Schwartz Values Clusters and Tourists’ Activities

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Abstract

Values have been related to tourist activities, producing contrasting results in different studies. This study helps to clarify the relationship between value patterns or segments and tourist activities using two different approaches to measuring Schwartz’s (1992) values: the traditional rating scales and best-worst scaling approaches. The two measures suggested very similar four-cluster solutions that reflected Schwartz’s higher order value dimensions. Further, the differences in the segments’ tourist related activities were sensible, suggesting people’s holiday activities were influenced by their values and that tourism operators may benefit from taking values into account when considering target segments and appropriate marketing strategy and tactics.

Introduction

Values have been defined as “enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state” (Rokeach, 1973, pp. 5). Values determine what is important and impact behaviour (Kahle, 1983; Rokeach, 1973). Consequently, it is not surprising that many researchers have suggested values influence people’s consumption decisions (e.g., Carman, 1978; Vinson, Scott, and Lamont, 1977; Prakash and Munson, 1985; McCarty and Shrum, 1993; Donthu and Cherian, 1994). It has also been suggested that people’s values system, rather than individual values, impact on attitudes and behaviour (Kamakura and Novak, 1992; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987). The present study was undertaken to see if this was the case, at least in a tourism activities context.

Values have been researched in a variety of tourism related contexts. They influence general leisure activities (Beatty, Kahle, Homer, and Misra, 1985; Boote, 1981; Jackson, 1986; Kamakura and Novak, 1992; Crick-Furman and Prentice, 2000), activities undertaken while on holiday (Madrigal and Kahle, 1994), and holiday destination choices (Dalen, 1989; Klenosky, Gengler, and Mulvey, 1993; Muller, 1991; Pitts and Woodside, 1986). Kahle’s (1983) List of Values (LOV) has been found to significantly influence people’s choice of leisure and vacation activities (e.g., Beatty et al., 1985; Madrigal and Kahle, 1994). In some cases results have been consistent. For instance, Madrigal and Kahle (1994) and Beatty et al. (1985) found people who place a high value on hedonism were more likely to participate in sport and outdoor activities. Both studies also found people who place a high value on being well respected were less likely to participate in outdoor activities.

In contrast, other values were linked to opposing patterns in the studies. For instance, people who placed a high value on self-fulfilment were more likely to participate in outdoor activities in Madrigal and Kahle’s (1994) study and less likely in Beatty et al.’s (1985) study. Similarly, those who placed a high value on security were more likely to participate in outdoor activities.
in Beatty et al.'s (1985) study, but less likely to do so in Madrigal and Kahle’s (1994) study. Although there are many possible explanations for these differences, such as variation in samples, activity lists, and analysis methods, it is possible that patterns of values, rather than individual values would better predict tourist’s activities. In the present study, values segments were found and differences in the activities the groups planned holidays around were examined. In order to examine the consistency in relationships between values and activities, two different methods of measuring values were compared across the same set of activities.

**Values Measurement**

While Kahle’s (1983) LOV has been most often used in this context, Kahle does not suggest a structure of relationships between values. In contrast, Schwartz (1992) hypothesised a structure of relations between values that may uncover interrelationships between values that are likely to influence tourism behaviour. Schwartz’s set of 10 individual level value types follow a quasi-circular structure, in which adjacent values are likely to be congruent and opposite values are likely to be in conflict. As such, people are likely to place similar importance on adjacent values and different importance on opposing values. The circular structure led to the suggestion that there are two higher order value dimensions (self-enhancement to self-transcendence and openness to change to conservation). The self-enhancement values of power and achievement are contrasted to self-transcendence values of benevolence and universalism, while the conservation values of tradition, conformity, and security are contrasted to the openness to change values of self-direction and stimulation.

In order to assess the usefulness of Schwartz (1992) values structure, Schwartz values were measured in this study using two methods: the traditional Schwartz Values Survey (SVS) and Lee, Soutar and Louviere’s (2008) SVBWS survey. The SVBWS method was designed to overcome some of the problems with the SVS, including the ordinal nature of the scale, high intercorrelations between values that require ipsatization (limiting the type of analysis that can be conducted), potential difficulties in translation of anchor points when used in cross-cultural scales, and the length of the survey. In contrast, the SVBWS produces a metric scale that does not require ipsatization, is easier to translate, and takes significantly less time to complete (Lee, Soutar, and Louviere, 2008).

**The Sample**

The data were collected as part of a larger study into the travel behaviour of Western Australians. The full questionnaire asked about travel destinations, benefits, attractions, activities, personal values and some demographic questions. The study was conducted through a large online consumer research panel and the sample was chosen to be representative of Western Australia’s adult population in terms of age and gender. All 400 respondents answered the full survey, with the exception of the values questions. Due to survey length each respondent answered only one of the two values surveys, with 198 completing the SVWBS and the remaining 202 completing the SVS.
The Results Obtained

Howard and Harris’s (1966) clustering procedure was used to group the people for whom scores for the 10 value-types had been obtained by the SVS or the SVBWS. In both cases, two to six cluster solutions were retained. The point-biserial correlation coefficients, which Milligan and Mahajan (1980) suggested as a way to determine the appropriate number of clusters, ranged from 0.32 (for two-clusters in the SVBWS data set) to 0.46 (for four-clusters in the SVBWS data set). In both the SVS and SVBWS data, the highest point biserial correlation was found for a four-cluster solution, which, coincidentally, was the number of clusters Kamakura and Novak (1992) found in their analysis of LOV data. Consequently, subsequent analysis was undertaken using the four-cluster solutions. The clusters were all of similar size (ranging from 19% to 29% of the respondents in their relevant samples), suggesting they were likely to be meaningful and managerially useful.

Discriminant analysis was used to better understand the differences between the clusters. The scores were standardised, and the two data sets combined, resulting in eight groups (four from the SVS and four from the SVBWS data). Three of the estimated functions were significant. However, the I squared statistic (Peterson and Mahajan, 1976) suggested that 75% of the explained variation was obtained from the first two functions. Consequently, these two functions were used and the results are shown in Figure 1. Following the approach suggested by Soutar and McNeil (1995), the structural correlations between the discriminant functions and the relevant value dimensions were drawn as vectors to assist with the interpretation of the discriminant functions. The lengths of these vectors are an indication of their relative importance, while their direction shows the nature of the relationship between the values dimensions and the estimated discriminant functions. The group centroids were also placed onto the obtained space, as their positions provide insight into the differences between the clusters.

![Figure 1: Discriminant Map of the Values Groups](image)

The vectors suggest Schwartz’s (1992) higher order dimensions are evident as the two retained discriminant functions represent self-enhancement to self-transcendence and openness to change to conservation. While there are significant differences between the
clusters, it is clear that there are also similarities as one cluster from each data set is located in each quadrant. In fact, the groups reflect the relationship between values and horizontal/vertical individualism/collectivism suggested by Triandis (1996). Thus, the first groups, termed vertical individualists (VI) place more importance on self enhancement and openness to change, the second groups, termed vertical collectivists (VC) place more importance on self enhancement and conservation, the third groups, termed horizontal collectivists (HC) place more importance on self transcendence and conservation, and the fourth groups, termed horizontal individualists (HI), place more importance on self transcendence and openness to change. Thus, very similar results were achieved with the SVS and SVBWS data, although the map suggests the SVBWS clusters are somewhat “stronger”, as they are generally located further from the centre of the map.

Discriminant analysis was used to see whether differences in 35 tourism activities were better explained by one or other of the data sets. In this case, the two data sets were analysed separately. Only one significant function was found for the SVS data, while three significant functions were found for the SVBWS data. In addition, a slightly higher percentage of respondents were correctly classified in the SVBWS data (52%) than in the SVS ratings data (45%). Thus, it seems that the SVBWS data produces clusters that are marginally more useful, at least in a tourism context.

The relationship between the values and behaviours was further examined through estimating one-way analysis of variance for each of the 35 behaviours (space limitations prevent the full table being published, but it is available from the first author). The analysis reinforced the previous suggestion that the two approaches were about equally useful in finding clusters that differentiate people’s tourism activities, with 11 significant results for the SVBWS and 12 for the SVS.

There were a number of activities for which both approaches obtain significant similar results (i.e. bird or animal watching, nature & ecological activities, photography, visiting gardens/native flowers, and wildflowers & forests). This set of activities represents most of the more passive nature based activities. The SVS and SVBWS produced similar sensible results in that the VI group were less likely than most other groups to plan their holiday around any of these passive nature based activities. It makes sense that those who value hedonism and stimulation are less likely to plan holidays around passive activities. There were also some similarities across the methods in the value segments more likely to plan holidays around various activities in this set. For instance, the HI segment, who value universalism and self direction, were more likely to plan holidays around nature & ecological activities and wildflowers & forests. The HC segment, who value benevolence and conformity, were more likely to plan holidays around photography. The VC segment, who value security and power, were more likely to plan holidays around bird or animal watching, and visiting gardens/native flowers.

The SVBWS produced other sensible significant relationships. For instance, individualist segments (HI and VI; who commonly value stimulation and self direction) were more likely to plan holidays around going to clubs, bars, nightclubs or dancing, than the HC segment (who value conformity and benevolence). In addition, the VC segment (who value power and security) was more likely to visit the outback or rugged scenery, than the VI segment (who value hedonism and stimulation), and more likely to play golf, than the HI segment (who value universalism and self direction).
Similarly, the SVS also produced other sensible significant relationships. For instance, the VI segment (who value stimulation and hedonism) were more likely to watch or participate in sports and extreme sports, than the HC segment (who value conformity and benevolence). The HI segment (who value universalism and self-direction) were more likely to participate in cultural events and go walking, rambling, hiking and bushwalking, than the VC segment (who value power and security). Finally, the HC segment (who value benevolence and conformity) were more likely to plan holidays around religious, spiritual or worship activity or visiting friends and relatives, than the VI segment (who value stimulation and hedonism).

**Discussion**

The values cluster solution found in this paper coincides with Schwartz (1992) theoretical structure of values. The two dimensional solution obtained reflected Schwartz’s higher order value dimensions of self-enhancement to self-transcendence and openness to change to conservation. In addition, the clusters reflected value patterns that correspond with the four horizontal/vertical individualism/collectivism categories as suggested by Triandis (1996). These value patterns sensibly predicted the activities different groups of tourists are likely to plan their holidays around.

These results illustrate the usefulness of using value patterns to predict behaviour, rather than the usual value type–behaviour relationships. Schwartz has generally recommended that researchers use his 10 value types to predict behaviours, rather than the four higher order value dimensions. While the current paper affirms this, as the clusters fall between the dimensions rather than along them, it also suggests an alternative value pattern solution, similar to the categories proposed by Singelis, et al. (1995).

Since, this paper found that tourist activities were aligned with segments representing HI, VI, HC and VC, some guidance can be offered to destination marketers. First, it has been suggested that people who live in certain countries are more likely to show individual orientations that reflect one of these categories. Recently, Nelson and Shavitt (2002) found that people in Denmark were more HI oriented, while people in the USA were more VI oriented. Kurman and Sriram (2002) found that people in Israel were more HC oriented, while people in Singapore were more VC oriented. Using these relationships as a guide, destination marketers targeting Denmark might emphasize ecological and nature based activities. Those targeting the USA might nightlife and sporting activities. Those targeting Israel might emphasize visiting friends and relatives, photography, and passive nature activities. Those targeting Singapore might emphasize golfing and the outback.

Multiple Discriminant Analysis was used in this application because it provides a convenient way to create the maps of interest. It would be interesting to use Unconditional Logistic Regression in future research because of the ability to relax many of the assumptions that underlie applications of MDA (Ben-Akiva and Lerman 1985). It would also be interesting to examine whether values patterns are appropriate for other values measures, such as Kahle’s (1983) List of Values.
References


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