the Japanese as a shopping destination. Therefore, the findings of this study may only generalize to shopping destinations in Waikiki and potentially to other destinations with major concentrated shopping areas that also attract Japanese tourist shoppers. Additionally, although the researchers employed measures to correct their unbalanced research design, it would have been optimal to have an equal number of

respondents. Lastly, in an optimal situation, the researchers would have conducted the survey at the respondents' departure; however, access to Honolulu's airport was denied due to security issues.

Despite its limitations, this study represents an initial attempt to illustrate demographic and consumption differences between and among Japanese and American packaged and independent tourists. Hence, academics and practitioners alike can use the findings in this study as a foundation for future research endeavors. Additionally, both practitioners and marketing planners can use the findings to develop program aimed at targeting Japanese packaged tourists.

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