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Cultural Difference and Market Development

A Study of the Dutch and British Online Travel Market

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1. Introduction

Skift, a travel trend website, writes on June 10th 2016:

"Many say that online travel booking sites like Expedia and metasearch services such as Kayak have essentially killed the traditional travel agent over the last 20 years. In addition to online booking going mainstream, the disappearance of agent commissions for air ticket bookings and travel information becoming readily available online contributed to this downturn as well." (Skift, 2016)

The article goes on to describe how online travel agencies still left in the market no longer focus on just surviving. By analysing consumer habits and their technology habits, agencies will find survival easy as they will in fact be providing a better service to their consumers than the competition (Skift, 2016).

The article already highlights the importance nowadays to know what you customer wants in order to survive as a travel agent, and what the consumer wants nowadays is mostly convenience, online accessibility and little trouble booking their ideal holiday instantly. This was however not always the case. In the previous century the holidays purchased within the travel industry have moved from office contact to phone contact to online platforms. This created a movement of disintermediation in the market when the geographical reach of companies within the industry expanded. In the 21st century, technology has evolved thus far that this geographical span now envelopes multiple countries and even continents (Thakran and Verma, 2013). As companies could now deal with more different types of customers, a new way of competing ensued: customer personalization.

This growth in geographical terms however also means that a company potentially has to deal with not only different types of customers, but also customers of different nationalities and beliefs, potentially asking for a different approach in marketing, customer service, offerings, etc. In terms of individualist versus collectivist societies these differences may be clear. In terms of countries within, for example, Western Europe, these differences may be less discernible to companies. According to Hofstede (1991), they are however most definitely there. His research however is not directly applicable to a specific market.

Research question

Much has been written about the general development of the travel market and the shift from traditional travel agencies to OTAs (Online Travel Agencies). However, little academic research exists about cultural differences in travel markets between different countries. Even the above article talks about a general movement in the travel market. Literature is lacking in giving insight in market

differences that could stem from a difference in consumer (national) culture, such as differences in trust formation and resulting perceived risk and brand loyalty. There is much research on consumer behavior, on cultural differences with respect to the Netherlands and the UK and on the online travel market. These three research fields have not yet been combined. Besides academic research lacking in this specific field, there is a clear practical relevancy. Having more insight in cultural differences differences can help (international) online travel agents with marketing their products (especially through which channels, e.g. mobile platforms). If companies truly want to personalize their services towards consumers in different countries, they have to take cultural differences into respect. These differences do not need to be the same for every market and research into cultural difference between travel markets is therefore relevant. It could show that two countries, although close together, might produce different markets and give an answer to why this is the case.

This research therefore focuses on respective differences in consumer culture between the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. This leads to the research question:

'To what extent do cultural differences among consumers create a difference in online travel markets in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands?'

Purpose and scope

The purpose of this research is to gain further insight in whether cultural differences between nationalities can influence the development of travel markets. The scope of the research contains respondents of British and Dutch nationality between 20 and 35 years of age.

Structure

This research has been divided up into five chapters. After this introduction a literature review chapter will follow. The literature review consists of a description of the historical developments of the travel market and current trends, a cultural section and the development of the hypotheses based on this literature review. In chapter three the method used is outlined, as well as drawbacks of the method and what has been done to limit these. Chapter four gives the analysis of the quantitative research performed and presents the results. Chapter five, the final chapter, discusses the results, their implications and limitations, gives a final conclusion of the research and suggests lines of further research to explore.

2. Literature review

Online Travel Agencies and the traditional travel market

Introduction

The World Travel Market 2014 Industry Report, resulting from one of the main events of the travel industry set in London, states that with the employment level at its lowest level since the economic crisis of 2008, travel markets are picking up again. More people in the UK are spending their holiday domestically in 2014 compared to 2011. Business deal values are expected to go up in the travel market. Travelers are able to take more long haul holidays than before due to a less tight budget (WTM, 2014). Long haul flights are defined by Harrisson-Hill as being 'interregional travel of at least 6 hours in duration (Harrisson-Hill, 2000 p.84). With the economy in an upward trend again, it is expected that consumption in the travel market will increase and there is more room for new products and ways to sell these products. The basic transactions performed in the travel market remain unchanged, the consumer pays for a service (e.g. holiday to Europe). How that product is sold however, has changed tremendously in recent years (Thakran and Verma, 2013).

Traditional travel agencies versus online travel agencies

One can look at the travel market as consisting of traditional travel agencies, using traditional media and having a set office or a location they work from and that can be visited. Another option for booking a holiday are Online Travel Agencies (OTA's): companies that offer the services of booking travel via the internet (or a combination of both OTA's and traditional travel agencies). One could also think of peer-to-peer travel services, like AirBnB, but these lie outside the scope of this research. This research will focus on travel agencies, rather than peer-to-peer consumer networks. The producer in this case is thus a hotelier or airline for instance and the travel agency intended in this research (OTA) sources their services and sells them through to consumers, therefore acting as a broker or intermediary. This way OTAs are able to offer a broad range of products to the consumer (Spulber, 1996).

Intermediary theory

What makes consumers choose for an intermediary like a travel agent in the first place? As Spulber (1996) states, 'intermediaries seek out suppliers, find and encourage buyers, select buy and sell prices, define the terms of the transactions, manage the payments and record keeping for transactions and hold inventories to provide liquidity or availability of goods and services' (Spulber, 1996, p.135). They often transform products to add value. Intermediation theory is founded by the work of Coase (1937) and Williamson (1975). They state that organizations are mainly shaped by transaction costs, meaning that intermediaries exist because they can clear the market in a more efficient and cost effective way than when consumers and producers are left to clear the market

them selves. In the case of travel agents this broker function is more about providing coordination services, making the right match between what consumers want and producers offer and improving the welfare of both consumers and producers by reducing uncertainty. As Spulber (1996) writes, a decentralized market can exist next to this, in which consumer and producer negotiate directly, which is considered to be more risky. The intermediary role of a travel agent can thus use the risk-averseness of the consumer. As Kahneman and Tversky (1979) state in their prospect theory, consumers generally will be more likely to prefer the sure market alternative (intermediaries) to the risky option (decentralized markets, like AirBnB). However, as technology progressed and electronic market places emerged, market friction (the mismatch of buyers and sellers) declined and there became less need of intermediaries, leading to extinction of some of them (Bakos, 1998). The travel market developed differently however as described in the next paragraph.

The historical development of the travel market
The emergence of an online travel market in a country can be viewed as based on two perspectives. First there has to be a market for it, so consumers have to adapt to e-commerce (an online market) in the travel business. This can depend on cultural preferences. Second, there have to be companies willing to provide these online travel services. This can be done by traditional travel agencies starting to sell their packages online or a whole new company having their business online from the start. Again, this can also depend on the culture in a certain country (Wang, 2009).

Thakran and Verma (2013) discuss in their article the emergence of online travel, or online distribution channels, in travel. They divide the rise of the online travel businesses into four main era's since 1960: global distribution systems (GDS), the internet, SoLoMo and a hybrid period. In the GDS era (1960-1995) globalisation of the travel market was possible through the spread of the use of telephones and other media. Intermediaries (travel agents) were added into the link with consumers to increase the reach, because they could source and offer from a variety of producers. When the internet in 1995 showed to be a cost-effective marketing tool, small and local suppliers could compete with the big chains like the Hilton again. The focus moved from intermediation to disintermediation to third party intermediation when search engines became an option (like Expedia). However, this resulted again in a loss of control over producers (e.g. hotels) own pricing decisions and started to resemble a 'race to the bottom'. Smaller, less cost effective suppliers were competed out of the market. As an answer travel bundling and packaging emerged as a business model. Anderson (2009) demonstrated that part of the success (or demise) of internet travel intermediaries was influenced by their degree of transparency about booking costs. This was caused by the 'billboard effect': suppliers could now offer their rooms, flights, etc. on multiple platforms

which increased their revenues and also made it easier for consumers to compare costs and decide which supplier was being honest about their booking fees.

According to Thakran and Verma (2013) the financial recession of 2008, together with a surge in the amount of internet users, pushed the travel market up in sales. This sales push occurred mainly through deal and flash sale sites These websites did not only offer a steep discount from the actual sales price, but also required a high mark up fee of 50% on average taken out of the suppliers profit. Online travel agencies asked high commissions at the time as well, making suppliers profits decrease and direct-booking websites lose business to these online agencies.

Quite recently the SoLoMo era (2000-2010) made social media and Customer Engagement Technology (mobile applications that can be used in the booking process) the words of the decade (Thakran and Verma, 2013). Social media traffic showed unprecedented highs. Online reviews and social media started influencing traveler's buying decisions. Suppliers now needed to maintain a high online reputation and engage customers with new online content (e.g. displays about the travel destination) to keep them satisfied (McCarthy, Stock and Verma, 2010). The SoLoMo era thus resulted in maturing disintermediation, as consumers got 'empowered' and started informing their selves instead of relying on information given by OTAs and traditional travel agencies (Thakran and Verma, 2013).

The following so called hybrid era is still very recent. Thakran and Verma (2013, p.245) call 2013 "the year of three screens – computers, tablets and smartphones". Customers highly rely on the internet to search for supplier information on all three screens at the same time. Suppliers increasingly try to customize the customer experience (the experience they have during the booking process and during and post travel) and create a high quality experience. Thakran and Verma (2013) state that traditional travel agents, online travel agents and search engines however remain a big part of the amount of bookings made, despite suppliers efforts. Verma et al. (2007) note that the consumer's choice of supplier or intermediary still depends on their ability to adapt to new technologies. When related to individuals' demographics however this is becoming a less and less important distinction as the older generations start using and understanding current technology as well like smartphones, al be it with a lag. This adaptation effect is also described by Shapiro and Varian (1999), who state that quality improvements can only be incremental since acceptance of new technology is based on compatibility with the old technology. Nusair, Parsa and Cobanoglu (2011) do say that it is mainly generation Y (born between 1982 and 1994) dominating demographically all internet purchases, of which travels booked online. This generation uses the internet for 15% of their total spending and this figure is increasing in Western economies. This group will thus be the research focus.

The network economy

As disintermediation between 2000 and 2010 caused intermediaries to become less needed in the online marketplace, new types of electronic intermediaries emerged in the travel market. Key functions of these intermediaries (OTAs) are still matching buyers and sellers, but now integrating the components of consumer processes, providing trust relationships (consumer loyalty) and insuring the integrity of the online market are important drivers behind their existence (Bakos, 1998). What Thakran and Verma (2013) describe in their brief categorisation of the change eras in the travel market is more commonly known as the shift from the industrial economy to a network economy. This market transition and the accompanying self-reinforcing positive feedback contributes to the OTAs existence (Varian and Shapiro, 1999). These new types of travel agencies offer a range of different products, have different ways of competing and a different way of viewing the consumer compared to previous years and the previous industrial economy.

A network economy is similar to for example the railroad network: it exists of visible connections. A network economy however also consists of invisible connections, e.g. over the internet. The MIT Technology Review (2014) defines the network economy as being: "an emerging type of economic environment arising from the digitalization of fast-growing, multi-layered, highly interactive, real-time connections among people, devices and businesses". Shapiro and Varian (1999) describe how current information monopolies in the network economy are constantly shifting as each business tries to reduce their costs by having a more effective network. The value of the network depends on how many other suppliers, consumers or competitors are connected with it (use the travel company in this case). More is better, as it is better to use a website that has more customers and is backed by more suppliers. Success leads through a vicious circle to a reinforcement of success, as a website becomes more popular. This leads to a race to the top instead of a race to the bottom. The market will be dominated by one 'best' supplier: a temporary monopoly. This is a gradual process. When a company at the top becomes too big and has to carry all the costs, it gets harder to govern and competitors could find more profitable niches. The temporary monopoly is thus unstable (Shapiro and Varian, 1999).

Positive feedback in a network economy can exist because of economies of scale on the demand and the supply side. When positive feedback is present in a network, the growth of a company generally follows a logistic pattern. With the launch of the company the growth is flat, but as soon as positive feedback takes place (the company knows some success or sales) the growth pace will pick up quickly. As saturation occurs, when the company has reached it temporary monopoly, growth becomes flat again. Large companies often have economies of scale over smaller companies, which creates economies of scale on the supply side and will earn them positive feedback as products

become cheaper. This type of economies of scale however has a practical limit. In the network economy, economies of scale on the demand side also exist. A company is valued and its products are bought, because 'everyone' buys with them. If consumers expect it to become a popular website to book travel at, more will start to use it, meaning part of the company´s worth is actually based on consumers speculating (Shapiro and Varian, 1999). In short, the supply economies of scale combined with economies of scale on the demand side make that positive feedback is a big determinant of current market positions in network economies. Lower costs makes the product more attractive, so more people will buy it, making demand grow even more as popularity is expected to increase.

Competition in the online travel market

Because consumers and companies are so closely connected in the new economy, this creates opportunities to analyse consumers behaviour on a large scale with data gathered through these networks. This changes the way businesses compete as they have more insight in what consumers actually want. The concept of market competition was first described by Adam Smith in his 'Wealth of Nations' (1776) as allocating resources to their most valued uses. Smith (1776) referred to competition not so much as resulting in market equilibrium or to a large number of sellers involved. He saw competition as the process of suppliers selling their goods on the best terms to the highest bidders, ultimately driving prices down. The traditional (industrial) focus was on competing on efficiency and thus the lowest cost-price possible, relying heavily on the exploitation of information asymmetries (Bakos, 1996).

As described earlier however, economies of scale on the supply side have upper boundaries. Since positive feedback in these economies is of importance, and bigger networks can reinforce positive feedback, it would make sense to use alliances with other companies to create a bigger network of users and suppliers. This changes the way competition is viewed in the market. This change is also causing the current management models of having a traditional office-shop at several locations, set opening hours and no 24-hour feedback to fall behind in profitability. Online Travel Agents (OTAs) can more easily create alliances and thus gain market share against traditional agencies (Mayock, 2015). This has led to the emergence of new business models, like TravelBird that is operating in markets of twelve different countries, but has only one (non-visitable) office in Amsterdam.

In the network economy centralized decision making in companies and bureaucratic structures are becoming of less value (Malone and Laubacher, 1998). Intrinsic incentives for employees, but also for consumers, get more emphasis. Consumers have gone from being maximizers to satisfiers (Schwarz et al., 2002). Online commerce and thus the online travel industry as well is accelerated in growth by the technological revolutions Thakran and Verma (2013) described. Network economies place a

bigger emphasis on value that is created by the entire network and the amount of connectivity. Companies that can operate in different time-zones, even though they are based in only one of them, move towards a 24-hours economy. Economies of scale are not determined by the size of the company anymore on the supply side but also on the demand side but by the size of the network it has created globally and who is has liaised with (Kelly, 1998, Shapiro and Varian, 1999). Competitive advantage is no longer the sum of efficiencies but the sum of all connections (Satell, in Forbes, 2014).

As said, competition focus used to be on the lowest cost possible, making use of information asymmetries in the market, but now it has shifted to competing by adding value to the market by attracting a larger network. For OTA's this translates itself specifically into adding value for buyers and sellers both, as they play an intermediary role (Bakos, 1996). Because a travel company is in control of the travel product they sell, they influence the extra's that partners offer as well, like excursions and types of hotels. Strategic partners have to be found that offer what consumers want to buy. They need to be most convenient agent to buy the holiday from and some partners will thus be forced out of the market if they don't offer what the travel company wants. This creates a network externality. A travel company influences what travel partners (like ticket operators) have on offer. Generally this will be a positive externality, as when travel partners opt in the network becomes larger and thus better, which they profit from too. This will make the worth or value of a network grow exponentially according to Shapiro and Varian (1999). However, when different users have a variety of needs, a network market may still stay fragmented and there is not necessarily one dominating company.

Consumer Loyalty
Shifting away from the traditional travel market to an online market that fits into a network economy, competition focus thus must be on increasing the network. Online social networks now have much influence over travelers buying decisions (Thakran and Verma, 2013). This has created awareness that brand loyalty and positive word-of-mouth should be key competition goals, instead of only focusing on cost allocations (Klemperer, 1995). Earning customer loyalty increases the market share when they think a company is a more popular choice. This creates positive feedback on the demand side, which is an important determinant of a OTA's future profitability (following demand side economies of scale). However, consumers stay price sensitive, so there is a tradeoff decision for every company. They could invest in their current market share by undercutting prices and gaining new customers, or they could set higher prices and capitalize on their existing repeat purchasing customer base. The latter can potentially decrease market share with respect to other competitors, as supply side economies of scale stay an important determinant of positive feedback. Giving customers a sense of perceived switching costs makes sure that OTA's have some power over their

repeat purchasing customers. Consumers need to perceive a cost of switching brands in able to stay when the competition becomes cheaper (Klemperer, 1995). Integrating this into the network economy theory where consumers expect their supplier to be always reachable, this means that customer brand loyalty needs to be won by focusing on excelling customer experience and customer journey (Amadeus traveller report, 2015). From the OTA's perspective this means that they have to use a customer centric approach instead of a net revenue approach. One that is better than their competitor's. Payment transparency (e.g. being able to view directly what a trip is going to cost instead of later sudden add-ons) and seamless revenue management have become important in the travel industry as have options in case of cancellations and refunds. OTA's can make this more highly personalised, with continuous contact options, reducing payment frictions. This will increase their conversion (the rate of online views compared to the sales) (Schetzina and Rheem, 2009). This means OTAs are thus at an advantage compared to traditional travel agencies who are more rigid and stuck to office hours.

Nusair, Parsa and Cobanoglu (2011) describe that consumers nowadays realize the rewards and benefits of using a specific company (e.g. when it has a large network) and take into account any costs of switching and terminating the relationship. They will book again with a specific company just because booking elsewhere wouldn't benefit them (economically) or there are few alternatives. Since the online travel market is very competitive the costs of switching are greatly reduced and this results in a lot of consumers making their decisions based on economic benefits (as described, this often translates into the best deal for the best value). Perhaps the behaviour towards an online travel agent differs between cultures too, this has yet to be researched. It is however clear that more and more tourists use the internet to search for information and book their travels (Litvin, Goldsmith and Pan (2008).

Consumer loyalty and generation Y
As Nusair et al. (2011) find, it is very difficult to get commitment from the current economically dominant generation. Trust plays a major role in getting brand loyalty from this generation Y. Morgan and Hunt (1994) find that trust exists of confidence and reliability and evolves over time by exceeding consumer expectations and repeated satisfaction with their purchases. In the tourism industry this translates into satisfaction leading to word-of-mouth. This will lead to positive feedback reinforcing success by success in turn, according to Shapiro and Varian (1999). Cohen et al. state however, that the literature shows gaps on cross-cultural formation of trust (most studies are cross-sectional instead) and consequences of perceived risk and brand loyalty. Whitepaper (2015) states that self-service (e.g. checking in at the airport, your hotel room), making travelling cheaper, mobile booking opportunities, making booking easier and authentic experiences (not only the destination but the

whole pre-during-post booking and travel process) are the things that are going to tie the generation Y-ers to a specific brand. According to the report, all the change going on in the online travel market has two things in common: mobile technology and generation Y. In this case competitors that were digital from the start are tough competition for traditional travel agencies that have only recently started their online component. The former are much more adaptable and less rigid in their thinking (Whitepaper, 2015).

Utility, experience and consumer empowerment
Not only the travel agent's role in the economy has changed, also the way consumers are to be viewed this requires a departure from traditional microeconomic theory. Micro economics looks at individual's actions as if they were maximizing a utility function, depending on direct utility from consumption of goods and an income constraint (Walras, Menger, Jevons as discussed in Moscati, 2011). This traditional framework assumed that consumers only wanted to achieve the highest level of satisfaction, being maximizers, only dependent on the amount of goods consumed. This makes them only subject to the limitations of purchasing power (Jara-Diaz, 1994) However, considering the good 'travel' there is a time constraint present. Kockelman (1999) writes that the travel industry differs from the traditional consumer constraints because the opportunity cost of time and discrete choices play a more important role as constraints on the utility function. Jara-Diaz (1994) states that in the travel market consumers not only have to decide what they consume (e.g. a trip to Bali, versus a trip to the Maldives) but also decide about the allocation of their time and thus this poses a second constraint on the utility function as neither time nor money is inexhaustible. Evans (1972) was the first to consider the activities (e.g. leisure, work and travel) performed in the utility function and the amount of time as a constraint on this function. He also noted that activities might be even more costly than goods as activities often need goods to be performed. This makes the model consist of both an income and a time constraint. However, this is still in terms of seller's markets. The adapted travel utility function assumes that there is a range of products that consumers just choose from. The network economy has empowered consumer by offering a broader range of choices and online available information, which has changed the market into a consumer's market instead of a seller's market. This makes traditional theories about consumer utility, risk aversion and so on less relevant, as consumers become satisfiers instead of maximizers (Deloitte, 2015).

Market shares have become brand loyalty based as competition is not determined only by the lowest prices anymore but also, as previously stated, by value added in the vertical chain (in this instance, value added by the intermediary OTA). However, Deloitte (2015) found that customers still search for the cheapest option possible. They still use comparison websites, continuing the recession-like deal hunting behaviour even though real wages have gone up again. There is a difference with previous

cost-price based competition however. Consumers look for the *best* deal instead of simply the cheapest. They look for the best value for money. The network economy that has made consumers more connected with each other has made them more likely to be influenced by each other than by any content created by the OTA. Deloitte (2015) found that review sites are the most influential source when searching for a holiday. Next to this there is a trend of consumers becoming content creators rather than merely consuming it, thus both changes reinforce each other. As online advertising is becoming not only more expensive but also less effective, companies will have to rely more on inexpensive word of mouth and social advocacy, meaning companies have to use the internet and social media more to engage consumers other ways than marketing alone to get them to openly promote their product. To get positive reviews consumers need to have a positive pre, during and post trip experience, meaning that travel businesses need to focus on cheap prices, but all the while keep offering quality products and good customer service to create a total positive experience.

Limitations of the current network economy
Deloitte (2015) found that the emergence and existence of OTAs gives rise to new opportunities in terms of tracking behaviour of consumers. There are new opportunities to engage them at different stages of the buying process to make them to be more brand loyal and openly promote the brand. However, the current cross-device usage (the three screen era, as described by Thakran and Verma, 2013) by consumers is making it also challenging to draw any conclusions from their behaviour. They switch from device to device, polluting data. The UK consumer travel market is also still fragmented between the online and offline market, possibly due to different consumer needs that can fragment a network market (Shapiro and Varian, 1999).

Consumers use different devices like cell phones, tablet and laptops throughout their customer journey, for example still switching to their desktop or laptop to complete the booking process. This makes it more difficult for companies to track their customers throughout the entire process and to make tailored advertising to engage them. This can lead to wrong data collection: a high amount of bookings made through a laptop or desktop may signal to a company that their mobile platform doesn't need as much attention, while 75% of consumers use more than one device in the research and booking process. This behaviour also depends on whether a customer is of a younger or older generation. The younger generations have less working years and thus less years to accumulate savings than the older generations (Delsen and Smits, 2011). The older generations still use offline channels more than the young generations, resulting in different market levels. The network economy in the travel market might actually hamper these sales to 'richer' generations, because there is less online data available. This means that companies need to be very weary of how they

collect data in the first place and in the second place think about what this data actually means and how to engage and inspire consumers to more successfully sell their products.

The travel market in the UK and the Netherlands
Aside from the general travel market trends described, the Dutch and the British travel market do portray some differences. Euromonitor International (2015) states in their research that domestic trips in the Netherlands declined, leading to an increase in international holidays by the Dutch. Furthermore, in the Netherlands the online travel market is maturing, meaning that growth is slowing down, while online sales are still growing. Mobile sales are showing a very strong growth, resulting in the biggest OTAs (TUI Nederland BV and D-RT Groep BV, Vakantie Xperts and The Travel Shop) improving their applications for smartphones and tablets. The UK is seeing a similar growth in mobile sales in the travel market. The UK however, is experiencing a growth in domestic sales and international travel by British consumers, contrary to the Dutch market trend after economic recovery (Eurobarometer International, 2015). It is worth mentioning however, that the UK is geographically a larger country than the Netherlands and thus there are more destinations for domestic tourism. One can expect that this results in a higher domestic tourism on average than in the Netherlands.

The different reports highlight another difference of the UK travel market and the Dutch market: under 35-year olds particularly increasingly want convenience, online features and value from a travel agency, a trend that in the Netherlands already has taken place. The biggest market players in the UK, TUI and Thomas Cook, are only now adjusting their strategies to support online sales and it is worth noticing that they don't only do this by creating applications and websites, but also by opening concept stores where online features are coupled with personal service. This is not seen in the Netherlands, where the focus is nearly solely on online (mobile) sales (Eurobarometer international, UK report 2015, NL report 2015). This indicates that supply- and demand side positive feedback are triggered by different consumer needs as different services are offered.

Consumer culture
The emergence of an online travel market in a country can as said be viewed as based on the willingness of the consumers and the willingness of the producers to adapt to the new technologies (Wang and Cheung, 2009). The Deloitte (2015) report describes this in a slightly different way, namely as the OTAs being the result of a trend of consumer empowerment.

As Frias et al. (2012) describe, culture is a moderating factor in pre-visit tourist destination search and the ultimate decision made. They use the model of Hofstede (1991) for the definition of cultural differences. He state that cultural differences exist when countries score differently on several

variables: a low versus high power distance, masculine or feminine in culture, individualist or collectivist and the degree of nationwide uncertainty avoidance. Gursoy and Umbreit (2004) find that external search behavior by travelers, information that comes from word-of-mouth, media, store visits and trial, is also influenced by culture. Using the half yearly EUROBAROMETER 48 research they find that culture determines the forms of communication that are acceptable. Specifically, they find that the Brits use travel agencies, tv and radio more extensively as external information source, which is not true for the Netherlands. In the Netherlands (online) travel guides and free tourism info are often used. The use of travel media in both countries thus differs from each other in the sense that there are indicators that Brits are relying more on traditional media to research a trip and require a higher quality of their trips than the Dutch, who embrace new platforms and technologies quicker (Euromonitor, 2015). This difference however, can also come forth from differences in supply and demand of travel media. Some media may be dominant due to the positive feedback effect, leaving less room for other media (Shapiro and Varian, 1999). Both countries are Western countries with relatively the same degree of intellectual freedom. Cultural differences could create differences in information patterns here (Gursoy and Umbreit, 2004). However, these studies were performed in the early 2000's, before the surge of online travel agencies that happened in the latter half of the 2000's. These papers have not done any research yet into the online travel market with the new technological possibilities of the hybrid-era (Thakran and Verma, 2013). The network economy was underdeveloped compared to the current stand and it could be expected that positive feedback on the demand side plays a bigger role now. Consumers have more ways to create positive feedback by internet review platforms like TripAdvisor and can more easily do so with the current technology. On the supply side, prices have decreased because technological improvements have made new economies of scale and automating of advertising possible. The question is to what extent cultural differences among consumers has created a difference in the current online travel markets in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands.

Frias et al. (2012) state that the difference between national markets depends on the degree of uncertainty avoidance of the national culture. As long as travel agencies are perceived as a sound advice giving source of information, they will be used continuously as a leading channel of distribution. Due to the internet this information process is however no longer only a push process, where agencies can just 'push' deals and information on consumers, but has become more dynamic in terms of selecting, reflecting, experiencing and sharing by consumers themselves as they have become empowered by technology and abundance of choice. Again, this depends on the degree of technology adaptation among the different (age) groups of consumers. Money and Crotts (2003)

state that uncertainty avoiding cultures limit their risk by preferring physical contact at a travel agency, booking package deals and travel in groups for shorter periods of time and for fewer visits.

Research Focus

Population

Cohen, Prayag and Moital (2014) state that the travel market is rapidly changing, because so called 'generation Y', born between 1982 and 1994) is displacing the baby boomers and previous generation X in the labor forces. As they do so, they earn the money to buy holidays and have become the biggest source of visitors for tourism destinations. They tend to have similar common values, behaviours and attitudes. This makes generation Y somewhat homogeneous in their marketing needs. Nusair, Parsa and Cobanoglu (2011) state that generation Y is consumption oriented, relying on social groups (also online), seeking instant gratification, is used to choice abundance, has a relatively high income and travels frequently. However, older generations have had more productive labor years already and thus have had more chance to build up travel funds (Delsen and Smits, 2011). This makes them influential in the travel market. They tend to be more brand loyal and are thus often a source of steady income. They also make less use of the internet to book travel than the younger generations, making them less relevant for research purposes when focusing on Online Travel Agents. Nusair et. Al (2011) found that OTAs were facing challenges to get commitment from the younger generation Y and that the trade-off between risk and utility and trust were of importance in developing brand loyalty among them (Nusair et al., 2013). Whitepaper (2015) states that generation Y is driving the cultural change in markets. 44% of them use the internet and, increasingly, social media to research and plan their travel, contrary to an 18% average in older generations. This younger generation has more opportunity to generate widespread positive feedback (or negative feedback) and make companies more or less successful. This underlines the importance of the research focusing on generation Y. However, most research into generation Y is U.S. based and hinges on the assumption that globalization causes the generation Y concept to be applicable to at least the entire Anglophonic world, as the world is becoming more and more monocultural (Cohen et al., 2013). Further research into this with respect to the UK and Netherlands is necessary.

Hypotheses

Hofstede's (based on the 1991 model, retrieved results from 2015) model survey outcomes for the Netherlands and the UK are very much the same on the six factors as is shown in figure 1. However, cultural differences stem from that the Netherlands is a feminine society and the UK a masculine society. In the former social inclusion of everyone, a healthy work/life balance, compromise and open debate are important. In the UK the culture is success oriented and driven. The second difference is the degree of uncertainty avoidance: the Netherlands has a slight preference for uncertainty avoidance. There is a need for rules and norms, being busy, working hard and being punctual. Security is important in personal motivations. This might hamper innovation. The UK however scores low on uncertainty avoidance and there is a strong need for innovation. Another slight difference is that the Dutch seem to be more pragmatic than the Brits, scoring higher on long-term orientation: thrift and modern education are seen as the best way to prepare for the future. Cultural values can be changed in favor of this. The Brits are ambiguous on this aspect. The do not have a preference for either pragmatism or maintaining values and traditions. The masculinity versus femininity of UK versus Dutch society will be seen as the main difference between both cultures in the remainder of this research.
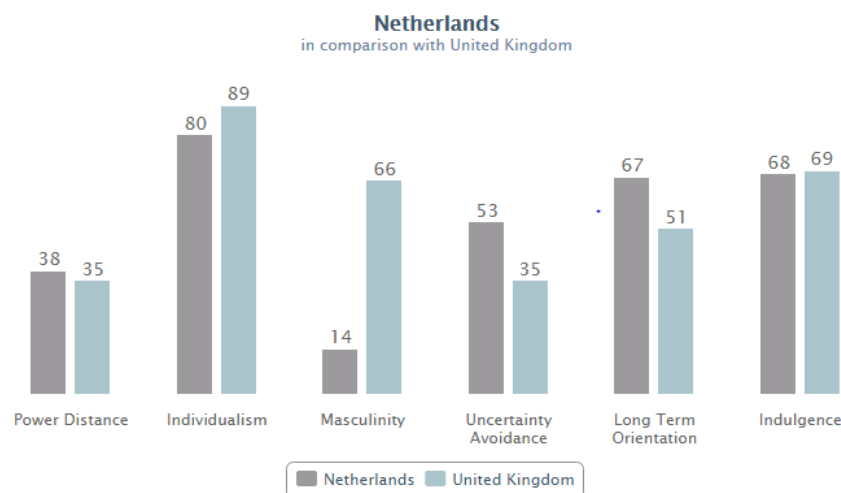
Figure 1: Hofstede's (2015) cultural dimensions for the Netherlands and the UK (retrieved from https://geert-hofstede.com/netherlands.html)

Hofstede's (1991) and the Hofstede Centre (2015) findings about masculinity in the UK versus femininity in the Netherlands are found as well by Verluyten (2009) (a score of 66 on masculinity in the UK contrary to only a score of 14 for masculinity for the Netherlands). Garfield (2011) finds that the Netherlands score high on being an individualistic society. When analysing words used in pamphlets about mental diseases, more feminine words are used than masculine wordings and more references were made to emotions linked to uncertainty. The same research for the UK performed concluded that the UK scores high on masculinity, low on uncertainty avoidance (similar to the

Netherlands) and high on being an individualistic society. Findings on the main difference, masculinity versus femininity in the Netherlands and the UK are thus similar to Hofstede's (1991) framework.

The hypotheses of this research are based on the cross-national differences found in Hofstede's (1991) research performed by the Hofstede Centre in 2015 and on differences in positive feedback generation (Shapiro and Varian, 1999). They are also based on differences in technology adaptations (the use of OTAs and mobile platforms) and differences in the need for trust indicators when purchasing holidays. These are based on the proceedings of the Customer Trust Roundtable discussion by the Conference Board of Canada, 2007. This is linked to uncertainty avoidance and leads to a hypothesis about the use of trust indicators when buying holidays online. The first hypothesis however comes forth from the ambiguity of the current research results available on the use of different media while buying travel. It is not clear from existing research which culture makes more use of traditional media and than of OTA's and which culture uses mobile platforms most. Therefore the first two hypotheses are as follows:

H1a: There is no difference between how British and Dutch travelers book their holiday

H1b: There is a difference between how British and Dutch travelers book their holiday

H2a: There is no difference between British and Dutch travelers in the platform used to book a holiday

H2b: There is a difference between British and Dutch travelers in the platform used to book a holiday

The third hypothesis is based on Hofstede's (1991) and the Hofstede Centre (2015) results and Customer Trust Roundtable discussion by the Conference Board of Canada, 2007. It is specific for online travel purchasing and is a translation of uncertainty avoidance to risk-averseness in travel purchasing behaviour.

H3a: There is no difference between British and Dutch travelers in the amount of trust indicators used when purchasing a holiday online

H3b: There is a difference between British and Dutch travelers in the amount of trust indicators used when purchasing a holiday online

3. Method

Research Overview

The research question 'To what extent do cultural differences among consumers create a difference in online travel markets in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands?' and hypotheses will be answered by using a survey among Dutch and UK consumers born between 1982 and 1994 (generation Y). As can be seen in chapter 2, the hypotheses are based on a comparison between the UK and the Dutch culture on the usage of OTA's, different (online) platforms and the use of trust indicators.

Research design

Because this research is based on Hofstede's (1991) initial model and its current outcomes obtained by the Hofstede Centre (2015) a similar quantitative research method was chosen in the form of a survey. A sample of respondents is selected from the population of generation Y-ers in the Netherlands and the UK. As the research considers two different countries and both populations of generation Y are quite large (in the UK alone the population of this group is 13.8 million), sampling through an online questionnaire is favoured over interviews due to time restraints **(CSU, 2016)** (Vennix, 2010)

Overall design

The main factors when designing a survey are respondent´s attitude, the nature of the questions to be asked, the cost of conducting the survey and whether the survey is a suitable way to answer the research question. As the research population exists of a generation that has grown up with the internet and extensively uses it as a communication platform, it can be expected that the response rate to an online survey would be higher than a posted one and a larger and cross-national sample can be reached by using prime communication platforms like Facebook to promote the survey. Since a Likert scale is used in the survey a telephone survey would considerably make responses more difficult and biased by the researchers influence and interpretation. To prevent research bias open ended questions are avoided as much as possible. However, most importantly, the instrument (the online survey) needs to be able to measure the research question properly and because the populations in the research are both large an online survey would be the best way to do this.

Limitations to the design

As generation Y makes use of social media, the online survey is promoted through Facebook to reach the target group. This research design has a few strengths compared to other designs, because it is cost-saving, it is easier to analyse, not subject to researcher bias and a shorter time-frame for data collection is needed, since the survey can be delivered in seconds rather than days. The response rate is higher than of other techniques. The responses are overall more candid because there is more

anonymity perceived and the influence of the researcher on the respondents is minimized (CSU, 2016, Vennix, 2010). However, electronic surveys also have some limitations. A demographic limitation in this case would be that only respondents with access to a computer and online network can fill out the survey. This however, given the nature of the research being an online market place, is less of a concern. The use of online networks can however in itself also give the issue of less anonymity or confidentiality, since it is easier to track back who has seen the survey. By use of a link through to a Qualtrics survey rather than a survey on the social network itself this is solved. There also can be layout and presentation issues as constructing the format of an online questionnaire can be more difficult if experience is lacking. There might be more orientation towards the used format and more information needed for respondents to prevent this. There can also be difficulties that are hardware and software related, as computers have a higher chance of default than written surveys or interviews. Even though the response rate is supposed to be higher than the written and interview surveys, this is only the case in the first few days (Vennix, 2010, CSU, 2016)

The survey

The survey (Appendix A) consists of closed-ended questions with either dichotomous answers or rating scale response options. For the latter a Likert scale is used. Different question formats are used to be able to measure the research question more appropriately in relation to the hypotheses and to increase appropriate effort from respondents. When needed, definitions of the different concepts, like 'long haul' or 'holiday' are given to ensure a common understanding among subjects and decrease interpretation bias. The questions are set up in an order from general questions to more specific personal questions, to decrease the dropout rate and the likelihood of socially desirable answers. Questions are blocked together into topic sets to make logical links between questions and improve the understanding in the respondent group. Part of the survey is based upon Hofstede's (1991) cultural survey.

Sampling procedure

The survey uses a sample of the population that can be easily reached through social media, and thus uses haphazard sampling. Since this is a non probability method this introduces a bias in the research, which could translate into more respondents answering that they have booked online. Respondents with less usage of internet are less easily reached. However, since the population is one with high levels of internet usage this is a minor concern (40% according to Nusair, Parsa and Cobanoglu (2011)). The sampling error for non probability samples is difficult to measure (Weisberg et al., 1989)

Reliability and validity

In this section the reliability and the validity of the results will be discussed. Blumberg et al. (2005) describe validity as whether it is measured what was actually intended to be measured. Reliability refers to whether this measurement proves to give consistent results. This already indicates that validity is foremost important because if a research is not valid, reliability does not matter. With respect to the method used in this research, the survey needs to be both a reliable and valid measurement tool to answer the research question.

When looking at the validity of this research, it can be split into internal and external validity. Seale (2004, p.74) states seven threats to internal validity. First of all, history, experimental mortality and maturation (in which respondents are influenced by the passing of time) are in this case not a big concern, since the collection of survey results took place over the course of three weeks and it was not an experiment. Testing is neither a concern, since no second survey took place that could be influenced by the first survey. Instrumentation (changing the instrument or observers) did not take place and neither is the John Henry (comparison effect) since there was no comparison taking place in an experiment. Furthermore, the survey was pretested among professionals (working in the travel industry) and potential survey subjects, to guard against testing and instrumentation effect.

Threats to external validity are the interaction effect of testing and reaction effects of experimental arrangements, multiple treatments or the experimental variable. Again no second survey was performed and the measurement method was a survey, not an experiment, so these threats are not a concern.

The only variable that could influence the validity of the research results in this case is the selection bias. Since the survey was only available online and respondents were collected by engagement via Facebook and word-of-mouth, the results can be expected to contain more respondent that handle their affairs (and their holidays) via the internet. However, since previous research has shown that the population (generation Y) uses the internet for a large share of their research (40% in 2011, according to Nusair, Parsa and Cobanoglu (2011)) and increasing. this does not jeopardise the internal validity too much.

Generalisability

Reliability involves whether the research results can be reproduced consistently, and whether findings are the same under similar conditions (Seale, 2004, p. 72). Of course the number of respondents could fluctuate (statistical variance), but a similar study would yield overall the same results, since the same questions were asked to all respondents in the sample. The study is also

repeatable, since the questionnaire can be used anywhere. To test the whether the results could be generalized further, a chi square test of significance was used.

Analysis of the results

Chi Square test of significance

To test the significance of the results, a chi square test is performed on most of the results (excluding the results of question eight, ten and eleven). This test is used to test the null hypothesis that that British population is similar to the Dutch population with respect to a variable (question) and the alternative population that the British population is not similar to the Dutch population on a variable (question) :

$$H_0 : The\ British\ population = the\ Dutch\ population$$
$$H_1 : The\ British\ population \neq the\ Dutch\ population$$

The direction of this difference is not specified. This could lead to the British population scoring a higher value on a question than the Dutch population, or a lower value:

$$British\ population > Dutch\ population$$

$$British\ population < Dutch\ population$$

This makes this chi square test a two-sided test and thus an alpha of 0.025 will be used. With a Pearson chi square test, a critical value has to be calculated, based on the degrees of freedom according to the following formula:

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(f - e)^2}{e}$$

If test value is below the critical value calculated and the following p-value is below 0.025, the test is significant and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. This test, however, can only be used for frequencies of five or more in the data. Otherwise a Fisher's exact test has to be used, that directly displays the p-value and is subject to the same alpha as the direction of the effect is unclear (Hill et al., 2012).

Normality and standard deviation tests

On question eight, ten and eleven tests for normality and standard deviation (variance) are used to analyse the results before deciding of which statistical test fits best to test the significance of the results. A Chi-square test can not be used in these cases, since the data is not ordinal of nature and was collected using Likert-scales making it ordinal data. This means the data needs to be tested on

homogeneity of variances and on normality of the data, before using an independent samples t-test or Mann Whitney U test.

By testing for homogeneity of the variance Levene's test is used. With this test the robustness of the results is checked. The results are not robust if the resulting F-value of the test is significant against a p-value of 0.05. The data then does not pass Levene's test and the null hypothesis (all variances are equal) is rejected (Hill et al., 2012). This affects the Type I error rate when proceeding with a t-test, since there is variance between both respondent groups. This leads to a reduction in the value of the t-test statistic and a reduction in the degrees of freedom, which will raise the p-value above the critical level of 0.05. If Levene's test is significant, no valid conclusions can be drawn from further tests as the variances among the samples are not homgeneous.

To test for normality a Shapiro-Wilks test can be used. If the sample groups (British and Dutch) are not normally distributed, a Mann-Whitney U test can be performed to test significance of the results. The latter test does not require the assumption of normality of the data. It tests the null hypothesis that two independent samples have the same distribution.

Independent samples t-test and the Mann Whitney U test

After the ordinal data has been found to have equal variances across the samples and the data to be normally distributed, an Independent samples t-test can be used. With this test the difference between the means of the two samples (British and Dutch) is scrutinized. The null hypothesis is that there is no difference between the means of the two samples ($\mu_1 = \mu_2$). The alternative hypothesis is that there is a difference between the means of the two samples ($\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$).

The formula used for this test is displayed below.

$$t_{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2} = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{(N_1 - 1)S_1^2 + (N_2 - 1)S_2^2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2}\right)}}$$

The test is two sided and uses a confidence interval of 95 percent and an alpha of 0.025 on either side. Again the t-value has to be either higher than 1.96 or lower than -1.96.

If the data on the two samples is found to have equal variances but not a normal distribution, a Mann-Whitney U test can be performed as it does not require normality of the data. The resulting z-score of this test has to be lower than -1.96 or higher than 1.96, when an alpha of 0.05 is maintained. It measures the equality of the medians of both groups and ranks the observations an compares these values on both independent sample groups (the British and the Dutch). This z-score is derived from the u-score displayed in the test results, which is the number of times that the observations within one sample group have a higher rank than of the other sample.

The formula used to calculate the z-score is:

$$z = \frac{U - \frac{n_a n_b}{2}}{\sqrt{\frac{n_a n_b (n_a + n_b + 1)}{12}}}$$

The null hypothesis is that there is no difference between the ranks of the two groups. The alternative hypothesis is that there is a difference between the ranks of the two groups (Hill et al., 2012).

4. Presentation and analysis of results

The survey used for this research is divided in three blocks (booking behaviour, trust and perception) after the general information block and contains a fourth block with demographical questions. The analysis will divided up in these blocks, starting with the discussion of the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Demographical characteristics

Within three weeks a sample of 176 respondents was collected. Of these 11 respondents were excluded from the results as they were neither Dutch nor British. 47% of the sample is British, 53% is Dutch. The divide between men and women overall was exactly equal. Within the Dutch sample 47% was male and 53% female. Within the British sample this was respectively 54% and 46%. These divides are almost equal. The age divide was derived from Hofstede's (1991) research and can be seen in the table below. As can be seen, among the Dutch sample the amount of 20-24 year olds is over represented and the amount of 30-34 year olds is underrepresented. Among the British the sample is more evenly spread, but the 25-29 year olds are overrepresented with respect to the 30-34 year olds. The 20-24 year olds in the Dutch sample group is also overrepresented compared to the other age groups. This can be due to the sample method but is not necessarily a threat to the ability to generalize the research. Later in this research the results are tested for robustness by excluding these groups.

Answer	Dutch	British
Under 20	0%	1%
20 – 24	61%	34%
25 – 29	32%	41%
30 – 34	4%	19%
35 – 39	0%	0%
40 – 49	4%	3%
50 – 59	0%	1%
60 or over	0%	0%
Total	100%	100%

Table 1: Respondents age (question 13)

The spending budget for 20-24 year olds is mostly 400-800 pounds, followed by 800-1200 pounds. For 25-29 year olds this is mostly 800-1200 pounds, followed by 400-800 pounds and more than 1200 pounds (in that order). The spending budget of 30-34 year olds is mostly 1200 pounds or more. This

makes sense as younger generations have less time to build up holiday savings and will thus have less money to spend (Delsen and Smits, 2011).

Regarding the professional situation of the British respondents, 69% is employed fulltime, 21% is a student and 9% is employed part time. Of the Dutch respondents 42% worked fulltime, 46% is a student and 9% is employed part time. It makes sense to have more students in the Dutch sample, as higher education in the Netherlands is less expensive than in the UK (according to studyinholland.co.uk) and it is more common to follow up a bachelors degree with a masters degree in the former. The 20-24 year old age group is also over represented in the Dutch sample. This could potentially prolong the total duration of the studies in the Netherlands resulting in a larger amount of students in the sample. Since the British sample group has a higher percentage of respondents in older age groups compared to the 20-24 year old group, this can be expected to result in a higher percentage of respondents working full time.

Booking behaviour

In the block about booking behaviour several questions were asked regarding who the holiday was with, how the holiday was booked and how often a holiday was booked.

Q1: Booking frequency

The majority of the British respondents in the age group of 20-35 years old goes on holiday two to three times a year, followed by once a year. The same goes for the Dutch respondents, although they responded once a year and four to five times a year more often than their British counterparts.

	Dutch	Dutch	British	British
Answer	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Once a year	19	26%	16	25%
Two to three times a year	44	60%	38	58%
Four to five times a year	8	11%	6	9%
More than five times a year	1	1%	2	3%
Never	1	1%	3	5%
Total	73	100%	65	100%

Table 2: Frequency of holidays (question 1)

Since both nationality and holiday frequency are ordinal variables with respect to the Dutch and British sample, a chi-square test for homogeneity is used. This test was explained in the method

section (chapter three). The test measures whether the Dutch and British sample population are similar to each other on this variable (holiday frequency), or differ from each other. The null and alternative hypothesis in this case are:

H_0: There is no difference between the British and Dutch population
H_1: There is a difference between the British and Dutch population

Since there are two sample groups, the degrees of freedom for the Chi-square test is the amount of sample groups minus one times the number of categories minus one. The degrees of freedom therefore is 4. Since a probability level of 0,025 is used with a two sided test, the critical value will be 11.1433 based on the formula below (Hill et al., 2012). The results are shown in table three.

	Dutch	British	Total
Answer	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
Once a year	19	16	35
Two to three times a year	44	38	82
Four to five times a year	8	6	14
More than five times a year	1	2	3
Never	1	3	4
Total	73	65	138
Pearson chi2 (4) = 1.8577 Pr = 0.762			

Table 3: Chi-square test for holiday frequency and nationality

The results in table three show a chi-square of 1.8577, which much is smaller than the critical value of 11.1433. The probability of 0.762 is higher than the alpha of 0.025 (see appendix B1.1). There is no significant relationship between the variables holiday frequency and nationality. However, more cells have a frequency of less than five, meaning a Fisher's exact test is needed. The Fisher's exact (p-value) is 0,795, which is also higher than the alpha of 0.025. This again proves that there is no significant relationship between these two variables.

Q2: Holiday partner
Next, a question was asked about the holiday companion(s) of the respondents. Respondents who had chosen the option of never going on holiday in question one were excluded from answering this question. The answer options were chosen with about the same frequencies for the Dutch and the British. The Dutch however, do seem to answer more often that they travel with their friends than

their British counterparts. As described in the theoretical framework, Money and Crotts (2003) state that uncertainty avoiding cultures travel more in groups and the Netherlands did score higher on uncertainty avoidance in the Hofstede group's research (2015). The result is ambiguous however, since a higher percentage of Dutch respondents than of British respondents seem to travel solo most often.

Answer	Dutch Frequency	Dutch %	British Frequency	British %
I travel solo	9	13%	5	8%
I travel with my partner	33	46%	33	53%
I travel with my family	10	14%	9	15%
I travel with my friends	20	28%	15	24%
Total	72	100%	62	100%

Table 4: Travel partner(s)

Again both variables are ordinal. Since all frequencies are five or more, a chi-square test is sufficient to test for significance of the influence of nationality on the dependent variable travel partner.

There are three categories, so the degrees of freedom is three in this case. This leads to a critical value of 9.3484 using the previous formula. The two hypotheses are similar to the ones displayed under question one. The results of the Chi-square test are shown in table five.

Answer	Dutch Frequency	British Frequency	Total Frequency
I travel solo	9	5	14
I travel with my partner	33	33	66
I travel with my family	10	9	19
I travel with my friends	20	15	35
Total	72	62	134
Pearson chi2 (3) = 1.1700 Pr = 0.760			

Table 5: Chi-square test for travel partner(s) and nationality

Since the chi-square (1.1700) is lower than the critical value (9.3484) and the p-value (0.760) is higher than the alpha (0.025) (see appendix B1.2), there is no significant relationship between the independent variable nationality and the dependent variable travel partner.

Q3: Means of booking

The next question in the survey was about the booking locale: whether respondents booked online or at a physical location of a travel agency. As can be seen below, nearly a 100% of both nationalities book their travel online rather than at a physical travel agencies office. However, as said before, this can be due to the fact that the questionnaire was only available online. The Fisher´s exact test performed gives a value of 0.463, which is higher than the alpha of 0.025. The results of this test can be seen in appendix B3.1 The we can conclude that there is no significant difference between the nationalities. In fact, both nationalities were (near) unanimous.

	Dutch	Dutch	British	British
Answer	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Online	72	100%	61	98%
Travel agency office	0	0%	1	2%
Total	72	100%	62	100%

Table 6: Booking locale (question 3)

Q4: Type of website

The answer about the booking locale was followed up by a more specific question about how the online booking was made (through which type of website). It appears that more of the Dutch respondents book through a comparison site than the British respondents (59% versus 47%) or a direct suppliers website (29% versus 26%). As said, being thrifty is seen as a good preparation for events in the future (Hofstede, 1991). The British respondents book more through an Online Travel Agent with its own offers (27% versus 13%). Money and Crotts (2003) state that this is a characteristic of an uncertainty avoiding culture, but the Hofstede Centre research (2015) shows that the Brits score less on uncertainty avoidance than the Dutch.

	Dutch	Dutch	British	British
Answer	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Through a Travel Agent comparison website (e.g. Booking or Expedia)	42	58%	29	47%
Through a Travel Agent with its own offers (e.g. TUI or Thomas Cook)	9	13%	17	27%
Through a direct suppliers website (e.g. the hotel or airline website)	21	29%	16	26%
Total	72	100%	62	100%

Table 7: Type of website (question 4)

The variable 'Type of website' is of ordinal nature. None of the cells contains a frequency of less than five, thus a chi-square test can be used to test for significance of the results (Hill et al., 2012). The degrees of freedom is 3, since there was an option to answer that the respondents never booked a holiday to make them skip the question block. Percentages for both nationalities were zero on that question. The critical value for the Pearson chi-square is 9.3484. The results are shown in table eight.

The results of the statistical analysis are shown in appendix B1.4. As can be seen the chi-square value of 4.7979 is lower than the critical value of 9.3484. The p-value of 0.091, although getting closer, is still higher than the alpha of 0.025. It can be concluded there is no significant relationship between the independent variable nationality and the dependent variable type of website. However, as described in the section on the limitations of this research, the survey samples were relatively small . This will be discussed in the final chapter.

	Dutch	British	Total
Answer	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
Through a Travel Agent comparison website (e.g. Book-ing or Expedia)	42	29	35
Through a Travel Agent with its own offers (e.g. TUI or Thomas Cook)	9	17	82
Through a direct suppliers website (e.g. the hotel or airline website)	21	16	14
Never booked a holiday online	0	29	4
Total	72	62	138
Pearson chi2 (4) = 4.7979 Pr = 0.091			

Table 8: Chi-square test for type of website and nationality

Q5: Booking medium

The last question of the booking behaviour block concerned booking media. Dutch respondents chose the option of booking with a smart phone more often than British respondents (39% versus 14% of the respondents). They also chose booking with a tablet more often than British respondents (33% versus 26% of the respondents). As said in chapter two of this research, the Netherlands is on the forefront when it comes to mobile and tablet booking as more companies have already adapted their online business to it. Both nationalities reply to all have used the computer at least once to complete a booking.

	Dutch	Dutch	British	British
Answer	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Smartphone	28	39%	14	23%
Tablet	24	33%	16	26%
Computer	72	100%	62	100%

Table 9: Booking medium (question 5)

The variable booking medium is of ordinal nature and all frequencies are higher than five. This means that a chi-square test can be used to measure significance. The degrees of freedom is 2, which gives a critical value of 7.3778. As can be seen in appendix B1.5. the Pearson chi-square value is 1,2868 with

a p-value of 0.257. This is lower than the alpha of 0.025, meaning there is no significant difference between Dutch respondents and British respondents regarding the booking medium they use.

Trust

Q6: Type of holiday

The first question asked the respondents in the trust block of the survey was about the type of holiday they buy most often. British respondents chose the option of a domestic holiday more often than Dutch respondents (18% versus 1% of the respondents respectively). As said, this can be due to geographical reasons, as the UK is a bigger country. Overall more Dutch respondents picked all international holidays than British respondents. These findings are in line with the previously discussed findings of Eurobarometer International (2015).

Since some of the cells contain a value that is less than a frequency of five and the type of holiday is a categorical variable, a Fisher's exact test is used. The results of this test (in appendix B1.6 show that the p-value of the results is 0.004. This is smaller than the alpha of 0.025, meaning that there is a significant difference between the type of holidays booked by British and Dutch respondents. Using further analysis that can be seen in appendix (B1.6), it is found that there is a significant difference between domestic and international holidays. There is also a significant difference between the Dutch respondents and the British respondents in booking domestic holidays. It seems that the British respondents book significantly more domestic holidays than the Dutch. This was already expected, as Great Britain is a larger country than the Netherlands. When looking at the amount of international holidays under 6 hours of duration, no significant difference can be found between the respondents groups using a chi-square test (as no values under five were found in any subgroup). Looking at international holidays that were over 6 hours of flight duration, no significant difference between Dutch and British respondents was found using a chi-square test. No significant differences were found in the Fisher's exact test performed on Dutch and British respondents that replied that their most often bought holiday was international with a car neither on international holidays with public transport.

The main conclusions that can be drawn are thus that there is a significant difference found between the British and Dutch sample group on this question. It seems that there is a significant difference between international and domestic holidays bought and the British seem to significantly choose the option 'Domestic holiday' more often than Dutch respondents.

	Dutch	Dutch	British	British
Answer	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Domestic holiday (either with car, airplane or public transport)	1	1%	12	18%
International holi-day including a flight under 6 hours of duration	47	64%	37	57%
International holi-day including a flight over 6 hours of duration	14	19%	9	14%
International holi-day with car	9	12%	4	6%
International holi-day with public transport	2	3%	1	2%
I have never bought a holiday	0	0%	2	3%
Total	73	100%	65	100%

Table 10: Type of holiday (question 6)

Q7: Form of holiday

The next question regarded packaged holidays and holidays consisting of separate booked parts. The British respondents chose the packaged option more often than the Dutch respondents (25% and 21% respectively). Money and Crotts (2003) describe how uncertainty avoiding cultures choose packaged options more often, which does not seem to be the case here.

Since both variables are categorical, a chi-square test is conducted a test on significance. The degrees of freedom is 1 and thus the critical value is 5,0239. The analysis output can be seen in appendix B1.7. The results are displayed in table 13.

The Pearson Chi-square (0.4518) is lower than the critical value and the p-value (0.501) is higher than the alpha of 0.025. This means that there is no significant difference in the type of packaging be-tween the Dutch and the British respondents.

	Dutch	Dutch	British	British
Answer	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
A package holiday (e.g. one package already including flights, transfers and accommoda-tion)	15	21%	16	25%
A self organized holiday (consisting of loose parts, like self booked ac-commodation, flights, tours, etc)	58	79%	47	75%
Total	73	100%	63	100%

Table 12: Type of packaging (question 7)

	Dutch	British	Total
Answer	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
A package holiday (e.g. one package already including flights, transfers and accommoda-tion)	15	16	25%
A self organized holiday (consisting of loose parts, like self booked ac-commodation, flights, tours, etc)	58	47	75%
Total	73	63	100%
Pearson Chi2(1) = 0.4518 Pr = 0.501			

Table 13: Chi-square test of type of packaging and nationality

Q8: Trust indicators

The next question was about how respondents would rate certain trust indicators of e-commerce as described by the Conference Board of Canada (2007). To have a better oversight in the table the questions have been replaced by numbers:

8.1   Appearance of the website (e.g. brand names and logos)

8.2   Credentials displayed on the website (e.g. 'Trustpilot', 'Tripadvisor')

8.3   Privacy protection statements and compliance

8.4   Displayed terms and conditions (customer service policy)

8.5   Complete contact details and easy personal interaction (e.g. customer service, instant chat)

8.6   Offering third party insurance in case of e.g. cancellation

8.7   Transparency (e.g. no later price add-ons)

Dutch respondents score question 3 (privacy protection) and 6 (offering third party insurance) more often as not important than British respondents. The mean on these questions is higher for British respondents than for Dutch respondents (3.35 versus 2.79 on question three and 2.54 versus 2.30 for respectively British and Dutch respondents). Question four also has a relatively large difference between the means for British and Dutch respondents: 3.52 versus 3.01 respectively regarding the importance of a displayed customer service policy.

The overall mean on the question is higher for British respondents than for Dutch respondents. Both nationalities score transparency highest of all. Uncertainty avoiding cultures would need more trust indicators than other cultures, but it seems that the British respondents score trust indicators as more important than the Dutch respondents do. This was not expected, as the Dutch score higher on uncertainty avoidance in the Hofstede Centre (2015) research that respondents of British natioanlity.

To test whether these results are right, a parametric Independent-Samples t-test can be performed. This test determines if there is a difference between the means of the two sample groups (British and Dutch respondents). It is however required that both samples are normally distributed and have equal variances, as described in the method chapter (chapter three). The results of these tests for question 8.1 until 8.7 can be found in appendix B1.8. The F-values found in Levene's test on the data gathered out of question 8.2 and 8.3 are significant when using a critical p-value of 0.05. This means the Type I error rate is affected for both when using a t-test as was already described on page 24 in the method section. There is a significant difference in the variances between the groups (Dutch and British respondents). For these two questions there are thus no significant differences between the means of question 8.2 and 8.3 for the British sample group and the Dutch sample group. However, it must be mentioned that question 8.3 has a large difference between the means of both populations. Although the significance of this result can not be tested, the difference of question 8.4 was slightly larger and has been found significant. Therefore the result on question 8.3 (privacy protection) will

be regarded as meaningful. British respondents rate privacy protection statements and compliance as more important than Dutch respondents.

To test for normality on the remaining questions, a Shapiro-Wilks test is used, as it can be used for small datasets with as little as four observations (Hill et al., 2012). The results can be seen in appendix B1.8. The Shapiro-Wilks test is significant for British respondents on question 8.5 and 8.7. For Dutch respondents this is the case for question 8.1 and 8.5. On these questions both groups are not normally distributed. For these questions a Mann-Whitney U Test must be run, that does not require the assumption of normality. For all other questions the normality assumption is not violated and an Independent-Samples t-test will be used (Hill et al., 2012). The test results can be found in the appendix B1.8.

British							
Question	Not important	Slightly important	Moderately important	Important	Very important	Total Responses	Mean
1	1	5	15	27	15	63	3.79
2	1	4	12	30	16	63	3.89
3	0	9	29	19	6	63	3.35
4	2	8	16	29	8	63	3.52
5	2	3	13	33	12	63	3.79
6	10	22	19	11	1	63	2.54
7	0	0	2	22	39	63	4.59
Dutch							
Question	Not important	Slightly important	Moderately important	Important	Very important	Total Responses	Mean
1	1	8	15	42	7	73	3.63
2	4	13	8	26	21	72	3.65
3	12	19	16	22	3	72	2.79
4	6	18	22	23	4	73	3.01
5	1	3	17	40	12	73	3.81
6	24	17	18	14	0	73	2.30
7	0	0	0	27	46	73	4.63

Table 14: Need for trust indicators (question 8)

Question 8.1, 8.5 and 8.7 were tested with a Mann-Whiteney U test. The resulting z-score has to be lower than -1.96 or higher than 1.96, when an alpha of 0.05 is maintained.

The results have been summarized in table 15. None of Mann-Whitney U test results are significant and thus the null hypothesis for question 8.1, 8.5 and 8.7 is accepted: there is no difference between the ranks of the Dutch and the British on these questions.

Regarding the questions that an Independent-Samples t-test can be used on, the difference between the means of the two samples is scrutinized.

The test is two sided and uses a confidence interval of 95 percent and an alpha of 0.025 on either side. The t-value has to be either higher than 1.96 or lower than -1.96. The results on question 8.6 and 8.4 can be seen in table 15.

It can be seen that the t-value for question 8.4 is bigger than 1.96. The p-value is also smaller than the alpha of 0.05. Thus for question 8.4 the alternative hypothesis is accepted: the means of the Dutch and the British sample group are significantly different. For question 8.6 both values point to no significant difference between the means. The null hypothesis is thus accepted.

Question	Mann-Whitney		Independent Samples t-test	
	Z-value	p-value	t-value	p-value
8.1	1.091	0.2752	-	-
8.4	-	-	2.8949	0.0044
8.5	0.137	0.8913	-	-
8.6	-	-	1.2884	0.1998
8.7	-0.272	0.7856	-	-

Table 15: Mann-Whitney and Independent Samples t-test on trust indicators

To conclude, question 8.4 has been found to have a significant result. Question 8.3 will be regarded as meaningful given the size of the difference. Question 8.2 however, could not be tested either, but the difference in means is similar to question 8.6, which makes it unlikely that it would test as significant if it could. British respondents give a higher importance to displayed customer policy and privacy protection and compliance on OTA websites that Dutch respondents do.

Perception

Q9: important buying factors
The first question asked to the survey respondents in the perception block was which factor was most important to them when buying a holiday. More Dutch than British respondents chose the lowest price possible and the price versus quality as most important factors when booking a holiday. This can be expected as their pragmatism makes thrift a cultural value (Hofstede, 1991). For British

respondents, the experience the holiday will give you prevails as a factor when booking a holiday over the lowest price possible (26% over 13%), but the price versus the quality of the holiday is still the most important factor. As described in the theoretical framework, this is to be expected, since deal hunting behavior is still seen among the British, but they expect a higher perceived quality of their holiday than the Dutch.

Answer	Dutch Frequency	Dutch %	British Frequency	British %
The lowest price possible	12	16%	9	14%
The price versus the quality of the holiday (not necessarily the lowest price)	54	74%	37	57%
The experience the holiday will give you	7	10%	18	28%
I have never bought a holiday	0	0%	1	2%
Total	73	100%	65	100%

Table 16: Important buying factors (question 9)

These results can be statistically examined by using a Fisher's exact test for ordinal variables. The result, seen in appendix B1.9, indicates a significant result as Fisher's exact is 0.019 which is smaller than an alpha of 0.025. There is a significant difference between the Dutch and British respondent groups in terms of important buying factors. Using further analysis, it appears that the significant difference stems from the difference between the Dutch and British respondents in choosing the experience the holiday will give you. The Fisher's exact test proved only significant on this part of the question (see appendix B1.9). Thus British respondents choose the experience the holiday will give you significantly more than Dutch respondents as the most important buying factor.

Q10: conformity
The next question is supposed to measure conformity or the need to fit in, by asking how important it is that people around you agree with your choice. As can be seen in table 17, the Dutch respondents tend to fall on the agreeing side of the distribution (40% somewhat agrees and 26% Agrees). The British respondents somewhat disagree (27%) and neither agree nor disagree (22%). Social inclusion is one of the aspects of the feminine (Dutch) culture (Hofstede, 1991), which can make other people's opinions valuable to the respondent. The British culture is a masculine one

where social inclusion is not necessarily mentioned as a desirable value. This could cause British respondents to score higher on ´somewhat disagreeing´ and ´disagreeing´ than on the other answer options.

Again, to analyse these results, a Levene's test and Shapiro-Wilks test need to be performed as the data is not categorical of nature but ordinal. The method is displayed in chapter three. The F-value of Levene's test is not significant for the data of question ten, meaning that the variances in both groups are equal (Hill et al., 2012). If the results of the performed Shapiro-Wilks test are significant, the sample groups are not normally distributed and a Mann-Whitney U test has to be performed instead of an Independent Samples t-test. As can be seen in appendix B1.10 the results of the Shapiro-Wilks test are significant for the Dutch sample group (p<0.05), hence a Mann-Whitney test will be performed. The results of this test can be seen in appendix B1.10. Since p<0.05 the alternative hypothesis is accepted: there is a difference between the ranks of the Dutch sample group and the British sample group on the variable conformity.

	Dutch	Dutch	British	British
Answer	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Strongly agree	2	3%	4	6%
Agree	19	26%	10	16%
Somewhat agree	29	40%	7	11%
Neither agree nor disagree	10	14%	14	22%
Somewhat disa-gree	4	5%	17	27%
Disagree	5	7%	9	14%
Strongly disagree	4	5%	3	5%
Total	73	100%	64	100%

Table 17: Conformity (question 10)

Q11: perceived successfulness
The last question in the perception block of the survey concerned whether respondents wanted to be seen as successful when buying a holiday. Most British respondents somewhat agree (31%) or agree (22%). Most Dutch people also somewhat agree (23%), but also disagree (23%). When looking at the percentage of Dutch respondents that fall below neither agreeing nor disagreeing (45%), this is higher than the percentage that somewhat agrees, agrees or strongly agrees (35%), but the Dutch respondents are clearly ambiguous about the question. When looking at the British respondents, the

biggest share of the respondents falls above neither agreeing or disagreeing (55% above versus 37% below). The Dutch mean is 4.36, the British one 4.00 on this question, meaning that more British respondents neither agree nor disagree to want to be perceived a successful when buying a holiday, while Dutch respondents hover between neither agreeing nor disagreeing and somewhat disagreeing. Since the British culture is a masculine one, it is very success oriented (Hofstede, 1991). It can be expected that respondents answers tend to gravitate towards agreeing with the statement.

To test this further, the variance and normality of the groups are tested with Levene's test for homogeneity and Shapiro-Wilks test for normality. As can be seen in appendix B1.11 Levene's test is not significant. The outcome of Shapiro-Wilks test for normality is significant for the British sample group however, meaning that normality can not be assumed. A Mann-Whitney U test was performed to test the significance of the results, as this test does not require normality of the data. As can be seen in appendix B1.11. The results were not significant for this test. The Z-value was not between -1.96 and 1.96 and the p-value was not below 0.05. The null hypotheses that there is no significant difference between the rankings of both sample groups is thus accepted. There is no statistically significant difference between UK respondents and Dutch respondents on this question about the need to be perceived successful.

Answer	Dutch Response	Dutch %	British Response	British %
Strongly agree	1	1%	1	2%
Agree	8	11%	14	22%
Somewhat agree	17	23%	20	31%
Neither agree nor disagree	14	19%	6	9%
Somewhat disagree	10	14%	3	5%
Disagree	17	23%	12	19%
Strongly disagree	6	8%	8	13%
Total	73	100%	64	100%

Table 18: Need to be perceived successful (question 11)

Robustness of the results

To check for robustness of the results, the age group of 30-34 years is left out and the analysis rerun. Next the robustness of the results is checked while taking out the 20-24 year old age group. This is

done because these age groups are respectively underrepresented in the Dutch sample and overrepresented in the Dutch sample compared to the British sample. The results of rerunning the tests that proved significant can be found in appendix B2.1. When excluding the third age group, the results of nearly all test do not change anything about their previously established (non) significance. However, question 8.4 is an exception. The results for this question showed a significant difference between the Dutch and the British sample when ranking the importance of displayed terms and conditions (customer service policy). The p-value was smaller than 0.05. When testing for robustness however, this result changes into a p-value of 0.0558, which is higher than the previously chosen alpha of 0.05. The results would still be significant for an alpha of 0.10. This is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is true. Treating the result of 8.4 as significant under a p-value of 0.10 makes it thus more likely that the wrong decision is made. The p-value that results out of the test (0.0558) is the probability of obtaining the data if the null hypothesis were true. This is still a very small probability, so the results can still be seen as robust, but there is a slightly bigger chance of error (Vennix, 2010) . The rest of the results do seem to be unconditionally robust.

When testing for robustness while leaving out the first age group (20-24 year olds), all results hold as well, but for question 10 (conformity). The p-value becomes 0.08 and is not significant anymore for an alpha of 0.05. The result is still significant for a p-value of 0.10, but the probability of rejecting the null-hypothesis while the null-hypothesis is true becomes bigger (Vennix, 2010). As an alpha of 0.10 is frequently maintained in research, acknowledging the significant result means that a difference that might exist is not overlooked. Therefore all the results in this research are seen as robust.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Summary

The aim of this research has been to answer the question 'to what extent do cultural differences among consumers create a difference in online travel markets in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands?'.

The hypotheses used to answer this research question are for convenience again listed below.

H1a: There is no difference between how British and Dutch travelers book their holiday

H1b: There is a difference between how British and Dutch travelers book their holiday

H2a: There is no difference between British and Dutch travelers in the platform used to book a holiday

H2b: There is a difference between British and Dutch travelers in the platform used to book a holiday

H3a: There is no difference between British and Dutch travelers in the amount of trust indicators used when purchasing a holiday online

H3b: There is a difference between British and Dutch travelers in the amount of trust indicators used when purchasing a holiday online

First, the developments in the (online) travel market, the function of travel intermediaries and how it has changed over the years into a network economy, depending on positive feedback has been described. The consumer has become the main focus of (online) travel agencies through consumer empowerment and the positive feedback they can generate. Customer loyalty is an important determinant of market share and there is a growing demand for personalization. Most of all, young consumers of generation Y (20-35 year olds) are becoming the largest share of income for travel agencies in the foreseeable future (E-merce, 2014). Hofstede (1991) already described how cultures can differ from one another of several factors, like masculinity versus femininity of a culture and risk averseness. His findings show that countries that are in proximity close to each other (like the Netherlands and the United Kingdom) can still be different in their cultural values. His framework and later research of the Hofstede Centre (2015) were used as a reference framework to hold the findings of this research against, which can also be seen in the survey questions asked that can be seen in appendix A.

In the analysis of chapter four, significant findings were established with respect to the differences between the British and Dutch respondents' answers on the survey questions. First of all, British respondents answered significantly more that a domestic holiday was their most often purchased

holiday than Dutch respondents (question 6 in the survey). There was also a significant difference found between domestic holidays and international holidays, Dutch respondents choose international holidays significantly more often than domestic holidays. Secondly, it was found that British respondents give the displaying of the term and conditions on an Online Travel Agency website a significant higher importance (on a Likert scale) than Dutch respondents. This result on question 8.4 didn't entirely hold however when testing for robustness. It was only significant then when using a higher alpha of 0.10. Thirdly, it was found (on question 9) that British respondents significantly more often chose the experience the holiday would give them as the most important factor when buying a holiday over other options (the lowest cost possible and price versus quality) than Dutch respondents did. Lastly it was found that Dutch respondents significantly differed in their rating of the importance of conformity to the British respondents. Dutch respondents found it on average more important that people around them agreed with their holiday choice (question 11).

Discussion

Since the age groups of 20-24 year olds and 30-34 year olds are underrepresented in the sample, a check for robustness was performed. This did not lead to different results with exception of question 8.4 and 10, where the significance of the result could only be proven by accepting a higher alpha of 0.10 and increasing the probability of wrongfully rejecting the null hypothesis. As an alpha as large as 0.10 is still frequently used to not miss any possible differences in the results (Vennix, 2010) the results will be accepted to be robust. When taking other aspects of the demographics of the sample group into account, it can be expected that younger age groups indeed have a lower average of holiday budget than the older age groups and are more internet oriented. Since a sample group between 20 and 35 year old was chosen, it can be expected that most respondents work full-time.

When looking at this analysis, some interesting findings have come forward. Regarding the booking behavior block in the survey, no significant differences were found between Dutch and British respondents with respect to the amount of holidays undertaken per year or the travel partner. According to Frias et al. (2012) who use the framework of Hofstede (1991) for the travel market, state that uncertainty (risk averse) countries tend to travel in groups rather than alone and travel less frequently. As the Netherlands and the United Kingdom differ in their score of risk averseness on Hofstede's (1991) index, it would make sense to test for significant differences between the groups. More important for this research even, as it is the first hypothesis, is the question whether respondents bought their holiday online or at a travel agency's office and the question of which type of online website this was (a comparison website, an OTA with its own offers or a direct supplier's website). Analysis of both questions proved that there is no significant difference between the usage of online travel agencies and the type of website by British and Dutch respondents. Nearly all

respondents replied that they booked their holiday online. This might be subject to a research bias, as respondents were generated by posting the research in several online media. As discussed previously however, this does not necessarily have to endanger the research results, as the research group uses the internet for a large proportion of their online purchases. There was also no significant difference found between the type of website used by both nationalities. It does mean however, that the first hypothesis, H1a is accepted. There is no difference between both nationalities and the way they purchase their holiday (online and the type of website).

Regarding the second hypothesis, no significant difference between Dutch and British travelers was found either. Neither one of them uses a medium (like a smartphone) significantly more than the other and H2a is thus accepted, while the alternative hypothesis, H2b is rejected. This is an interesting result, since Gursoy and Umbreit (2004) state that British travelers use traditional media more to research and purchase holidays, while the Dutch use new technologies more often. Results from Hofstede (2015) indicate that the UK consumers would use more innovative technology to buy travel and the Dutch, that are a more rigid culture, would prefer more traditional agencies.

Neither of this is found in the results of this research. A possible explanation can be that the mentioned research of Gursoy and Umbreit was performed before the hybrid-era when new technological possibilities emerged. This might have caused British consumers to catch up with Dutch consumers in terms of technology usage and thus no significant differences are found between them anymore on this front (regarding holiday buying at least). The results from the Hofstede Centre (2015) are applicable to general culture, but this might give different results when applied to a specific market like the travel market. This could explain the results found.

The third hypothesis concerns trust indicators and in the trust block of the survey two out of four significant results are found. British respondents significantly buy more domestic holidays than Dutch respondents and the Dutch respondents significantly choose more often for an international holiday. This would make sense if the United Kingdom was an uncertainty avoiding culture compared to the Netherlands, but from Hofstede (1991) it appears that this is not the case. Frias et al. (2012) find that British citizens are considered to be of a low-uncertainty avoiding culture which would go against the grain of what their travel market looks like. However, holidays for British respondents may be significantly more domestic than for Dutch respondents, because the UK is geographically larger than the Netherlands. The E-merce proceedings (2014) state this finding as well. On top of that, given the recent terrorist threats (according to the National Coordinator for Security and Counterterrorism, 2016), more British respondents might wish to stay at home. This is possibly a thread for future research. No significant difference was found between British and Dutch respondents when asked if

they bought a packaged holiday more often than a self organized holiday. Frias et al. (2012) state that consumers that are more risk averse can be expected to go for safer options and convenience like a pre-packaged holiday. This is not necessarily true for British and Dutch consumers. Furthermore, of all trust indicators judged on importance by the respondents, a significant difference between both nationalities was only found on the display of terms and conditions on a travel agent's website (customer policy). British respondents find this significantly more important than Dutch respondents. The third hypothesis (H3a) is thus only partly rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H3b) partially accepted. British respondents have more need of a trust indicator for website customer policies. Possibly they have less confidence in suppliers of holidays in the United Kingdom. This needs further research to be able to draw conclusions.

The last significant differences were based on the largest difference Hofstede (1991) and the Hofstede Centre (2015) found in their research, the Netherlands being a feminine culture and the United Kingdom being a masculine one. A significant difference was found between the Dutch and British respondents regarding this. Dutch respondents significantly rated conformity (the importance of what people around them thought of the holiday) higher in importance than British respondents did. This can indeed come forth from the fact that the Netherlands is a feminine culture, where social conclusion and social desirability are important values (Hofstede, 1991). Hofstede (1991) also writes that the British culture is masculine and very success driven. No significant difference was found in this research however between British and Dutch respondents and their rating of the importance of being perceived successful when buying a holiday. It could be that this is different when it comes to a product like a holiday. There was a significant result found on the factor that was most important for respondents when buying a holiday. British respondents responded that the experience they would have from the purchased holiday was the most important factor to them. The difference with Dutch respondents choosing this answer option was significant. The British respondents rating experience higher than the Dutch however can indicate that there is an intrinsic motivation when booking a holiday rather than being perceived as successful. This could possibly explain the difference between this result and Hofstede's (1991) theory that the British culture is driven by the extrinsic motivator success. Further research would be needed. For both nationalities the price versus the quality was most important when purchasing a holiday, there were no significant differences found here. Interesting enough purchasing is not significantly more cost driven among Dutch respondents than among British respondents. Hofstede (1991) states that thriftiness is a value of the Dutch culture, but this could not be proven in this research.

Limitations

As stated above, the research results lead to more questions. This is partly also caused by the fact that not much research was done about the influence of culture on the travel market, which limited the scope of the research. Furthermore, compared to the large populations concerned, this research can not claim a perfect sample size. The ideal sample size would be over 2000 respondents for both nationalities, which could not be obtained given the time limit. The way the respondents were gathered will also be of influence on the research results, as they were asked to participate via social media platforms. Another limitation is that this research was only performed among two nationalities. This makes it difficult to generalize the research to the question whether culture (always) has an influence on developments in the travel market and restricts the findings to these two specific cultures. Furthermore, no distinction was made between for example respondents that lived in the city versus respondents that live in the country side, or between different areas within the countries. Regional differences would be a line for further research.

Conclusion

All in all this research provides a valuable base for further research. As not much research was available at the time of writing on this topic (culture combined with the travel market specifically) it shows where future research is still needed. Although no significant differences were found on the first and second hypothesis (the type of media and platforms used by Dutch and British respondents), there were some significant findings which meant that the third hypothesis could be partially accepted. The Dutch and British responses differ to a certain degree in the way they rate the importance of trust indicators on OTA's websites, specifically the display of customer service policy. More importantly, they differ significantly in the types of holidays they buy (domestic versus international) and how important it is to them what others think of the holiday they have bought. The two cultures differ significantly on what they believe to be an important factor when buying the holiday, with the experience it will give the British respondents differs significantly from the amount of Dutch respondents that choose that as the most important option. Thus, only some small differences were found in this research, making that it points out more the need for more scientific research on a bigger scale. However, for travel agencies this research has great practical relevance because the small differences found can help them differentiate their marketing strategies better.

Regarding the research question 'To what extent do cultural differences among consumers create a difference in online travel markets in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands?', it can be argued that the significant differences in responses implies that they will choose holidays differently, as they have different perspectives of what is important, due to cultural differences like femininity versus masculinity of the culture. Only some small differences have been found in this research, but as consumers become more empowered regarding these differences may become important in the ability

to win market share in different countries. Loyalty is becoming a focus of companies (Deloitte, 2015) and this will inherently change the travel market by the types of products offered as well. It will possibly also influence the structure and business models of travel intermediaries as has been happening through the years so far described by Thakran and Verma (2013).

Further research

As said, there are several lines of further research that may be worth pursuing. First of all, it would be valuable to perform this research with larger sample populations. Secondly, the research could be extended to other nationalities, possibly the effect of a different nationality at birth on the results might be worth looking at. It would also be interesting to see if different regions in the country give different outcomes, e.g. city versus country side or different councils and provinces.

If anything, this research indicates that change is ongoing, some results are different than found in previous research (Frias et al. 2012). In light of the importance of consumer empowerment it is important to know how consumers will choose given their cultural values, rather than assuming all Western consumers are the same. This research shows how nationalities geographically close to each other can still make different decisions and have different opinions, which can be the result of the differences between cultures that Hofstede (1991) already found. This will affect their purchasing behavior and thus the way an OTA should position itself in the market to have a competitive advantage.

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Appendix A – Survey Questions
Cultural influences on the online travel market

Purpose (Please select your language at the top first)Purpose of this researchThe purpose of this survey is to get insight in holiday booking behaviour. The survey consists of 17 short questions. All responses given are anonymous.

Scope Scope of this researchFor purposes of scope the research will distinguish between holidays that are either domestic (in the home country) or international: short haul (under 6 hours flight duration), long haul (over 6 hours flight duration) and international car holidays (e.g. a holiday in France that does not include a flight). With 'holiday is meant: leisure travel of a duration longer than 4 days (long weekends are thus excluded) and no longer than 15 days long.

Instructions InstructionsPlease mark the appropriate box next to your answer by clicking on it. Please mark only one answer unless otherwise stated, and answer all of the questions to the best of your abilities.

Q1 How often do you go on holiday? (travel undertaken for leisure, longer than 4 days but no longer than 15 days)
❍ Once a year (1)
❍ Two to three times a year (2)
❍ Four to five times a year (3)
❍ More than five times a year (4)
❍ Never (5)

If Never Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Block

Q2 Who do you most often go on holiday with? Please pick the answer that applies best to you.
❍ I travel solo (1)
❍ I travel with my partner (2)
❍ I travel with my family (3)
❍ I travel with my friends (4)

Q3 Do you prefer to book your travel online or at a travel agency office (including booking through telephone)?
❍ Online (1)
❍ Travel agency office (2)

Q4 When booking online, how do you prefer to book your holiday?
❍ Through a Travel Agent comparison website (e.g. Booking or Expedia) (1)
❍ Through a Travel Agent with its own offers (e.g. TUI or Thomas Cook) (2)
❍ Through a direct suppliers website (e.g. the hotel or airline website) (3)
❍ I have never booked my holiday online (4)

If I have never booked my holi... Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Block

Q5 Have you ever used one of the following to complete booking your holiday? (more than one answer is allowed)

- ❑ Smartphone (1)
- ❑ Tablet (2)
- ❑ Computer (3)

Q6 Which would describe your most often purchased holiday? (with international holiday is meant: outside of your home country)

- ◯ Domestic holiday (either with car, airplane or public transport) (1)
- ◯ International holiday including a flight under 6 hours of duration (2)
- ◯ International holiday including a flight over 6 hours of duration (3)
- ◯ International holiday with car (4)
- ◯ International holiday with public transport (5)
- ◯ I have never bought a holiday (6)

If I have never bought a holiday Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Block

Q7 Which form of holiday do you buy most often:

- ◯ A package holiday (e.g. one package already including flights, transfers and accommodation) (1)
- ◯ A self organized holiday (consisting of loose parts, like self booked accommodation, flights, tours, etc) (2)

Q8 How would you rate the importance of the following aspects when booking your travel online (either through a computer, smartphone or tablet)?

Appearance of the website (e.g. brand names and logos) (1)					
Credentials displayed on the website (e.g. 'Trustpilot', 'Tripadvisor') (2)					
Privacy protection statements and compliance (3)					
Displayed terms and conditions (customer service policy) (4)					
Complete contact details and easy personal interaction (e.g. customer service, instant chat) (5)					
Offering third party insurance in case of e.g. cancellation (6)					
Transparency (e.g. no later price add-ons) (7)					

Q9 What is the most important factor for you when buying a holiday? (pick the one that is most applicable to you)

❍ The lowest price possible (1)
❍ The price versus the quality of the holiday (not necessarily the lowest price) (2)
❍ The experience the holiday will give you (3)
❍ I have never bought a holiday (4)

If I have never bought a holiday Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Block

Q10 When I am buying a holiday, it is important to me that the people around me agree with my booking choice.

❍ Strongly agree (1)
❍ Agree (2)
❍ Somewhat agree (3)
❍ Neither agree nor disagree (4)
❍ Somewhat disagree (5)
❍ Disagree (6)
❍ Strongly disagree (7)

Q11 When I am buying a holiday I want people around me to perceive me as successful.

❍ Strongly agree (1)
❍ Agree (2)
❍ Somewhat agree (3)
❍ Neither agree nor disagree (4)
❍ Somewhat disagree (5)
❍ Disagree (6)
❍ Strongly disagree (7)

Q12 What is your gender?

❍ Male (1)
❍ Female (2)

Q13 How old are you?

❍ Under 20 (1)
❍ 20 - 24 (2)
❍ 25 - 29 (3)
❍ 30 - 34 (4)
❍ 35 - 39 (5)
❍ 40 - 49 (6)
❍ 50 - 59 (7)
❍ 60 or over (8)

Q14 Which would describe your current professional situation best:
○ Employed full time (1)
○ Employed part time (2)
○ Unemployed looking for work (3)
○ Unemployed not looking for work (4)
○ Retired (5)
○ Student (6)

Q15 What is your yearly holiday budget?
○ Up to 400 pounds (1)
○ Between 400 and 800 pounds (2)
○ Between 800 and 1200 pounds (3)
○ More than 1200 pounds (4)
○ I do not go on holiday (5)

Q16 What is your nationality?
○ British (4)
○ Dutch (5)
○ Other, namely: (6) _____

Q17 If your nationality at birth is different, what is your nationality at birth? (Otherwise skip this question)

Appendix B – Stata analysis results
B0.1

Nationality British/Dutch	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
British	65	47.10	47.10
Dutch	73	52.90	100.00
Total	138	100.00	

Agegroup	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
20 – 24	69	50.00	50.00
25 – 29	53	38.41	88.41
30 – 34	16	11.59	100.00
Total	138	100.00	

B1.1
. tab Q1 Q16, chi2

	Nationality British/Dutch		
Frequency of holidays	British	Dutch	Total
Once a year	16	19	35
Two to three times a	38	44	82
Four to five times a	6	8	14
More than five times	2	1	3
Never	3	1	4
Total	65	73	138

Pearson chi2(4) =   1.8577   Pr = 0.762

	Nationality British/Dutch		
Frequency of holidays	British	Dutch	Total
Once a year	16	19	35
Two to three times a	38	44	82
Four to five times a	6	8	14
More than five times	2	1	3
Never	3	1	4
Total	65	73	138

Fisher's exact =   0.795

B1.2

```
. tab Q2 Q16, chi2
```

	Nationality British/Dutch		
Holiday partner	British	Dutch	Total
I travel solo	5	9	14
I travel with my part	33	33	66
I travel with my fami	9	10	19
I travel with my frie	15	20	35
Total	62	72	134

```
Pearson chi2(3) =   1.1700   Pr = 0.760
```

B1.3

```
. tab Q3 Q16, exact
```

	Nationality British/Dutch		
Booking online/at location	British	Dutch	Total
Online	61	72	133
Travel agency office	1	0	1
Total	62	72	134

```
        Fisher's exact =                 0.463
1-sided Fisher's exact =                 0.463
```

B1.4

```
. tab Q4 Q16, chi2
```

	Nationality British/Dutch		
Website type	British	Dutch	Total
Through a Travel Agen	29	42	71
Through a Travel Agen	17	9	26
Through a direct supp	16	21	37
Total	62	72	134

```
Pearson chi2(2) =   4.7979   Pr = 0.091
```

```
. tab Q4 Q16, exact

Enumerating sample-space combinations:
stage 3:  enumerations = 1
stage 2:  enumerations = 10
stage 1:  enumerations = 0
```

| | Nationality British/Dutch | | |
Website type	British	Dutch	Total
Through a Travel Agen	29	42	71
Through a Travel Agen	17	9	26
Through a direct supp	16	21	37
Total	62	72	134

```
        Fisher's exact =              0.094
```

B1.5

```
. tab Q5 Q16, chi2
```

| Q5 | Nationality British/Dutch | | |
	British	Dutch	Total
0	3	1	4
3	62	72	134
Total	65	73	138

```
      Pearson chi2(1) =    1.2868    Pr = 0.257
```

B1.6

```
. tab Q6 Q16, exact

Enumerating sample-space combinations:
stage 6:  enumerations = 1
stage 5:  enumerations = 3
stage 4:  enumerations = 12
stage 3:  enumerations = 123
stage 2:  enumerations = 445
stage 1:  enumerations = 0
```

Type of holiday (int\dome)	Nationality British/Dutch British	Dutch	Total
Domestic holiday (eit	12	1	13
International holiday	37	47	84
International holiday	9	14	23
International holiday	4	9	13
International holiday	1	2	3
I have never bought a	2	0	2
Total	65	73	138

```
          Fisher's exact =                  0.004
```

```
. tab Q6nat Q16, exact
```

Q6nat	Nationality British/Dutch British	Dutch	Total
0	12	1	13
1	51	72	123
Total	63	73	136

```
          Fisher's exact =                  0.001
  1-sided Fisher's exact =                  0.000
```

```
. tab Q6nat2 Q16, chi2
```

Q6nat2	Nationality British/Dutch British	Dutch	Total
0	16	25	41
1	37	47	84
Total	53	72	125

```
          Pearson chi2(1) =    0.2847    Pr = 0.594
```

```
. tab Q6nat3 Q16, chi2
```

	Nationality British/Dutch		
Q6nat3	British	Dutch	Total
0	7	11	18
1	9	14	23
Total	16	25	41

```
        Pearson chi2(1) =   0.0002   Pr = 0.987
```

```
. tab Q6nat4 Q16, exact
```

	Nationality British/Dutch		
Q6nat4	British	Dutch	Total
0	3	2	5
1	4	9	13
Total	7	11	18

```
            Fisher's exact =                 0.326
    1-sided Fisher's exact =                 0.272
```

B1.7

```
. tab Q7 Q16, chi2
```

Type of holiday (packaged)	Nationality British/Dutch		
	British	Dutch	Total
A package holiday (e.	16	15	31
A self organized holi	47	58	105
Total	63	73	136

```
        Pearson chi2(1) =   0.4518   Pr = 0.501
```

B1.8

```
. robvar Q8_1, by(Q16)
```

Nationality British/Dutch	Summary of Website appearance		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Freq.
British	3.7936508	.95307195	63
Dutch	3.630137	.85808005	73
Total	3.7058824	.90363584	136

```
W0  =  0.45919248   df(1, 134)      Pr > F = 0.49916995

W50 =  0.95125479   df(1, 134)      Pr > F = 0.33115753

W10 =  0.18078356   df(1, 134)      Pr > F = 0.67138274

. robvar Q8_2, by(Q16)
```

Nationality British/Dutch	Summary of Credentials displayed		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Freq.
British	3.8888889	.91776571	63
Dutch	3.6527778	1.2351623	72
Total	3.762963	1.1009318	135

```
W0  = 10.9370913   df(1, 133)      Pr > F = 0.00121234

W50 =  5.1926743   df(1, 133)      Pr > F = 0.02427583

W10 =  7.5232689   df(1, 133)      Pr > F = 0.00693066

. robvar Q8_3, by (Q16)
```

Nationality British/Dutch	Summary of Privacy statements		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Freq.
British	3.3492063	.84545712	63
Dutch	2.7916667	1.1741044	72
Total	3.0518519	1.067278	135

```
W0  = 11.6129019   df(1, 133)      Pr > F = 0.00086695

W50 =  9.5705013   df(1, 133)      Pr > F = 0.00241044

W10 = 14.1749464   df(1, 133)      Pr > F = 0.00024906
```

```
. robvar Q8_4, by (Q16)
```

Nationality British/Dutch	Summary of Terms and Conditions customer service		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Freq.
British	3.5238095	.98139372	63
Dutch	3.0136986	1.0605705	73
Total	3.25	1.0523343	136

```
W0  =  0.06372741   df(1, 134)    Pr > F = 0.80108557

W50 =  0.71542814   df(1, 134)    Pr > F = 0.39915553

W10 =  0.31307036   df(1, 134)    Pr > F = 0.57673622
```
```
. robvar Q8_5, by (Q16)
```

Nationality British/Dutch	Summary of Contact details customer service		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Freq.
British	3.7936508	.9186022	63
Dutch	3.8082192	.81065019	73
Total	3.8014706	.85911111	136

```
W0  =  0.55493018   df(1, 134)    Pr > F = 0.45761473

W50 =  0.31803917   df(1, 134)    Pr > F = 0.57373106

W10 =  0.14581134   df(1, 134)    Pr > F = 0.70317564
```
```
. robvar Q8_6, by (Q16)
```

Nationality British/Dutch	Summary of Third party insurance		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Freq.
British	2.5396825	1.0132254	63
Dutch	2.3013699	1.1265105	73
Total	2.4117647	1.0782056	136

```
W0  =  2.17621483   df(1, 134)    Pr > F = 0.14250458

W50 =  0.70465845   df(1, 134)    Pr > F = 0.40271792

W10 =  2.18691983   df(1, 134)    Pr > F = 0.14153432
```

```
. robvar Q8_7, by (Q16)

Nationality
British/Dut   |   Summary of Transparency (price)
         ch   |       Mean      Std. Dev.         Freq.
--------------|------------------------------------------
     British  |    4.5873016     .55749788            63
       Dutch  |     4.630137     .48610839            73
--------------|------------------------------------------
       Total  |    4.6102941     .51887048           136

W0   =  2.29152318    df(1, 134)      Pr > F = 0.13243732

W50  =  0.22915286    df(1, 134)      Pr > F = 0.63293285

W10  =  0.96666784    df(1, 134)      Pr > F = 0.32728449

. ranksum Q8_1, by(Q16)

Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test

         Q16  |      obs      rank sum      expected
--------------|------------------------------------------
     British  |       63        4546.5        4315.5
       Dutch  |       73        4769.5        5000.5
--------------|------------------------------------------
    combined  |      136          9316          9316

unadjusted variance        52505.25
adjustment for ties        -7686.42
                          ----------
adjusted variance          44818.83

Ho: Q8_1(Q16==British) = Q8_1(Q16==Dutch)
             z =    1.091
    Prob > |z| =    0.2752
```

```
. by Q16, sort : swilk Q8_1 Q8_2 Q8_3 Q8_4 Q8_5 Q8_6 Q8_7
```

-> Q16 = British

                    Shapiro-Wilk W test for normal data

Variable	Obs	W	V	z	Prob>z
Q8_1	63	0.95727	2.415	1.906	0.02832
Q8_2	63	0.93561	3.640	2.793	0.00261
Q8_3	63	0.99323	0.383	-2.077	0.98111
Q8_4	63	0.96761	1.831	1.307	0.09557
Q8_5	63	0.91283	4.927	3.447	0.00028
Q8_6	63	0.97165	1.603	1.020	0.15397
Q8_7	63	0.85911	7.964	4.485	0.00000

-> Q16 = Dutch

                    Shapiro-Wilk W test for normal data

Variable	Obs	W	V	z	Prob>z
Q8_1	73	0.96391	2.298	1.814	0.03484
Q8_2	72	0.95552	2.801	2.244	0.01243
Q8_3	72	0.97114	1.817	1.301	0.09659
Q8_4	73	0.99098	0.575	-1.208	0.88646
Q8_5	73	0.94740	3.350	2.635	0.00420
Q8_6	73	0.98972	0.655	-0.923	0.82195
Q8_7	73	0.99189	0.517	-1.440	0.92502

```
. ttest Q8_4, by(Q16)
```

Two-sample t test with equal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
British	63	3.52381	.123644	.9813937	3.276649	3.77097
Dutch	73	3.013699	.1241304	1.06057	2.766249	3.261148
combined	136	3.25	.0902369	1.052334	3.071539	3.428461
diff		.5101109	.1762111		.161596	.8586258

    diff = mean(British) - mean(Dutch)   t =   2.8949
Ho: diff = 0   degrees of freedom =   134

   Ha: diff < 0   Ha: diff != 0   Ha: diff > 0
 Pr(T < t) = 0.9978   Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.0044   Pr(T > t) = 0.0022

```
.
end of do-file
```

```
Two-sample t test with equal variances
```

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
British	63	2.539683	.1276544	1.013225	2.284505	2.79486
Dutch	73	2.30137	.1318481	1.12651	2.038536	2.564204
combined	136	2.411765	.0924554	1.078206	2.228916	2.594613
diff		.2383127	.184961		-.1275079	.6041333

```
      diff = mean(British) - mean(Dutch)                         t =   1.2884
Ho: diff = 0                                    degrees of freedom =      134

    Ha: diff < 0                  Ha: diff != 0                   Ha: diff > 0
 Pr(T < t) = 0.9001        Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.1998          Pr(T > t) = 0.0999


. ranksum Q8_7, by(Q16)

Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test
```

Q16	obs	rank sum	expected
British	63	4263	4315.5
Dutch	73	5053	5000.5
combined	136	9316	9316

```
unadjusted variance        52505.25
adjustment for ties       -15272.51
                          _____
adjusted variance          37232.74

Ho: Q8_7(Q16==British) = Q8_7(Q16==Dutch)
           z =   -0.272
    Prob > |z| =    0.7856
```

```
. ranksum Q8_5, by(Q16)

Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test

         Q16 |     obs    rank sum    expected
-------------+---------------------------------
     British |      63        4344      4315.5
       Dutch |      73        4972      5000.5
-------------+---------------------------------
    combined |     136        9316        9316

unadjusted variance      52505.25
adjustment for ties      -8974.81
                        ----------
adjusted variance        43530.44

Ho: Q8_5(Q16==British) = Q8_5(Q16==Dutch)
            z =    0.137
    Prob > |z| =    0.8913
```

B1.9

```
. tab Q9 Q16, exact

Enumerating sample-space combinations:
stage 4:   enumerations = 1
stage 3:   enumerations = 2
stage 2:   enumerations = 22
stage 1:   enumerations = 0
```

Important purchasing	Nationality British/Dutch		
factor	British	Dutch	Total
The lowest price poss	9	12	21
The price versus the	37	54	91
The experience the ho	18	7	25
I have never bought a	1	0	1
Total	65	73	138

```
        Fisher's exact =                0.019
```

```
. tab Q9nat Q16, exact

                       Nationality
                      British/Dutch
        Q9nat |    British      Dutch  |     Total
--------------+------------------------+----------
            0 |        55         61   |       116
            1 |         9         12   |        21
--------------+------------------------+----------
        Total |        64         73   |       137

              Fisher's exact =                 0.814
      1-sided Fisher's exact =                 0.443

. tab Q9nat2 Q16, exact

                       Nationality
                      British/Dutch
       Q9nat2 |    British      Dutch  |     Total
--------------+------------------------+----------
            0 |         9         12   |        21
            1 |        37         54   |        91
--------------+------------------------+----------
        Total |        46         66   |       112

              Fisher's exact =                 1.000
      1-sided Fisher's exact =                 0.521

. tab Q9nat3 Q16, exact

                       Nationality
                      British/Dutch
       Q9nat3 |    British      Dutch  |     Total
--------------+------------------------+----------
            0 |        46         66   |       112
            1 |        18          7   |        25
--------------+------------------------+----------
        Total |        64         73   |       137

              Fisher's exact =                 0.007
      1-sided Fisher's exact =                 0.005
```

B1.10

```
. robvar Q10, by(Q16)
```

Nationality British/Dutch	Summary of Importance agreeing with booking choice		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Freq.
British	4.078125	1.6065806	64
Dutch	3.3561644	1.4564975	73
Total	3.6934307	1.5650693	137

```
W0  =  1.3845710    df(1, 135)      Pr > F = 0.24139465

W50 =  3.0343474    df(1, 135)      Pr > F = 0.08379692

W10 =  2.2411560    df(1, 135)      Pr > F = 0.13671487
```

```
. by Q16, sort: swilk Q10
```

```
-> Q16 = British
```

Shapiro-Wilk W test for normal data

Variable	Obs	W	V	z	Prob>z
Q10	64	0.98303	0.972	-0.062	0.52469

```
-> Q16 = Dutch
```

Shapiro-Wilk W test for normal data

Variable	Obs	W	V	z	Prob>z
Q10	73	0.93828	3.931	2.984	0.00142

.

Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test

Q16	obs	rank sum	expected
British	64	5083	4416
Dutch	73	4370	5037
combined	137	9453	9453

unadjusted variance   53728.00
adjustment for ties   -2033.09
                          _____
adjusted variance   51694.91

Ho: Q10(Q16==British) = Q10(Q16==Dutch)
            z =   2.934
    Prob > |z| =   0.0034

. ttest Q10, by(Q16)

Two-sample t test with equal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
British	64	4.078125	.2008226	1.606581	3.676813	4.479437
Dutch	73	3.356164	.1704701	1.456498	3.016338	3.69599
combined	137	3.693431	.1337129	1.565069	3.429005	3.957856
diff		.7219606	.2617205		.204358	1.239563

    diff = mean(British) - mean(Dutch)   t =   2.7585
Ho: diff = 0   degrees of freedom =   135

    Ha: diff < 0   Ha: diff != 0   Ha: diff > 0
 Pr(T < t) = 0.9967   Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.0066   Pr(T > t) = 0.0033

B1.11

```
. robvar Q11, by(Q16)
```

Nationality British/Dutch	Summary of Importance success perceivance		
ch	Mean	Std. Dev.	Freq.
British	4	1.8170271	64
Dutch	4.3561644	1.5843844	73
Total	4.189781	1.7000556	137

```
W0  =  2.4710793   df(1, 135)      Pr > F = 0.11829907

W50 =  0.6128169   df(1, 135)      Pr > F = 0.43510023

W10 =  3.1123622   df(1, 135)      Pr > F = 0.07996202

. by Q16, sort: swilk Q11
```

-> Q16 = British

Shapiro-Wilk W test for normal data

Variable	Obs	W	V	z	Prob>z
Q11	64	0.95033	2.844	2.261	0.01188

-> Q16 = Dutch

Shapiro-Wilk W test for normal data

Variable	Obs	W	V	z	Prob>z
Q11	73	0.98335	1.060	0.128	0.44921

```
. ranksum Q11, by (Q16)

Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test

          Q16  |      obs     rank sum     expected
   -------------+---------------------------------------
       British  |       64       4095.5         4416
         Dutch  |       73       5357.5         5037
   -------------+---------------------------------------
      combined  |      137         9453         9453

   unadjusted variance      53728.00
   adjustment for ties      -2058.29
                            ----------
   adjusted variance        51669.71

   Ho: Q11(Q16==British) = Q11(Q16==Dutch)
                z =  -1.410
       Prob > |z| =   0.1585

. ttest Q11, by (Q16)

Two-sample t test with equal variances

   --------+--------------------------------------------------------------------
     Group |     Obs        Mean     Std. Err.    Std. Dev.   [95% Conf. Interval]
   --------+--------------------------------------------------------------------
   British |      64           4     .2271284     1.817027     3.54612    4.45388
     Dutch |      73    4.356164     .1854382     1.584384      3.9865   4.725829
   --------+--------------------------------------------------------------------
  combined |     137    4.189781     .1452455     1.700056    3.902549   4.477013
   --------+--------------------------------------------------------------------
      diff |             -.3561644     .2905838                -.9308498    .218521
   --------+--------------------------------------------------------------------
       diff = mean(British) - mean(Dutch)                           t =  -1.2257
   Ho: diff = 0                                degrees of freedom =      135

       Ha: diff < 0                 Ha: diff != 0                 Ha: diff > 0
    Pr(T < t) = 0.1112       Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.2225          Pr(T > t) = 0.8888
```

B2.1 (Robustness check)

Q6

```
Enumerating sample-space combinations:
stage 6:   enumerations = 1
stage 5:   enumerations = 3
stage 4:   enumerations = 12
stage 3:   enumerations = 93
stage 2:   enumerations = 455
stage 1:   enumerations = 0
```

Type of holiday (int\dome)	Nationality British/Dutch		Total
	British	Dutch	
Domestic holiday (eit	8	1	9
International holiday	32	44	76
International holiday	7	14	21
International holiday	2	9	11
International holiday	1	2	3
I have never bought a	2	0	2
Total	52	70	122

```
        Fisher's exact =                 0.009
```

```
. tab Q6nat Q16, exact

                  |       Nationality
                  |      British/Dutch
         Q6nat    |   British      Dutch  |      Total
------------------+------------------------+----------
            0     |        8          1    |         9
            1     |       42         69    |       111
------------------+------------------------+----------
        Total     |       50         70    |       120

              Fisher's exact =                 0.004
      1-sided Fisher's exact =                 0.004


. tab Q6nat1 Q16, exact

                  |       Nationality
                  |      British/Dutch
        Q6nat1    |   British      Dutch  |      Total
------------------+------------------------+----------
            0     |       42         69    |       111
            1     |        8          1    |         9
------------------+------------------------+----------
        Total     |       50         70    |       120

              Fisher's exact =                 0.004
      1-sided Fisher's exact =                 0.004


. tab Q6nat2 Q16, chi2

                  |       Nationality
                  |      British/Dutch
        Q6nat2    |   British      Dutch  |      Total
------------------+------------------------+----------
            0     |       12         25    |        37
            1     |       32         44    |        76
------------------+------------------------+----------
        Total     |       44         69    |       113

          Pearson chi2(1) =    0.9793    Pr = 0.322
```

```
. tab Q6nat3 Q16, chi2

                     Nationality
                    British/Dutch
      Q6nat3 |   British     Dutch |     Total
-------------+--------------------+----------
           0 |        5        11 |        16
           1 |        7        14 |        21
-------------+--------------------+----------
       Total |       12        25 |        37

            Pearson chi2(1) =    0.0180    Pr = 0.893

. tab Q6nat5 Q16, exact

                     Nationality
                    British/Dutch
      Q6nat5 |   British     Dutch |     Total
-------------+--------------------+----------
           0 |        2         0 |         2
           1 |        1         2 |         3
-------------+--------------------+----------
       Total |        3         2 |         5

              Fisher's exact =                 0.400
      1-sided Fisher's exact =                 0.300

. tab Q6nat4 Q16, exact

                     Nationality
                    British/Dutch
      Q6nat4 |   British     Dutch |     Total
-------------+--------------------+----------
           0 |        3         2 |         5
           1 |        2         9 |        11
-------------+--------------------+----------
       Total |        5        11 |        16

              Fisher's exact =                 0.245
      1-sided Fisher's exact =                 0.139
```

```
. ttest Q8_4, by(Q16)

Two-sample t test with equal variances
```

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
British	50	3.44	.1344983	.9510467	3.169716	3.710284
Dutch	70	3.085714	.1216567	1.017853	2.843016	3.328413
combined	120	3.233333	.0914659	1.001959	3.052222	3.414445
diff		.3542857	.1834343		-.0089642	.7175356

```
    diff = mean(British) - mean(Dutch)                        t =    1.9314
Ho: diff = 0                                   degrees of freedom =       118

    Ha: diff < 0                    Ha: diff != 0                   Ha: diff > 0
 Pr(T < t) = 0.9721           Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.0558          Pr(T > t) = 0.0279

.
. tab Q9 Q16, exact

Enumerating sample-space combinations:
stage 4:   enumerations = 1
stage 3:   enumerations = 2
stage 2:   enumerations = 20
stage 1:   enumerations = 0
```

Important purchasing	Nationality British/Dutch		
factor	British	Dutch	Total
The lowest price poss	9	11	20
The price versus the	29	52	81
The experience the ho	13	7	20
I have never bought a	1	0	1
Total	52	70	122

```
        Fisher's exact =                    0.046
```

```
. tab Q9nat Q16, exact
```

	Nationality British/Dutch		
Q9nat	British	Dutch	Total
0	42	59	101
1	9	11	20
Total	51	70	121

```
        Fisher's exact =                0.808
1-sided Fisher's exact =                0.483
```

```
. tab Q9nat2 Q16, exact
```

	Nationality British/Dutch		
Q9nat2	British	Dutch	Total
0	9	11	20
1	29	52	81
Total	38	63	101

```
        Fisher's exact =                0.453
1-sided Fisher's exact =                0.305
```

```
. tab Q9nat3 Q16, exact
```

	Nationality British/Dutch		
Q9nat3	British	Dutch	Total
0	38	63	101
1	13	7	20
Total	51	70	121

```
        Fisher's exact =                0.028
1-sided Fisher's exact =                0.022
```

```
. ranksum Q10, by (Q16)

Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test

            Q16 |       obs      rank sum     expected
----------------+----------------------------------------
        British |        51         3560         3111
          Dutch |        70         3821         4270
----------------+----------------------------------------
       combined |       121         7381         7381

unadjusted variance      36295.00
adjustment for ties      -1467.22
                       ------------
adjusted variance        34827.78

Ho: Q10(Q16==British) = Q10(Q16==Dutch)
             z =    2.406
    Prob > |z| =   0.0161


. ttest Q10, by(Q16)

Two-sample t test with equal variances
------------------------------------------------------------------------------
   Group |     Obs        Mean     Std. Err.    Std. Dev.   [95% Conf. Interval]
---------+--------------------------------------------------------------------
 British |      51    4.019608    .2300728     1.643048    3.557493    4.481723
   Dutch |      70    3.371429    .1764281     1.476104    3.019464    3.723393
---------+--------------------------------------------------------------------
combined |     121    3.644628    .1431924     1.575116    3.361117    3.928139
---------+--------------------------------------------------------------------
    diff |              .6481793    .2850714                 .0837094    1.212649
------------------------------------------------------------------------------
    diff = mean(British) - mean(Dutch)                          t =    2.2737
Ho: diff = 0                                degrees of freedom =       119

    Ha: diff < 0                 Ha: diff != 0                  Ha: diff > 0
 Pr(T < t) = 0.9876       Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.0248          Pr(T > t) = 0.0124
```

```
. tab Q6 Q16, exact

Enumerating sample-space combinations:
stage 5:   enumerations = 1
stage 4:   enumerations = 2
stage 3:   enumerations = 9
stage 2:   enumerations = 40
stage 1:   enumerations = 0
```

Type of holiday (int\dome)	Nationality British/Dutch British	Dutch	Total
Domestic holiday (eit	8	0	8
International holiday	25	19	44
International holiday	6	5	11
International holiday	2	3	5
I have never bought a	1	0	1
Total	42	27	69

```
            Fisher's exact =                      0.076
```

```
. tab Q6nat1 Q16, exact
```

Q6nat1	Nationality British/Dutch British	Dutch	Total
0	33	27	60
1	8	0	8
Total	41	27	68

```
            Fisher's exact =                      0.018
    1-sided Fisher's exact =                      0.013
```

```
. tab Q6nat2 Q16, chi2
```

Q6nat2	Nationality British/Dutch British	Dutch	Total
0	9	8	17
1	25	19	44
Total	34	27	61

```
        Pearson chi2(1) =    0.0747   Pr = 0.785
```

```
. tab Q6nat3 Q16, chi2

                    Nationality
                   British/Dutch
       Q6nat3 |   British      Dutch  |     Total
      --------+----------------------+----------
            0 |        3          3  |         6
            1 |        6          5  |        11
      --------+----------------------+----------
        Total |        9          8  |        17

            Pearson chi2(1) =   0.0322   Pr = 0.858

. tab Q6nat4 Q16, exact

                    Nationality
                   British/Dutch
       Q6nat4 |   British      Dutch  |     Total
      --------+----------------------+----------
            0 |        1          0  |         1
            1 |        2          3  |         5
      --------+----------------------+----------
        Total |        3          3  |         6

            Fisher's exact =                 1.000
    1-sided Fisher's exact =                 0.500

. ttest Q8_4, by(Q16)

Two-sample t test with equal variances
```

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
British	41	3.609756	.1670331	1.069534	3.27217	3.947343
Dutch	27	2.888889	.2157167	1.120897	2.445477	3.332301
combined	68	3.323529	.1380937	1.13875	3.047893	3.599166
diff		.7208672	.2701654		.1814646	1.26027

```
    diff = mean(British) - mean(Dutch)                        t =    2.6682
Ho: diff = 0                                 degrees of freedom =        66

    Ha: diff < 0                Ha: diff != 0                 Ha: diff > 0
 Pr(T < t) = 0.9952       Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.0096         Pr(T > t) = 0.0048
```

```
. tab Q9 Q16, exact

Enumerating sample-space combinations:
stage 4:   enumerations = 1
stage 3:   enumerations = 2
stage 2:   enumerations = 12
stage 1:   enumerations = 0
```

Important purchasing factor	Nationality British/Dutch		Total
	British	Dutch	
The lowest price poss	5	3	8
The price versus the	23	22	45
The experience the ho	13	2	15
I have never bought a	1	0	1
Total	42	27	69

```
        Fisher's exact =                   0.058
```

```
. tab Q9nat Q16, exact
```

Q9nat	Nationality British/Dutch		Total
	British	Dutch	
0	36	24	60
1	5	3	8
Total	41	27	68

```
        Fisher's exact =                   1.000
1-sided Fisher's exact =                   0.605
```

```
. tab Q9nat2 Q16, exact
```

Q9nat2	Nationality British/Dutch		Total
	British	Dutch	
0	5	3	8
1	23	22	45
Total	28	25	53

```
        Fisher's exact =                   0.708
1-sided Fisher's exact =                   0.419
```

```
. tab Q9nat3 Q16, exact

                    Nationality
                   British/Dutch
      Q9nat3 |   British      Dutch |      Total
-------------+----------------------+----------
           0 |        28         25 |         53
           1 |        13          2 |         15
-------------+----------------------+----------
       Total |        41         27 |         68

              Fisher's exact =                 0.020
      1-sided Fisher's exact =                 0.016


. ranksum Q10, by (Q16)

Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test

         Q16 |      obs    rank sum    expected
-------------+---------------------------------
     British |       41      1551.5      1414.5
       Dutch |       27       794.5       931.5
-------------+---------------------------------
    combined |       68        2346        2346

unadjusted variance       6365.25
adjustment for ties       -224.75
                         ----------
adjusted variance         6140.50

Ho: Q10(Q16==British) = Q10(Q16==Dutch)
            z =    1.748
   Prob > |z| =    0.0804
```