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**The Motivations, Constraints and Decision-making
of Beijing Outbound Tourists**

By

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Abstract

The number of international tourists from China has increased remarkably in the past two decades, and it is expected to continue growing with an increase of household income and discretionary time. This thesis aims to understand Chinese outbound pleasure travellers by identifying their travel motivations, constraints and decision making in the pre-trip stage. Beijing was selected in the research because it is one of the three largest outbound tourist generating cities in China. Hence, the characteristics of travellers from Beijing are representative of a significant part in China's outbound travel market.

This thesis addresses the following issues. The study of motivation answers “why” Chinese tourists go overseas for holiday. The literature suggests motivation can be understood from push and pull perspectives. In this framework, push factors refer to the tourist as a subject and deal with those factors driving him or her to travel. On the other hand, pull factors are those which attract the tourist to a given resort or destination. This study attempts to identify the push and pull factors associated with Chinese outbound tourists. Furthermore, market segmentation was achieved based on this framework by clustering the respondents into four groups.

The decision-making process is complex and involves several stages and influencing factors. The first decision is usually whether to travel or stay at home. The proposition is that motivation and constraints have certain impacts on participation. The next decision is related to where to travel. The proposition here is that the destination choice is influenced by motivation, constraints and socio-demographic characteristics as well as the attractiveness of place attributes. Moreover, these factors are expected

to also influence the travel frequency. After selecting the destination, a number of subordinate decisions, such as accommodation, travel mode, length of stay and activities have to be made. The proposition is that decisions on these issues are greatly influenced by socio-demographic characteristics. A theoretical model of decision-making was presented on the basis of these propositions. It should be mentioned that this model focuses on the relationship of these factors instead of the sequence of decision-making. There are indeed cases in which, for example, people decide on activities before destination choice.

A mixed method was adopted when the merits and deficiencies of both qualitative and quantitative approaches were taken into consideration. Qualitative data from interviews with 20 Beijing residents were collected with two purposes: first, to help identify the variables selected in the survey; second, to supplement interpretation of the results from the survey. Next a survey was used to gather quantitative data. T-test, ANOVA, factor and cluster analysis, as well as regression were used to analyse the data in SPSS. The combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches was utilized to enhance the trustworthiness of the findings.

The study identifies the most important push and pull motivations as well as the main constraints for Beijing outbound tourists. The results of the study also include an assessment of the influences of motivation, constraints and the role of socio-demographic variables on destination choice and travel frequency. Other useful findings about subdecisions of Beijing outbound tourists are reported such as desired activities, information search, accommodation selection etc.

The research findings provide information for destination marketers and service providers as to the expectation, preference, and characteristics of Chinese outbound

tourists, and help them better promote and service this market. Meanwhile, the research contributes to the travel behaviour literature by providing empirical evidence about the decision-making process of Chinese outbound tourists.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the general structure of the thesis. It starts with the research background---a brief introduction of China's outbound travel market. The purpose and significance of the study are presented in the second section. The final part attempts to describe the outline of each chapter.

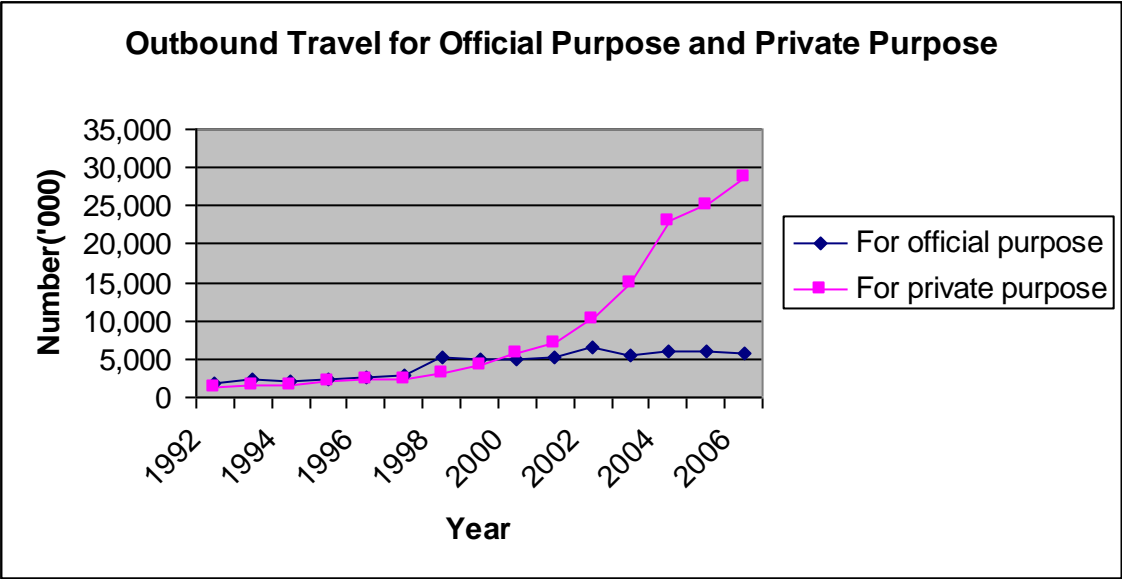
Background of the Research

Chinese citizens began to travel abroad after the "open door" policy commenced in the 1980s. In the pioneer stage, most people travelled overseas to visit friends and relatives, and then business and conference travel began to increase. From the late 1990s, a Chinese pleasure travel market emerged as the Chinese government signed bilateral agreements of Approved Destination Status (ADS) with several Southeast Asian countries. Compared with many other developed countries, Chinese outbound tourism has only started recently; but, it has been developing at a remarkable speed. In the last decade, the number of Chinese outbound travellers rose from 5 million in 1996 to around 35 million in 2006 (CNTA, 1992-2007). Overseas travel for either business or holiday is not unusual for many Chinese people. According to the World Tourism Organisation, China could well become the number one tourist destination in the world and the fourth tourist-generating country of international tourism following Germany, Japan and the US, with an estimated 100 million outbound travellers by 2020 (WTO, 1998). There is no doubt that China is a huge potential market for the world's tourism.

Another significant change in China's travel market is the booming increase of pleasure travellers. This trend can be easily seen in Figure 1.1. At present, official statistics are

collected based on two categories: travel for official and private purposes. Travel for official purpose refers to those government officials and public servants, as well as executives and employees of state-owned enterprises, visiting other countries for public affairs, business, training and cultural exchange. The travelling expenses are usually paid by government or state-owned enterprises. Travel for private purposes refer to Chinese citizens going overseas at their own expenses for sightseeing, vacation, study, visiting friends and relatives (VFR), etc. Outbound travel for official and business purposes has long dominated the outbound market, but overseas travel for private affairs such as VFR, sightseeing and vacation has increased dramatically at the same time, albeit from an initially smaller base. In 2000, travel for private purposes began to outstrip official travel with 5.63 million private trips compared with 4.84 million official business and governmental trips. In 2006, overseas travel for private purposes went up sharply to 28.80 millions while outbound travel for official reasons reached a plateau of 5.72 million. Hence, travels for private purposes become the main body in China's overseas travel market (Ivy Alliance Tourism Consulting, 2007).

Figure 1.1 Outbound Travel for Official Purpose and Private Purpose



Changes have also happened on the supply side. The ADS scheme has been implemented from the very beginning of Chinese outbound tourism. Under this policy, Chinese tourists are only allowed to take a pleasure trip to ADS countries. Moreover, they must travel in a group with a guided tour escort. Only ten countries or regions were granted ADS before 2000, including Hong Kong, Macao, Thailand, Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines, Australia, New Zealand, South Korea and Japan. Since then, the Chinese government started to loosen its restriction on ADS approvals. More and more countries have been added to the ADS list which allows them to receive guided package tour groups from China (Dai, et.al, 2005). By the end of 2009, more than 100 countries had obtained ADS approval and become destinations for Chinese pleasure travellers, which included most of the Asian, Oceania, European nations and some American and African countries (CNTA, 2009).

The remarkable growth of China's outbound tourism has attracted attention from industry, media as well as the academic world, both within China and internationally. However, news, statistical data, and business reports tend to dominate. Additionally, research in this field is mostly descriptive. It is obvious that with reference to the phenomenon of Chinese outbound tourism, academic research has lagged behind the event until only very recently.

Tourist behaviour is a fundamental subject in tourism studies. These behaviours can be divided into three: before, during and after the trip. Before the trip, tourists' behaviours are connected with issues of travel motivation, destination image, and decision making. During the trip the issue of attitudes toward service quality is often investigated along with activity selection and the nature of the experience. Tourists' satisfaction is often studied after the trip (Chen & Hsu, 2000). Motivation and decision making before the trip, as the basic foundation of studying tourist behaviour, has received much attention in the literature (Jang and Cai, 2002). However, people do not have much information about Chinese outbound travellers

regarding these issues. There is an urgent need to undertake research so as to better understand this travel market. Answering these needs, this research focuses on residents from Beijing, one of the three largest outbound tourists generating city (Zhang & Lam, 1999). This thesis presents theoretical and empirical research on the decision-making behaviour of Beijing outbound pleasure travellers.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

Despite the increasing number of academic studies in tourist behaviour, our understanding of tourist psychology and behaviour is insufficient for the Chinese outbound market, given possible cultural issues. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the number of pleasure travellers has far outstripped the official travellers (Ivy Alliance Tourism Consulting, 2007). Demand for tourism and recreation in China has increased significantly over the last decade. An increasing number of Chinese people go abroad for holiday and sightseeing. The pleasure travel market from China is expected to keep growing. For those destination marketers who attempt to effectively promote their destinations or products to the Chinese, understanding the market potential and factors which underlie the decision-making is important before launching marketing campaigns. The purpose of the study is to better understand pleasure travellers from Beijing, which will provide tourism marketers with some insights about this market, thereby helping them in marketing, planning and product development. What motivates Beijingers to take a holiday overseas? What factors inhibit people from going abroad? How do they select a vacation destination? What factors influence their decision-making? The current study attempts to answer these questions by adopting both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The general objective of this study is to better understand the motivations, constraints and decision-making of Beijing outbound tourists. To be specific, the research attempts to achieve the following sub-objectives:

1. To understand what motivates Chinese people to take overseas pleasure travels;
2. To understand what inhibits Chinese people from travelling overseas;
3. To identify different segment groups based on push-pull motives in order to know about their characteristics;
4. To understand the process of decision-making with reference to Chinese outbound pleasure travellers, in the context of Beijing;
5. To understand the role that motivations, constraints, socio-demographic and trip-related factors play in the decision-making process.

According to Keating and Kriz (2008) the academic literature on buying behaviour, travelling pattern and holiday preferences of the Chinese market is sparse and provides little guidance on the decision-making processes of Chinese outbound tourists. The thesis aims to make a contribution to the literature in this area. It also provides practical value to the industry in understanding the motivation, constraints and decision-making of Chinese outbound tourists. As Crompton and McKay (1997) conclude, there are three reasons for investigating tourist motives. First, this is a key to designing offerings for the tourists. The second reason for better understanding motives lies in their close relationship with satisfaction. Finally, it is a key ingredient in understanding the decision processes. Therefore, this study starts with investigating the motives that drive Beijing residents to travel overseas for holiday or sightseeing. An appropriate identification of their motivations is of foremost importance for effectively developing products and services. If those needs are not understood, lower satisfaction may occur. Destination marketers and travel service providers could make use of the information of travel motivation revealed in this study to undertake promotions themed around those needs which will appeal to Chinese outbound tourists. This research also

examines the reasons that keep Chinese people from travelling abroad. The study of travel constraints helps us to gain a stronger understanding of barriers to participate in overseas holiday with reference to Beijing residents. For tourism marketers, knowing why people do not travel may suggest strategies that can be used to overcome constraints (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008). Last, but not the least, the decision-making process of Beijing outbound tourists also falls within the scope of this study. The goal is to understand how decisions are made and how underlying variables affect choice behaviour. It is crucial for destination marketers to understand the tourists' decision process, in order to develop effective marketing strategies. Overall, this study extends our knowledge of travel motivation, constraints and decision behaviours within the context of Beijing outbound tourists. This research provides insights into the Beijing outbound pleasure travel market. The findings of the study provide useful information for destination marketers to utilize when they undertake the marketing campaign or develop tourist products targeting Chinese outbound travel market, in particular Beijing outbound tourists.

The thesis relies on the primary data which was generated from questionnaire and interview. The focus of the current study is on the relationship between motivation, constraints, and consequent decisions, not on the decision-making flow itself. Therefore, the sequence of decisions is not the focal point.

Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into eleven chapters. A summary of each chapter is as follows.

Chapter 1 Introduction

This chapter gives the readers an overview of the thesis through three sections. Research background is presented in the first section, which briefly describes the formation and change of China's outbound travel market. The second section states the research objectives, which are to understand motivation, constraints, and the main factors influencing decision-making of Beijing outbound pleasure travellers, followed by the significance of the research. The third part of the chapter is the thesis outline with a summary for each chapter.

Chapter 2 Context of China Outbound Tourism

This chapter discusses the context of this research and attempts to provide comprehensive information about the Chinese outbound travel market, so that the readers can have some background knowledge of this market. The chapter includes five sections: the history of outbound tourism development, the driving force behind it, the government policy on outbound tourism, outbound destinations for Chinese tourists and forecast for this travel market.

Chapter 3 Literature Review

Following the introduction and research context, this chapter provides a literature review relevant to this study that addresses three issues in tourist behaviour and tourism marketing. They are travel motivation, constraints and decision-making process (including destination

choice). In addition, market segmentation literature is also reviewed to inform the understanding of grouping tourists into segments. As some tourism theories or models are borrowed from sociology, psychology, consumer behaviour and leisure studies, related literature in other disciplines has also been included in the review.

Chapter 4 Research Methodology

In chapter 4, the philosophical assumptions and methodological issues used in Beijing outbound tourist research are examined. A conceptual framework and six propositions are proposed for this study. The following section looks at the research design, validity and reliability, as well as ethical issues regarding this research.

Chapter 5 Questionnaire Design and the Nature of Sample

This chapter discusses the qualitative research. Data collection and analysis of interviews serve a supportive role to questionnaire design. Then, the research objectives are again presented here as a guideline to questionnaire design. The next section provides details of questionnaire design to achieve the research goals. The fourth and fifth parts of this chapter describe demographic characteristics and general travel information of the sample respondents. The reliability and validity of the research are also examined.

Chapter 6 Travel Motives and Underlying Dimensions

This chapter attempts to answer the following questions: (1) Why do Beijingers travel overseas for pleasure? (2) What are the major motivations? (3) What are the underlying dimensions for motivations that emerged in the study? (4) Is there any difference among

groups in terms of travel motivation? Descriptive, T-test, ANOVA and factor analysis were used to analyse key findings from these questions.

Chapter 7 Whether to Travel: The Role of Constraints

This chapter reports the findings on constraint items and dimensions as well as the influence of motivation and constraints on travel participation. The first part attempts to find out the main inhibiting factors for Beijing pleasure travellers. The second part in this chapter examines the role that motivation and constraints play in determining whether Beijing residents participate in overseas travel. In the last part, exploratory factor analysis was adopted to test whether the underlying dimensions are in line with previous research.

Chapter 8 Market Segmentation of Beijing Pleasure Travellers

In this chapter, market segmentation is achieved by cluster analysis based on travel motivations and destination attributes. Items instead of dimensions were used with a view of achieving higher accuracy. In order to know which variables differentiate between clusters most, discriminant analysis was conducted. Lastly, the profile of each segment and their trip characteristics were obtained by cross-tabulation with chi-square statistics.

Chapter 9 Determinants in Decision-making Process

The aim of this chapter is to identify which variables influence the decision-making process. The influences of psychographic, constraint factors, socio-demographic, as well as trip-related characteristics on the frequency of travel and the destination choice are examined. The results are derived from multiple regression analysis in which the dependent variable is “times of overseas travel in the last five years”, as well as binary logistic regression in which the

dependent variable is “travel within or out of Asia”. The independent variables are those motivational and constraints items, as well as the socio-demographic and trip characteristics.

Chapter 10 Preference and Decisions of Beijing Outbound Travellers

This chapter discusses the findings about other decisions that pleasure travellers have to make during the vacation planning, such as accommodation, length of stay, travel mode, travel agency selection, activities, etc. These results can help predict future travel patterns. It also provides tour operators and tourism marketers with a better understanding of the real expectations, needs and preferences of Beijing pleasure travellers.

Chapter 11 Conclusion

The final chapter summarises the main findings from the study and re-examines the research propositions and objectives. The chapter then states the contribution of this research to literature and industry. A model on evolution of the Beijing outbound market is proposed. Limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are also discussed.

Conclusion

This opening chapter gives a general overview of the thesis, which includes three sections: research background, purpose and significance of the study and thesis outline. The study was designed with the aim of understanding motivation, constraints, and decision-making of outbound pleasure travellers from Beijing. Five sub-objectives were listed above in section two of this chapter. This study is significant when considering the importance of Chinese outbound travel market and its fast development in recent years. As Yu & Weiler (2001) pointed out, limited research has been conducted on Chinese outbound travel in general,

despite its importance. For this reason, this thesis is of significance to better understand this unique travel market in three aspects: motivations, constraints and decision behaviour. The results of this study should be of interest to researchers engaged in travellers' decision processes and destination involvement studies; and to practitioners who want to know more about the Chinese outbound travel market. It should provide useful information for destination marketers in their efforts to segment and target the Chinese outbound travel market. Given the key variables of the decision-making process, destination marketers will have a better understanding of the characteristics of the Chinese market relative to the strengths and weaknesses of their respective destinations, thus allowing them to be more effective in their packaging, promotion and predicting intentions and demands.

Chapter 2 The Context of Chinese Outbound Tourism

China's outbound travel has grown seven fold in the past 10 years. In 2003 China had more outbound tourists than Japan and became the major source of such tourists in Asia. It can be seen from Table 2.1 that outbound travel from China reached 40 million in 2007, representing a 18.6 % increase on 2006 (China National Tourism Administration, 1992-2007). It took ten years to reach the first 10 million, but the subsequent increase was so dramatic that it took only three years to grow from 10 to 20 million and two years from 20 to 30 million (Song & Chen, 2006).

In addition to the rapid rise in the number of travellers, in 2004, China ranked seventh among the world's top tourism spenders, with an international tourism expenditure of US\$19.1 billion (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2004). A joint survey conducted by the Tax Free World Association and market research company ACNielsen revealed that Chinese travellers were the biggest spenders of all on shopping during outbound trips; creating a group they termed "the most extravagant shoppers and big spenders". In 2005, the average expenditure on shopping for Chinese outbound tourists was US\$987, which outspent any other group of international tourists (ACNielsen, 2005, May 19).

Table 2.1 Chinese Outbound Market Development (1992-2007)

Year	Outbound Market Totals (1,000)	Change (%)	For official Purpose (1,000)	Change (%)	For Private Purpose (1,000)	Change (%)	Expenditure of tourists (million US\$)	Change (%)
1992	2,929	--	1,736	--	1,193	--	2,512	--
1993	3,740	27.7	2,274	31.0	1,466	22.9	2,797	11.3
1994	3,734	--0.2	2,088	-8.0	1,642	12.0	3,036	8.5
1995	4,521	21.1	2,467	18	2,054	25.1	3,688	21.5
1996	5,061	12.0	2,647	7.3	2,414	17.5	4,474	20.6
1997	5,324	5.2	2,884	9.0	2,440	1.1	8,130	81.7
1998	8,426	58.3*	5,235	81.5*	3,190	30.7	9,205	13.6
1999	9,232	9.6	4,996	-5.1	4,266	33.7	10,864	18.0
2000	10,473	13.4	4,843	-2.5	5,631	32.0	13,114	20.7
2001	12,133	15.9	5,188	7.20	6,945	23.3	13,909	6.1
2002	16,602	36.8	6,541	26.0	10,061	44.9	15,398	10.7
2003	20,222	21.8	5,411	-17.3	14,811	47.2	15,187	-1.4
2004	28,853	42.7	5,880	9.0	22,980	55.2	19,149	26.1
2005	31,027	7.5	5,886	0.1	25,140	9.4	21,795	13.8
2006	34,524	11.3	5,725	-2.8	28,799	14.6	--	--
2007	40,954	18.6	6,030	5.3	34,924	21.3	--	--

*Note: There are some changes in the statistics. Outbound departures of the crew on ships and aircrafts are included.

Source: China National Tourism Administration and World Tourism Organization (1992-2007)

The History of Outbound Tourism Development in China

In recent years, tourism within China has become another expanding sector in the nation's economy. In 2006 alone, China had 125 million inbound travellers and 1.4 billion domestic travellers that generated revenues of around RMB 893.5 billion, which equalled 4.27% of China's GDP in that year. The outbound travel market was also growing with 34.5 million Chinese travelling overseas. The development of tourism in China follows a sequence of inbound tourism, domestic tourism and outbound tourism, a pattern that is applied to almost all developing countries.

Tourism in China initially started from receiving international tourists. In 1978 China received 1.81 million inbound travellers, of which 230,000 were non-Chinese ethnic tourists (Dai, et. al, 2005). As a result of the "open door" policy and the economy's rapid expansion, Chinese domestic and outbound tourism has developed strongly since the early 1980s. Due to historical reasons, Chinese outbound tourism includes both travel to overseas countries and to Hong Kong and Macao. Therefore, outbound tourism in China is characterised by three forms: Hong Kong and Macao travel, border travel and overseas travel. Outbound tourism in China has undergone the following four major stages:

Pioneer Phase (1983-1989)

Outbound tourism by Chinese citizens is a recent phenomenon (Zhang, 2003). Before China's economic reform and openness to the outside world, the purpose of Chinese overseas travel was primarily related to foreign affairs with an annual outbound departure of 2 million. Strictly speaking, this was more in the nature of diplomatic activity rather than outbound tourism in a real sense. In November 1983, Chinese people in Guangdong province were allowed to visit their friends and relatives in Hong Kong and Macao. In this case a significant financial undertaking was needed. According to regulations at that time, the expense incurred

for outbound travel was paid by the traveller's overseas relatives or friends. In 1984, the practice of visiting Hong Kong and Macao was extended to all other provinces in China. Permission for travel to Hong Kong and Macao at the time was a landmark event heralding the start of Chinese outbound market (China National Tourism Administration, 1998).

Almost at the same time border travel began in 1984 between Dandong in Liaoning province in China and Xinyizhou in North Korea. Both parties exchanged tour groups to have one-day friendship visits. The governments of both sides provided funding for this kind of visit. Soon afterwards an agreement was reached between the tourism administrations of the two countries that tourists themselves must pay for all travel expenses. In 1987, this one-day border tour was officially approved by CNTA and China Ministry of Foreign Trade and Economic Cooperation, which inspired other cities to follow suit. Later one-day tours were permitted along the borders of Russia, Korea and Mongolia in the north, and Vietnam, Laos and Burma in the south. Until 1989 the annual number of outbound travellers was about 3 million in total (Dai et al., 2005).

Initial development (1990-1996)

The initial development of Chinese outbound tourism started from the early 1990s. In 1990 the Chinese government signed a bilateral agreement with several Southeast Asian countries including Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand as ADS tourist destinations, which marked the actual commencement of outbound tourism in China. In order to standardise the norms for this market, CNTA thereupon enacted "Interim Measures for the Administration of Chinese Citizens Travelling to three Southeast Asian countries" (China National Tourism Administration, 1990). It prescribed that Chinese citizens were allowed to visit the three above countries if they had relatives and friends resident there who were willing to guarantee the visitors' finance and their return on schedule. Meanwhile, seven travel operators or

agencies were appointed to organise outbound tourist groups. No others were allowed to engage in this business without the authorisation of CNTA. The Philippines was added to the ADS list in 1992. Another two travel agencies were permitted to undertake Hong Kong and Macao tours. Therefore, in total nine agencies were authorised for outbound travel services, of which four agencies were based in Beijing and the rest in Guangdong, Fujian and Hainan provinces. For official travel, in addition to travel agencies, there are other organisations operating official travel abroad including international exchange centres affiliated with provincial or municipal government departments, and consultative companies specialising in operating official overseas travel (Ivy Alliance Tourism Consulting, 2007).

Steady Development (1997-2001)

The third phase was characterised by the issue of “Provisional Regulation on the Management of Outbound Travel by Chinese Citizens at Their Own Expense” by the China National Tourism Administration (CNTA) and the Ministry of Public Security in 1997. It implied that the government had started to place more importance on a Chinese outbound tourism market, one that had been neglected for a long time (Chen et al. 2006). The promulgation of this regulation had a powerful effect on the steady and healthy development of outbound tourism. Under this regulation the number of registered outbound tour operators increased to 67.

Meanwhile, Approved Destination Status (ADS) began to play a more important role. The year 1999 witnessed the signing of ADS agreements with Australia and New Zealand. Under these ADS schemes Chinese tourists could undertake leisure travel in groups to these countries. First, a pilot practice was carried out in Shanghai, Beijing and Guangzhou which allowed residents in these cities to make sightseeing or leisure travel in packaged tours. Later, the travel privileges were extended to the whole of China. In 2000 Vietnam, Cambodia, Burma, and Brunei were put on the list as being eligible to receive Chinese tourists.

Rapid Development (2002~now)

China's entry to the World Trade Organisation (WTO) was a major event for the country and from 2002 China is obliged to observe the WTO regulations and its obligations to the organisation. Adjustments in outbound tourism administration were made accordingly. In July 2002 "The Management Regulation on Chinese Outbound Tourism" was officially enacted and implemented (China National Tourism Administration, 2002). It stipulates five major aspects including the ADS system, the authorisation of travel agencies, use of name lists, entry and exit administration of tour groups, and service quality monitoring. This regulation prescribes certain standards for tour operators in their business. It also emphasises how to protect the legitimate rights and interests of outbound tourists. Meanwhile, "Provisional Regulation on the Management of Outbound Travel by Chinese Citizens at Their Own Expense 1997" was abolished. Another striking fact is that more and more countries obtained ADS. At the end of 2009, there were around 104 ADS countries and regions, providing a wider range of destinations for the Chinese travel (see Appendix 1).

In the process of development, some problems arose such as poor service, unethical business practices, and Zero-Dollar tours. King, Dwyer and Prideaux (2006) point out that quality issues are primarily associated with excessive shopping, a lower standard of accommodation than originally advertised and unexpected changes to the advertised itinerary. They further conclude these unethical business practices lead to diminished visitor satisfaction, reduced repeat visitation and negative word-of-mouth communication. Actual and potential costs may also include: adverse impacts on destination image leading to reduced visitation; reduced visitor expenditure and economic contribution of tourism to the destination country; losses incurred by suppliers as a result of inbound tourism organisation business failures; and foregone taxation revenue through cash-in-hand dealings (P128). A Zero-Dollar tour is a package tour priced below the operator's real cost. The operators make their money by

diverting their groups to jewellers or shopping centres that give them a commission or kickbacks on sales. It was once very common in Southeast Asian destinations, and has the potential to damage both destination image and the tourist experience (March, 2008). In the long term, the healthy and sustained tourism development in destination countries can not be achieved. For example, Thailand, as a typical example of receiving Chinese Zero-Dollar tours, suffered a great loss. The proportion of Chinese travellers to Thailand accounted for 9.7% in 1998. Unfortunately the number dropped to 2.9% in 2005. This was partly due to the emergence of other ADS destinations. However, a major reason was that potential Chinese tourists had heard of others' unpleasant experiences and were driven away for fear of being cheated (Zhao, 2006). Therefore, the Chinese government began to strengthen the administration of the market of Chinese citizens' outbound tours (China National Tourism Administration, 2003). A National Working Meeting on Outbound Tourism was held in June 2005. Deputy Director of CNTA, Zhang Xiqin, delivered a speech on "enforcing stricter regulation to ensure the healthy development of outbound tourism". More detailed regulations were publicly announced. In October 2005, the Thai and Chinese governments signed an agreement to work on curbing Zero-Dollar tours. Both Thai and Chinese tour operators were required to give clear information to their Chinese customers about all service charges before they took the trips (ThailandQA, 2006). Arlt (2006) argues that instead of trying to limit the total amount of outbound travel, the Chinese government is now taking measures to bring the chaotic situation under control through the adherence to quality standards.

According to the 11th Five-Year Plan (2006-2010), CNTA clarified its policy to comprehensively develop domestic tourism, boost inbound tourism and regulate outbound tourism with the goals of 8% annual increase of inbound tourists and domestic tourists respectively with total tourism revenue of RMB 1270 billion by 2010 (China National Tourism Administration, 2006).

As can be seen from above, Chinese outbound tourism gradually evolved through a sequence of VFR travel to Hong Kong and Macao, border tourism, and then short and long-haul travel to overseas countries. In fact, it is a fast-growing but immature outbound market, yet holding long-term potential in terms of both number and total expenditures.

The Drivers of Outbound Tourism Growth

The fast growth of the Chinese outbound market is attributed to economic development and social progress. It is generally accepted that tourism, especially outbound tourism is, in China, a luxury purchase rather than a necessity (Guo, 2002) that requires high income and sufficient time. Furthermore, outbound tourism involves government administration and bilateral policies as part of the government's management of the economy. In this section, the major impetuses that drive Chinese outbound tourism are briefly analysed to better understand this thriving market.

Economic Development and Income Increase

Tourism development is both a response to and a contributor to economic development (Wen & Tisdell, 2001). The rapid increase of tourism emerges when a country becomes more economically developed and discretionary household income subsequently becomes more available for such purchases. It is worthy of notice that China has one of the world's fastest growing economies with a GDP increase of over 8% per annum in the last two decades. In 2005, China's GDP reached US\$ 2229 billion, ranking fourth in the world according to the World Bank (2006). Table 2.2 shows economic development from 1980 to 2007 with key economic indicators.

Table 2.2 China's Economy from 1980 to 2007

Year	GDP (RMB billion)	Real GDP Growth (%)	Foreign Reserves minus gold (US\$ billion)	Per Capita GDP (RMB)
1980	451.8	7.8	2.5	463
1985	896.4	13.5	12.7	858
1990	1854.8	3.8	29.6	1644
1995	5847.8	10.5	75.4	5046
2000	8946.8	8.0	165.6	7858
2001	10965.5	8.3	212.2	8622
2002	12033.3	9.1	286.4	9398
2003	13582.3	10.0	403.3	10542
2004	15987.8	10.1	609.9	12336
2005	18308.4	9.9	818.9	14040
2006	20940.7	10.7	1066.3	15931
2007	24661.9	11.4	1530.0	US\$2280

Source: National Bureau of Statistics of China, State Administration of Foreign Exchange of China (1980-2007)

China's per capita GDP was US\$1700 in 2005 (Chu, 2006) and US\$2000 (Ren, Ding, Liang, & Duan, 2007) in 2006. It is of significance if a country achieves US\$2000 per capita GDP. According to the principles of Development Economics, per capita GDP of US\$400-2000 is an indication of an economic take-off period, while US\$2000-10000 per capita GDP implies economic developmental acceleration. The country experiences steady economic development if the per capita GDP is over US\$ 10000 (Pan, 2008). China has now entered the second phase of development. According to other countries' experience, in this stage people express a

significant and growing demand for cars, houses and comfortable vacations, with the former two as symbols of wealth.

It is worth noting that the difference in income levels among people of various geographic areas and classes is apparent. There were 37 cities with per capita GDP over US\$3000 in 2003, among which 14 cities reached US\$5000. Almost all the cities are located in Yangtze River Delta, Chu Chiang Delta and Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Region. Unsurprisingly, these areas are the primary outbound tourism generating regions. It also explains why only residents of Shanghai, Beijing and Guangzhou were permitted to some ADS destinations during the trial stages. There is also a great gap between rural and urban households. In 2005 the annual income for urban households was RMB 10493, while for rural households it was only RMB 3254.9

(National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2005).

Table 2.3 Per Capita Annual Income (RMB) of Urban and Rural Households by Region (2005)

Eastern	Per Capita Annual Income of Urban Households	Per Capita Annual Income of Rural Households	Central	Per Capita Annual Income of Urban Households	Per Capita Annual Income of Rural Households	Western	Per Capita Annual Income of Urban Households	Per Capita Annual Income of Rural Households
Beijing	19533.33	7346.26	Shanxi	9538.56	2890.66	Chongqing	11079.15	2809.32
Tianjin	13563.32	5579.87	Jilin	9122.99	3263.99	Sichuan	9003.59	2802.78
Hebei	9616.80	3481.64	Heilongjiang	8722.47	3221.27	Inner Mongolia	9565.14	2988.87
Liaoning	9837.20	3690.21	Jiangxi	9042.45	3128.89	Tibet	10659.31	2077.90
Shanghai	20602.90	8247.77	Henan	9145.98	2870.58	Gansu	8738.11	1979.88
Jiangsu	13329.95	5276.29	Hubei	9395.10	3099.20	Qinghai	8766.68	2151.46
Zhejiang	17877.36	6659.95	Hunan	10106.07	3117.74	Ningxia	8744.86	2508.89
Fujian	13407.6	4450.36	Anhui	9184.55	2640.96	Xinjiang	8693.67	2482.15
Shandong	11607.82	3930.55				Guizhou	8385.08	1876.96
Guangdong	16249.89	4690.49				Yunnan	9994.65	2041.79
Hainan	8670.15	3004.03				Guangxi	10022.40	2494.67
						Shaanxi	8902.26	2052.63

Source: National Bureau of Statistics of China (2005)

Table 2.3 shows disparities in incomes extending from the individual and household level to the provincial level. Although the whole country has experienced rapid economic growth, disparity in regional economic development is also well-recognised, and has been the focus of the policymakers and academia. Sha, Naude and Viviers (2007) found that there is growing agreement that after the commencement of economic reforms in 1978, there has been absolute divergence in per capita incomes between China's provinces, a trend which has accelerated since the early 1990s. They further pointed out that the income disparity among the Chinese provinces has become wider between 1994 and 2003. For historical reasons, China's eastern region has been more developed than the central and western regions. Besides, the gains from past reforms are not distributed equally among regions. The coastal regions of eastern China benefited greatly from economic reforms, and their economies quickly raced ahead. The non-coastal regions, especially western China, have lagged far behind. Moreover, the rural–urban income gap has widened. As far as Guangdong residents are concerned, the per capita annual income of urban residents (RMB 16249.89) is nearly four times that of their rural counterparts (RMB 4690.49). This pattern is repeated in many of the provinces of China.

These data can be also indicated by the Gini Coefficient, a measure of statistical dispersion most prominently used as a measure of inequality of income or wealth distribution. In China the Gini Coefficient has increased from 0.1 in 1980 to nearly 0.5 currently. China had already exceeded the 0.4 threshold --- widely viewed as an indicator or potential serious social disruption and instability ("Britannica Book of the Year 2006 ", 2008).

The Chinese government has been aware of the serious situation and already taken active measures to ease western and rural poverty. For example, the China Western Development Program is a policy adopted by People's Republic of China to boost its less developed Western China. The main components of the strategy include the development of

infrastructure (transport, hydropower plants, energy, and telecommunications), enticement of foreign investment, increased efforts on ecological protection (such as reforestation), promotion of education, and retention of talent flowing to richer provinces. As of 2006, a total of 1 trillion Chinese Yuan has been spent building infrastructure in western China (Wikipedia, 2008). Other moves include eliminating most of the basic agricultural taxes imposed on rural families and increasing agricultural subsidies for grain production.

Social Progress and Discretionary Time

People who want to travel are not only dependent on their disposable income, but also the availability of time. A six-day work policy, equal to 48 working hours per week, had been implemented since the establishment of PRC. With industrialisation and the progress of IT based technologies, the working hours have been reduced in the past decades. The Chinese government effectively cut working hours from 48 to 44 in May 1994 and then to 40 hours, when the two-day weekend was introduced in China in early 1995, which made the pursuit of leisure activities a reality. Golden Weeks were first initiated on the occasion of the 1999 National Day public holiday ("Status Report on China's Golden Weeks Public Holidays", 2007). Soon after in 2000, Chinese citizens were entitled to seven days of national holidays on May Day (from May 1st), National Day (from October 1st) and Spring Festival (in January or early February), as a measure to encourage holiday spending and improve the national standard of living, as well as allowing people to make long-distance family visits. In fact it is a 3-day paid holiday, and the surrounding weekends are re-arranged so that Chinese nationwide have seven continuous days of holiday (Wikipedia, 2008, February 14). The resulting seven-day holidays are called "Golden Weeks" and have become peak seasons for travelling. An estimated 28 million Chinese travelled during the first National Day Golden Week in 1999. In 2007, this number had increased to around 146 million with the tourism income of 55.9 billion Yuan (CNTA, 2007). In order to ensure the supply and demand for

holiday tourism and settle tourists' complaints, the Coordination Meeting Office (or called "National Holiday Office") was established and the tourism statistical information system was put into practice during "Golden Week Holidays". In total, the annual official holidays have been extended to more than 110 days, including two-day weekends and three golden weeks (Yu & Ge, 2006, May 6). This holiday entitlement has stimulated the dramatic growth of both domestic and outbound tourism in China. It has also changed the seasonality of the Chinese tourism market.

Travel is concentrated around the three Golden Weeks. However, many see this as a deterrent, and would like to see a move towards paid holidays (Cisa, 2005), which is now a topical issue. Many experts as well as the public are calling more than before for a "paid holiday", as people complain about congestion when travelling around in the country on the "big" holidays of Labour Day, National Day and Spring Festival. The Labour Law of China, which took effect in 1995, stipulates that all employees enjoy the right to take paid holiday once a year after working for one year, but in practice it performs no function without enforcement. The ETC-WTO joint research on China (2002) mentions that China will introduce the system of paid holidays for the working people in the next five years. According to the survey by Ctrip, the biggest consolidator of hotel accommodation and airline tickets for China's individual travellers, of all the 2200 respondents, about 14 percent of the respondents supported abolishing all three "Golden Week" holidays. But 49.4 percent wanted to abolish or change the May Day and National Day "Golden Weeks" and retain the Spring Festival holiday. If the government abolished one or more week-long holidays, 60.1 percent favoured compulsory paid vacation (Ctrip, 2007).

Then, in November 2007, regulations about paid holiday were approved by the Chinese government based on public opinion and these came into effect from January 1, 2008 (Yu,

2007). In the regulation, it is clearly stated that all employees are entitled to have paid holidays after working for the same unit for over one year. The paid holidays vary from 5 to 15 days according to the length of service in the unit. The public holiday and weekends are not counted as paid holidays. It is expected very soon that clear stipulations are going to be added to the current Labour Law, so as to ensure employees' right to their paid holidays. A sample survey by the China National Tourism Administration and State Statistical Bureau indicates that if the "paid holiday" system should be implemented, around 80 percent of urbanites could decide for themselves their time to travel to avoid the peak travel season, which would greatly relieve the pressure on transportation, tourism, commercial and catering sectors (China Daily Online, 2004, May 11). But a question inevitably comes up as to whether the paid holiday system can be effectively carried out. One concern is that unethical employment practices might take place in some companies, whereby employees are denied their paid holidays.

Meanwhile, public holiday arrangements are also being changed. There was no 7-day May Holiday in 2008 according to the new regulation from State Council (China News, 2007, December 18). That is to say, 3 days are expected (1st of May and 2-day weekends). Meanwhile, people will have, for the first time, traditional Chinese holidays including Dragon Boat Festival, Mid Autumn Festival and Pure Bright Festival (Tomb Sweeping Day), which regulations are believed to enhance an awareness of Chinese traditional culture. Nevertheless, the 7-day National Day Holiday in October will still remain the same. The above measures will undoubtedly have an impact on the seasonality of travelling overseas by Chinese citizens, because tourist movements are, to a large extent, affected by tourist-generating countries' holiday periods.

Relaxing Government Policies and Liberalisation

The Chinese government has, and continues to play a key and decisive role in shaping the development of tourism through the adoption of a series of policies, given the nature of China's economic development under communist rule with strong central government control (Zhang, Chong, & Ap, 1999). Zhang et.al (1999) also pointed out that:

“Chinese government has played various important roles: Operator --- involving the provision of the infrastructure for tourism development and through ownership and operation of tourism businesses; Regulator --- formulating and implementing regulations to run the tourism businesses; Investment stimulator --- stimulating tourism investment by granting financial incentives; Promoter --- spending money on the international promotion of tourism industry; Coordinator --- coordinating the activities among different government departments with respect to tourism; and Educator --- establishing tourism education institutions and providing tourism education and training programs.”
(p.482)

Tourism policy in China can be concluded to represent a “top-down” model, which means that tourism policy decisions, to a large extent, are shaped at the top level of tourism administration (Zhang, Chong, & Jenkins, 2002). The first explicit strategy was not proposed until the late 1990s --- “energetically develop inbound tourism, actively develop domestic tourism, and moderately develop outbound tourism”. These three adverbs reflected the government's different attitudes towards each market. As a developing country, inbound tourism has always been given the first priority for its function of foreign exchange earnings. A number of policies were decreed by the Chinese government such as holiday arrangements so as to meet the growing demand for vacation and leisure activity of Chinese residents. Parallel with the development of both incoming and domestic tourism, control of outbound

travel has been relaxed (Zhang, 2003). As tourist flows move in both directions, a more balanced tourism industry structure is expected to develop.

In the National 11th Five-Year Plan, the guiding principles for tourism are for a vigorous development of the tourist industry. To be specific, “comprehensively develop domestic tourism, actively develop inbound tourism, and regulate and develop outbound tourism” has been proposed (Central Committee of the Communist Party of China, 2006). There is no doubt that the Chinese government has altered its policy in order to adapt to the changed conditions. Nowadays equal attention is paid to both international and domestic tourism in terms of their contribution to local and regional social and economic development within China. Regarding outbound tourism, instead of controlling the numbers, regulation and improving of the overall quality has become the first priority of the administration (Dai et al. 2005).

Appreciation of RMB

A final factor is the growing value of the RMB currency. On July 21, 2005 the People's Bank of China unexpectedly announced the adoption of a more flexible exchange rate system and a 2.2% appreciation of the RMB against the US dollar, which was good news for Chinese outbound travellers because it could lead to lower outbound travel costs. Additionally, they could purchase more foreign goods for the same amount of RMB. The appreciation of the RMB, along with the aforementioned economic growth, should have had a positive impact for Chinese nationals travelling overseas. However, according to some travel agencies, overall tourism prices did not fall. It is thought this was because the slight reduction in destination costs caused by the revaluation of the RMB was offset by the continuing rise in airfares, due to increasing oil prices and other costs (People's Daily Online, 2005, July 29).

The RMB has witnessed an obvious and continuing appreciation in 2007. The continuing appreciation of the RMB against the U.S. and Hong Kong dollars has had significant impacts. The U.S. is more attractive to those who plan to study or travel overseas. More mainland Chinese will go to Hong Kong to spend money, which will stimulate the Hong Kong retail market.

The revaluation may also shift destination choice. As the US currency can be used in most American, African, Middle East and Southeast Asian countries, it is much cheaper for Chinese travelling to these destinations. In other words, the purchasing power of Chinese outbound tourists has been rising. On the other hand, the RMB appreciation has little impact in countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Japan, South Korea and in Europe, because the appreciation of these currencies against the US Dollar is more than that of the rate of RMB appreciation. However, some believe RMB appreciation would affect inbound travel more directly than outbound travel. One good example is the decrease in numbers of US tourists in European countries, as international tourists are sensitive to currency fluctuations, either directly or indirectly in response to tour operator and travel agency package prices.

Government Policy on Outbound Tourism

As Wen & Tisdell (2001) pointed out, there is some suppressed demand for outbound travel from China due to past regulations on travel and administration that created obstacles for potential outbound travellers (p. 40). The China National Tourism Administration (CNTA) is directly regulated by the State Council, responsible for developing, promoting and regulating the Chinese tourism industry. Over a long period of time there was no explicit policy of tourism development. Prior to 1978 tourism had little status in the national economy, and what existed solely served the political purpose of promoting the achievements of socialist China, and to expand China's political influence (Zhang, Chong, & Ap, 1999), rather than

being perceived as an economic policy issue. Since China's reform and opening-up, the Chinese government encouraged inbound tourism under the guidance of Deng Xiaoping's theory to increase foreign exchange reserves (Chen, 2003). China then accepted tourism as an economic activity in its own right as well as being a part of foreign affairs. The State Council held a national conference on tourism in September 1979, thereby initiating the policy of making "a major effort to develop tourism" and the use of tourism to service the country's modernisation programme was reaffirmed, and a long-term plan of receiving 3.5 million international tourists by 1985 was created (Gao & Zhang, 1983). All of this revealed the Chinese government's emphasis on inbound tourism. China was making every effort to expand its tourism capabilities (Richter, 1983), including tour guides' training, hotel construction, restoration and construction of some tourist attractions, as well as tourist facilities development, all of which were prerequisite to receiving international tourists and domestic tourists. Zhang (2003) summarised China's government policy on tourism before 1978 as "politics only", and for the period from 1979 to 1985 as "politics plus economics". Since 1986, tourism has been included in China's national plan for social and economic development. Additionally, it was clearly stated that tourism should be considered as a new growth point of the national economy at a national economic conference held by the Central Committee of CPC in 1998, which again demonstrated tourism's importance more as an economic than political issue.

The Chinese government has adhered firmly to the principle of giving priority to inbound tourism in international tourism development. Considering that China is a developing country, the Chinese government has been carrying out a gradual, controlled opening-up of the country with the purpose of protecting the national tourism sector and limiting the outflow of foreign currency (World Tourism Organisation, 2003). Under this guideline the following

four means of control were adopted: Approved Destination Status (ADS), designated travel agencies, issue of passports and visa regulations and currency exchange controls.

Approved Destination Status (ADS)

An official policy of “Approved Destination Status” (ADS) was put into practice and had a significant impact on Chinese outbound travel. The ADS system is based on bilateral agreements whereby a government allows self-paying Chinese tourists to travel for pleasure within guided package groups and with a special visa (China Outbound Tourism Research Project, 2006). Before the implementation of the ADS system, Chinese tourist groups were not allowed to travel to those countries and individual tourism was possible only on visas such as business and family visits. The implementation of this scheme effectively controlled outbound traveller flow by restricting the number of destination countries. The granting of permission for residents in Guangdong province to travel to Hong Kong and Macao in 1983 was a catalyst for starting the Chinese outbound market. As noted earlier on page four, they were followed by the Southeast Asian countries of Thailand, Singapore, Malaysia, and the Philippines and subsequently Oceania countries of Australia and New Zealand who were granted ADS status in the 1990s.

Since 2000, an increasing number of countries have been added to ADS approval list including most European countries and some American and African countries. One feature is that the scope of travelling has changed from short-haul to long-haul and the footsteps of Chinese tourists stretch further afield than in the past. As stated earlier, 104 ADS countries and regions are entitled to receive tourists from China up to 2009. That’s why Guo (2002) predicted ADS status will eventually be awarded to almost all friendly and willing countries. It will become nothing more than a way of labelling “friendly” nations. After signing an ADS agreement, detailed issues need to be discussed between related administrations of both

countries including tourism, foreign affairs, public security, and immigration departments. The long-term issue is when individual, private travel will be permitted without the need to obtain approval from the Chinese authorities.

The Designated Travel Agency

The Chinese government has been supervising travel agencies from the very beginning of outbound tourism. The Chinese outbound industry has been influenced by the Chinese authorities controlling who is in business and who is not (Guo, 2002). Some travel agencies were selected and designated by CNTA to operate the outbound travel of Chinese citizens to ADS countries. Under the provision of “The Management Regulation on Chinese Outbound Tourism”, the minimum criteria that must be met by travel agencies are: (1) obtaining an international travel service permission for at least one year; (2) achieving outstanding performance in inbound tourism business, which can be examined by referring to the result from CNTA’s annual inspection and/or being awarded as a top 100 international travel operator or agency; and (3) have no major illegal activities and service quality problems. The approvals of outbound tourism business were undertaken by CNTA on an irregular and infrequent basis, but in the past two years the numbers of such approvals have markedly increased (Ivy Alliance Tourism Consulting, 2007).

Prior to 2001, no more than 70 Chinese travel agencies were allowed to organise trips abroad for Chinese citizens. However it increased to 528 when the “The Management Regulation on Chinese Outbound Tourism” was enacted and implemented in July 2002. To be specific, this number approximately accounts for 4.5 percent of the total Chinese agencies and 38.9 percent of international travel services (Wang, 2004). In order to meet the dramatic increase of outbound tourism, CNTA modified again the regulations in November 2005. The number of outbound tour agencies rose to 672, an increase of 25.84 percent. The growing trend has

continued, and around 800 travel services were permitted to organise outbound tours by August 2007 (Table 2.4). It can be seen from the table that in developed regions, such as Guangdong, Beijing and Jiangsu, the number of outbound travel agencies is far more than those in developing regions.

Table 2.4 Number of Authorized Outbound Travel Agencies in Different Regions

Region	Year 1997	Year 2002	Year 2007	Region	Year 1997	Year 2002	Year 2007
Beijing	10	41	91	Hunan	1	12	19
Shanghai	5	32	40	Anhui	1	6	17
Tianjin	1	9	16	Jilin	1	13	16
Chongqing	1	13	16	Henan	1	14	22
Guangdong	6	99	121	Jiangxi	1	9	20
Zhejiang	3	19	33	Shanxi	1	10	24
Jiangsu	5	29	41	Hainan	1	7	8
Liaoning	3	26	44	Shannxi	2	13	16
Guangxi	1	21	26	Inner Mongolia	1	8	14
Shandong	2	26	39	Guizhou	1	6	7
Heilongjiang	1	21	25	Gansu	1	8	7
Sichuan	2	13	19	Qinghai	1	2	4
Yunnan	2	15	19	Ningxia	1	2	5
Fujian	5	16	28	Tibet	1	3	3
Hebei	1	10	21	Xinjiang	2	11	15
Hubei	2	14	21	Total	67	528	797

Source: China National Tourism Administration

It should be noted that this policy has a profound effect on the business of foreign-funded travel services, which include wholly foreign-owned, contractual joint-venture and cooperative travel services. Based on the commitment made when joining the WTO in December 2001, China began to permit the establishment of foreign-funded travel agencies. Time frameworks were set in China's accession agreement that permitted foreign travel

agencies to control stakes in joint-venture companies from January 1, 2003 and have wholly owned companies by the end of 2005. However, the actual process accelerated faster than originally planned. Before China's entry into the WTO, several joint-venture travel agencies had already been approved to do business in China such as JTB New Century and BTG-Accor. According to the "Interim Measures for Trial Implementation of Travel Agencies with Chinese and Foreign Investment (1998)", a Chinese partner must hold at least 51% of the total shares, and the legal representative must be appointed by a Chinese partner. In other words, foreign majority ownership was not permitted for these joint ventures. However, two years after China's entry into the WTO, TUI China---the first foreign-holding travel agency and JPI-China---the first sole foreign-owned travel agency was established in December 2003, which was a sign that China had decided to enhance the sector's opening to overseas investment. "Interim Provision on the Establishment of Foreign Holding and Wholly Foreign-owned Travel Agencies (2003)" clearly states that the foreign investor must meet the following requirements: (1) be registered legally in its home country and mainly engaged in the travel business; (2) have an annual worldwide turnover exceeding US\$ 40 million; (3) be a member of an accepted travel service association in its home country or region; and (4) possess good reputation and managerial system. As for the wholly foreign-owned travel agency, the overseas investor must have annual turnover of US\$ 500 million. Article 7 in the regulation provides that eligible foreign-funded travel agencies are restricted to Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Shenzhen and Xi'an. The registered capital of this kind of travel agency or tour operator should be no less than RMB 4 million. However, a revision was made in February 2005 by CNTA and Ministry of Commerce. Changes have mainly been made in two aspects. First, the originally stipulated registered capital for foreign-holding or wholly foreign-owned travel agencies was lowered to "no less than RMB 2.5 million". Second, all the geographical restrictions stipulated in article 7 were removed.

The Chinese government has laid down rules about the scope of activities of foreign-invested travel agencies and tour operators. They may provide travel and hotel accommodation services for foreigners or Chinese directly through transportation and hotel operators in China offering such services; conduct tours for both foreigners or Chinese as well as provide travellers' cheques cashing services within China. But they may not provide services to Chinese travelling abroad or to Hong Kong, Macao, or Taiwan (Market Access and Compliance, 2001). Hence, the existing foreign-funded travel agencies in China are dealing with inbound and domestic operations rather than outbound tourism. However, the latter is the most profitable sector in tourism industry (Xinhuanet, 2003). It undoubtedly has a negative influence on business performance and some foreign-funded travel agencies even make a loss. They therefore advised the Chinese government that it should adopt a more open policy under the WTO framework. A new policy was indeed announced by the director of CNTA at a national tourism work meeting in January 2007. From 1 July 2007, the Chinese government lifted the restriction on foreign-invested travel agencies to establish branches in China and granted them national treatment in terms of registered capital. Furthermore, CNTA is now considering an easing of restrictions on foreign-funded travel agencies to start outbound operations. It might be noted that as the Closer Economic Partnership Arrangement (CEPA) between the mainland and Hong Kong and Macao came into effect on 1 January 2004, the two special administrative regions (SARs) enjoy access to certain sectors of the mainland market. The opening of outbound operations was first implemented for those travel agencies registered in Guangdong with investment from Hong Kong and Macao. They are allowed to organise Guangdong residents to travel to Hong Kong and Macao. Though geographical restrictions exist at the moment, the opening up of outbound tourism to all foreign-funded travel agencies can be expected in the near future.

Issue of Passports

Like many other countries in the world, the passports issued in China are generally divided into three types: diplomatic, service and ordinary passports. Diplomatic passports are issued to diplomatic officials, consular officials and their accompanying spouses and minors, and diplomatic messengers. Service passports are issued to those dispatched by the Chinese government to the embassies or consulates stationed outside China, or to other international inter-governmental organisations as well as government officials going abroad to execute any official business. It should be noted that in China the term “government officials” has a more extensive meaning. In addition to public servants, directors or deans of public institutions (such as hospitals, research institutions and institutions of higher education) as well as directors or managers of state-owned enterprises are also included in this category. It definitely has a marginal impact on the overseas travel of these people. They are not allowed to travel abroad until permission is obtained from higher authorities. In most cases an invitation letter from the destination country is needed, which might be an inhibiting factor for their outbound travel. Ordinary passports are issued to all other eligible citizens. Historically, for different reasons for going abroad, ordinary passports can also be classified into two kinds: for public and for private affairs. Diplomatic, service and ordinary passports for public affairs are issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and its authorised foreign affairs offices. Staff from the Entry and Exit Administration Department of the Ministry of Public Security and its authorised local public security bureaus, the embassies or consulates stationed abroad of the People's Republic of China or other institutions stationed abroad upon the authorisation of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs are responsible to issue ordinary passports for private affairs. As a result practical problems can occur since the issue of passports is controlled by two different departments. Therefore, in the new “Passport Law (2007)”, ordinary passports for public affairs are included in the service passports. If a

citizen goes abroad for residence, visiting relatives, study, employment, travel, business activities or other non-official service reasons, he or she has to file an application for an ordinary passport. As defined by law, the valid period of an ordinary passport shall be five years for a holder under the age of 16, and 10 years for a holder at or above the age of 16 ("The Passport Law", 2006).

With China's further opening up to the outside world, passport and visa procedures have been increasingly simplified. Before the 1990s, citizens had to go through complicated passport formalities. Support letters such as the reference from an employer and an invitation letter from abroad were required for an application. A reform of passport issues was announced at the National Conference of Entry and Exit Administration in November 2001. Residents could apply for passports on proof of need, with ID cards, residence booklets and a signed application form as well. This measure was first taken in 25 coastal cities such as Shanghai, Nanjing, Zhuhai. From July 2003, it began to be repeated in more cities and later nationwide. Furthermore the process time has been greatly reduced. As defined by "Passport Law", the Entry and Exit Administration Department shall issue an ordinary passport within 15 days after receiving the application materials. In a remote region or area without convenient communications, or under special circumstances, if it is unable to issue a passport within the time limit, the time limit may be extended to 30 days. In practice, it may take only 5 working days in some cities like Beijing.

Currency Exchange Control

For the Chinese government, outbound travel by Chinese nationals means a loss of hard currency from state coffers (Guo, 2002). Thus, appropriate measures have to be adopted. Individuals are subject to an annual quota system for foreign exchange transaction. Under the regulation of "Interim Measures for the Administration on Domestic Resident Individual

Foreign Exchange” a Chinese citizen travelling to Hong Kong and Macao is allowed to change no more than 1000 US Dollar or equivalent in other currencies and 2000 US Dollars for travelling to other overseas countries at the authorised banks (State Administration of Foreign Exchange of China, 1998). In order to both meet the increasing demand and address the problem of “illegal scalpers”, the government upgraded the maximum of the quota in 2003. It became US\$ 3,000 for outbound travellers outside China for up to six months and US\$ 5,000 for those travelling over that period. Under the Regulation of Maximum Currency Exchange for Private Affairs and Simplification of Procedure decreed by State Administration of Foreign Exchange in 2005, Chinese citizens can buy a maximum of US\$ 8,000 for private affairs such as VFR or travelling abroad. Just one year later in 2006 it was further increased to US\$20,000. In February 2007, a more comprehensive regulation “The Measures for the Administration on Individual Foreign Exchange” was put into practice (State Administration of Foreign Exchange of China, 2007). It regulates the purchase, sale and use of foreign exchange by individuals. Within the annual quota of US\$ 50,000, an individual may purchase and sell foreign exchange at banks by simply presenting his or her ID. Beyond the annual quota, transactions are subject to verification, registration and/or approval requirements. The changes of regulation on individual foreign exchange imply that the Chinese government has been adopting a more open policy. Owing to economic prosperity, foreign exchange reserves rose to \$853.6 billion in February 2006. At this point China overtook Japan as the country with the largest foreign exchange reserves in the world. At the end of 2006, China's balance of foreign exchange reserves had exceeded one trillion US dollars (People's Daily Online, 2007).

With the relaxation of government policy and the introduction of international dual-currency credit cards, there are few currency restrictions on the sums allowed for foreign travel. However, there are still limitations that apply to travel agencies.

In summary, we can see from the four changes that in the early stage of development, government tourism policies played an important role in the development of the Chinese outbound market and the structure of the tourism industry (Guo, 2002).

Outbound Destinations for China

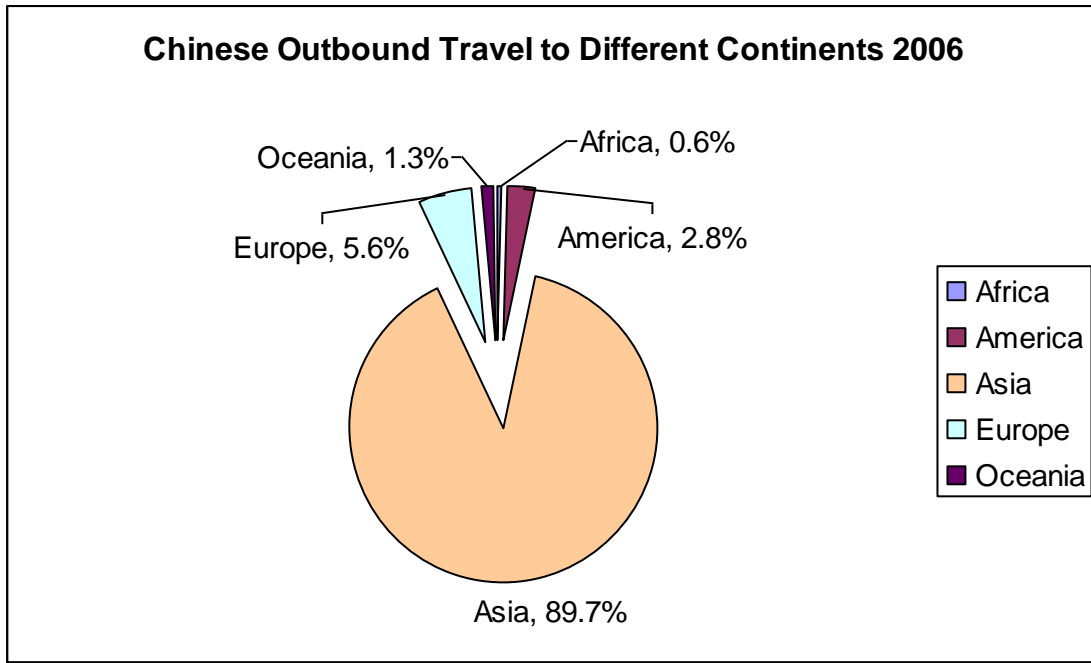
As stated above, Chinese outbound travel started from VFR travel to Hong Kong and Macao, then border travel, and later long-haul travel. This characteristic is also described by Zhang, Jenkins and Qu (2003). They argue the development of China's outbound tourist market follows a "ripple effect".

Just as a pebble dropped into a pond generates ever-widening ripples, so the growth of outbound travel over times becomes more geographically distant. The first ripple was the growth in domestic tourism within China. The second ripple was travel to Hong Kong, starting in 1983. The third ripple effect comprises the intra-Asia travel starting in 1990. The addition of New Zealand and Australia marks the beginning of the fourth ripple, and will gradually expand to encompass the entire globe. (p.279)

At present, Chinese tourists can be seen in almost every land of the world. By the end of 2007, the Chinese government had approved 91 destinations for Chinese group travellers, which cover almost every continent from Asia, Oceania, Europe, America, to Africa. From Table 2.5 it is seen that the neighbouring countries or regions became the major destinations for Chinese mainland citizens travelling overseas (Ivy Alliance Tourism Consulting, 2007). Of all the Chinese outbound tourists, 89.7% of took intra-Asia travel in 2006, as seen from Figure 2.1. However, a fact is that statistics by Exit and Entry Administration of China is compiled on the basis of first stop. Many tourists transfer in Hong Kong or other Asian countries or make a short visit before they go to other continents. In this case the figure may

be less than the Chinese arrival statistics calculated by destination countries. Even so, a general trend can be revealed.

Figure 2.1 Chinese Outbound Travels to Different Continents 2006



Source: Analysis Report of China Outbound Travel Market by Ivy Alliance (2007)

Among the top 10 destinations, most are Asian countries or regions, with the exceptions of U.S.A., Russia and Australia. Hong Kong and Macao, as the first two destinations that have been opened to Chinese citizens, attract a large majority of Chinese travellers. Hong Kong is a shopping paradise in the minds of the Chinese. Besides, it is a well-known sightseeing and conference city as well as a major transit stop between Mainland China to other destinations. In 2006 14.3 million Chinese travelled to Hong Kong as their first stop, which accounted for 43.6% of total outbound travellers that year. The number of mainland travellers to Macao was smaller than Hong Kong at 27.3%.

Table 2.5 Top 10 Destinations for Chinese Outbound Departures as First Stop

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
1	Hong Kong	Hong Kong	Hong Kong	Hong Kong	Hong Kong	Hong Kong	Hong Kong	Hong Kong
2	Macao	Macao	Macao	Macao	Macao	Macao	Macao	Macao
3	Thailand	Thailand	Japan	Japan	Japan	Japan	Japan	Japan
4	Japan	Japan	Russia	Russia	Russia	Vietnam	South Korea	South Korea
5	Russia	Russia	Thailand	Vietnam	Vietnam	South Korea	Thailand	Vietnam
6	South Korea	South Korea	South Korea	South Korea	South Korea	Russia	Russia	Russia
7	U.S.A	U.S.A	U.S.A	Thailand	Thailand	Thailand	U.S.A.	Thailand
8	Singapore	Singapore	Singapore	U.S.A	U.S.A	U.S.A	Singapore	U.S.A.
9	Korea	Korea	Korea	Singapore	Singapore	Singapore	Vietnam	Singapore
10	Australia	Australia	Malaysia	Malaysia	Malaysia	Malaysia	Malaysia	Malaysia

Source: China National Tourism Administration (2000-2007)

The Prospects of Outbound Tourism

In the past ten years, the total figure of Chinese citizens travelling overseas was over 170 million, with an average annual growth rate of around 20% (CNTA, 2007). A bright prospect for outbound tourism in China is expected, based on the following reasons. First, China's economic situation continues to prosper. China has been the fastest-growing major nation with an average annual GDP growth rate above 10% over the last five years. In 2004, Chinese President Hu Jintao announced as a goal in his keynote speech to the opening session of the annual conference 2004 of the Boao Forum, that China will try to quadruple its 2000 GDP to 4 trillion US dollars, with a per capita GDP of 3,000 dollars by the year 2020 (Chinadaily Online, 2004). Though inflation, economic overheating and other problems have manifested themselves, China still has the potential to continue to grow. In 2008, GDP increased by 9.0% and China's economy still remains favourable in the coming years in spite

of global problems in 2009. The disposable income of Chinese citizens will also increase, thereby enabling them to spend more on leisure activities including overseas travel. As mentioned earlier, with the easing of the passport policy and the expansion of more destination choices, China is gradually relaxing its controls on outbound travel. With the introduction of paid holidays, Chinese citizens are entitled to additional holidays, which they can decide when to take. They will be able to enjoy their holidays much longer than before. More and more Chinese will go beyond China's territory, travel farther and stay longer in foreign countries. This scenario has emerged in the past few years (Table 2.6) and will continue.

Table 2.6 Ratio of Domestic Tourists to Outbound Tourists (1,000)

Year	Domestic Tourists	Outbound Tourists	Ratio
1994	524,000	3,734	140.3:1
1996	639,000	5,061	126.3:1
1998	694,000	8,426	82.4:1
2000	744,000	10,473	71.1:1
2002	878,000	16,602	52.9:1
2004	1,102,000	28,853	38.2:1
2006	1,394,000	34,524	40.4:1
2007	1,610,000	40,954	39.3:1

Source: China National Tourism Administration (1994-2007)

Chinese outbound tourism has 'skyrocketed' since 1998, and its growth has drawn worldwide attention. At present travelling abroad is enjoyed by a relatively small number of the more affluent people in China. Even in big cities like Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou, only one

in ten of adults have currently travelled overseas (ACNielsen, 2005). That is to say, the total number of outbound travellers is still small compared to China's population of 1.4 billion. Undoubtedly it is a huge potential market for the world's tourism. According to WTO forecasts, China will be the world number one destination and will also become the fourth most important generating market, with 100 million Chinese outbound tourists by 2020. It is predicted that the averaged annual growth rate from 1995-2020 will be 12.8% (World Tourism Organization, 1998). China's share in the world outbound market will rise from 0.9% in 1995 to 6.4% in 2020. Countries are now making great efforts to attract Chinese visitors; an enormous potential market with almost one fifth of the world's population. But on the other hand, the number of countries granted the ADS status increases the destination choices available to Chinese citizens. That means competition among destination countries is becoming fiercer than ever. So how to target the Chinese outbound market has become the 'hot topic' for most destination countries who are seeking to attract the high spending Chinese outbound market.

Conclusion

This chapter provides comprehensive background information about China's outbound tourism which can be useful to better understand the following discussion about Chinese travel market. Government policy plays an important role in the process of outbound tourism development, including ADS system, designated travel agency, and the issue of passports as well as currency exchange control. The Chinese government has been gradually relaxing its policy on outbound tourism, which facilitated the emergence of a profitable outbound travel market from China.

Chapter 3 Literature Review

Introduction

Tourist behaviour and destination choice in particular, have long been a focal point of tourism research. The knowledge of how current and potential tourists think, feel and behave is the basic foundation for the analysis and prediction of tourist activities, which attracts continuous attention from researchers, practitioners, and policy makers. However this is a question of great complexity, because it involves interdisciplinary study of economics, geography, sociology, and particularly psychology, all of which have contributed to a theoretical understanding of decision making by introducing central concepts (Mansfeld, 1992). To understand tourist behaviour, we need information about what, when, where and with whom vacation activities are pursued. What is more important is that we need to know how these decisions are made and how personal, social, cultural and other variables affect these decisions.

The current study attempts to investigate the motivation, constraints and decision behaviour of outbound tourists from Beijing, therefore, the literature review was undertaken centring on these topics. As Rittichainuwat et. al (2003) concluded, during the past decades, many researchers have assessed the roles of destination image, travel satisfaction, travel motivation, and travel inhibitors during the pre-purchase destination selection process, which they called a “a bundle of travel determinants”. The research here uses this term for its conceptual base and the literature of destination choice, decision-making, motivation, and travel inhibitors /constraints are here briefly reviewed. It has to be noted some researchers use the terms “inhibitors” and “constraints” interchangeably to indicate factors or events that keep people from travelling. Hence, the readers will find these two terms in this thesis to imply the same

meaning. Ryan & Gu (2008) argue that destination image is the “output” generated by Regional Tourism Organisation / Destination Marketing Organisations. Therefore, in this study destination image is operationised as destination attribute (pull factors), since the study is not destination-specific. In this study, destination attribute (pull factors) is defined as the characteristics specifically to a place which attract tourists to visit. In addition, market segmentation is also included in the chapter, as the research objective 3 is to achieve segmentation of the outbound Beijing market.

The key constructs of the literature review are listed below.

1. Motivation

- ❖ Definition
- ❖ Push and Pull Factors
- ❖ Methodological Issues

2. Travel constraints

- ❖ Leisure Constraints Research
- ❖ Constraints in Tourism

3. Decision-making Process

- ❖ Introduction
- ❖ Decision Making Process Models

4. Market segmentation

Motivation

Tourism motivation has been a predominant theme in attempting to understand what drives people to travel (Todd, 1999). Motives are the starting points that launch the decision process (Crompton & McKay, 1997). Although motivation is only one variable which explains tourist behaviour, it is considered one of the more critical variables as it is the impelling and compelling force behind all behaviour (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Crompton, 1979). Iso-Ahola (1982) agrees with this statement by arguing that motives play the central role in the stimulus-cognition-response model of human behaviour. So identifying motives is a key issue in understanding tourists' decision-making process.

Definition

There is general agreement among psychologists that “a motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behaviour” (Crompton & McKay, 1997; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Murray, 1964). This is at the root of the question of why tourists travel or what makes tourists travel (Dann, 1977). The best way to understand tourist motivation is to regard travel as a satisfier of needs and wants (Mill and Morrison, 1985). The whole process begins with the needs of an individual. Wants occur when the person is either aware of the existence of the needs, or possibly even when in an unconscious condition. Then action will be taken when he/she is motivated. People travel because they believe that their needs and wants will be satisfied partially or even wholly by vacations or trips. To sum up, the internal psychological factors (needs and wants) cause disequilibrium or tension within the individual, which lead to actions (for example taking vacation) to restore homeostasis by satisfying the required needs (Crompton, 1979; Crompton & McKay, 1997).

However, people who take a pleasure trip are rarely compelled by a single need. Tourists' motives are multiple (Crompton, 1979; Mansfeld, 1992; Crompton & McKay, 1997).

According to Crompton and McKay (1997), this multiplicity can be understood in two aspects. For the individual, a visitor may have several different needs which he/she wants to satisfy through a vacation. At the aggregate level, different tourists on the same package tour may derive different benefits from the experience, implying that tourist products and places are multi-product in nature, capable of meeting different needs.

Researchers have attempted to make clear distinctions between “motivation” and other terminologies, including motivation, purpose and demand. As Pizam, Neumann, and Reichel (1979) stated: “A tourist may be motivated to travel to attend a family function in order to satisfy any of his needs of belonging, status, or recognition, though his stated objective for such travel may be to visit friends and relatives. The difference between these two --- motivation and objective --- is that while the objective is a conscious and overt reason for acting in a certain way, motivation may be an unconscious or covert reason for doing so” (p.195). Therefore, motivation for travel is more fundamental to an individual than the purpose or objective of a trip (Bright, 2008). Moreover, tourism motivation cannot be equated with the term tourism demand. Tourism demand is the outcome of tourists’ motivation, as well as marketing, destination features and other factors such as money, time and health which relate to tourists’ choice behaviour (Morrison, 1989). Tourist motivation is therefore a part of, rather than the equivalent of tourism demand (Pearce, 1993). This reflects the economists’ definition of demand as being based on actual, observable market transactions as distinct from an unfilled “want”.

Push and Pull Factors

A generally accepted approach in examining the tourist motivation is the concept of push and pull factors (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983; Pyo, Mihalik & Uysal, 1989; Yuan & McDonald, 1990). This model involves the theory that people travel because

they are pushed and pulled to do so by “force” (Baloglu and Uysal, 1996). In this framework, pull factors are those which attract the tourist to a given resort (e.g. sunshine, sea, etc.) and whose value is seen to reside in the object of travel. Pull factors have always been conceptualised as relating to the features, attractions, or attributes of the destination itself (Kim, Lee & Klenosky, 2003). Therefore, in the current study “pull factors” is interchangeable with “destination attribute”. Push factors, on the other hand, refer to the tourist as a subject and deal with those factors driving him to travel (e.g. escape, nostalgia, etc.) (Dann, 1977). He further explained that push factors deal with tourist motivation itself. Pull factors represent the specific attractions of the destination which induces the traveller to go there once the prior decision to travel has been made (Dann, 1981).

Dann (1977) was among the first to put forward push and pull factors in tourism research; the concept has made a significant contribution to this field. He found two basic tourism push motivators, namely anomie and ego-enhancement. In a situation of anomie, people wish to get away from a sense of social isolation and the need for social interaction is present or even overwhelming. On the other hand, ego-enhancement is derived from the desire for recognition by others and could only be achieved by travel.

One of the earliest studies on pull factors was completed by Williams and Zelinsky (1970). In their research, international tourist flows were described and explained by “heliotropic”. They explained that a significantly high flow from country A to B will happen when country B offers singly or in combination climatic characteristics, scenic attractions, cultural and historical features, sports, shopping facilities, night life, and so on, which are either missing or in short supply in country A.

Crompton (1979) studied both push and pull factors and he suggested nine motives for travel based on unstructured interviews of vacationers. Seven of these were classified as socio-

psychological factors and include: escape from a perceived mundane environment; exploration and evaluation of self; relaxation; prestige; regression; enhancement of kinship relationships; and facilitation of social interaction. Two classified as cultural factors are novelty and education. Furthermore Crompton pointed out that the socio-psychological factors could be regarded as push factors and pull factors were termed cultural ones.

The push factors obtained more attention in the early stages of study. Dann (1977) summarised three reasons as to why more emphasis should be placed on push factors:

“First, while a specific resort may hold a number of attractions for the potential tourist, his actual decision to visit such a destination is consequent on his prior need for travel. An examination of push factors is thus logically and often temporally antecedent to that pull factors. Second, and by corollary the question of what makes tourists travel can only relate to the push factors as it is devoid of destination or value content. Finally by examining what makes tourists travel, one is looking at a more elementary need than a specific reason for choice of resort.” (p.186)

Motives can also be classified as fourfold following Beard and Ragheb (1983): The intellectual component refers to the mental activities such as learning, exploring, discovering or imaging; while the social component includes two basic needs---the need for friendship/ interpersonal relationships and the need for the esteem of others. The competence-mastery component means that individuals engage in leisure activities in order to achieve, master, challenge and compete, which are usually physical in nature; and the stimulus-avoidance component refers to the drive to escape and get away from over-stimulating life situations. For example, there is the need to avoid social contacts, to seek solitude and calm conditions, and to seek to rest and to unwind. These four motivations form the foundation of the Leisure

Motivation Scale, which has been applied to holidays by other researchers (for example, Ryan and Glendon, 1998; Loundsbury and Polik, 1992).

Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) based their two-dimension theory on two motivational forces---escaping from routine and stressful environments and seeking recreational opportunities for certain intrinsic rewards---which simultaneously influence an individual's leisure behaviour. Leisure participations can provide change or novelty, which enable a person to escape from the everyday environment and leave behind the personal (e.g. troubles, failures) and / or interpersonal (e.g. roommates, family) world. Besides, the individual can also pursue personal and interpersonal rewards through leisure activities. The former personal rewards means self-determination, sense of competency, challenge, learning, exploration, and relaxation. As regards the seeking of interpersonal reward, social interaction is often the main form. They further argued that tourism is more of an escape-oriented than seeking-oriented activity, which means the escape dimension plays a more important role for most people in most conditions, especially for those frequent but shorter duration vacationers. But this is inconsistent with the study of Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola (1991), who argued that both motivational forces are present, but the seeking dimension is of greater importance to the sightseeing tourist. Furthermore this result accords with other studies that have reported that intellectual curiosity and enrichment are important travel motivators in general (Beard and Ragheb, 1983) and for vacationers in particular (Crompton, 1979).

Even though Dann's (1977) explanation sounds reasonable, more and more attention turned to both push, pull factors and their interactive process. Since the 1990s, researchers began to explore the destination attributes and motivation that simultaneously compel people to take a vacation. They attempted to find the relationship between push and pull factors in order to match them and provide a better understanding of the marketing implications.

According to Baloglu and Uysal (1996), most push factors relate to the intangible or intrinsic desires of travellers, for example the desire for escape, relaxation, health, adventure, and prestige as well as social interaction. While pull factors are those attributes of attractiveness of a destination perceived by the traveller, and which consist of tangible resources that shape travellers' perceptions and expectations, it does mean they tend to be spatially and temporally specific. They include beaches, recreational facilities, and the latter exists as novelty, benefit expectations and as the marketed image of the destination.

Witt and Mountinho (1989) suggested that there are three important components of destinations that make them attractive or act as "pull forces" to visitors: (1) Static factors — these include climate, distance to travel facilities, historic/cultural features, and natural and cultural landscapes; (2) Dynamic factors—including accommodation and catering services, personal attention, entertainment/sports, political atmosphere, and trends in tourism; (3) Current decision factors—which include marketing strategies and prices in both the destination region and the tourist's area of origin.

Traditionally these two factors have been regarded as possessing distinct roles. It is generally agreed that push motives are used to explain the desire to take a vacation, while pull motives are used to explain the destination choice. In other words, push and pull factors are related to two separate decisions made at two separate points in time---one focusing on whether to go, the other on where to go (Klenosky, 2002).

However some scholars have expressed their dissent from the above point of view. They have suggested that the two factors function dependently rather than entirely separately. According to Crompton (1979), socio-psychological motives may be useful not only in explaining the initial arousal, energising, or "push" to take a vacation, but may also have directive potential to direct the tourist toward a particular destination. Uysal and Jurowski (1994) tested the

relationship between push and pull factors by regression analysis with the data from Canadian Tourism Attribute and Motivation Survey (CTAMS). The study showed significant correlation between the two factors and indicated that a reciprocal relationship did exist. Their finding was confirmed by the results of the study by Kim and Lee (2002). However for the latter, correlation coefficients and coefficients of determination in correlation analyses and multiple regression analyses were relatively lower than those reported by the former. Although quantitative analyses were adopted in most studies that examine push and pull relationships, Klenosky (2002) utilised a qualitative means-end approach to examine push-pull relationships. The results provide interesting evidence that a single pull factor can serve different and possibly multiple ends for travellers. For example, the pull attribute “beaches” led to three different sets of means-end relationships. One set emphasised the opportunity a beach provides to socialise and meet people, a second set stressed getting some sun and looking healthy, and the third set stressed enjoying nature and feeling refreshed.

Since the late 1980s researchers became increasingly interested in identifying the interaction between push and pull motivations in the same context and further matching them in variate pairs. Canonical analysis is widely utilised to achieve this goal. Pyo, Mihalik and Uysal (1989) devoted themselves to one of the earliest studies of this kind. In their findings the significant relationship between destination attributes and motives was indicated. By utilising canonical correlation analysis, four variate pairs were identified to form segments of the travel market.

Oh et.al (1995) went a step further by assigning respondents to variates in order to form segments. Australian residents who took a vacation trip outside of Australia in the past three years or who intended to take such a trip in the next two years were the samples. Their push and pull motivations for overseas pleasure travel were investigated. Four variate pairs (bundle

products) provided the foundation to define market segments, namely safety/comfort seekers, culture/history seekers, novelty/adventure seekers, and luxury seekers. So the authors argued a successful matching of push and pull items is possible for a marketing strategy in destination area. A similar study was conducted by Baloglu and Uysal (1996) in West Germany. Four market segments were labelled as sports/activity seekers, novelty seekers, urban-life seekers and beach/resort seekers.

Methodological issues

Researchers adopt different methodological approaches to tourist motivation research. Todd (1999) examined tourism motivation methodologies and listed three approaches. First, a respondent narrative description of positive and negative holiday experience (a qualitative approach); second, a respondent rating of the importance of various reasons for travel (a quantitative approach); third, a respondent rating of the importance of destination attributes (a quantitative approach). She compared these methods, but, found low association. The following section will look at the approaches in detail.

A quantitative method is used commonly by listing motivation items from previous literature, and then incorporating those items into a questionnaire. In studies like this, various statistical techniques, such as factor analysis, ANOVA and regression, are adopted (Hsu & Huang, 2008). However, the approach is problematic because it raises the issue of researcher subjectivity in the choice of items (Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987; Jewell and Crotts, 2001). The content underlying fixed items in surveys are often researcher-generated instead of respondent-driven (Bright, 2008). In other words, it depends greatly on researchers' selection of motivation items for the questionnaire. It may not reflect those motivations that genuinely exist in a tourist's mind. Jewell and Crotts (2001) note that because there is no guarantee that the motivational dimensions researchers select are the most important motives of the

respondents. It can be seen that tourist motivation studies have long appeared to be skewed towards the researcher side (Hsu & Huang, 2008). Therefore, Bright (2008) argues that quantitative research is often limited in its usefulness as a stand-alone approach.

The qualitative methodology is an alternative approach of tourist motivation investigation, which helps to obtain more genuine and “deeper” information about what motivates people to travel. A number of researchers (Crompton, 1979; Pearce, 1982) use qualitative approaches in their studies. They conduct unstructured or semi-structured interviews. Respondents are asked to complete open-ended questions or sentences. Then content analysis is usually conducted to generate motivation items and reach conclusions. Compared with the etic-based approach (from the mind of the researcher), emic-based approach (from the mind of the tourist) allows many motivations to arise from tourists’ description of their experience rather than when being asked to “pick the best one” (Bright, 2008). As Woodside et al. (2004) concluded, collecting data emically provides a “rich, deep and nuance-filled understanding of the causes and consequences of such behaviours”. However, as Dann (1981) points out, a major problem of this approach is that tourists themselves may be unaware of their real reasons for travel. Four reasons presented (1) tourists may not wish to reflect on real travel motives; (2) tourists may be unable to reflect on real travel motives; (3) tourists may not wish to express real travel motives; and (4) tourists may not be able to express real travel motives.

Pearce (1983) argues that tourist motivation is a complex psychological construct that lacks widely accepted research methodology and validated measurement. Neither the quantitative nor the qualitative method is without criticism to investigate tourist motivation. Each has its own merit and demerit. The best way is to use both approaches within a given research project, because they can complement each other (Hsu & Huang, 2008). More and more researchers realise the advantage of using a combined approach in developing their model.

Usually a qualitative study in the form of in-depth interviews is undertaken before designing and using a large-scale questionnaire survey.

The timing of the measurement of motivations also need to be considered because this affects their meaning (Manfredo et al., 1996). Measured long before a destination decision, the importance of desired outcomes reflects motivations for travel. Measured just prior to the travel experience, but after destination choice has been made, these desired outcomes reflect beliefs, experience preferences, and expectations. Measured after the travel experience, these outcomes reflect a level of satisfaction for the trip. Therefore, appropriate timing is of importance when motivational research is designed.

Travel Constraints

People travel overseas to meet certain psychological needs. On the other hand, some people do not participate in travel. Therefore, two contrasting questions are raised: (1) Why do people travel and what benefits do they seek? (2) Why do some people not participate in travel for which they might have the desire? A number of researchers have noticed the impact of constraints in the decision-making process. They argue that motivation is only one of many variables which explain tourists' preference as to destinations. Other variables such as travellers' perceived inhibitors and situational constraints in their decision making should also be considered when destination marketers determine marketing strategies (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Oh et. al, 1995; Pyo et. al, 1989).

Many research studies of non-participation in travel are extended from the studies of constraints to participate in leisure activities. A critical review of current literature by Carr (2002) suggests that pleasure-orientated tourism and leisure behaviour are closely related and should not be regarded as separate fields of study. Theories and concepts developed in leisure studies can be used to help understand tourist behaviour, and vice versa (Carr, 2002). This is

also confirmed by Ryan (1997) who states, “there is a growing recognition that tourism constitutes one end of a broad leisure spectrum.” Therefore, leisure constraints research has been reviewed as a basis of better understanding tourist behaviour.

Leisure Constraints Research

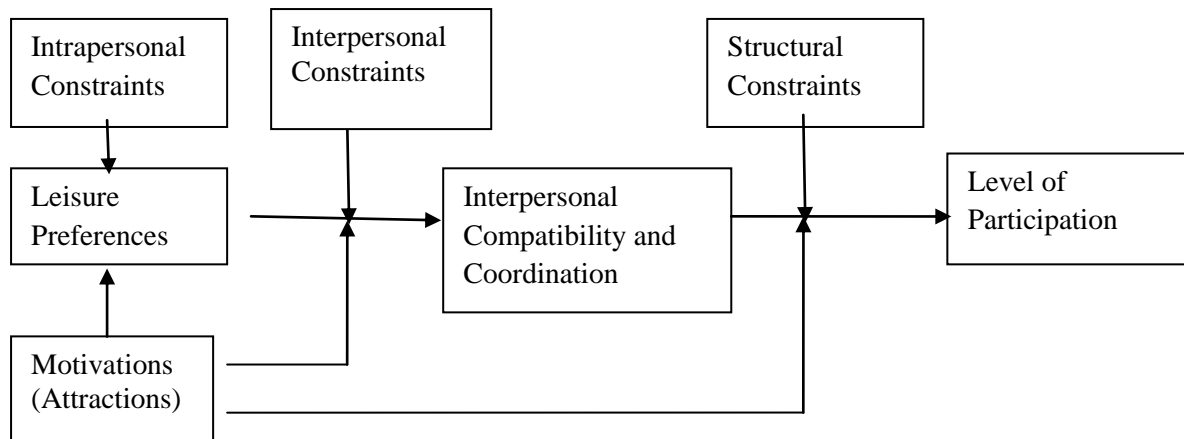
The origins of research on leisure constraints can be traced back to the early 1960s and even to the origins of the North American parks and recreation movement in the 19th century (Goodale and Witt, 1989). However, it is only in the last two or three decades that social scientists have conducted systematic research as a distinct subfield of investigation within leisure studies (Jackson, 2005). Leisure constraints research aims to “investigate factors that are assumed by researchers and/or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/or inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure” (Jackson, 2000). The constraints research started from early barriers studies in which questions about barriers to participation began to be asked explicitly. Then it developed a change of terminology. The term “constraints” is preferred to “barriers”, because the latter fails to capture the entire range of explanations of constrained leisure behaviour (Jackson, 1988). Moreover, the word “barrier” tends to direct researchers’ attention toward only one type of constraints, that which intervenes between preference and participation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Meanwhile, researchers shifted the focus of their attention to constraints which are not only physical and external to the individual (e.g., facility and resource), but also internal (e.g., psychological and economic) and social (e.g., marital, family and other interpersonal relations).

A leisure constraints model, first proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987) and further explained by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991) is generally accepted in the literature. Crawford and Godbey (1987) posited that leisure constraints can be categorised into three:

intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural. Intrapersonal constraints include individual psychological states and attributes that interact with preferences rather than intervening between preferences and participation. Examples include stress, anxiety, lack of interest, reference group attitudes, perceived self-skill and subjective evaluation of the appropriateness and availability of various leisure activities. Interpersonal constraints are confronted when the individuals are unable to find friends and family members to participate in the leisure activities that require at least one partner. Unlike intrapersonal constraints, interpersonal constraints interact with both preferences and participation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Structural constraints are the “intervening factors between leisure preference and participation” (Crawford & Godbey, 1987), including availability of time, opportunity, information and access, stage in family circle, climate, etc. This type of constraint has received most attention in previous constraint research (Hudson & Gilbert, 1999).

Crawford, Jackson & Godbey (1991) then suggested that constraints are hierarchical in nature, and thus combined the three types of constraints into a single hierarchical model. According to their viewpoint, intrapersonal constraints are encountered and must be negotiated, followed by interpersonal and then structural constraints. Individuals have to overcome each level of constraint in order to face the subsequent level of constraints. They might be prevented from experiencing higher level constraints if they are constrained by intrapersonal factors, because intrapersonal constraints are proximal in their interaction with leisure preferences. Although structural constraints received most research attention, these were probably the least important ones. The model can be demonstrated in a diagram (Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1 A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints



Source: Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991)

The model has been empirically tested by researchers with different results. Raymore et. al (1993) conducted an empirical test on high school students and supported the hierarchical model of leisure constraints. However, Gilbert & Hudson (2000) did not support this model on the basis of a qualitative and quantitative research which examined the constraints on skiing for both participants and non-participants.

Researchers have investigated socio-demographic variations in leisure constraints. The most influential socio-economic and demographic factors were found to be age, gender (Jackson and Henderson, 1995; Hudson, 2000) and income. Jackson and Henderson (1995) conducted a study of the constraints based on gender which showed women do face more constraints in their leisure than do men. Hudson (2000) discovered that the biggest constraints to skiing for both men and women are structural. To be specific, skiing is still perceived to be an expensive entertainment. Comparison between genders indicated that women perceived significantly higher levels of intrapersonal constraints than did men, as women perceived skiing as too physically demanding and dangerous. However, men had higher constraints than did women for some structural constraints, including overcrowding, lack of snow, hassle on

buying or renting equipment. Interestingly, a major constraint to male potential skiers is that their partner does not wish to participate. Therefore, the author suggested that ski resorts should consider providing hassle-free packages to cater specifically to the family market. It was generally assumed that there are variations in terms of constraints as the life cycle progresses. In the study of nature-based tourism by Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002), it was concluded that seniors tend to be less constrained by structural factors than younger groups.

The past research on leisure constraints had been based on a conception of constraints as insurmountable obstacles to leisure participation. Therefore, it has typically been assumed that if an individual encounters a constraint, the outcome will be non-participation (Jackson, Crawford and Godbey, 1993). This probably explained why the early stage of research paid attention to non-participants only. As a matter of fact, participants are also constrained to some degree. Some studies include different levels of participation rather than focusing on non-participants only. As Wright and Goodale (1991) stated, existing participants can also be constrained, not totally, but from participating as frequently as they desire. A plausible explanation is that the constraints might be overcome by negotiation. In Scott's (1991) qualitative study of contract bridge, the term "negotiation" appeared in leisure constraints literature for the first time. Kay and Jackson (1991) asked people how they dealt with two most frequently encountered problems, financial and time constraints. Only a very small number of respondents did not participate at all, and the rest chose some form of negotiation strategy. Therefore they concluded that reported constraints do not always prevent participation. Many people manage to participate in their chosen leisure activities "despite constraints". Shaw, Bonen, and MacCabe (1991) challenged the assumption that "more constraints mean less leisure". They found in their study that only 2 out of 11 constraints were associated with lower levels of participation. All other reported constraints showed no

relationship with participation or were associated with increased levels of participation. On the other hand, the social structural constraints (namely age, gender, lifestyle, occupational status, and income) were all found to be related to level of participation.

Based on the research of Scott (1991) and Kay & Jackson (1991), Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) explicitly studied the negotiation of leisure constraints and presented six specific propositions: (1) leisure participation is dependent not on the absence of constraints (although this may be true to some people), but rather upon negotiation through them, (2) variations in the reporting of constraints can be viewed not only as variations in the experience of constraints, but also as variations in success in negotiating them, (3) the phenomenon that an individual has no desire to change current leisure behaviour may be partly explained by prior experience of successful negotiation of structural constraints, (4) anticipation of one or more insurmountable interpersonal or structural constraints may restrain the desire for participation, (5) people anticipate not only the presence or intensity of a constraint, but also the ability to negotiate it, and (6) the relative strength of, and interactions between, constraints on participation and motivations for such participation determine not only the initiation but also the outcome. A three-category typology of people with respect to their responses to constraints was proposed: (1) people who do not participate in their desired activity (reactive response); (2) people who, despite the encounter with constraints, do not reduce or otherwise change their participation at all (successful proactive response); and (3) people who participate but in an altered manner (partly successful proactive response).

The researchers subsequently began to examine the negotiation process. Motivation, as the opposing factor of constraints, was also investigated. For example, Carroll and Alexandris (1997) investigated recreational sport participation in Greece. The study provided evidence

that participation was negatively correlated with higher levels of constraints and positively correlated with higher levels of motivation. Additionally, the correlation between motivation and constraint was found to be negative. Undoubtedly this study has provided tentative empirical support for the “balance” proposition proposed by Jackson et. al. (1993). A great contribution was made by Hubbard and Mannell (2001). They tested four alternative constraints-negotiation models which comprised different links between motivation, constraints, negotiation, and participation by using structural equation modeling. Only the constraints-effects-mitigation model received strong support. The mitigation model identifies motivation as an important factor. People who are more highly motivated to participate will exert greater effort on negotiating constraints. The finding explained why many constraints do not necessarily lead to low participation rates.

Constraints in Tourism

Travel constraints have been recognised implicitly in tourism research. Lack of money, time, family support or interest, and poor health were the primary constraints perceived to influence a decision as to whether to travel (Blazey, 1987; Crompton, 1977). A study by Blazey (1987) indicated that in a senior travel programme, there were significant demographic differences between senior travellers and non-travellers as well as differing constraints for these two groups. Tian, Crompton and Witt (1996) assessed constraints that hindered people from visiting museum attractions. Six constraint dimensions were found including cost, time, difficulty of access, repetition, product failings, and lack of interest. In early tourism literature, similar words to “constraints” were found such as “inhibitors”. Sonmez and Graefe (1998) defined travel inhibitors as any undesirable event that might signify anything from a disappointing travel experience (psychological risk) to a serious threat to the travellers’ health or life (health, physical, or terrorism threat). According to Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992), the common pleasure travel inhibitors are financial,

psychological, satisfaction and time risks. Cook and McCleary (1983) also commented that time, money, and physical distances are important travel constraints used to evaluate destinations.

Most research on tourist decisions to date is still somewhat limited in how it deals with space-time constraints (Dellaert, Ettema & Lindh, 1998). The concept was first introduced by Hägerstrand in 1970 which distinguished three types of constraints: (1) authority constraints imposed by law (e.g. opening hours of shops) or institutions (e.g. work or school hours); (2) coupling constraints stemming from household members, friends, and colleagues; and (3) capacity constraints caused by the availability of travel options and money resources. Some researchers put constraints or inhibitors into the integrated system of the decision-making process. Dellaert et al (1998) proposed a constraint-based framework which demonstrated the various components in multi-faceted tourist travel decisions, the timing and sequencing of the components, as well as the fact that choices occur subject to a set of constraints. Um & Crompton (1992) explored the role of perceived inhibitors and facilitators in vacation destination decisions. In their study “facilitators” was defined as those beliefs about a destination’s attributes which help to satisfy a potential traveller’s specific motives. Those attributes not consistent with a tourist’s motives were categorised as “inhibitors”. Results indicated that facilitators were the more influential in the early evoked set than the later evoked set for the selection of a potential destination, but, at the later stage it was the inhibitors that were the significant determinant of destination selection.

Until very recently, few studies have explored the usefulness of the leisure constraints framework in the tourism context (Hinch & Jackson, 2000). However, from the years of the early 21st century there are some contributions to the understanding of constraints in tourism activities. Fleischer and Pizam (2002) studied constraints to travel among Israeli seniors and

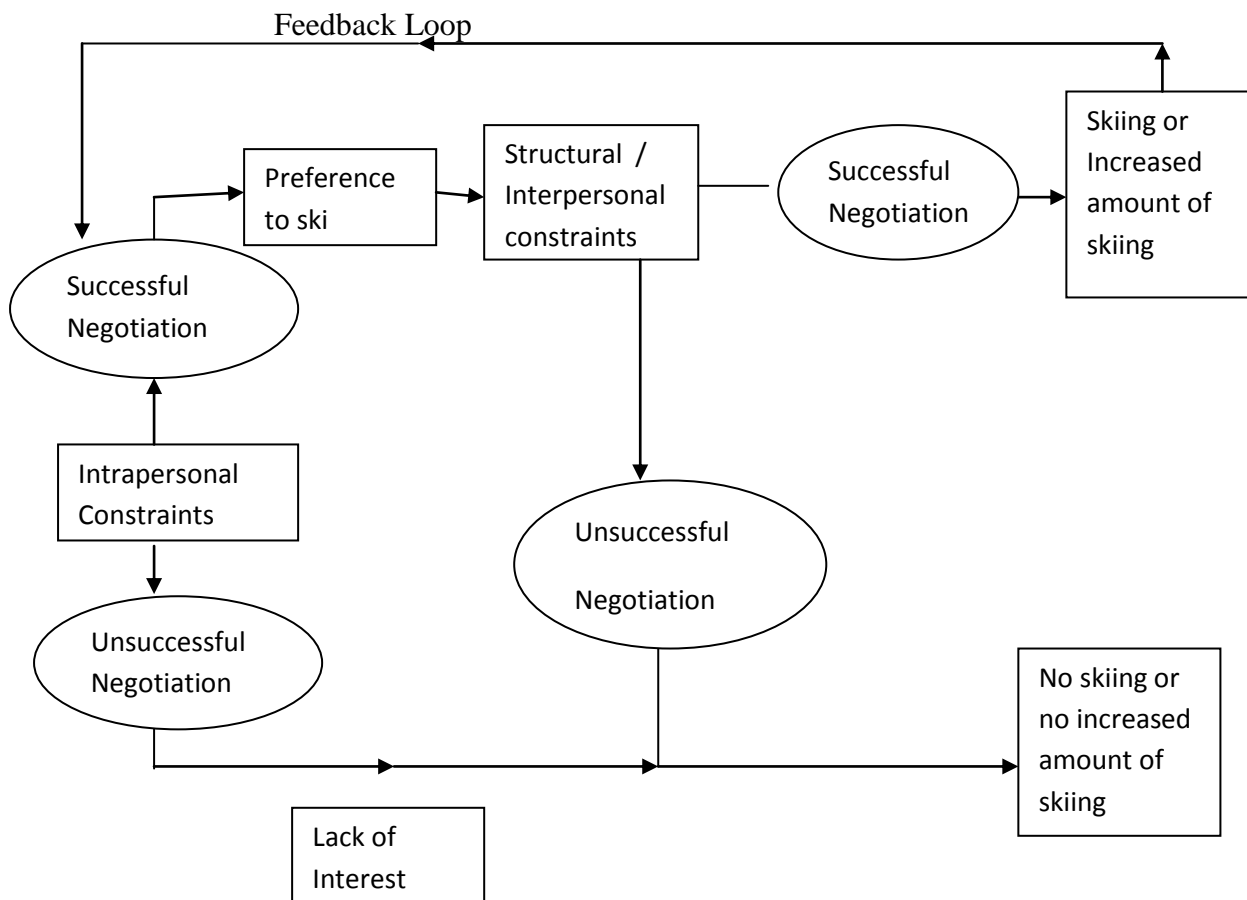
found that tourism motivation was greatly influenced by income and health, but their trip duration changes with age. For the age group of 55 to 65, the number of vacation days taken increases with expanding leisure time and increased household income. On the other hand, for the older age group (65+), declining incomes and deterioration of health cause a decrease in the number of vacation days taken. Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002) tested the leisure constraints model in a nature-based tourism context and confirmed the existence of a three dimensional model: interpersonal, intrapersonal and structural constraints. It was found that in the perception of constraints based on demographic variables, differences existed with regard to age and family life cycle stage. However, the study by Nyaupane, Morais and Graefe (2004) provided only partial support for the model in an examination of the reasons that kept people from participating in three nature-based tourism activities—rafting, canoeing, and horseback riding. Therefore, the authors indicated the need to reexamine the structural dimension in tourism situations, as this appears to include more than one construct. This proposal was proved to be empirically true by Nyaupane & Andereck's (2008) study that extended the leisure constraints model by adding three separate sub-dimensions of structural constraints in the tourism context. The three sub-dimensions were cost, lack of time and place attributes.

Hinch & Jackson (2000) adopted this leisure constraints research framework to examine seasonality in tourism. They believe an effective way of researching seasonality lies in conceiving of tourists' decisions as being influenced by constraints, either real or perceived. Later Hinch, Hickey and Jackson (2001) used empirical data to test the theoretical framework. Their study involved visitors to Fort Edmonton Park in Canada, and provides important insights into the role of seasonality in tourism and the part played by differences between summer and winter in determining tourism flows in Canada.

Generally a quantitative approach has been adopted by most travel constraint research, with a few exceptions. For example, Daniels, Rodgers and Wiggins (2005) utilised written narratives submitted by individuals with physical disabilities. Comparative pattern analysis, one specific form of interpretive content analysis, was chosen to analyse the narratives. This study helps to understand constraints to pleasure travel and the negotiation strategies employed by persons with physical disabilities. Hudson & Gilbert (1999) also used a qualitative approach to understand the perceptions of intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints on skiing participation. The results revealed that different constraints inhibit participants and non-participants. Non-skiers faced a number of intrapersonal constraints such as harder to learn, being dangerous, cold and wet, etc. On the other hand, skiers usually encountered time, family or economic constraint factors. Then Gilbert & Hudson (2000) conducted a follow-up questionnaire survey in which a Likert-type scale with 30 statements was designed. The results indicated that economic factors were the major limitations for both skiers and non-skiers. Significant differences existed in intrapersonal constraints, supporting the findings from the qualitative research. Furthermore, the study partly supported the hierarchical constraints model by Crawford et al (1991), in that intrapersonal constraints are the first level of constraints that people have to overcome in order to gain a preference. However, interpersonal constraints might not exist in the case of skiing. This was not in line with Crawford et al's (1991) model in which interpersonal constraints are always confronted before structural constraints. Based on the findings of this study, Gibert & Hudson (2000) proposed a new model of leisure constraints with a feedback loop included (see Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2 A New Model of Leisure Constraints (Pertaining to Skiing)

Source: Gilbert and Hudson (2000)



Decision Making Process (DMP)

The issue of decision making is more than where or when to travel. Actually it is a complicated decision making process with numerous variables involved in it. Furthermore there is a general agreement in the travel literature that the buying process is also influenced by various factors (Ankomsh, Crompton & Baker, 1996). While the purchase of a tourism product has something in common with buying daily goods, it is to a large extent different because of the complexity and diverse nature of the consumption experience and costs, which lead to high risk and involvement for tourists. When compared with the purchasing of tangible goods, consumer behaviour involved in the purchase of tourism products has the

following characteristics: high involvement in the purchase decision and high consumer commitment; high levels of insecurity linked to intangibility; considerable emotional significance; strongly influenced by other people; the decision has long-term consequence; and a high level of information search (Starbrooke & Horner, 2007). Wahab, Crampton, and Rothfield (1976) acknowledge that the holiday purchase is unique because there is no tangible return on investment, and additionally it represents considerable expenditure in relation to earned income. Additionally, the purchase is often not spontaneous. It is suggested by many researchers (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005) that most tourism service purchases are high cost, especially when planning a pleasure trip to another country. Thus, the decision making process for a potential tourist will be more complex and difficult. One might also note the presence of an opportunity cost, if only because a decision to visit location implies that another location is not being visited.

Introduction

Destination choice is regarded as the primary element in the decision making process. In most literature about destination choice, the concept of destination has been vaguely defined or even neglected. Pike (2004) defines destination as places that attract visitors for a temporary stay, and as such can range from continents to countries to states and provinces to cities to villages to purpose built resort areas. There is no consistency in literature, because the extant studies use different definitions and attributes of destinations. For example, Muller (1991) surveyed the vacation planning of U.S. citizens to Toronto, in other words, the city of Toronto was regarded as the destination. Shih (1986) focused on how people perceive the state of Pennsylvania as a travel destination. In other cases, the individual attractions can also be destination in some research. For example, Kim et. al (2003) conducted a survey in National Parks in Korea in order to examine the influence of push and pull factors. Mansfeld (1992) further argued that concepts, models, and techniques that are applicable in the study of

one destination category might not be applicable in others. Hence a clear destination hierarchy based on size and function perhaps needs to be established in future studies.

The decision-making / planning process involves a number of decisions that tourists have to make. It is not just selecting the destination, but includes decisions about date of travel, travel group members, budget, length of stay in destination, activities, etc. Tay et.al (1996) proposed a model for recreation trip that comprised five interrelated sub-travel decisions, including choice of destination, duration and frequency of trips, travel mode, and trip timing. Other researchers (Jenkins, 1978; Mountinho, 1987) suggested that the trip decision covers an even greater number of sub-decisions, such as: extent and nature of information search, whether or not to take children, length of trip, date/timing of year to travel, mode of transportation, travel budget, activities, accommodation and destinations. Later, researchers looked at the sub-decisions in more detail. According to Fesenmaier & Jeng's (2000) empirical study, there are three basic levels of decisions: (1) core decisions, which are planned in detail well in advance of the trip including primary destination, date/length of trip, travel party/members, accommodation, travel route, overall travel budget; (2) secondary decisions, which appear to be considered prior to the trip but also considered largely "flexible" to accommodate the possibility of change such as secondary destinations, activities, attractions; and (3) en route decisions, which are not considered until the travellers are actually en route such as rest stops on the road, restaurant stops, shopping places, items to purchase, budget for gifts and souvenirs etc. The authors suggested that all the elements have different roles and different levels of perceived importance. Decisions made at an early stage seem to condition decisions made in later stages. For example, the overall budget could condition the length of a trip, the number of destination, as well as the type of accommodation.

Decision Making Process Models

Tourism DMP models mainly draw from holistic models of consumer behavior, which were used by tourism researchers as a starting point for explaining the process used to purchase tourism services (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). For instance, many tourism models have been based upon early pioneering models proposed by Howard & Sheth (1969), Nicosia (1966) and Engel et al. (1968). Early work on DMP of tourists utilised the concept of the “economic-rational man”, which assumed that tourists are rational problem solvers. Wahab et al. (1976) proposed a model that explained tourists’ decision-making process assuming that tourist behaviour is a rational decision activity. The potential tourist compares the costs and benefits before making arrangements and decisions. That alternative is thought to have the greatest utility will be chosen. However, the destination-choice of tourists involves a degree of uncertainty (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). For example, the weather, the real quality of service and the attitudes of the hosts are sometimes unknown when decisions are being made (Mansfield, 1992). Decrop & Snelders’s (2004) study suggested that fantasy and emotions also play an important role in shaping vacation and destination choices. Thus, the normative-rational approach has been criticised for being nonrealistic. Afterwards, a blended method with “normative-rational” and “behavioural probabilistic” was developed. “Vacation sequence” proposed by van Raaij and Francken (1984) is representative of this approach. A more normative approach has subsequently emerged which assumes that the various patterns of tourist flows are shaped from a differential choice-process derived from a variety of tourist needs, expectations, and background (Mansfield, 1992). There have been different decision-making models proposed by researchers from various perspectives. They can be classified into three: sequential, consideration set and process models (Decrop 1999, Decrop & Snelders, 2004).The following text will focus on the three types of models.

1. Vacation Sequence

In the first family of models, the individual goes through several stages during the whole decision process, which was called “vacation sequence” by Van Raaij & Francken (1984) and Van Raaij (1986). They introduced five stages: generic decision, information acquisition, joint decision making process, vacation activities and subsequent satisfaction and complaints. The second stage is to search for information about the destination, accommodation and transportation etc. The third stage is joint decision making. Based on the acquired information, a vacation alternative must be selected. The fourth stage is the actual vacation trip followed by the last stage of (dis)satisfaction. Mathieson & Wall (1982) and Mansfeld (1992) proposed similar sequential models of decision making: motivation as the starting point, gathering tourist information, choosing destination alternatives, undertaking the travel, and choice evaluation. They believed that the tourism motivation stage initiates the whole decision process. A three-stage tourist choice process was put forward by Nicolau and Mas (2005) which includes first taking a vacation or not; second visiting foreign vs. domestic destinations; and third taking multi- vs. single-destination vacations. Moutinho (1987) summarised the variables in the previous literature and applied them in a general flow-chart model. The model is divided into three parts: pre-decision and decision processes, post-purchase evaluation, and future decision-making. It also explicitly shows that purchase decisions are a result of three behavioural concepts: motivation, cognition, and learning.

Crompton (1977) first proposed that the decision process can be segmented into two phases. The first is a generic phase that answers the fundamental question of going or not going on a vacation. Once the individual makes a decision to travel; the next phase is to decide on where to go and other issues like accompaniment, duration, activities etc, which are called the specific sub-decisions. Important determinants of the generic decision are: household

discretionary income, family life-cycle, and household lifestyle and values (van Raaij, 1986). Some researchers have studied the importance of vacation to consumers. Van Raaij and Eilander (1983) found consumers place an intermediate level of importance and necessity on the vacation. When encountering financial difficulty, younger and middle-class people try to find a cheaper type of vacation, such as a domestic instead of an overseas trip, while older and lower-income people are more likely to forego their vacation. An earlier study by Francken (1978) had similar findings. Among the 15 expenditure categories respondents would reduce expenditure on, tourist and recreational equipment ranked the first, followed by stereo-equipment or TV, savings, home decoration, and the vacation trip.

Most scholars assume that the generic decision precedes specific sub-decisions (Crompton, 1977; Um and Crompton, 1990; van Raaij and Francken, 1984), but actually this may not be always the case. For example, Decrop and Snelders (2004) found contrary examples. For certain people it is routine to go on vacation and it does not really involve a decision, so the phase of generic decision-making is often skipped. Another unusual case is that the generic decision comes later than some sub-decisions. That is to say, after questions of transportation, activities, accommodation are already determined, the question of whether or not to travel remains unsolved because of external constraints.

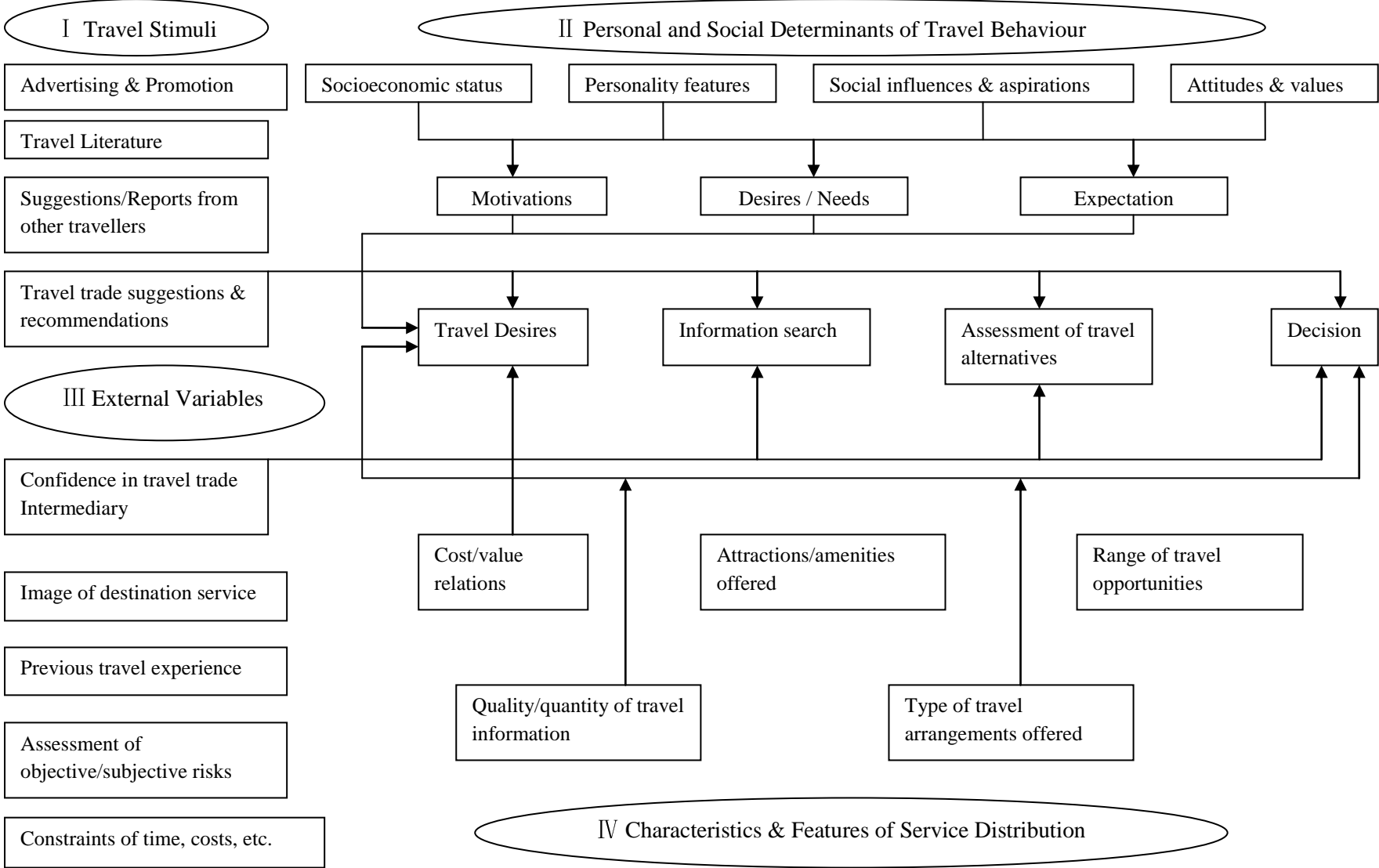
2. Process models

The second approach focuses on a variety of variables affecting the decision-making, rather than the decision itself (Decrop and Snelders, 2004). Researchers see the decision process as a series of conflicts based on variety of factors. A model of the travel decision process (see Figure 3.3) was built by Schmoll (1977) which comprises four fields: travel stimuli (promotion or travel literature); personal and social determinants (socioeconomic status, attitudes and value); external variables (destination image, previous experience, cost and time

constraints) and destination- or service-related features. The author believes the model indicates where marketing action can be used to influence the decision process. It is worth noting that Schmoll's is one of the few models that pays attention to constraints and their impact on the decision process. However, this model is descriptive with the purpose of showing the relevant variables and their interrelationship, but is not a tool for the forecasting of demand (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999).

Figure 3.3 A Model of Travel Decision Process

Source: Schmoll (1977)



Many researchers investigate the determinants of destination choice from different perspectives. Shih (1986) focused on perceptions and image as determinants of destination choice and found Values and Lifestyles (VALS) can be a useful tool for tourism market research. Muller (1991) surveyed U.S. residents planning a pleasure trip to Toronto. He concluded that personal values determine the destination choice when the potential tourist is free to choose.

Empirical research has been conducted to examine the roles of these variables on destination choice. Cai et al's (1996) study differentiated US pleasure travellers to China (including Hong Kong) from those to other Asian destinations. Results suggested that demographic and socio-economic variables (e.g. age, gender, year of education, occupation type, family size, household income, geographic residency, and ethnic background) were found to be associated with travellers' destination choices. However, demographic and socio-economic characteristics alone are not enough to explain the destination choices. Psychographic variables also play an important role in some way. Woodside and Pitts (1976) argued that lifestyle information might be more powerful in predicting foreign and domestic travel behaviour than demographic variables. A research study by Lehto, O'Leary and Morrison (2002) showed that demographic and socio-economic variables were not effective predictors of the long-haul vacation destination choices of British travelers. On the contrary, psychographic factors (such as travel philosophies, benefits sought and destination attribute preferences) proved to be more accurate in discriminating the British long-haul travellers visiting North America, Asia and Oceania. One could comment that the differences in results reflect differential pattern of overseas travel because the UK market is more conditional to overseas travel than its USA counterpart.

3. Choice set models

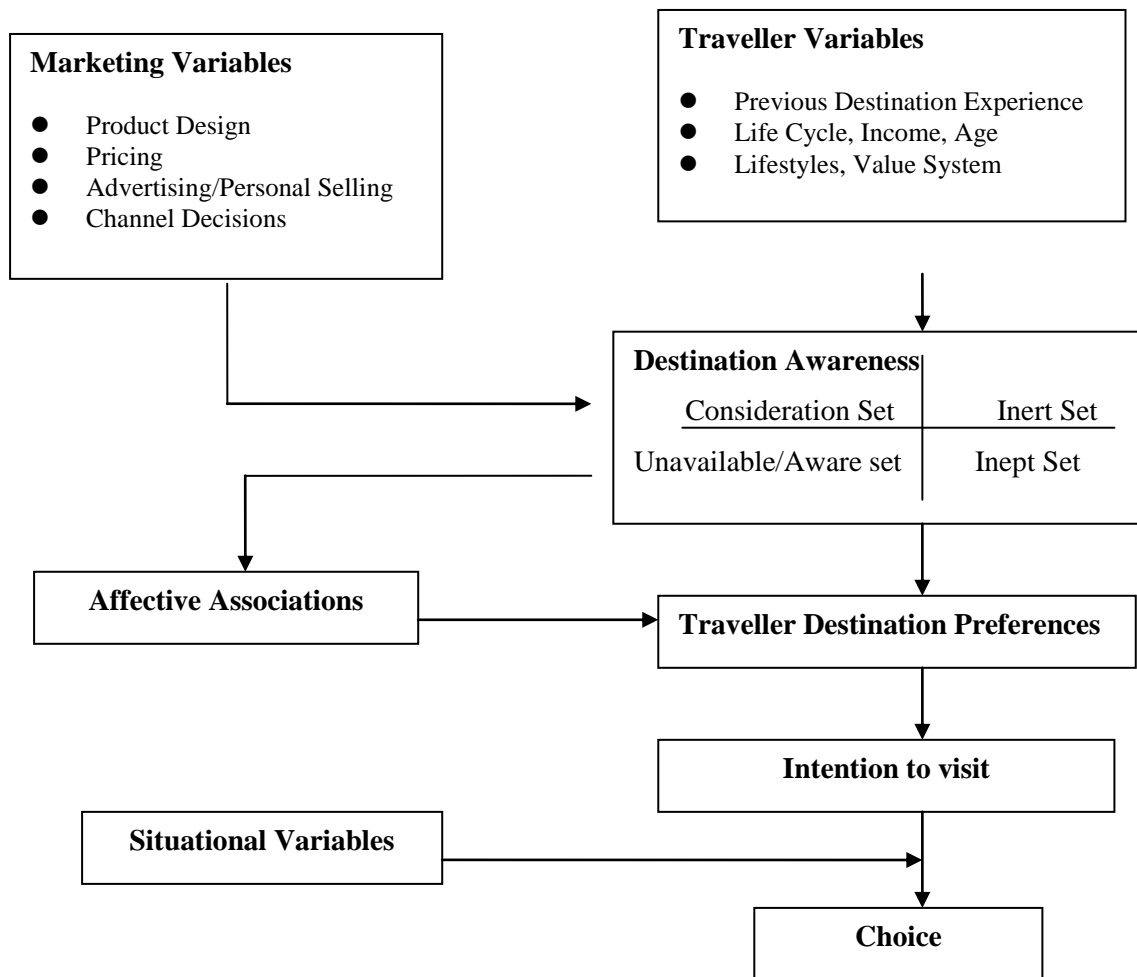
Both the first and second categories belong to a behavioural approach, with the main purpose of identifying the decision stages that decision-makers undertake and they illustrate this process by identifying personally the internal and external factors influencing this process (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). The last category of choice-set models are also sequential in nature (Decrop and Snelders, 2004) and implicitly accept the main assumptions of the behavioural models. However, they attempt to illustrate the same process in a different way (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005) by focusing on the evolution of product alternatives in consideration sets.

The concept of choice set model is a funnel-like process which involves a relatively large initial set of destinations being reduced to a small late set, from which a final destination is selected (Ankomah et. al, 1996; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Um and Crompton, 1990; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989). The work of Woodside and Sherrel (1977) was the first attempt to apply choice sets to leisure travel. Their conceptual framework of evoked, inept, and inert sets from consumer behaviour was supported with the sample of vacation travellers. The average number of vacation destinations for respondents was 3.38 in evoked sets, 1.4 in inept sets and 0.9 in inert sets.

Woodside and Lysonski (1989) proposed a model of traveller leisure destination awareness and choice which attracted wide attention (see Figure 3.4). Their model includes eight variables and nine relationships; two exogenous variables, traveller characteristics and marketing variables, influence traveller destination awareness. In their study the respondents' consideration sets usually included 3-5 destinations with an average of 4.2 destinations.

Figure 3.4 General Model of Traveller Destination Choice

Source: Woodside and Lysonski (1989)



A typical model cited frequently is proposed by Um and Crompton (1990). This model identifies and integrates five sets of processes: (a) the formation of subjective beliefs about destination attributes in the awareness set, through passive information gathering; (b) a decision to undertake a pleasure trip which includes consideration of situational constraints; (c) evolution of an evoked set from the awareness set of destinations; (d) the formation of subjective beliefs about the destination attributes of each alternative in the evoked set of destinations, through active solicitation of

information; and (e) selection of a specific travel destination. The awareness set includes all travel locations which people might consider as potential destinations, without being inhibited by situational constraints such as money or time (Um & Crompton, 1990). It refers to “all the preferred destinations of your dreams” (Crompton, 1977). Um and Crompton (1990) operationalised it by asking the sample “list the names of all places which he/she is considering as possible destinations for a vacation this summer”. On the other hand, the evoked set includes all the travel destinations which people might consider to be feasible considering the situational constraints. It can be operationalised by asking the respondents to “list the names of all places which he/she is still considering as potential destinations for a pleasure trip this summer”. The authors also investigate the role of attitudes in the decision process. The attitudes are operationalised as the difference between perceived facilitators and inhibitors. It is worth noting that situational constraints were also included as inhibitors. A scale comprising 17 items was measured from three dimensions: need satisfaction, social agreement, and “travellability”. The results suggest that attitude toward a destination is an important indicator for predicting whether an individual will select a particular destination from the awareness set.

A further analysis of choice sets model was proposed by Crompton (1992) which borrowed some concepts from the marketing literature, such as action, inaction, and interaction sets. The author suggests that a destination to be finally selected usually goes through a process of initial consideration set, late consideration set, action set and interaction set. Three stages were clarified in the model. The initial consideration set and late consideration set was also known as awareness and evoked sets in Um and Crompton’s study. The action set includes all destinations toward which a

potential tourist contacts the destination's marketers or travel agents. Effort and investment are involved in such action, such as an information search, or the need to contact travel agents. An interaction set is a subset of the action set. It is composed of all destinations about which potential tourists permit and consider representative to be made about that destination, which, in the early 1990s was generally processed through travel agencies.

Crompton and Ankomah (1993) proposed a series of propositions related to the early consideration set, late consideration set and final decision. Early consideration set propositions concerning the relationship between the level of awareness and probability of the selection among destinations and the size of set as well. Late consideration set propositions focus on the size of the late consideration set and the influencing factors. Final decision propositions deals with decision rules in selection of a particular destination rather than others.

Ankomah, Crompton, and Baker (1996) studied the influence of cognitive distance on the formation of choice sets. Cognitive distance is defined as an individual's mental representation of distances between places, formed by social psychological processes and which works as a situational constraint in choice sets. Past research has confirmed that cognitive distance estimates greatly differ from actual distance measures (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992). The respondents in the Ankomah, Crompton and Baker's study explicitly expressed the important role of cognitive distance in the evolution of vacation choice sets. Three out of four hypotheses were supported by the empirical study. It appears there is a positive relationship between respondents' mental ordering of a destination in their late consideration sets and preference for a

destination. Additionally, it was found that cognitive distance estimates to destinations in the late set were more accurate than those destinations in the reject set, and the distance to destinations in the action set was more underestimated than the destinations in the inaction set (Ankomah, Crompton & Baker, 1996).

Many scholars believed that choice-set models possess practical advantages over behavioural models (Crompton, 1992), and permit destination marketers to identify market potential, while segmenting the target market based on the choice sets of target populations (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) provided an extensive literature review on tourist decision-making in their article. They pointed out that a large number of the extant models still do not go beyond borrowing the main concepts from the holistic marketing models. These models were essentially developed for manufactured products instead of service industry; and hence, viewing many models developed in tourism requires a critical eye.

Market segmentation

Smith (1956) introduces the concept of market segmentation as a strategy, which has long assisted tourism marketers in identifying and targeting distinct groups of customers (Chen & Hsu, 1999). He argues that “market segmentation consists of viewing a heterogeneous market as a number of smaller homogeneous markets” (P6). According to Kotler (1999), market segmentation is the subdivision of a market into distinct subsets of customers, so that marketers can specifically target particular smaller markets and develop tailor-made products and services.

In the tourism literature, many segmentation criteria have been suggested including geographic characteristics, demographics, psychographics, expenditure, benefits,

activities and communication channels (Jang et. al, 2002). Based on the classification of Bigne, Gnoth & Andreu (2008), a brief description of each of the main segmentation criteria is discussed below.

- Geographical segmentation uses geographical factors, such as country of origin. Woodside & Jacobs (1985) used tourists' nationality as a criterion to segment respondents into groups and reported benefits experienced from travelling to the same vacation destination by three different national samples: Canadian, American, and Japanese. Traditional geographical segmentation such as grouping tourists by the country of origin were among the first segmentation schemes to be used (Haley, 1968). Most tourism destinations profile tourists from different countries of origin and develop customised marketing strategies for each country (Dolnicar, 2008).
- Socio-demographic segmentation categorises markets by age, gender, family life-cycle, occupation etc. For instance, Hudson (2000) investigated the difference between men and women in perceptions and constraints on skiing participation.
- Psychographic segmentation subdivides tourists based on variables such as lifestyle, activities, and personality. In a widely- cited study by Plog (1974, 2001, 2002) people were segmented according to their psychographic characteristics: psychocentrics, allocentrics and others in between. Later some authors tested or applied his model in other contexts. For example, Chandle & Costello (2002) developed a profile of visitors to heritage tourism destinations and concluded that they possess homogeneous characteristics with regard to

their lifestyle and activity level preferences and their demographics characteristics.

- Behavioural segmentation is based on motivation (Cha et al, 1995), benefits sought (Woodside and Jacobs, 1985), user status --- first and repeat visitors (Lau and McKercher, 2004), information seeking and planning styles (Alvarez and Asugman, 2006), satisfaction (Kau & Lim, 2005), spending (Mok & Iverson, 2000), and travel activity (Jang, et al., 2004).

Traditionally there are two main approaches, a priori (commonsense) or a posteriori (data-driven) segmentation (Dolnicar, 2004; Mazanec, 2000). As indicated from the names, priori segmentation is based on researchers' prior knowledge. When geographic and socio-demographic characteristics are used to divide heterogeneous market into smaller homogeneous segments, such as gender, age or nationality, the research approach is priori segmentation. It should be noted that behavioural variables are also used in a priori studies, such as travel expenditures (Mok & Iverson, 2000), trip types (McKercher, 2001) and first time/repeat travelers (Lau and MaKercher, 2004). While in the case of posteriori segmentation, researchers rely on the analysis of the attributes-related data. In many cases the posteriori approaches are used for psychographic or behavioural segmentation when researchers have no prior knowledge of the various groups. For example, when researchers employ benefits, motivation and preference in grouping respondents, they are undertaking posteriori segmentation studies. Usually when segmentations are obtained using the posteriori method, socio-demographic variables are often used to help obtain the profile and labels for different market segments (Sirakaya et al., 2003).

Bigné et al (2008) report a comprehensive review of tourist segmentation studies for the period 2000-2006 and suggest researchers do not agree on the best criterion of travel market segmentation. They also found that more recently the posteriori approach has been increasingly addressed, compared with the period of 1990s when both approaches were adopted extensively. There is an increasing consensus that demographics alone are a poor predictor of tourist behavior. As Johns and Gyimothy (2002) stated, “although demographic and socio-economic characteristics have long been used for segmentation, the power of age, gender and wealth to predict purchasing behaviour is markedly situation-dependent because they are only indirectly related to buying intentions. Consequently, practitioners increasingly augment these ‘secondary segmentation factors’ with psychometric measures of attitudes and values, but these are themselves of limited predictive value” (p.316). Therefore, none of the criteria can fit all cases. Just as Decrop and Snelders (2005) argue, a weakness of using segmentation criteria without integration is that the result is like separate pieces of a puzzle. As Bigné et al (2008) concluded “no one segmentation analysis fits all purposes so that the variables chosen need to be meaningful to the problem at hand as well as to create sizeable and distinguishable segments”.

Conclusion

The chapter reviewed the extant literature on motivation, constraints, decision-making and destination choice as well as market segmentation. The decision-making process of pleasure travellers is complicated. People are motivated to travel to meet certain needs. Meanwhile, they are constrained by some factors, such as time, cost, skills, information etc. The first decision that potential travellers have to make is whether to

travel or not, and if so, to which given destination. Those who negotiate constraints successfully become participants. On the other hand, non-participants are those who did not overcome the constraints, or alternatively, and perhaps more commonly, sought other destinations, activities or preferences. In fact, the actual DMP is a narrowing-down of choice sets until the final destination is selected; while the process is influenced by both internal and external forces at different stages.

The current study aims to understand Chinese outbound tourists' behaviour. Nevertheless, the author narrows the focus from "Chinese outbound tourists" to "Beijing outbound tourists", taking the feasibility of conducting the research into consideration. Beijing, as the capital city of China, accounts for around 8% of the total number of outbound travellers from China (Du & Dai, 2004). Beijing also boasts 91 designated travel agencies out of the total 797 nationwide. Therefore, international tourists from Beijing are an important component of Chinese outbound travel market, and they are the focus of this research. The study examines their travel motivations based on push and pull theory. Considering the history of outbound tourism development in China, as discussed in chapter 2, travel constraints are included in the research so as to better understand this travel market. In order to identify preferences and travel patterns of Beijing outbound travellers, the study involves the decision-making process as well as the influencing factors. The next chapter will now consider the propositions that arise from this review of the literature. The theoretical framework derived from literature is also presented in chapter 4.

Chapter 4 Research Methodology

A number of issues need to be clarified before carrying out research. All research aims at finding out “reality”, but in what does “reality” exist in, and manifest itself? How is knowledge developed and what is the nature of reality and data? These assumptions are connected to issues of research paradigms. It is necessary to start with the philosophical considerations involved in the discussion of paradigms (Punch, 1998) because such considerations shape, and justify the mode of research adapted. Therefore, the author carefully considered this issue. Based on the nature of research, mixed methods in the context of post-positivism were chosen for this study. More explanations are to be found in the following section.

This chapter will examine the philosophical assumptions and methodological issues used in this study of Chinese outbound tourism. The research design, validity and reliability issues are then discussed. The final section looks at ethical issues.

Research Paradigm and Methodology

In this section, the author will discuss the chosen paradigm, methodology and methods for this thesis. Before going straight to the topic, a clarification is required. To reiterate, a paradigm is a basic set of beliefs that guides action, whether of the everyday garden variety or action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry (Guba, 1990). It provides a foundation for research. A methodology is a model that entails theoretical principles as well as a framework that provides guidelines about how research is done in the context of a particular paradigm (Sarantakos, 1998). Guba (1990) goes further and regards methodology as part of the structure that constitutes a paradigm. Methods, on the other hand, are the tools or instruments employed by

researcher to gather empirical evidence or to analyze data (Sarantakos, 1998). In short, a methodology is the set of guidelines of conducting research and a method is constituted of the tools for data collection and analysis (Jennings, 2001).

The choice of paradigm/approach may be dependent on the context of the study and the nature of the questions being asked. Besides, the researcher's experience and personal beliefs may also have an impact on the methods adopted (Crossan, 2003; Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Therefore, the research framework and objectives will be discussed before answering the question "how to undertake research of outbound Chinese tourism?"

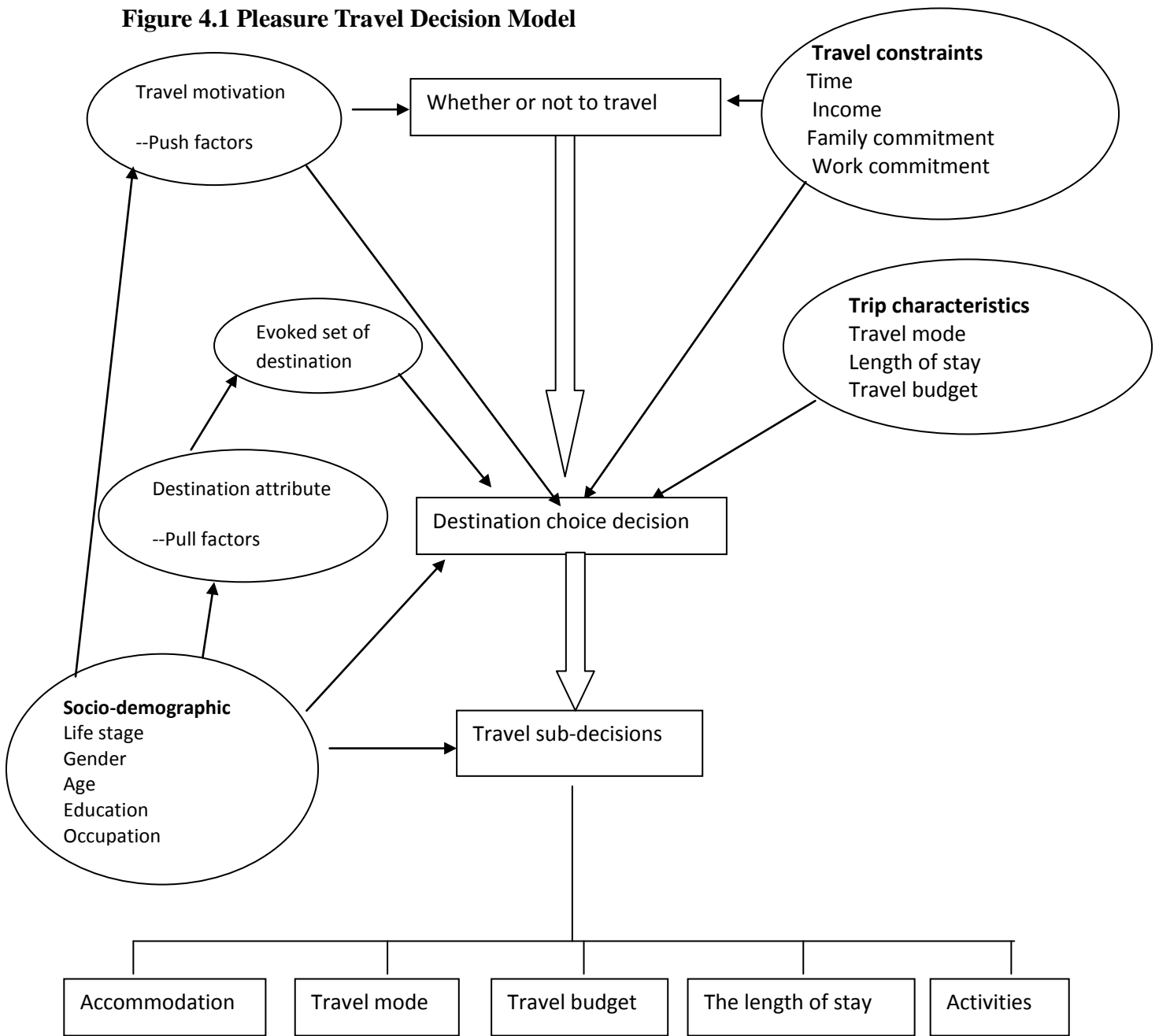
Research Objectives and Framework

The topic of this research is Chinese outbound tourist behaviour, to be specific, the motivation, constraints and decision behaviour of outbound travellers from Beijing. Tourist behaviour can be divided into pre-trip choice determinants, on-the-trip experience and attitude toward service quality, post-trip evaluation, and the impact of these elements on future decision making. The research aims to understand the motivation, constraints and decision-making process of tourists in the pre-visit stage. At the time of registering for doctoral study in 2006, there had been very little reported research in the English language academic literature on the decision-making behaviour of Chinese outbound travellers. To fill this gap, the author decided to analyse Chinese pleasure travellers as the topic for PhD research. As mentioned in chapter two, understanding tourists' motivations and their decision-making will help to predict future travel patterns and undertake effective marketing campaign.

Considering the status of the current Chinese travel market, restraining travel factors were also included so as to better understand the market.

The following framework of pleasure travel decision was proposed (Figure 4.1) based on the literature. The model follows the behavioural approach, and comprises three stages and five variables. As the figure shows, the first decision that potential tourists usually encounter is whether or not to travel. On one hand, individuals are motivated to take an overseas travel to meet certain needs. On the other hand, some situational variables have to be taken into account, which may deter or give up the overseas travel. In the current study these situational variables are termed “travel constraints”. The possibility of participation depends on the functions of both motivation and constraints. The second decision is to select a destination (or several destinations in case of multi-destination travel) among all the destinations available. It is a complicated process which is influenced by several variables: travel motivation, destination attribute, travel constraints, trip-related and socio-demographic variables. After selecting the destination, tourists would make a series of sub-decisions. As mentioned earlier, the current study does not focus on the decision-making flow itself, but rather on the relationship between influencing variables and consequent decisions.

Figure 4.1 Pleasure Travel Decision Model



Propositions

The research framework and objectives described above and the previous literature helped to develop the following specific propositions for empirical testing.

P1: Socio-demographic variables have influence on motivation and the demand for destination attribute and services.

People from different social and education background are supposed to differ in their motivation and expectation of overseas travel (Yu & Weiler, 2001; Zhang & Lam, 1999). Understanding these differences will help develop appropriate and tailor-made products and services. To test this proposition, two sets of scales (motivation and destination feature) were included in the questionnaire. The last section of the questionnaire includes several questions regarding age, gender, income, education, marital status and occupation. These questions can be tested against motivational and destination attributes by statistical techniques such as T-test and ANOVA.

P2: Participation or not in overseas travel is the combined action of motivation and constraints.

The current study examines not only the individuals who have been abroad for pleasure or holiday, but people who have planned to travel overseas for the first time. Motivations are the driving forces that push people to travel. On the contrary, constraints play a reverse role which drag people away from travel. Therefore, both have some effects on whether to participate in travel. In chapter 7, binary logistic regression will be utilised in the data analysis to measure the relationship. The result should be able to provide evidence for P2, which is about the roles of motivation and

constraints on participation. The author argues that the destinations should also consider the high potential travellers because they are the “reservoir” for long-term market development. The marketers should make efforts to turn the potential market into reality by launching effective marketing.

P3: The three-dimension leisure constraints model is also applicable to outbound tourism with regard to Chinese travel participation.

The previous studies (Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002; Nyaupane, Morais & Graefe, 2004) have confirmed that three-dimension leisure constraints model can be applied in nature-based tourism. As discussed in literature review chapter, Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002) found that nature-based tourism participants encounter three types of constraints—intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural. But according to Nyaupane, Morais & Graefe (2004), more than one construct might exist under the structural dimension. This assumption was confirmed by Nyaupane & Andereck (2008) that sub-dimensions of structural constraints, including cost, lack of time and place attributes, were added in the tourism context. Therefore, more empirical studies are needed in other occasions. In order to fill in this gap, this study attempts to test this model in Beijing outbound tourism. A series of travel constraints items are presented in the questionnaire. These items included were found similar to those used in leisure and nature-based tourism studies. Outwardly they are developed from the three pre-formulated dimensions: interpersonal, intra personal and structural. The subsequent analysis will prove or disprove P2 by conducting factor analysis.

P4: Travel frequency is influenced positively by travel motivation and negatively by travel constraints. It is also affected by the tourists' socio-demographic variables

The author supposes that travel motivation and constraints have an influence not only on the decision as to participate or not, but also on travel frequency. Furthermore, socio-demographic characteristics also play a certain role on the travel frequency. The questionnaire included a question related to travel frequency, which was, “in total how many time have you travelled overseas in the last five years?” It is regarded as the dependent variable in the multiple regression described in chapter 9. Other motivation, constraints items and socio-demographics form the independent variables. The results help answer this research proposition.

P5: Destination choice is determined by psychographic motivations, destination attributes, travel constraint, trip-related, as well as socio-demographic characteristics.

The selection of a travel destination has been an important research field for years. The earlier work found that demographic, socio-economic and trip-related characteristics were significantly related to the destination choice (Lang, o’Leary & Morrison, 1997). Meanwhile, psychographic and destination attributes were also found to be the determinants of destination choice (Jang & Cai, 2002; Lehto, O’Leary & Morrison, 2002). In this current study, travel constraints are included in the model when considering the particularity of Chinese travel market. Destination choice here is indicated by travelling within or outside Asia. Binary logistic regression will be employed to test this proposition.

P6: The socio-demographic variables predict the travel sub-decisions, such as travel mode, accommodation, travel budget and length of stay etc.

The first part of the questionnaire consisted of questions which were designed to understand the trip-related characteristics and travel sub-decisions. The questions were presented in the form of multiple choice, so the data in this part are regarded as categorical variables. Cross-tabulations with chi-square test are run with the purpose of understanding the relationship between socio-demographic and sub-decisions.

Selected Paradigm and Methodology

The research attempts to find out why “Chinese people travel overseas” and the constraints inhibiting their participation. Meanwhile, the decision-making process and factors involved in the process are to be examined. Regarding travel motivation and constraints, the quantitative method is used commonly as the literature review indicated in chapter two. The qualitative method is an alternative approach, and is preferred by some researchers. However, neither the quantitative nor the qualitative method is without criticism as approaches to investigate a complex psychological construct (Pearce, 1983). The best way is to use both approaches because they can complement each other. The second part of the research involves factors identification and influencing variables to be found. Conventional methodology is believed superior in identifying variables / factors that will act in predictable ways. Indeed, the end product of this inquiry is a generalization (Guba & Lincoln, 1989), and is the outcome that the author attempts to achieve or order to better understand a sizeable and important part of Chinese tourism---namely outbound tourism from Beijing. Hence, quantitative research is employed in this section. On the other hand, the author argues

values enter an inquiry because the researchers are directly involved in data collection and interpretation. They will inevitably affect the inquiry through the choice of paradigm for carrying out the inquiry, the choice of instrumentation and analysis modes, the choice of interpretations to be made and conclusions to be drawn (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). The author firmly believes that a post-positivistic perspective is more suitable for this study even whilst recognising that the choice of questions sets a research agenda. The goal of conducting post-positivist research to explore a social or human problem is to gain an in-depth description of the phenomenon. Nonetheless, the study also involves a qualitative approach so as to obtain rich knowledge that can inform the study.

If we take a glimpse at tourism, positivist discourse has been and may continue to be the “mainstream” in much tourism research. However, various dissenting voices have challenged this dominance, both within and outside of the tourism academy (Jennings, 2001; Pritchard & Morgan, 2007; Riley & Love, 2000; Walle, 1997). It is confirmed by Xiao and Smith’s work (2006) of reviewing a key tourism academic journal. They conclude that the field is still dominated by the scientific-positivistic paradigm, while some scholars and practitioners are beginning to adopt alternative ways, because they recognise the complex phenomena in tourism and argue it is not appropriate to always utilise rigorous quantitative methods. They argue alternative paradigms are also important (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Gale, 2005). This is also the case in tourists’ decision-making models. Most follow a positivistic approach, such as Moutinho’s (1987) Vacation Tourists Behavior model, but scholars have begun to address the current inability to fully represent people’s lived experiences. There is an increasing interest in post-positivistic philosophy, such as Gale (2005). This research answers

this call and aims at contributing to the current literature with specific reference to Beijing outbound tourism.

Walle (1997, p.535) has pointed out that “quantitative approach limits the areas of inquiry to those for which ample ‘facts’ can be gathered and leads to the possibility of oversimplifying reality by only examining phenomena in ways which reflect rigorous data gathering. As a result of employing such strategies, it becomes impossible to examine ‘reality’ in all its complexity.” Actually, qualitative approaches seem to make up for this deficiency. Qualitative researchers are free to ask questions, which the quantitative researcher cannot easily pursue. According to Patton (1990, p.24), it enables the researcher to understand and capture the points of view of other people without predetermining those points of view through prior selection of questionnaire categories. Besides, qualitative data have a holism and richness, and are well able to deal with the complexity of social phenomena (Punch, 1998). Yet the qualitative approach is not without weakness. The trustworthiness of qualitative approach is challenged. It is often criticised because of its apparent lack of rigour and credibility. As Walle (1997) concludes, both methods possess distinct limitations and weaknesses, but both have redeeming characteristics. Qualitative research might be used to produce extracts of verbatim conversation that gives life to the “why” and “how” of the patterns and quantitative approach may demonstrate excellence at revealing trends by the use of official reports or questionnaires (Mcneill & Chapman, 2005). Therefore, an emerging trend in social science is the employment of more than one method of research in order to build up a fuller and more comprehensive picture of social life. Researchers give it different terms --- methodological pluralism (Mcneill & Chapman,

2005), multi-methods (Brannen, 1995), or mixed methods (Creswell & Clark, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). In this research the term “mixed methods” is adopted.

Research Design

As previously stated, mixed method was selected considering the nature and aim of this research. Mixed methods research involves both collecting and analysing quantitative and qualitative data. The interest in mixed methods research across the social and behavioral sciences has grown steadily since the mid-1990s. Though still in its adolescence, mixed methods research deserves mention as the third methodological movement, along with quantitative and qualitative representing the three main methodological approaches used in the social and behavioural sciences (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). Researchers believe that it can result in enhanced understanding of phenomena and better, more rigorous methodology (Creswell & Clark, 2007). It is not enough to simply collect and analyse quantitative and qualitative data; they need to be “mixed” in some way so that together they form a more complete picture of the problem than they do when standing alone.

Creswell and Clark (2007) summarised four major types of mixed methods designs: the triangulation design, the embedded design, the explanatory design, and exploratory design. In this study, an exploratory design was undertaken, which is a two-phase design and involves first qualitative research to explore a phenomenon, and then builds to a second, quantitative phase. In so doing, the following might be achieved. A qualitative study can be used to help explore the psychological information of respondents and identify the items included in the questionnaire. Meanwhile, it can help to understand the reasons for those relationships derived from

quantitative research. Subsequently, quantitative research readily allows the researcher to establish relationships among variables. It was also feasible when taking time, funding and the role of the author as a sole researcher into consideration. In short, the choice of research design was based on pragmatism given the research resource available as much as any theoretical consideration of what constitutes good research design.

Qualitative research has a great advantage in describing, understanding, and explaining complex phenomena. In this study, one-to-one interviews were conducted. The interviewees are residents in Beijing, who had travelled abroad for a holiday in the last three years or had planned for this kind of travel. This method helped the researcher understand how people perceive overseas travel and their own experiences. Semi-structured interviews were conducted and interviewees were asked to talk about their reasons for travelling (or not) to an overseas destination; how they chose their destination; their favourite type of travel mode, etc.

Quantitative data were collected using self-administered questionnaires on the basis of interviews and the previous literature review. The questionnaire comprised the following parts: general information relating to travel, activities at a place, destination and travel features, reasons for travelling and not travelling overseas, and making overseas travel plans. The demographic profile of respondents was also collected to classify sub-samples within the study. According to Emory and Cooper (1991) a proper scale can contribute efficiently to the accuracy of responses. Therefore the ideal scale helps to achieve a precise and unambiguous measurement of the variables of interest. With a view to enable respondents to make clear and quick judgments and,

at the same time, to achieve accurate measurement, this research uses a seven-point rating scale, which was presented thus: (1) not at all important, (2) very unimportant, (3) slightly unimportant, (4) neither important nor unimportant, (5) slightly important, (6) very important and (7) extremely important, that is, this represents a translation of the Mandarin original.

Validity and Reliability

Validity asks whether the research measured what it intended to. There are several different types of validity to consider: (1) Face/content validity checks how well the content of the research is related to the variables to be studied (i.e. agreement among professionals that the scale is measuring what it is supposed to measure), (2) Criterion validation checks how meaningful the research criteria are relative to other possible criteria (i.e. degree of correspondence between a measure and a criterion variable, usually measured by their correlation), (3) Construct validity checks what underlying construct is being measured (i.e. ability of a measure to confirm a network of related hypotheses generated from a theory based on constructs) (Bollen, 1989; Zikmund, 1997). In this research, validity was achieved by reviewing a wide range of academic literature including tourism, leisure and consumer behaviour. Expert opinions were also consulted. In order to assure the reliability of the research instrument, a pilot study was undertaken before going into the field work. More information about pilot study and questionnaire design are provided in chapter 5.

Ethical Issues

According to the rules of Waikato University, all university research projects that involve human participants require approval from Waikato University Human Research Ethics Committee. The researcher abided by the regulations prescribed by the Human Research Ethics Regulations. Participation in the project was voluntary. Information sheets were provided to prospective participants with the research goal stated and all other information relevant to their decision to participate. Informed consent was implied by voluntary participation in completing a questionnaire. Consent forms were used for in-depth interviews. Potential participants had the right to decline participation, to refuse to answer any particular question, and to withdraw from the study at any time, including withdrawal of any information provided. The interview and questionnaire responses were used for data analysis and all the information was treated with strictest confidentiality. Participant anonymity was also strictly maintained. No names or other identifying characteristics are or will be stated in this thesis or any other papers or reports.

Conclusion

This chapter has provided the reasons for selecting the chosen methodology. A mixed method was chosen to conduct this research when considering the nature of this project and the objectives. The qualitative and quantitative data collection from two sources (interview and questionnaire survey) as well as the validity and reliability were described briefly. More details of the interviews and questionnaire survey can be expected in the next chapter.

Chapter 5 Questionnaire Design and Nature of the Sample

As mentioned in chapter 4, this study adopted mixed methods. The first part of this chapter will focus on the qualitative research. Then the processes of questionnaire design and data collection are described, followed by the demographic and travel-related information of respondents.

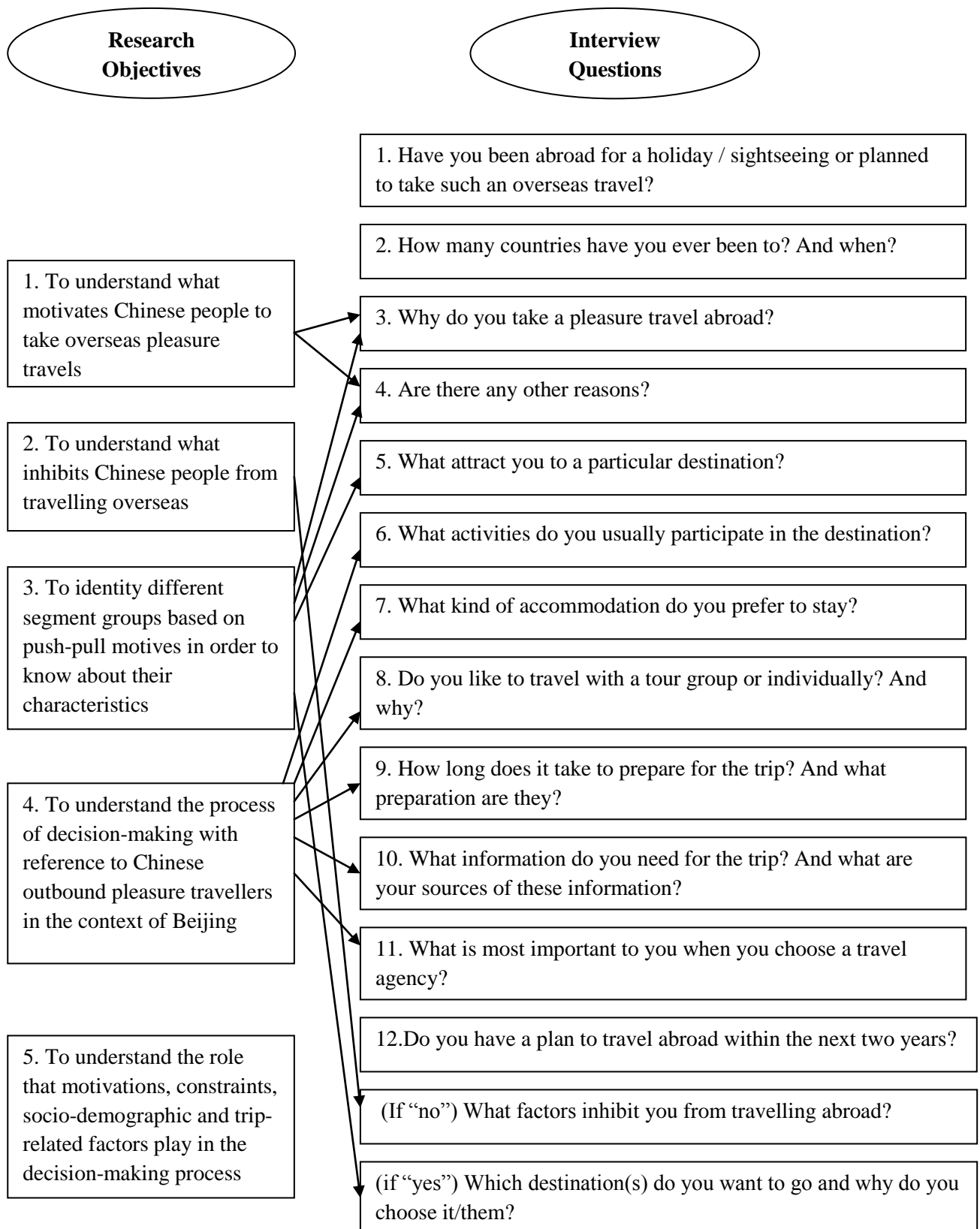
Interviews

Twenty interviews were conducted in Beijing. As previous studies indicated, “a sample size of 15 to 25 within a population will frequently generate sufficient constructs to approximate the “universe of meaning” regarding a given domain of discourse” (Dunn et al., 1986; Ginsberg, 1989; as cited by Tan & Hunter, 2002, pp50). Some potential respondents were approached in public areas, such as community sports areas and public parks. They were asked if they had been abroad for holiday or planned to take such an overseas travel. 12 answered “yes”, 6 refused to participate. The other eight interviewees were referred by friends. Quota sampling was adopted in selecting the sample, taking socio-demographic variables such as gender and occupation into account.

All of the interviews were conducted in Mandarin. The interview questions were organised into four categories: motivation of overseas leisure travel, the attractiveness of destinations, factors constraining the realization of their travel, and their actual or planned travel decisions of accommodation, travel mode, etc. A diagram (Figure 5.1) was drawn to illustrate the interview questions and how they related to research objectives. The semi-structured questions encourage free expressions of interviewees' thoughts. Some basic demographic and travel information was also gathered. Eleven of

the interviewees were females, and nine were males. 80% of them had travelled overseas for a holiday and 20% intended to travel. Most of the interviews took around 30 to 40 minutes, with a few lasting around one hour.

Figure 5.1 Interview Questions and Research Objectives



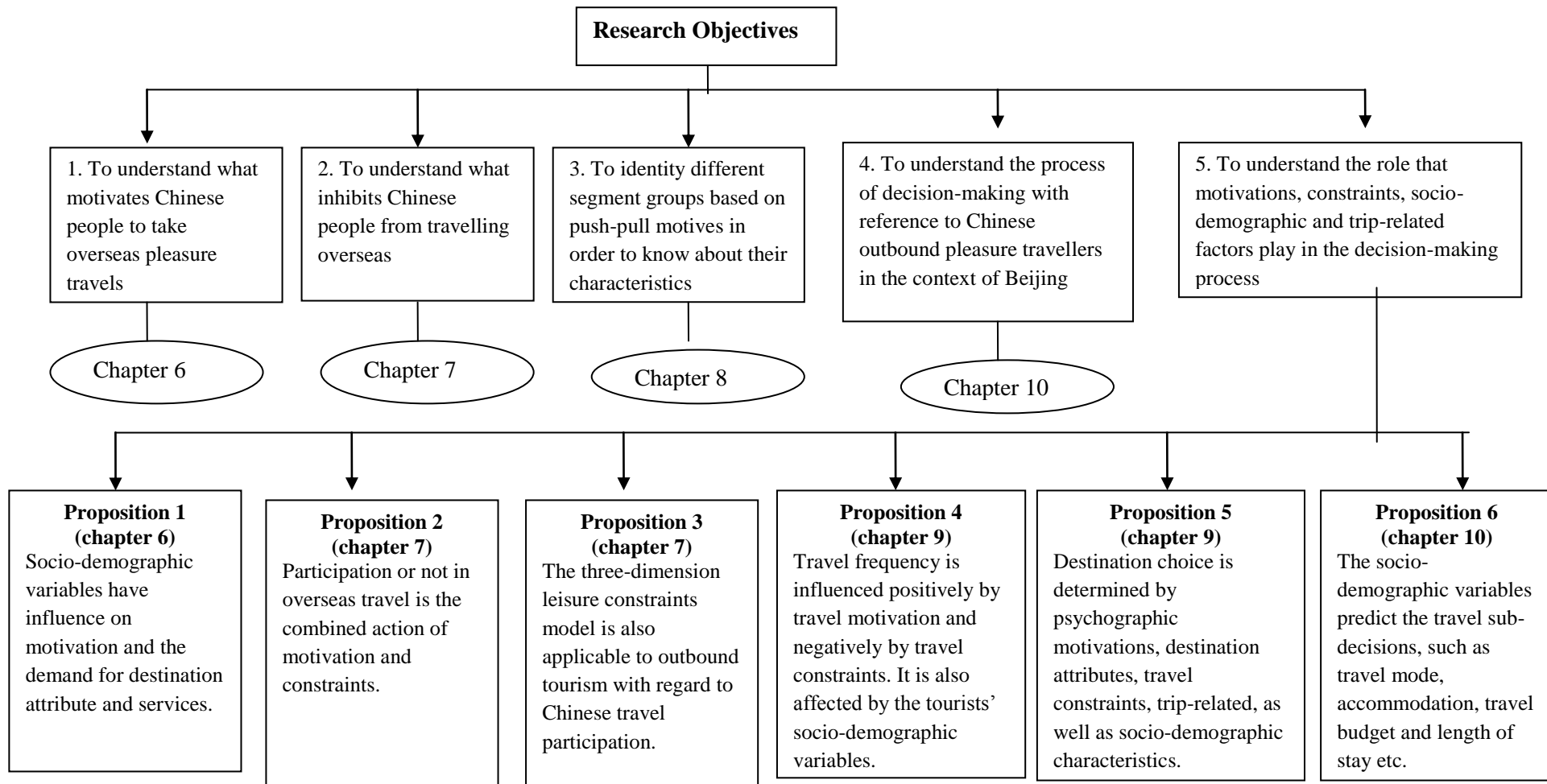
The analysis of the data was guided by the structure of the interviews and the research aim. Manual content analysis was employed which involves disaggregating the mass of text into meaningful themes. Some of the expressions by interviewees were directly quoted in subsequent chapters to provide evidence to support the categorisation pattern.

The interviews were not the emphasis of this research, but the results were supportive in pilot stage and developing the questionnaire. This study focuses on identifying factors and the relationship between them. Therefore, the following section will discuss about the questionnaire design.

Questionnaire Design

A well designed survey is paramount as it is intimately related to the achievement of research goals. Survey design attempts to answer such questions as: Which variables should be measured? What kind of sample will be drawn? Who will be questioned, and how often? and so on (Oppenheim, 1966, p.3). A review of research objectives and propositions is necessary before any actual design step is undertaken. A diagram is presented below (see Figure 5.2) in order to provide a comprehensive overview of study, especially the relationship among study objectives, propositions, and the chapters providing relevant research findings for each objective or proposition. The subsequent section will describe how the questionnaire is designed and how the questionnaire items link to the research objectives and proposition.

Figure 5.2 Research Objectives, Propositions and Thesis Chapters



The nature of a questionnaire can be drawn from these research objectives. It can be seen from research objective 6 that this survey is more “analytic” than “descriptive”, because it is designed to explain or to explore relationships between particular variables. A complete review of the relevant literature also helped to identify the constructs and variables of this study.

The questionnaire consisted of seven sections. The first part involved travel related general information. It includes questions about respondents’ past travel and plans about future travel. Most of these questions function as dependent variables in the subsequent data analysis. The first question asks whether the respondents have taken an overseas holiday or sightseeing. This implies participation / non-participation of the respondents, and therefore, it was utilised in proposition 2 to test the impacts of motivation and constraints on participation. The question of “in total how many times have you travelled to an overseas country in the last five years” is an indicator of travel frequency, which will be used as a dependent variable to test proposition 4. There is also one question in the questionnaire to indicate destination choice as the ultimate dependent construct to test proposition 5. The related question is as follows: “where did you go on your last overseas trip away from home?”

The second part is about travel decisions and plans. Fesenmaier and Jeng (2000) argue that the travel destination is not the only decision that a tourist needs to make before the trip. Additionally, the planning process comprises a number of constituent “sub-decisions” to be considered: information search, length of trip, date/timing of year to travel, transportation, travel budget, activities, accommodation and travel mode, etc. (Fesenmaier & Jeng, 2000; Moutinho, 1987). In this study these aspects were examined

with reference to Beijing outbound travellers as research objective 4 indicates. The sub-decisions were measured in the following ways. For example, the planning of a trip is an important element in the travel decision (Zalatan, 1996). For example, in this study, planning time, length of trip and time of travel were checked by these formats:

--- If you have, or were to make a plan for travelling overseas, how long before you travel do you tend to plan?

- 1 week 2-3 weeks 1 months 2-3 months
- 4-6 months half a year - a year over a year

--- How long would you prefer to spend on an overseas travel if there were no constraints?

- 3-5 days 1 week 2 weeks 1 month over 1 month

--- When do you plan to travel overseas? (Tick all that can apply)

- "May Day" holiday "National Day" holiday "Spring Festival" holiday
- Summer or winter holiday Annual leave Weekends Weekdays

Preferred accommodation and travel of mode were measured as followed:

--- What accommodation would you prefer in an overseas destination?

- 1-2 Star Hotel 3 Star Hotel 4 Star Hotel 5 Star Deluxe Hotel
- Motel Hostel Homestay

--- Which type of overseas travel do you prefer?

- All-inclusive package tour □ Independent travel

- Basic tour package (including air ticket and accommodation)

The third and fourth components of the questionnaire were based on push-pull motivation items, which were designed to achieve research objective 1 and 3. The literature review was indeed helpful in scale development. A thorough review informed the researcher of theories in which a construct may prove useful as an independent or dependent variable. The review can also uncover important related constructs to be used in a validation of findings (Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma, 2003). Therefore, the related literature was carefully reviewed in order to know the theories and prior attempts to measure the construct, as described in the previous chapter. Motivation is multidimensional (Oh, Uysal & Weaver, 1995), and hence a multidimensional construct was chosen that was composed of multiple facets that are related, yet distinct.

This involved generating an item pool, which was a process of the collection of attitude statements from which the scale will be built (Oppenheim, 1996). The initial pool for this study absorbed items from previous studies (Cha, McCleary & Uysal, 1995; Lehto, O’Leary & Morrison, 2002; Oh et al., 1995; Qu & Lam, 1997). The in-depth interviews with twenty residents who had travelled overseas in the past three years or had planned to take overseas trip in the next two years also contributed to the item generation. Respondents were asked to rate how important each statement was when considering an overseas vacation trip. The push motivation construct related to internal motivations, while the pull motivation construct associated with external forces.

The fifth section of the questionnaire is about preferred activities in the destination, which were measured by indicating the attractiveness of each activity. The data in this

part are related to research objective 4, since activity participation in the destination is an important decision that tourists have to make. A seven-point rating scale anchored on (1) =“of no attraction” to (7) =“extremely attractive” was used. Respondents were asked to evaluate the following items: visiting museums, shopping, sports, visiting places of historic interest, gourmet dining, sex tourism activity, attending local festival or event, viewing natural landscape and spectacles, gambling, attending opera/concert/concerts as well as viewing flora and fauna. Cronbach's alpha measures how well a set of items (or variables) measures a single unidimensional latent construct. It is a measure of consistency among individual items in a scale. The alpha coefficient for the above statements was 0.75 which, while low, is acceptable subject to contents referred to in the text when statistical tests are used.

The sixth section asks about reasons for not travelling overseas. It is closely related to the research objective 2 and proposition 3. Constraint factors such as income, time, and language were examined in seven-point scale, which allows the respondents to express their disagreement / agreement on the statements.

The last part of the questionnaire involved basic demographic data on the respondents including gender, age, marital status, level of education and household income. Respondents were asked to indicate their gender and age from given options. In order to know the individuals' life stage and their role in the decision making, marital status was characterised by four categories: single, married with no children, married with dependent children, married with grown-up children. In terms of education there were four options: secondary school leaver and under, diploma, Bachelor degree, Master's or doctoral degree.

A pilot testing was undertaken with 30 residents in Beijing before field work started. The pretest data were under evaluation to identify the individual items that were appropriate to constitute the scale (DeVellis, 2003). In addition, during this stage respondents were asked whether anything of importance had been omitted, and to what extent they felt the list to be holistic in identifying motivations. The coefficient alpha, item-scale correlations, item variances were examined. Besides, factor analysis was also employed as a part of the scale development process. Statements were also checked to make sure they were free from redundancy and ambiguity. Then minor amendments were also made to the questionnaire in terms of wording clarity. Finally, 17 push items, 21 pull items and 12 constraint items were retained in the final scale.

The questionnaire was originally designed in English and translated into Chinese by the researcher. The process of translation was very carefully done, adopting the method of “back translation”. A third-party was involved to back translate the questionnaire into English so as to ensure accuracy and consistency of wording and content.

Data Collection

With the aim of exploring the potential of the Chinese outbound market and investigating what inhibits some from travelling overseas, both potential and current outbound tourists participated in the survey. The sample population for this study was defined as Chinese outbound pleasure travellers residing in Beijing who had travelled overseas in the past three years and also those who planned to travel overseas in the next two years. The mode of data collection also meant a sufficient sub-sample of non-participants were included to permit comparison when required. The city of Beijing was chosen because it is one of the three major outbound origin areas due to the higher

standard of living and higher per capita income (Wang & Sheldon, 1995). In total, 1000 questionnaires were distributed over the course of three months (from April to June 2007). A convenience sampling method was adopted in the study.

The data were collected in two ways. A total of 600 questionnaires were distributed to two travel agencies who handed them to potential travellers enquiring about packaged tours overseas. Those staff were informed about the general purpose of the study and given detailed instructions for administering the questionnaires. This was done to ensure that staff had the same knowledge and attitude towards the study and that they collected the data in an identical manner. The individuals who were visiting the above travel agencies at the time of the survey were considered to be the target population. After potential respondents made an enquiry about overseas travel, they were informed of the survey in written form and asked whether they would like to participate. Voluntary and confidential participation was maintained. A further 400 questionnaires were distributed by the researcher. Public areas were chosen as the survey points such as local parks, restaurants and community gymnasium facilities. A filter question was used to ask if the potential respondents had been overseas in the past three years or had plans to travel abroad in the next two years. The information explaining the purpose of the survey was provided and their permission to participate was also sought. The questionnaires were self-completed. When target respondents agreed, the questionnaires were then left with them. The researcher herself would later meet them and collect the completed questionnaire. At the end of data collection, 780 questionnaires were completed but only 726 were useable. The questionnaire versions in English and Chinese can be found in Appendix 2 and Appendix 3. In order to ensure

that the data collected from two sources are reliable, split-half reliability test were conducted and the result was high to carry on the data analysis (see chapter 6).

Two limitations (sampling bias and non-response bias) have to be emphasized. As discussed earlier in this chapter, this study adopted convenience sampling. As a non-probability sampling technique, convenient sampling might lead to the sampling bias. Therefore, the results of the study may not be generalised to the entire population, especially Chinese tourists from other areas. Non-response bias is another limitation in this study which can not be ignored. But on the whole, the sample is representative of the Beijing outbound travel market as a whole.

Data collected from the surveys were input and analysed by SPSS. Normality tests were used to identify whether the observed data followed a normal distribution. Reliability test were also conducted. Thereafter, ANOVA and Chi-Square tests were used to validate the relationship between various factors and socio-demographic variables. Other tests as described in the appropriate chapters also sought to determine the importance of motivation and constraints.

Socio-demographic Profile of Respondents

The study focuses on Beijing residents visiting overseas and potential outbound travellers as well. The respondents were 18 years of age or older who took an overseas vacation in the past three years or who intended to take such a trip in the next two years. The demographic characteristics of respondents help to profile travellers and assess their possible influences on travel frequency and destination choice.

Gender and age

The respondents were asked to indicate their gender and choose from specific age groups. Table 5.1 indicates that males are (54.0%) marginally more than females (46.0%). People between the ages of 26 and 35 years were the largest group in the sample (38.2%). The respondents in the age categories of 18-25 and 36-49 years accounted for 29.60% and 26.20% of the sample respectively. According to Beijing's population statistics (2005) from National Bureau of Statistics of China, males and females comprised 50.63% and 49.37% of the population respectively. Of the total population, the age distributions are as follows: 0-14 years (10.21%), 15-64 years (79%) and over 65 years (10.79%). These figures might help to indicate the nature of sample. Evidently the sample was biased away from people over 65 years old, which can be accounted for by the nature of the Chinese outbound travel market. In China, seniors are not generally willing to travel overseas due to the traditional cultural reasons and health problems. Guo et al (2004, 2007) examined the reasons for the lower participation in outbound travel by people over 50 years old. First, senior residents are living frugally and like saving their money. Travel, especially overseas travel, is seen as a luxury. Second, most have retired from work and live on pensions, which may not be high enough to afford overseas travel. Third, travel agencies do not provide tailored products to this group. Finally, many elderly people lack the physical strength to travel far. Therefore, in this study, the age groups of 50-65 and over 65 were combined together in the category "over 50 years old" in the following analysis. Hsu et.al (2007) also found that many older people felt taking holidays was socially irresponsible, a view shaped by their childhoods in a Maoist period of China's history. However, some seniors do take holidays, when either (a) they visit family overseas and / or (b) their children pay for the holidays.

Table 5.1 The Demographic Profile of Respondents—Age and Gender

Age \ Gender	Male	Female	Total	% of sample
18-25 years old	87	128	215	29.6
26-35 years old	165	112	277	38.2
36-49 years old	112	78	190	26.2
50-64 years old	27	12	39	5.4
Over 65 years old	1	1	2	0.3
Total	392	331	723	99.7
Missing	---	---	3	0.3
Total	---	---	726	100.0

Marital status and gender

In the survey respondents were asked about their marital status which was categorised into four. As shown in Table 5.2, more than half (62.4%) of the respondents were married. Among them, 21.2 % of the sample had no children at the time of survey, and 26.3% respondents had dependent children who were under 16 years old. Another 14.9% respondents had grown-up children.

Table 5.2 The Demographic Profile of Respondents—Marital Status and Gender

Marital status \ Gender	Male	Female	Total	% of sample
Single	125	144	269	37.1
Married, no children	86	68	154	21.2
Married, dependent children	116	75	191	26.3
Married, grown-up children	65	43	108	14.9
Total	392	330	722	99.5
Missing	--	--	4	0.5
Total	--	--	726	100.0

Education and gender

Almost one third of the sample (29.3%) had graduated from college or other professional school with a diploma. The majority of respondents (61.1%) had at least a university degree (see Table 5.3). This bias toward university qualified people arose from the profile of those more able to afford overseas travel. This sample seemed under representative of people with lower educational attainment, but it is congruent with the Annual Report of China Outbound Tourism Development (Du & Dai, 2004, 2005), which stated that a large majority of outbound travellers had a good education background. Over the last few years, China's national educational level had been greatly upgraded, especially in big cities. In 1999, the expanded enrolment policy was adopted that led to significant growth in the number of higher-education institutions and the numbers of students they enrolled and who subsequently graduated. An academic degree has become a major criterion for job recruitment and promotion. Therefore, many people aim to further their education by part-time study. Beijingers' educational level ranked first in the country according to the Population Census of 2000 (Zhang, 2001 November 11). There is a higher proportion of enrolment in both compulsory and higher education in Beijing than in any other city or region. In Beijing, 80% of public servants in municipal government had at least a Bachelor degree while 90% of public servants in district / county level had at least a diploma, as recorded in a working conference hosted by the Beijing municipal Bureau of Personnel in 2006. All these factors explained the bias toward higher education of the sample.

Table 5.3 The Demographic Profile of Respondents—Education and Gender

Gender	Male	Female	Total	% of sample
Education				
School leaver	34	33	67	9.2
Diploma	100	112	212	29.3
Bachelor degree	204	157	361	49.7
Master’s or doctoral degree	54	29	83	11.4
Total	392	331	723	99.6
Missing	---	---	3	0.4
Total	---	---	726	100.0

Household monthly income

It can be seen from table 5.4 that those with a household monthly income from RMB 5,000 to 10,000 is the largest group (34.0%) in the sample, followed by RMB 10,000 to 20,000 (28.1%). According to the report of “MasterCard Worldwide Index of China’s Affluent”, the affluent segment in China is defined as consisting of two sub-segments: mass affluent whose household income range from US\$ 16,000 to US\$50,000 a year and the premium affluent who earn more than US\$50,000 a year. If one calculates into monthly income and take the currency exchange of the first half of 2007 when the survey was conducted into account, the household monthly income of affluent people ranged from RMB10,000 to 33,000 and over. In that report, overseas travel is identified by 75.1% of the affluent as their top spending priority. Close to half (47.7%) travelled overseas between one and two times in 2006, while 21.8% travelled between three to four times. The current study thus well represented the financial characteristics of outbound travellers. However, compared with other studies (Du & Dai, 2004, 2005), this survey is a little under representative of affluent people which can be attributed to

the reason that the sample includes those potential travellers who did not have a higher income.

Table 5.4 The Demographic Profile of Respondents—Income and Gender

	Gender	Male	Female	Total	% of sample
Income					
Under RMB5,000		86	101	187	25.7
RMB 5,000-10,000		142	105	247	34.0
RMB 10,000-20,000		111	93	204	28.1
RMB 20,000-30,000		17	17	34	4.7
Over RMB 30,000		33	14	47	6.5
Total		389	330	719	99.0
Missing		--	--	7	1.0
Total		--	--	726	100.0

Occupation

Table 5.5 shows that more than half of the sample (52.5%) worked as a company employee, followed by managers (15.3%) and self-employed (8.8%). The sample seems over representative of company employees because it is a broad definition that includes professionals, technicians, service personals, sales representatives, etc. Students and teachers together accounted for 12.4% of the sample.

Table 5.5 The Demographic Profile of Respondents— Occupation

Occupation	Number	% of sample
Company employee	381	52.5
Manager	111	15.3
Self-employed	64	8.8
Student	60	8.3
Public servant	36	5.0
Teacher	30	4.1
Others	21	2.9
Retired	12	1.7
Homecarer	8	1.1
Total	723	99.6
Missing	3	0.4
Total	726	726

This finding implies that the sample does possess a bias toward young and middle aged, well educated people from high or medium – income households. However, the sample in fact fits closely the profile of Chinese outbound market reported in other studies (Cai, Joseph & Boger, 2000; Yu & Weiler, 2001). Therefore, it can be argued that the sample of the study is representative of the profile of Chinese outbound travellers.

General Travel Information of Respondents

With the aim of exploring the potential Chinese outbound market and investigating what inhibits travel, both potential and current outbound tourists participated in the survey. Among all respondents, 622 had been overseas at least once in the previous 3 years. 104 respondents have never been abroad, and were regarded as potential tourists as they indicated their intention to travel overseas in the next 2 years.

Travel destination

The respondents were asked where they went on their last trip away from home. Table 5.6 listed the overseas countries to which the respondents had travelled. In the study, Japan as a popular destination ranked first (11.1%) followed by Thailand (7.9%) and Singapore (7.1%). One might find that in this study Hong Kong and Macao do not occupy as high a percentage as in Chinese official statistics. The Chinese statistics are based on a recording of the first foreign port of disembarkation. A traveller to Australia may transfer in Hong Kong and hence be recorded as a visitor to Hong Kong and not Australia. However in this survey, such a respondent would self-identify as a traveller to Australia. There were a few respondents who travelled to more than one destination on one trip, which was not calculated in the table. For example, 13 respondents travelled to Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand on one itinerary. 3 respondents went to Hong Kong and Macao one after another on one trip.

Table 5.6 Respondents' Top Ten Overseas Destinations in the Last Three Years

	Frequency	Percent
Japan	69	11.1
Thailand	49	7.9
Singapore	44	7.1
US	43	6.9
Hong Kong	40	6.4
South Korea	38	6.1
Australia	32	5.1
North Korea	25	4.0
UK	24	3.9
France	22	3.5

In order to identify determinants of destination choice, five categories was derived from the geographic location: Asia-bound, Europe-bound, America-bound, Oceania-bound and Africa-bound (Table 5.7). More than half (56.9%) took intra-continental travel, which was defined as short-haul travel. It was followed by Europe (22.0%) and America (10.0%). Asian countries are still the popular destinations for Chinese travellers (Ivy Alliance Tourism Consulting, 2007). At the same time, long-haul travel attracts more and more Chinese travellers.

Table 5.7 Respondents' Travel Continent Classification

	Frequency	Percent
Asia-bound	354	56.9
Europe-bound	137	22.0
America-bound	62	10.0
Oceania-bound	54	8.7
Africa-bound	15	2.4
Total	622	100.0

Length of stay

The respondents were asked to indicate their length of stay in the destination. The result was shown in Table 5.8. Around one third of travellers stayed in an overseas destination for 7 days. Some stayed up to two weeks. These data agree with current itinerary planning in which 5-7 days are the most common for Asian Pacific destinations and 10-15 days for long-haul destinations.

Table 5.8 Respondents' Length of Stay

Length of stay	Count	Percent	Valid percent
5-6 days	84	11.6	13.5
7 days	196	27.0	31.5
10-12 days	81	11.2	13.0
14-15 days	115	15.9	18.5
Others	146	20.0	23.5
Missing	104	14.3	

Travel frequency

The respondents were asked to indicate how many times they had travelled to overseas countries. From this a new variable – times of travel in total– was calculated based on the number of overseas trips made by the respondents. The times were aggregated into five groups: 0 time, 1-2 times, 3-5 times, 6-10 times, and more than 10 times. Accordingly, respondents were classified into potential traveller, occasional traveller, infrequent traveller, less than frequent traveller and frequent traveller. Of this sample 14.3% had never been abroad. More than half of the respondents (57.4%) were occasional travellers who had been overseas once or twice. Frequent travellers (more than 10 times) accounted for only 3.6%. A frequency analysis is shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Respondents' Overseas Travel Frequency

Times	Category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
0	Potential traveller	104	14.3	14.3
1-2	Occasional traveller	417	57.4	71.7
3-5	Infrequent traveller	148	20.4	92.1
6-10	Less than frequent traveller	31	4.3	96.4
>10	Frequent traveller	26	3.6	100.0
Total		726	100.0	

Finally, using the variable “the number of total overseas trips taken”, a likelihood ratio test was undertaken to assess which of the socio-demographic variables might have the

greatest impact on the number of trips taken. The results are shown in Table 5.10, which indicates that age, the level of education and household income are the most statistically significant variables.

Table 5.10 Likelihood Ratio Tests of Travel Frequency and Socio-demographics

Effect	Model Fitting	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	Criteria	Chi-square	df	Sig.
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model			
Intercept	895.512(a)	0.000	0	.
Gender	897.176	1.664	4	0.797
Age	926.704	31.192	12	0.002
Marital status	906.482	10.970	12	0.531
Education	919.069	23.557	12	0.023
Household monthly income	975.264	79.752	16	<0.001

Conclusion

In this chapter the procedure of in-depth interview and questionnaire survey was described, including question contents, data collection and the sampling method. The interview and questionnaire questions were designed with the aim of effectively serving the research objectives. The last two sections illustrate the socio-demographic profile of the respondents and their travel related information.

The evidence in Table 5.10 suggests that socio-demographic variables impact on the ability to take overseas trips. In many ways this is self evident, but it is particularly important for a developing country such as China in which growing numbers are achieving university education and higher disposable incomes. Additionally, there is a

changing social perspective where those under the age of 50 years hold different views to those espoused by the current generation of those over 50 years, and it can be expected that the demand for overseas travel will continue to grow strongly assuming past economic trends are maintained.

Chapter 6 Push-pull Factors and Underlying Dimensions

This chapter attempts to identify the motivators that drives Beijing residents to travel abroad for pleasure (research objective 1) and the influence of socio-demographic variables on motivation and the demand for destination attribute (proposition 1). As stated in chapter 2, “What drives people to travel” is a fundamental question in tourist behaviour research. This question relates to the concept of “travel motivation”, a well-researched area in tourism literature. As Iso-Ahola (1982) argued, motivation is a more important determinant of travel than other psychological factors, such as attitude, preference, or beliefs. Crompton (1995) also pointed out, motivation is a critical variable in predicting and explaining behaviour, even though it is not expected to explain a large portion of variance in tourist behaviour. According to the literature, reviewed in chapter two, people travel because they are “pushed” by their needs and “pulled” by destination features. From the late 1990’s many researchers have focused on investigating the needs and motivation of outbound travellers. A major theme in this thesis is the attempt to understand Chinese travellers’ motivation to go abroad and their associated decision making, as a rapidly increasing source of global travel.

As previously described, the questionnaire include a series of questions that fall under the category of “push” (benefits) and “pull” (destination specific features) motivations. First, a reliability test was undertaken to ensure that the data are suitable for further analysis. Then the importance rankings of both push and pull motivations are provided to identify the most important motivations for Chinese outbound pleasure travellers. Based on the literature review, the motivation items are expected to show high levels of correlation among themselves, which implies the likelihood of finding underlying

factors. The next part of this chapter attempts to explore the underlying motivational dimensions through exploratory factors analysis, followed by a correlation test to see whether there is relationship between push and pull factors. In order to address whether there is any significant difference between push, pull factors and socio-demographic characteristics, independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA analysis are used accordingly. Last but not the least; the chapter will address the issue of travellers' motivations to different destination continents.

Reliability Checking

Reliability is the extent to which a measure will produce consistent results. The internal reliability of the measurement instrument is commonly assessed by Cronbach's alpha. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 or higher indicate that the measurement scale that is used to measure a construct is reliable (Nunnally, 1967). In this study the homogeneity or internal consistency of the scale was checked by two methods: Cronbach's alpha and split half coefficient of correlation.

Regarding push items (see Table 6.1), the Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.85, which was greater than the acceptable standard 0.7. Then split half reliability was calculated by randomly dividing the items of the scale into two sub-scales. Spearman-Brown and Guttman split-half coefficient were 0.826 and 0.811 respectively. If we take a further look (Appendix 4) at the item-total statistics, one item stood out with low correlation—"being daring and adventuresome", which is 0.36, below the standard of 0.4. It might be due to the Chinese cultural norm that people do not demonstrate "a sense of adventure" in the sense of avoiding undue risks. One reason advanced for this is the Confucian sense of filial duty whereby children are to take care of parents, and hence

to take “uncertainty” risks may inhibit that duty. Therefore, most people score low on this items. Even so, the item was retained as it would remain the conceptual integrity.

Table 6.1 Reliability Statistics of Push Motivations

N of Items		17
Cronbach's Alpha		0.853
Spearman-Brown Coefficient	Equal Length	0.826
	Unequal Length	0.826
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient		0.811

In terms of pull factors (see Table 6.2), the Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.89. Split half reliability was again calculated by randomly dividing the items of the scale into two sub-scales. Spearman-Brown and Guttman split-half coefficient were the same (0.848). In addition, the item-total correlation was over 0.4, which indicated high reliability of data (Appendix 5).

Table 6.2 Reliability Statistics of Pull Motivations

N of Items		21
Cronbach's Alpha		0.890
Spearman-Brown Coefficient	Equal Length	0.848
	Unequal Length	0.848
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient		0.848

The Importance of Push and Pull Motivations

Why are an increasing number of Beijing residents enthusiastic about travelling overseas for a holiday? What are the motivations driving behind them? What destination attributes can attract them to travel to such a destination? This section attempts to answer these questions.

Table 6.3 reports the mean ranking of push motivational factors. “Spending time with family and friends” is the primary motivation (5.30) for Chinese to take overseas holidays, followed by “broadening my horizons” (5.17) and “seeing something different” (5.04). The fourth and fifth motivations are “releasing work/study pressure” (5.02) and “sharing travel experience with friends” (4.96). Chinese people have the fastest pace of life than ever before, especially in big cities. They have much work-related pressure which can lead to stress. Besides, time, which is supposed to be with family and friends, is occupied by work. Vacation is a good way to reduce stress and enhance relationship with family and friends. On the other hand, Chinese people believe knowledge can be gained through travelling, as in an old Chinese saying “travelling thousands of miles is better than reading thousands of books”. Many Chinese famous scholars or poets throughout history thought highly of travel. Travel, it is said, makes a person wise and enlightened. Many people go to foreign countries to taste differences and are eager to see something new.

Table 6.3 Importance Rankings of Push Motivations (N=726)

The most important push items	Mean	SD	Rank
Spend time with family and friends	5.30	1.36	1
Broadening my horizons	5.17	1.27	2
Seeing something different	5.04	1.26	3
Releasing work/study pressure	5.02	1.47	4
Sharing travel experience with friends	4.96	1.26	5

The least important push items	Mean	SD	Rank
For romance	4.30	1.60	5
Exploring new things	4.22	1.86	4
Better understanding myself	4.21	1.57	3
Finding thrill or excitement	3.84	1.75	2
Being daring and adventuresome	3.52	1.67	1

The least important motivations to Chinese pleasure travellers are “being daring and adventuresome” (3.52) and “finding thrill and excitement” (3.84). These two items are the only items with the mean below 4. This result is not surprising if China’s traditional cultural value is taken into account. Chinese people have an uncertainty avoiding culture which means people feel threatened by uncertainty and try to avoid it (Hofstede, 1980). Adventure and innovation are not encouraged in China as in western culture. The characteristics of avoiding adventure also can be reflected in the destination activities preference, which will be discussed later in chapter 10. Other less important items include “better understanding myself” (4.21), “exploring new things” (4.22) and “for romance” (4.30). These items are just above the average score of 4 which mean “neither important nor unimportant”.

Similar results were found compared with the study by Zhang & Lam (1999) which focused on Guangdong residents travelling to Hong Kong. They found that “seeing something different”, “facilitating family and kinship ties”, “visiting friends or relatives” and “increasing knowledge about a foreign destination” were the major push factors. A main difference is regarding “visiting friends or relatives”. Their sample was from Guangdong province which is adjacent to Hong Kong. Due to historical and geographical reason, many Guangdong residents have family or relatives in Hong Kong, which causes them to visit. While in the current study the VFR segment is not included in the sample.

Interestingly, some interviewees cannot clearly express their motives to travel overseas. A typical answer is to “go abroad and have a look”, which indicates a common idea existing among a large number of Chinese travellers. For those who travelled abroad for the first time, their main motive is to see what the outside world is like. Because they have never been abroad, the rest of the world seems “mysterious” to them. The media and Internet are important channels to get to know different countries and peoples, but to see it with one’s own eyes is a different matter. An important finding is that there is a positive relationship between a growing awareness of one’s motives and the amount of travel undertaken. As the frequency of overseas travel increases, tourists become more aware of what pushes or pulls them to go abroad. For example, an interviewee from the real estate industry mentioned many benefits, including “broadening my horizons”, “changing one’s concepts and ideas”, “getting to know other cultures” and “enjoying beautiful scenery”. He also said, “I like to see the architecture in different countries. One of the reasons for travelling abroad is related to my profession. I enjoy walking along the street in a foreign destination and watching

buildings which are greatly different from a Chinese style in terms of both structure and material.”

For the pull items, “Outstanding natural scenery” ranks first, followed by “feel safe in destination”. Like people from other countries, Chinese are also safety conscious. Additionally, they regard “comfortable and clean accommodation” as an important aspect of overseas travel. This result is in line with the study by Kim et. al (2005). They also used a seven-point scale and found that potential mainland Chinese outbound tourists placed high importance on “safety” ($M = 5.73$), “beautiful scenery” ($M = 5.69$), and “well-equipped tourism facilities” ($M=5.15$). It is worth noting that some items do not actually motivate either as push or pull but are important if they are absent. Therefore, Yu and Weiler (2006) distinguish between motivators (satisfiers) and hygiene factors (dissatisfiers) in their study of Chinese visitors to Australia. Things like “comprehensive tourist information” and “comfort and clean accommodation” only matter if they are absent, but these really don’t motivate people either to leave home (push) or to visit a particular destination (pull).

On the contrary, “exciting nightlife” ($M=4.16$), “a variety of souvenirs” ($M=4.22$), and “adventure activities” ($M=4.26$) are but moderately important factors for Chinese travellers. Compared to their western counterparts, the Chinese seem not much interested in adventure activities and nightlife. As noted previously, this might be due to the differences of culture and character between Chinese and westerners. Furthermore, Chinese tourists attached less importance on shopping areas ($M=4.49$) and gourmet dining ($M=4.58$)

Table 6.4 Importance Rankings of Pull Motivations (N=725)

The Most Important Pull factors	Mean	SD	Rank
Outstanding natural scenery	5.62	1.25	1
Feel safe in destination	5.57	1.35	2
Comfort and clean accommodations	5.55	1.27	3
The best deal I could get	5.44	1.36	4
Availability of comprehensive tourist information	5.41	1.30	5

The least Important Pull factors	Mean	SD	Rank
Good cafes or restaurants	4.58	1.62	5
Shopping areas	4.49	1.66	4
Adventure activities	4.26	1.71	3
A variety of souvenirs	4.22	1.66	2
Exciting nightlife	4.16	1.803	1

Factor Groupings of Motivations

There are two types of factor analysis: Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). EFA is used to explore the possible underlying factor structure of a set of observed variables without imposing a preconceived structure on the outcome (Child, 1990). By performing EFA, the underlying factor structure is identified. On the other hand, CFA is a statistical technique used to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables. CFA allows the researcher to test a hypothesis that a relationship between observed variables and their underlying latent constructs exists. Given that the research design is adapted from previous literature and a pilot study has been undertaken, it may appear more appropriate to run a confirmatory factor analysis. Within the research literature there is a debate. Many

maintain that EFA and CFA should not be conducted on the same set of data. Kline (1994) examines the ways in which CFA may be used, and argues that CFA can be used as a pro exploratory technique where a lack of previous research exists to disconfirm a hypothesis related to a given phenomenon. Nonetheless, should EFA develop a “satisfactory” factor structure, there is little value in developing any form of CFA or structural equation modeling. Therefore the first stage adopted here was that a principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation was undertaken.

In the questionnaire “push” and “pull” motivations were separately presented, as shown in the appendix. However, in this analysis the motivation items, which were composed of 38 statements, were analysed together with the expectation that (a) “push” and “pull” factors would tend to factorise separately but (b) some degree of overlap may occur, thereby reflecting degrees of inter-dependence.

The Bartlett test of sphericity was significant ($p < 0.05$) and the calculation of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistics was 0.894, which can be described as “high” (Norusis, 1990), and indicates that sample adequacy is suitable for factor analysis. Ideally the higher the score the better, though it is generally accepted that if scores are above 0.7, then factor analysis can be undertaken (Ryan, 1995). A cut-off eigenvalue of one was pre-determined. Only items with communality and factor loadings greater than 0.4 were retained for further analysis. From the results of the communality, three items (meeting new people = 0.392, outdoor activities such as hiking or climbing = 0.318, friendly locals = 0.378) were excluded due to low communality. The factor analysis was rerun after eliminating the three items, with KMO statistics of 0.894. The 35 items yielded eight factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which explained 60.80% of the variance

(Table 6.5). The reliability alpha was applied in order to check the internal consistency of items within each dimension. The factors with alphas greater than 0.6 were retained for further analysis (Hair et al., 1998).

The first factor (pull 1), named “entertainment and activities”, comprised six items: “exciting nightlife”, “adventure activities”, “a variety of souvenirs”, “good cafes or restaurants”, “shopping areas” and “close to other destinations”. With an eigenvalue of 9.09, it captured 25.96% of the variance.

The second factor (pull 2) was labelled “facilities, weather & value for money” and explained 8.82% of the variance. It had a reliability alpha of 0.84 with an eigenvalue of 3.09. All 5 items had factor loading of over 0.50, indicating a good correlation between the items and the factor grouping to which they belong.

Variables such as “broadening my horizons”, “seeing something different”, “increasing knowledge about a foreign destination” and “Learning about other cultures and nationalities” were associated with the third factor “knowledge seeking” (push 1). It explained 6.26% of the variance with a reliability alpha of 0.82.

The fourth factor (pull 3), labelled “natural, cultural, and historical environment”, included items “historical buildings and places”, “a place that is not too ‘touristy’”, “arts and cultural attractions”, “outstanding scenery” and “good ocean beaches”. It explained 4.97% of the variance with eigenvalue of 1.74 and a reliability alpha of 0.76.

The fifth factor (push 2), including variables such as “being daring and adventuresome”, “finding thrill or excitement” “better understand myself”

“experiencing a different lifestyle”, and “exploring new things” might be interpreted as “Exploration and adventure”.

The variables “spend time with family and friends” and “share trip experience with friends” and “facilitate kinship or family ties” fell into the sixth dimension, which explained 3.99% of the variance, with eigenvalues of 1.40. It was labelled as “kinship enhancement” (push 3).

Variables such as “releasing work/study pressure”, “just relaxing” “escaping from daily routine” and “for romance” were closely related to the seventh factor “relaxation” (push 4). It is worth noting that “for romance” fell into this dimension, and also correlated moderately with the items in other factors.

The last factor (pull 4) was labelled as “language and safety” since it included the items of “Chinese character on signs”, “tour guide who speaks Chinese” and “feel safe in destination”. It had a reliability coefficient of 0.70 and accounted for 3.22% of the variance in the motivation.

Table 6.5 Principal Component with Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis for Motivations

Motivation factors	Factor loading								Eigenvalue	% of variance	Factor Mean
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			
Entertainment & activities ($\alpha=0.83$)									9.09	25.95%	4.39
Exciting nightlife	0.772	0.022	0.041	0.107	0.092	0.016	0.114	0.061			
A variety of souvenirs	0.712	-0.088	0.042	0.096	0.088	-0.036	0.025	0.293			
Adventure activities	0.711	0.041	0.056	0.153	0.273	0.091	0.087	-0.027			
Shopping areas	0.696	0.093	0.096	0.116	0.037	0.059	0.036	0.025			
Good cafes or restaurants	0.686	0.302	0.1	0.11	0.167	0.048	0.049	0.047			
Close to other destinations	0.444	0.051	0.034	0.367	0.211	-0.057	0.081	0.235			
Facilities, weather & value for money ($\alpha=0.84$)									3.09	8.82%	5.43
Availability of comprehensive tourist information	0.117	0.858	0.105	0.062	0.05	0.122	0.101	0.061			
Comfort and clean accommodations	0.129	0.835	0.117	0.009	0.091	0.091	0.094	0.113			
Comfortable and convenient transport	0.05	0.663	0.128	0.338	0.076	0.122	0.138	0.133			
Nice weather	0.104	0.566	0.166	0.334	-0.002	0.087	0.169	0.166			
The best deal I could get	0.044	0.513	0.108	0.112	-0.021	0.061	0.139	0.432			
Knowledge seeking ($\alpha=0.82$)									2.19	6.26%	5.01
broadening my horizons	0.014	0.189	0.816	0.124	0.097	0.101	0.087	0.112			
Increasing knowledge about a foreign destination	0.078	0.083	0.797	-0.005	0.026	0.033	0.117	0.103			
Seeing something different	0.168	0.154	0.728	0.169	0.051	0.096	0.157	0.051			
Learning about other cultures and nationalities	0.091	0.098	0.677	0.145	0.217	0.15	0.015	0.063			
Natural, cultural & historic environment ($\alpha=0.76$)									1.74	4.96%	5.1
Historical buildings and places	0.134	0.165	0.06	0.808	0.076	0.077	0.069	0.066			
A place that is not too "touristy"	0.256	0.064	0.045	0.773	0.118	0.041	0.119	0.085			
Arts and cultural attractions	0.236	0.088	0.173	0.575	0.159	0.041	0.005	-0.017			
Outstanding scenery	-0.063	0.438	0.128	0.5	0.009	0.182	0.035	0.074			
Good ocean beaches	0.148	0.227	0.165	0.468	0.082	0.133	0.181	0.256			

To continue (Note: KMO=0.894, Bartlett=10485.41, $p < 0.001$, Cumulative %=60.8%)

Motivation factors	Factor loading								Eigenvalue	% of variance	Factor Mean
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			
Exploration and adventure ($\alpha=0.73$)									1.5	4.27%	4.07
Being daring and adventuresome	0.105	0.044	-0.041	0.035	0.792	0.032	0.033	-0.004			
Finding thrill or excitement	0.285	-0.068	0.109	0.081	0.66	-0.03	0.199	0.055			
Better understand myself	0.169	-0.011	0.13	0.151	0.636	0.043	0.161	0.181			
Experience a different lifestyle	0.001	0.09	0.255	0.108	0.569	0.195	-0.05	-0.148			
Exploring new things	0.263	0.195	0.055	0.104	0.52	0.025	0.239	0.162			
Relationship enhancement ($\alpha=0.80$)									1.4	3.99%	5.02
Spending time with family and friends	0.035	0.214	0.165	0.12	0.075	0.807	0.225	0.1			
Sharing trip experience with friends	0.028	0.117	0.092	0.03	0.08	0.805	0.108	0.025			
Facilitate kinship or family ties	0.07	0.068	0.091	0.118	0.035	0.753	0.185	0.054			
Relaxation ($\alpha=0.73$)									1.17	3.33%	4.66
Releasing work/study pressure	0.02	0.21	0.153	0.119	0.053	0.199	0.793	0.02			
Just relaxing	0.076	0.169	0.063	0.076	0.171	0.121	0.727	0.033			
Escaping from daily routine	0.137	0.043	0.083	0.048	0.116	0.148	0.653	0.067			
For romance	0.373	0.124	0.241	0.237	0.217	0.199	0.402	0.057			
Language & safety ($\alpha=0.70$)									1.13	3.22%	5.2
Chinese character on signs	0.217	0.074	0.026	0.105	0.066	0.118	0.024	0.759			
Tour guide who speaks Chinese	0.176	0.214	0.144	0.056	0.096	0.012	0.027	0.721			
Feel safe in destination	-0.098	0.446	0.179	0.137	-0.026	0.032	0.073	0.572			

On the whole, the first factor “entertainment and activities” accounted for 25.95% of the variance. However, it appeared to be the least important pull factor (M=4.39) for Chinese travellers. According to the grand mean, the second factor “facilities, weather & value for money” appeared as the most important pull factor (M=5.43) for Chinese outbound tourists, followed by “language & safety” (M=5.20) and “natural, cultural & historic environment” (M=5.10). The mean scores of the extracted factors were consistent with the rankings of the individual motivation items. Chinese tourists pay much attention to the basic tourism facilities and service such as transport, accommodation and Chinese-speaking staff as well as the safety and weather in the destination. They place secondary importance on tourism attractions. This is understandable because many Chinese people do not have high level of overseas experience. Going to a foreign country is attractive to them. However, which country they are going to does not really matter so much for many of them. One interviewee gave another explanation. The interviewee (a lawyer, in her 40s) said “Egypt is an amazing country with the rich cultural and natural attraction. But I do not consider it as my next destination. Because in my mind the facilities there are rather backward, and it is the destination for young people who do not care much about accommodation. But people in my age pay much attention to the comfort and social status. I can’t put up with an inferior quality of bed, linen etc.” This example indicates the importance of tourism facilities and service to tourists.

It can be seen from Table 6.5 that “relationship enhancement” (M=5.02) and “knowledge seeking” (M=5.01) were the most important among all push factors. This reflects the Chinese travellers’ desire to learn something from their trip overseas. Meanwhile, they expected to enhance relationships with family and friends on the journey. This finding is similar to that of Zhang & Lam (1999) that mainland Chinese

travellers to Hong Kong perceive “knowledge” , “prestige” and “enhancement of human relationship” as the most important push factors. However, there was some difference from the study by Kau and Lim (2005) who concluded that Chinese travellers to Singapore were motivated mainly by factors such as “escape / relaxation”, “prestige/knowledge”, and “exploration”. One explanation is that people travelling to different countries may hold different motivations. On the other hand, almost all the studies on Chinese travellers’ motivation reach a consensus that they placed least importance on factors such as “adventure” and “excitement” (Zhang and Lam, 1999; Kau and Lim, 2005). The answer might be found in Chinese cultural values.

The study by Hofstede (1980) provides an insight on understanding Chinese tourists. Hofstede’s research on culture-related work values is one of the best-known cross-cultural studies. He identified four main dimensions of dominant values which affect human thinking. These are: (1) Power distance, that is the extent to which less powerful members of a society accept that power is distributed unequally. In cultures with large power distance there is respect for old age and status and it is important to show power. In other words, unequal distribution of power among people is tolerated and accepted. (2) Individualism versus collectivism: This dimension describes the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups. In collectivist cultures, people belong to groups that look after them in exchange for loyalty. Additionally, identity is based in the social network to which one belongs. On the contrary, in individualist cultures, the identity is in the person “I”. (3) Masculinity versus femininity: Masculinity is defined as in a society, the dominant values are achievement and success. Status is an important way in which to show success. In addition, there is significant role differentiation between males and females. In feminine cultures, the dominant values are caring for others and quality of life, status is not very important,

and, there is less role differentiation. (4) Uncertainty avoidance: It is the extent to which people feel threatened by uncertainty and ambiguity and try to avoid them. In low uncertainty avoidance cultures, people tend to be more innovative and entrepreneurial. On the other hand, in high uncertainty avoiding cultures, people tend to avoid unstable situation.

Although Mainland China was not a sample in Hofstede's survey in 1980, Hong Kong, Singapore, and Taiwan were included where a large majority of the population are composed of ethnic Chinese. The characteristics of these people from Chinese ethnic origin to some degree are representative of wider Chinese cultural values of high power distance, medium uncertainty avoidance, low individualism, medium masculinity and long-term orientation. According to Hofstede (1980), Chinese people tended to avoid uncertainty rather than adventure seeking. They tend to have a high need for security and a strong belief in experts and their knowledge. They think conflict should be avoided. On the other hand, people with low uncertainty avoidance are more willing to accept risks associated with the unknown and take initiatives in life and work.

Some researchers have attempted to investigate the characteristics of Chinese culture and its implications for travel and tourism marketing. These characteristics are found not only in residents from mainland China, but also in those ethnic Chinese living outside of China. Thus, for example, for many Chinese both within and outside China, gifts have become a symbol of courtesy, respect and appreciation. Giving gifts is therefore an important way to build up and maintain relationships between gift giver and gift receiver.

Push-pull Factors and Socio-demographic Variables

One of the purposes of this chapter is to find if there are any significant differences between push or pull factors and socio-demographic factors. A T-test was run which revealed there was no significant difference between males and females. However, some significant differences did occur for both push and pull motivation factors across certain demographic variables, such as age, marital status, income, education and occupation. Tables 6.6 to 6.10 demonstrate the results of ANOVA for these variables.

Table 6.6 indicates that there were significant differences between the push factor “relaxation” and the pull factor “language and safety” for different age groups. For example, people aged between 18-49 years attach more importance to “relaxation” than senior people (over 50 years old), which may be due to the fact that people in employment suffer more from work pressure and thus they need mental and physical relaxation when travelling. Another finding suggested that the older the traveller, the higher is the perceived importance attributed to “language and safety”. It is a fact that younger people have received better foreign language education than senior adults in China. The language barrier may further increase concerns about safety for seniors when they travel overseas.

Table 6.6 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Age Groups

	Mean scores				F	P
	18-25 years	26-35 years	36-49 years	over 50 years		
<i>Push factors</i>						
1. Knowledge seeking	5.00	4.99	5.05	5.05	0.15	0.932
2. Exploration and adventure	4.02	4.05	4.19	3.98	0.93	0.426
3. Relationship enhancement	5.02	5.01	5.09	4.75	1.15	0.330
4. Relaxation	4.67	4.70	4.68	4.15	3.16	0.024*
<i>Pull factors</i>						
1. Entertainment and activities	5.35	5.44	5.54	5.23	0.94	0.421
2. Facilities, weather and value for money	4.30	4.43	4.47	4.28	1.61	0.186
3. Natural, cultural, and historical environment	5.01	5.09	5.22	5.08	1.49	0.216
4. Language and safety	5.09	5.11	5.40	5.50	4.15	0.006**

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

Table 6.7 indicated that groups of different marital status showed significant differences on two factors: those of the push factor of “relaxation” and the pull factor of “language and safety”. The unmarried people scored highest on the importance of “relaxation”, while the married people with grown-up children scored this item the lowest. On the other hand, married people with grown-up children attached the highest importance to “language and safety”. The result is similar to that in Table 6.6, which may due to the close correlation between age and marital status.

Table 6.7 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Groups of Different Marital Status

	Mean scores				F	P
	Single	Married, no children	Married with dependent children	Married, with grown-up children		
<i>Push factors</i>						
1. Knowledge seeking	5.09	4.84	5.02	5.07	2.06	0.104
2. Exploration and adventure	4.04	4.02	4.17	4.06	0.67	0.571
3. Relationship enhancement	5.07	4.89	5.05	5.00	1.02	0.385
4. Relaxation	4.76	4.63	4.69	4.41	2.70	0.045*
<i>Pull factors</i>						
1. Entertainment and activities	4.26	4.48	4.55	4.33	2.57	0.053
2. Facilities, weather and value for money	5.43	5.30	5.52	5.43	1.37	0.251
3. Natural, cultural, and historical environment	5.07	5.00	5.21	5.14	1.38	0.249
4. Language and safety	5.12	5.10	5.24	5.53	4.04	0.007**

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

In terms of different income groups (Table 6.8), significant differences were found on two push (knowledge seeking, relaxation) and pull factors (entertainment and activities, facilities, weather and value for money). Interestingly those with a monthly household income of RMB10,001-20,000 had highest scores on all these five factors. They are more motivated by “knowledge seeking”, and wanted more relaxation from an overseas holiday. On the other hand, these group members are more interested in participating in entertainment and activities and as well as in natural, cultural and historic attractions. They also have higher requirements of, and expectations from, facilities and amenities. It implies that marketers should pay more attention to this group whose motivations and expectations greatly differ from other groups. In fact, this income group is more representative of the “middle class”. They are mostly well-educated and have medium-high salary, and are owners of small or medium private enterprises, or are the managerial staff as well as the high-tech and other specialists. More discussion on this topic will be found in the conclusion chapter.

Table 6.8 Comparison of push and pull factors for different income groups

	Mean scores					F	p
	<RMB5000	RMB5001-10000	RMB10001-20000	RMB20001-30000	> RMB30001		
<i>Push factors</i>							
1. Knowledge seeking	4.98	4.91	5.19	4.99	4.93	2.40	0.049*
2. Exploration and adventure	3.93	4.04	4.22	4.02	4.28	2.02	0.089
3. Relationship enhancement	5.12	5.07	4.97	4.73	4.82	1.72	0.143
4. Relaxation	4.60	4.49	4.94	4.69	4.56	5.10	0.000**
<i>Pull factors</i>							
1. Entertainment and activities	4.08	4.33	4.74	4.49	4.42	7.86	0.000**
2. Facilities, weather and value for money	5.40	5.37	5.66	5.10	5.01	5.93	0.000**
3. Natural, cultural, and historical	5.01	5.05	5.28	4.92	5.20	2.66	0.032*
4. Language and safety	5.22	5.22	5.28	5.05	4.85	1.50	0.200

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

Table 6.9 demonstrates that education also plays an important role in forming motivation. Different educational groups showed significant differences on two push and all pull factors. People from lower education background (school leaver) scored highest on “exploration and adventure” and “relationship enhancement”, followed by bachelor degree holders and diploma holders. As a comparison, Master or PhD degree holders gave the lowest scores on these two push factors. The pattern was also true for the first two pull factors. It seems evident that the higher education respondents have, the less is the importance attached to the factor of “language and safety”. The school leavers scored the highest on all pull factors. This raised an important issue that the less educated may have unrealistic expectations about overseas travel.

Table 6.9 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Education Groups

	Mean scores				F	p
	School leaver	Diploma	Bachelor	Master / PhD		
<i>Push factors</i>						
1. Knowledge seeking	5.12	4.92	5.09	4.86	2.24	0.083
2. Exploration and adventure	4.26	3.99	4.17	3.74	4.25	0.005**
3. Relationship enhancement	5.38	4.94	5.05	4.76	4.69	0.003**
4. Relaxation	4.75	4.59	4.72	4.50	1.34	0.259
<i>Pull factors</i>						
1. Entertainment and activities	4.58	4.28	4.53	3.94	6.51	0.000**
2. Facilities, weather and value for money	5.79	5.31	5.46	5.27	4.67	0.003**
3. Natural, cultural, and historical	5.33	4.95	5.17	5.01	3.83	0.010**
4. Language and safety	5.81	5.26	5.16	4.78	10.89	0.000**

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

From table 6.10, it seems that occupation has an influence on Chinese travellers’ motivation. Different occupational groups showed statistically significant differences on all factors but one (relaxation). This table, not surprisingly perhaps, indicates that

everyone seeks relaxation from their holidays and possible trips overseas. When examining the first three highest score for these seven factors, the author found that “self-employed people”, “retirees” and “others” have higher scores than others on most factors. On the other hand, students had a higher score on “entertainment and activities”. Homecarers were “pushed” more by “relationship enhancement” and “pulled” by “natural, cultural and historic attractions”.

Table 6.10 Comparison of push and pull factors for different occupation groups

	Mean scores									F	p
	Public servant	Company employee	Manager	Teacher	Self-employed	Student	Homecarer	Retired	Other		
<i>Push factors</i>											
1. Knowledge seeking	5.13	4.94	4.87	4.86	5.31	5.22	4.78	5.31	5.46	2.46	0.013*
2. Exploration and adventure	3.78	4.07	4.00	3.69	4.62	4.01	3.78	4.33	4.08	2.89	0.004**
3. Relationship enhancement	4.94	4.97	4.76	5.13	5.28	5.13	5.38	5.69	5.35	2.46	0.013*
4. Relaxation	4.47	4.66	4.51	4.62	5.06	4.58	4.44	4.56	4.88	1.65	0.108
<i>Pull factors</i>											
1. Entertainment and activities	3.80	4.39	4.43	3.86	4.84	4.51	4.25	4.58	4.36	3.10	0.002**
2. Facilities, weather and value for money	5.22	5.45	5.09	5.23	5.81	5.54	5.25	6.02	5.64	3.81	0.000**
3. Natural, cultural, and historical	4.69	5.13	4.88	5.11	5.48	5.05	5.30	5.58	5.11	3.21	0.001**
4. Language and safety	5.14	5.30	4.87	4.32	5.53	4.99	5.46	6.00	5.70	6.22	0.000**

* p<0.05 **p <0.001

In summary, socio-demographic variables were found to influence motivations. People of different ages, marital status, occupation with different education and income level place different importance on push and pull motivations. These findings have implications for travel service provider and marketers. Beijing tourists are not homogeneous. They have significantly different expectation and needs. Therefore, instead of viewing Chinese tourists as a whole, market segmentation is needed to better target and service tourists.

Destination Comparison of Push and Pull Factors

In order to find out what motivates Chinese travellers to select or travel to a particular destination, the data was grouped by different destinations: Asia-bound (N=354), Europe-bound (N=137), America-bound (N=62), Oceania-bound (N=54) and Africa-bound (N=15). The numbers in each group showed large discrepancies, due to the convenience sampling. However, it truly reflects the reality of the Chinese outbound tourism market. According to the official statistics (Ivy Alliance, 2007), in 2006, 89.7% of Chinese travellers took a trip within Asia due to the advantages of proximity in both geography and culture. For long-haul travel, Europe accounted for 5.6%, followed by America (2.8%) and Oceania (1.3%). Africa only had a share of 0.6%, though there was sharp rises of Chinese departures to Africa in the last few years. Therefore, it was not unusual to have large discrepancy in travellers' numbers to different continents.

The mean scores of push and pull factors were compared across five destination regions (Table 6.11 and 6.12). The first push factor of "knowledge seeking" was of most importance in explaining the motives of travel to European countries. The second push factor, "adventure and exploration" scored the highest for American continent. It

was also noteworthy that the Chinese were also motivated by “adventure and exploration” when it came to visiting Europe and Africa compared to other destinations. The third push factor of “relaxation” was considered the most important by travellers to Asia. Again, Europe was also perceived as the most important destination for fulfilling “relationship enhancement”. Asia came next in this respect.

Table 6.11 Comparison of Push Factors by Different Destination Regions

Push factors	Asia	Europe	America	Oceania	Africa
F1: Knowledge seeking	5.05	5.09	4.88	5.00	5.07
F2: Adventure and exploration	4.01	4.15	4.24	3.85	4.15
F3: Relationship enhancement	5.02	5.18	4.80	4.99	4.89
F4: Relaxation	4.75	4.68	4.50	4.43	4.20

Note: numbers in bold indicated the highest mean in each factor.

The pull factor of “facilities, weather & value for money” scored the highest for Europe. “Entertainment & activities” was the strongest pull factor for the Chinese travellers to America. It may be partly due to the image of exciting and energetic life in that destination. The “natural, cultural & historic environment” factor showed the highest score in the European countries. With rich natural, cultural & historic resources, Europe seemed to draw Chinese visitors who wanted to enjoy the environment. The pull factor of “language & safety” was important for visitors to Africa.

Table 6.12 Comparison of Pull Factors by Different Destination Regions

Pull factors	Asia	Europe	America	Oceania	Africa
F1: Entertainment & activities	4.47	4.46	4.49	4.15	3.78
F2: Facilities, weather & value for money	5.40	5.59	5.27	5.57	5.44
F3: Natural, cultural & historic environment	5.09	5.25	4.99	5.18	5.17
F4: Language and safety	5.24	5.27	5.00	5.20	5.56

Note: numbers in bold indicated the highest mean in each factor.

Conclusion

This chapter focuses on motivational factors and destination attribute features. The most important push motives for Beijing residents are “spending time with family and friends”, “broadening one’s vision”, “seeing something different” and “releasing work/study pressure”. With regard to pull motives, “outstanding natural scenery”, “feel safe in destination”, “comfortable and clean accommodation” and “the best deal I could get” are ranking first among all. Statistically significant differences have been found in both push and pull motivation factors across age, marital status, income, education and occupation groups. Therefore, proposition 1 was supported by these results. For example, senior people attached more importance to “language and safety”. People with a monthly income of RMB10,000-20,000 scored highest on push factors of “knowledge seeking” and “relaxation” and pull factors of “entertainment and activities”, “facilities, weather and value for money” and “natural, cultural and historical environment”. On the other hand, the school leavers scored the highest on all pull factors. This raised an important issue that the less educated may have unrealistic expectations about overseas travel. Furthermore, the mean scores of push and pull factors were compared across five destination regions in order to find out the attractiveness of each region. By conducting factor analysis, this research is consistent with the previous literature that travel motivation is multi-dimensional.

Chapter 7 Whether to Travel: The Role of Constraints

As noted in chapter 2, the first pre-visit decision that an individual faces is whether or not to take a holiday trip. People are motivated to travel abroad in expectation of satisfying certain needs. However, their participation in travel may be hindered by some factors, such as a lack of income, discretionary time, or an appropriate travel companion etc. Therefore, understanding tourists' destination choice and behavior requires investigation of all the factors, both positive (e.g., motivation, benefits) and negative (e.g., barriers, constraints) that influence those choices. The literature review indicates that the non-participant / non-user is an under-researched area, and is generally neglected in consumer behaviour research (Hudson & Gilbert, 1999). Little attention is paid to those who do not take part in international travel. Considering China's huge population and its great potential in the global travel market, it is important to not only investigate how the potential travelers take part in actual travelling, but also an understanding of constraints may be of help to DMOs in their marketing and promotion.

This chapter emphasises those factors that may deter overseas travel by Beijing residents (research objective 2) and propositions 2 and 3 will be tested later in this chapter. The sample in this study are those who have been abroad in the last three years or have plans to take an overseas vacation in the next two years. This implied the respondents indicate an interest in an overseas trip but are not currently engaged. Possible constraints were collected on the basis of literature review and in-depth interviews. A total of 12 items were included in the questionnaire. First, the author identifies the constraints or barriers to travel abroad, and compare the constraints for both non-participants and existing participants. Then a principal component factor

analysis was conducted to assess the underlying structure for the twelve items, with the aim of verifying this model.

Demographic Difference in Overseas Travel Participation

The majority of the respondents were shown to have been abroad, while around one fifth of the respondents have never travelled to any of the foreign countries prior to the survey. Cross-tabulations of the demographic variables against travel participation/non-participation were run. The results (see appendix 6) showed that the participants and non-participants had significant statistical differences in age ($\chi^2=34.94$, $df=3$, $p<0.001$), marital status ($\chi^2=15.00$, $df=3$, $p=0.002$), household income ($\chi^2=61.20$, $df=4$, $p<0.001$), and occupation ($\chi^2=73.54$, $df=8$, $p<0.001$). The following conclusions were drawn from a comparison between actual and expected counts. The young (18-25 years) and seniors (over 50 years) are more likely to participate less in overseas travel than middle aged groups (26-35 years and 36-49 years). In addition, people who are single are more likely to be non-participants when compared with married people. Income level plays an important role, as lower income earners (under RMB 5,000) are less likely to participate in overseas travel. A more plausible explanation, again, could be the high correlations among age, marital status and income. Single people are mostly young with relatively lower income, and the individuals usually earn their highest levels of income in their middle or senior years. With regard to occupation, company employees and managers are more likely to be participants. On the other hand, students are mostly unlikely to take overseas vacations due to lower incomes and perhaps because of time pressures.

Travel Constraint for Beijing Outbound Travellers

It is important to understand the constraining as well as the motivating factors associated with international travel. The objective of this part of the chapter is to identify the main constraints that inhibit Beijing residents to travel abroad. In addition, the author intends to further this research by investigating travel constraints among different demographic groups.

The constraints that were mentioned in the interviews covered a wide range of topics, including economic and visa barriers, availability of time and information, lack of companion or interest, and concerns about safety or uncertainty etc. These help to create the questionnaire which yielded the following statistical results (Table 7.1). The highest scoring constraint is based on the fact that it is costly to take an overseas trip (M=4.16). They regard lack of time (4.13) and money (4.00) as the most important perceived inhibitors. This is in line with the previous studies that cost- and time-related constraints rank among the most widely and intensely experienced constraints (Jackson, 2000). It is self-evident that disposable time and income are two of the prerequisites for travelling. Outbound travel needs even more time and expense than, say, domestic tourism trips.

According to the current holiday system in China, the 7-day National Day and Spring Festival holidays are the peak season for taking an overseas vacation. Summer or winter holiday are spent on travel for some people such as students or teachers. However, many feel it is difficult to arrange long-haul travel which needs more time. But the time-constraint situation is expected to change with the implementation of “Paid Annual Leave Regulation” that commenced from January 1, 2008. Under those regulations, employees who have worked more than one year and less than 10 years are

entitled to five days of annual leave. Those who have worked at least 10 years but less than 20 years are entitled to 10 days. Finally, employees are entitled to 15 days once they have worked for at least 20 years. The flexible paid annual leave makes travel a more personal choice, and Chinese people now can choose when to use their annual leave and spend their holiday. However, there might be still an underlying problem in the implementation of the laws. For example, it is uncertain whether all employees are able to claim their paid annual leave, especially in private-owned companies and in areas outside of the main regulatory gaze of the authorities.

Table 7.1 Descriptive Statistics for Travel Constraints (N=715)

Rank	Inhabiting factors	Mean	SD
1	Overseas travel is too costly.	4.16	1.59
2	I always have too much work to do which prevent me from overseas	4.13	1.58
3	The financial condition is such that it does not allow me to travel	4.00	1.68
4	I do have concerns about personal safety for travelling outside China.	3.88	1.75
5	When it comes to overseas travel, I find I simply do not have enough time.	3.83	1.49
6	Visa procedure can deter me from overseas travel.	3.41	1.55
7	Language barrier can deter me from overseas travel.	3.35	1.74
8	I don't have enough information about overseas travel.	3.33	1.39
9	My partner or family doesn't like me travelling overseas.	3.30	1.71
10	My own health can deter me from overseas travel.	3.25	1.82
11	My family and friends don't like travelling overseas.	3.23	1.47
12	It is not easy to find someone travelling with me.	3.13	1.49

Table 7.1 shows only the first three items were above the scale mid-point score of 4. People regard the remainder of the items as not very important but they still may have an influence on the participation of individual's overseas travel. Interestingly, it was

mentioned in chapter 6 that people attached high importance on safety. But on the questionnaire this items was scored at 3.88, which was below the mid-point of 4. It indicates that safety in the destination is very important to Chinese tourists, but safety is not an important inhibitor preventing them from travelling. Visa procedure can also deter people from travelling, especially for first-time travellers. In China the visa application for pleasure travellers is complicated. Many support documents have to be submitted including a bank deposit statement.

An analysis of inhibiting factors for different socio-demographic characteristics was also undertaken (Table 7.2). Males and females showed no significant difference on the twelve items. On the other hand, three items were scored significantly different across the four age groups. Young people aged 18 to 25 years rated “financial condition” and “too costly” as an influential constraint on travel abroad. It is understandable because one can argue most are in the early stages of their career and as yet do not earn high incomes. People between 36 and 49 years old regarded health concern as a more important item than other age groups.

Table 7.2 Comparison of Constraints for Different Age Groups (n=713)

	M	SD	F	df	p
Health concern			2.96	712	0.032
18-25 years	3.30	1.80			
26-35 years	3.05	1.78			
36-49 years	3.55	1.83			
>50 years	3.08	1.93			
Total	3.26	1.82			
Overseas travel is too costly			3.81	712	0.010
18-25 years	4.40	1.58			
26-35 years	4.01	1.57			
36-49 years	4.20	1.51			
>50 years	3.68	1.86			
Total	4.16	1.59			
The financial condition					
18-25 years	4.27	1.76	4.57	712	0.004
26-35 years	3.95	1.63			
36-49 years	3.93	1.51			
>50 years	3.28	1.96			
Total	4.00	1.67			

Another interesting finding (see Table 7.3) was that the degree of concern about personal safety was closely related to the respondent's education level. The higher the education level respondents attained, the less anxiety they showed about personal safety at the destination. This was also the case for the item "language barrier". One explanation is that people with higher education levels have more knowledge about the destinations they visit and may also have achieved some foreign language acquisition. Hence their concern is relatively less when compared to their counterparts with lower educational achievement.

Table 7.3 Comparison of Constraints for Different Education Groups (n=713)

	M	SD	F	df	p
Safety concern			2.77	712	0.041
Under diploma	4.27	1.63			
Diploma	3.93	1.75			
Bachelor's degree	3.92	1.75			
Master's or PhD degree	3.46	1.85			
Total	3.90	1.76			
Language barrier			4.00	712	0.008
Under diploma	3.58	1.78			
Diploma	3.61	1.81			
Bachelor's degree	3.26	1.70			
Master's or PhD degree	2.93	1.56			
Total	3.35	1.74			

People in different life cycles demonstrate significant differences in three items (see Table 7.4). For the item “financial condition”, single people scored the highest, indicating their disposable incomes were not high enough to take as much overseas travel as they would wish. On the other hand, married people, especially those with dependent children, regarded “partner or family” to be a more important inhibiting factors than other groups. Meanwhile, married people, especially those with dependent children, seemed not easy to find travel companions. This might be also due to family commitment and a need for childcare.

Table 7.4 Comparison of Constraints for Different Life Cycle Groups (n=712)

	M	SD	F	df	P
Financial condition			5.07	711	0.002
Single	4.29	1.76			
Married, no children	3.75	1.57			
Married, dependent children	3.93	1.49			
Married, grow-up children	3.72	1.79			
Total	4.00	1.67			
Partner or family influence			2.81	711	0.039
Single	3.11	1.74			
Married, no children	3.42	1.66			
Married, dependent children	3.55	1.65			
Married, grow-up children	3.21	1.79			
Total	3.31	1.71			
Lack of travel companion			2.64	711	0.049
Single	2.99	1.50			
Married, no children	3.25	1.43			
Married, dependent children	3.32	1.46			
Married, grow-up children	2.97	1.54			
Total	3.13	1.49			

Table 7.5 shows that four constraint factors were significantly different across the five income groups. As expected, low-income earner viewed “finances” as a more important constraint on overseas travel than did other groups. People with monthly income of RMB10,001-20,000 had the highest mean scores on “partner or family influence”.

Table 7.5 Comparison of Constraints for Different Income Groups (n=709)

	M	SD	F	df	P
Financial condition			2.89	708	0.022
Under RMB5,000	4.32	1.88			
RMB5,000-10,000	3.84	1.71			
RMB10,001-20,000	4.00	1.44			
RMB20,000-30,000	3.65	1.23			
Over RMB30,000	3.79	1.55			
Total	4.00	1.66			
Partner or family influence			2.65	708	0.033
Under RMB5,000	3.04	1.83			
RMB5,000-10,000	3.36	1.68			
RMB10,001-20,000	3.56	1.66			
RMB20,000-30,000	3.00	1.39			
Over RMB30,000	3.38	1.69			
Total	3.32	1.71			

Travel Constraints for Participants and Non-participants

The literature review indicates that non-participants are usually deterred from leisure or travel activities by a series of internal and external reasons (Jackson, 1988). The most common internal constraints include personal skills, health problems, while external ones include lack of time, information or transportation. Another fact to be noticed is that participants are also constrained. However, unlike non-travellers, they still go for overseas travel after, what Jackson and Rucks (1995) defined, “negotiation of the constraints”.

First, cross-tabulation with chi-squared test was conducted to see whether there are significant demographic differences between travellers and non-travellers (Appendix 6). The results show that these two groups showed statistically significant difference in age, marital status, monthly income and occupation. Second, a hypothesis is proposed here that travel constraints for non-participants may differ in impact from participants. Therefore, the t-test was also employed to see if there is any significant difference

between non-participants and existing travellers on these items. This analysis (Table 7.6) indicates high potential non-participants had a higher score on “financial constraint” than did existing travellers. Disposable income is not high enough for them to afford overseas travel. It proves again that outbound travel in China is still luxury purchase. Regular or frequent travellers are undoubtedly accounting for only a small proportion of the total Chinese population. Another difference is that “high potential” non-participants regard the possible need for a foreign language as a greater deterrent than do existing travellers. Some would rather travel within China than go abroad. In fact, the interviews indicated that the language barrier is an important deterrent to some non-English speakers, which should not be neglected. As one interviewee noted, “we wanted to spend our honeymoon in the beautiful country of Maldives, but I felt discouraged when knowing that no Chinese-speaking guide was available. Therefore, we ended up going to South-east Asia”. Another difference is that potential travellers regarded visa procedures as a greater deterrent than current travellers. It might be due to unfamiliarity with the visa application and related policy. Lastly, the lack of a travel companion seems to be a greater constraint for existing participants than potential travellers.

Table 7.6 Comparison between Non-participants and Participants

	M	SD	t	df	P
It is costly to travel abroad			-3.34	713	0.001
Non-participants	4.63	1.59			
Participants	4.08	1.51			
Total	4.16	1.59			
Financial condition			-4.03	713	<0.001
Non-participants	4.61	1.7			
Participants	3.9	1.65			
Total	4.13	1.58			
Visa procedure					0.025
Non-participants	3.71	1.94	-2.25	713	
Participants	3.34	1.48			
Total	3.39	1.56			
Language barrier			-2.14	713	0.033
Non-participants	3.68	1.92			
Participants	3.29	1.7			
Total	3.35	1.74			
Travel companion			3.17	713	0.002
Non-participants	2.7	1.54			
Participants	3.2	1.47			
Total	3.13	1.49			

The Combined Role of Constraints and Motivation

This part aims to examine the effect of motivations and constraints in an individual's participation (proposition 2). The author believes that travel constraints have impacts on individuals in three different ways: (1) to hinder individuals from participation in travel, (2) to choose one destination rather than the other, (3) to participate more or less often in travel. This chapter will deal with the first impact, and the other two will be discussed in subsequent chapters. As noted earlier, this survey includes both sets of variables of travellers and non-travellers. The analyses were conducted in two steps. First, all of the motivation variables were entered simultaneously into a regression model (Model 1). Then constraints variables were also included as independent

variables (Model 2) to examine the effect of motivation along with constraints variables. The models were estimated by binary logistic regression, because the dependent variable is a dichotomous variable (travellers / non-travellers). The variables with significant influence on participation are shown in Table 7.7. The full version of findings can be referred in Appendix 7.

Table 7.7 The role of constraints and motivations in explaining participation

	Model 1		Model 2	
	<i>p</i>	B	<i>p</i>	β
Motivations				
For romance	.011	.223	.021	.216
share trip experience with friends	.077	.197	.035	.258
Being daring and adventuresome	.014	-.197	.004	-.252
Constraints				
Financial condition			.003	-.297
Visa application can deter me from travelling			.012	-.245
Language barrier			.040	-.167
Hard to find someone to travel with			.000	.652
Model R ²	0.074		0.221	
Model p-value	0.016		<0.001	

The findings indicate that motivations alone in model 1 explain 7 percent of the variance in participation. Two variables have significant effect. “For romance” is positively related to participation, while “being daring and adventuresome” is in the opposite direction with participation. It might be due to other influencing factors. When the constraint variables are entered into the model 2, the variance explained reaches more than 22 percent. The higher R squared in model two indicates that constraints have much more to do with explaining why people can participate in overseas travel than motivations. There were three constraints negatively related to travel participation, including financial condition, visa application and language barrier.

However, “no travel companion” was found positively related. A plausible explanation is that this constraint can be easily overcome compared with other constraints.

It can be concluded that three motivations and four constraints variables were found to be determinants of travel participation. Both motivation and constraints have certain influence on whether or not to participate. To be specific, motivation plays a positive role, whereas, constraints have a negative effect on participation. The two variables “being daring and adventuresome” and “no travel companion” seemed not to follow this rule. Here, some unidentified factors, such as “negotiation”, must be working in the process. For example, an individual tried to overcome the “no travel companion” situation by posting a topic on a forum to find someone to travel with.

Factor Analysis

The objective of this section is to test whether multiple dimensions exist within the constraints construct (proposition 3). There are three categories of leisure constraints according to the most widely accepted framework by Crawford et. al (1987, 1991), namely intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints. Nyaupane & Andereck (2008) extends this framework by adding three separate sub-dimensions of structural constraints in the tourism context. The author attempted to assess whether this study supports the above-mentioned leisure constraints model or the extended model. In order to achieve this, the principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted to assess the underlying dimensions. The Barlett’s test of sphericity showed a value of 3742.65 with $p < 0.001$ and KMO equalled 0.876. These two tests indicated that the data were suitable for factor analysis. As shown in Table 7.8, factor analysis for the 12 constraints items yielded two factors, which accounted for 57.36% of the variance. The first factor comprised of eight items with the factor mean of 3.43,

while the second factor was made up of four items with the mean of 4.03. The second factor seemed more related to the level of participation, therefore, it was named “primary factors”; and the first was termed “auxiliary factors”. The reliability alphas to check internal consistency of items within each factor were 0.88 and 0.80 respectively, meeting the criterion of greater than 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). The finding did not confirm the three-dimension constraint model, therefore, proposition 3 is not supported in this study.

Table 7.8 Factor Analysis of travel constraints

Constraint factors	Factor loadings		Eigenvalue	% of variance
	1	2		
Auxiliary factors ($\alpha=0.875$)			5.10	42.65%
My partner or family does not like me travelling	0.873	0.095		
My family and friends don't like travelling	0.774	0.076		
It is not easy to find someone to travel with	0.768	0.129		
Visa procedure can deter me from overseas travel	0.692	0.261		
My own health can deter me from overseas travel	0.667	0.175		
I do have concerns about personal safety for travelling outside China	0.658	0.241		
Language barrier can deter me from overseas travel	0.625	0.133		
I don't have enough information about overseas travel	0.620	0.278		
Primary factors ($\alpha=0.803$)			1.79	14.71%
The financial condition is such that it does not allow me to travel overseas	0.081	0.842		
I always have too much work to do which prevent me from overseas travel	0.131	0.809		
Overseas travel is too costly	0.259	0.741		
When it comes to overseas travel, I find I simply do not have enough time	0.240	0.677		

Note: KMO=0.876, Bartlett=3742.65, $P<0.001$, Cumulative variance explained=57.36%

Conclusion

When thinking of overseas travel, most Beijing residents are restrained by some factors such as discretionary time and income, health etc (objective 2). A comparison was made between participants and non-participants. People who had already been abroad scored higher on “lack of travel companion” compared with non-participants. While, individuals who had never travelled to overseas countries are more constrained by “financial condition”, “language barrier”, and “visa procedure”. The author further investigated the roles of travel motivation and constraints on participation. Generally speaking, motivations are positively related to participation, whereas, constraints have a negative effect on participation (proposition 2). In order to test whether these constraints followed the three-dimension principle (proposition 3), as in the leisure constraints literature, a factor analysis was conducted and two dimensions were obtained from this research.

Chapter 8 Market Segmentation

Tourists are not all the same. They go to different destinations and engage in different activities. However, some are more similar to each other, for instance, many people enjoy the beach, many people like to visit historic heritage. Acknowledging that every tourist is different but some are similar forms the basis of market segmentation.

The purpose of this chapter is to identify the segments of Chinese travellers on the basis of motivations and preferred destination attributes (research objective 3). The behavioural segments are analysed in terms of socio-demographic and trip-related characteristics. The analysis of data in this chapter involved three steps. First, a cluster analysis was performed based on motivation groupings in the previous chapter. Then segmented cluster groups were identified. Second, a discriminant analysis was employed to discover the motivation variables that most differentiated the clusters. Lastly, profiling of the clusters was achieved by using cross tabulations with the chi-squared test.

Cluster Analysis

In tourism research, a clustering algorithm is typically used to assign respondents to segments. Cluster analysis classifies objects into groups according to similarity of characteristics. Hair et al. (2005) stated that the resulting clusters of objects should exhibit high internal (within-cluster) homogeneity and high external (between-cluster) heterogeneity. Cluster analysis is basically used for: (1) Taxonomy description, which is an empirically based classification of objects to identify groups within the data, (2) Data simplification, by defining structure among the observations, cluster analysis is also able to create groups of similar observation instead of all individual observations

for further analysis, and (3) Relationship identification, with the clusters defined and the underlying structure of the data revealed in the clusters, the researcher is able to find out relationships among the observations. They also distinguish cluster analysis from factor analysis by stating that cluster analysis groups subjects, whereas factor analysis is primarily concerned with grouping variables. Additionally, cluster analysis makes the groupings based on distance (proximity), whereas factor analysis makes groupings on the basis of patterns of variation (correlation) in the data.

The literature review shows factor-cluster segmentation has been adopted by many researchers. By conducting factor analysis, a large number of items in the scale can be reduced to a smaller number of factors. Then instead of individual items, factor scores are used in cluster analysis to achieve market segmentation. However, this approach is not without criticism. Dolnicar (2008) argued factor-cluster segmentation has two effects: (1) the original items are actually not used to segment. Hence, original items cannot be used to interpret resulting segments because they emerged from a transformed data space; (2) in most studies factor analysis usually explains 50-60% of the information contained in the original items. If clustering is based on factor analysis, 40-50% of the original information is lost. Therefore, direct clustering is more preferable if the aim of the segmentation is to develop segments on the basis of questions asked in the survey (motivations and behaviour). Sheppard (1996) compared two methods using factor analysis and cluster analysis sequentially and concludes that factor-cluster is not suitable if the aim of the study is to examine heterogeneity among tourists. After comparing the two methods, the author decided to use direct clustering (original items rather than the factors) in the current study to achieve market segmentation.

First, the K-Means clustering technique was run to segment the tourists. This approach was used because it permits the researcher to identify the potential number of groups, and then statistically compare and select from options that combination which best fits an understanding of the data. The variables used to segment the market were both push and pull items. Several cluster solutions ranging from three to six segments were examined. As many researchers discuss, determining the number of clusters is the most critical and difficult issue, because there is no objective statistical criterion to follow. Hair et al (2005) summarised two primary stopping rules: (1) by measuring heterogeneity change between clusters at each successive step. If the heterogeneity measure exceeds a specified value or the successive values between steps makes a sudden jump, an optimal number of clusters may be discerned; (2) by directing measures of heterogeneity of each cluster solution. It was found that the four-cluster solution with 10 iterations would be the most appropriate as it demonstrated the highest degree of dissimilarity among the clusters. To delineate the four clusters and to label them, the mean importance scores for each item were computed and these are presented in table 8.1. Each cluster will be discussed in detail.

- Cluster 1 comprised 103 respondents, which is characterised by low scores, and placed low importance on almost all push and pull items. On push sides, the scores for all items are below 4, except for two (broadening one's vision and increasing knowledge about a foreign country). Regarding pull factors, the items related to facilities, economic value, language and safety have mean scores between 4 and 5. On the other hand, these respondents rated "entertainment and activities" very low. Therefore, this group was labelled as "quiet travellers" as they did not have strong motives or intention to participate, especially in activities.

- Cluster 2 (n=224) labelled “activity seekers” rated important on many items, but they placed higher value especially on items such as shopping, event, excitement, adventure activities, and nightlife.
- Cluster 3 (n=190) named ‘mass tourists’ rated items related to knowledge seeking, kinship, and relaxation high in importance but rated activities such as shopping, adventure, and exciting nightlife low in importance. They were attracted by natural scenery, pleasant beaches, different cultures, people and places. They placed high value on safety in destination, good value for money, and language.
- Cluster 4 (n=209) rated all the items very high and hence was labelled “enthusiastic travellers”. They went overseas with multiple psychological motives and also had higher expectation of destination attribute and services such as comfort in transport and accommodation.

Table 8.1 Mean scores of motivation items among the four clusters

Motivation items	Cluster 1 (n=103)	Cluster 2 (n=224)	Cluster 3 (n=190)	Cluster 4 (n=209)	Mean
Knowledge seeking					
Broadening one's vision	4.01	4.73	5.56	5.87	5.17
Seeing something different	3.85	4.75	5.22	5.77	5.04
Increasing knowledge about a foreign destination	4.02	4.67	5.09	5.39	4.90
Learning about other cultures and nationalities	3.83	4.71	5.07	5.60	4.94
Exploration and adventure					
Being adventurous and daring	2.64	3.73	2.93	4.25	3.52
Experience a different lifestyle	3.87	4.53	4.45	5.10	4.58
Finding thrill or excitement	2.54	4.24	2.99	4.84	3.84
Better understand myself	3.04	4.17	3.69	5.31	4.21
Exploring new things	2.77	4.10	3.51	5.70	4.21
Kinship enhancement					
Facilitate kinship or family ties	3.77	4.60	5.14	5.19	4.79
Share travel experience with friends	3.83	4.71	5.41	5.36	4.96
Spend time with family and friends	3.91	4.84	5.84	6.00	5.30
Relaxation					
Releasing work/study pressure	3.68	4.64	5.39	5.77	5.02
Just relaxing	3.52	4.54	4.84	5.48	4.74
Escaping from daily routine	3.47	4.33	4.58	5.37	4.57
For romance	2.78	4.07	3.92	5.66	4.30
Entertainment and activities					
Good exciting nightlife	2.75	4.74	2.82	5.44	4.16
Adventure activities	2.89	4.74	2.99	5.59	4.26
A variety of souvenirs	3.07	4.63	3.17	5.29	4.22
Trying local cuisine	2.97	4.78	3.81	5.86	4.58
Shopping	3.32	4.70	3.69	5.57	4.49
Close to other destinations	3.61	4.70	4.02	5.68	4.65
Facilities, weather & economic value					
Availability of comprehensive tourist information	4.17	4.87	5.87	6.17	5.41
Comfort and clean accommodations	4.32	5.02	6.03	6.30	5.55
Comfortable and convenient transport	4.28	4.65	5.71	6.32	5.36
Nice weather	4.26	4.86	5.64	6.25	5.40
The best deal I could get	4.59	4.73	5.90	6.22	5.44
Natural, cultural and historic environment					
Historical buildings and places	4.04	4.62	4.91	5.96	5.00
A place that is not too "touristy"	3.84	4.77	4.65	5.98	4.96
Arts and cultural attractions	3.60	4.42	4.28	5.56	4.60
Outstanding scenery	4.63	5.11	6.03	6.27	5.62
Good ocean beaches	4.32	4.91	5.33	6.32	5.34
Language and safety					
Chinese character on signs	4.04	4.67	4.66	5.86	4.92
Tour guide who speaks Chinese	4.23	4.67	5.07	6.10	5.13
Feel safe in destination	4.88	4.75	6.11	6.28	5.57

Discriminant Analysis

The profiling stage involves describing the characteristics of each cluster so as to explain how each may differ on relevant dimensions. This process typically involves undertaking discriminant analysis (Hair et. al, 2005). Validation of the four clusters was undertaken using discriminant analysis where the four derived clusters were specified as a grouping variable and the 4 push factors and 4 pull factors as the independent variables. It is a technique for testing which motivation factors best discriminate among the identified clusters and for allocating respondents to clusters to permit an assessment of the reliability of the clusters (see Table 8.3). The result of discriminant analysis revealed the existence of three discriminant functions. As shown in table 8.2 below, the three functions are statistically significant, as measured by the chi-square statistic. Function 1, with an eigenvalues of 4.062, explained 89.6% of the variance. Function 2 had an eigenvalues of 1.312 and explained 23.8% of the variance. The remaining variance was explained by the function 3 with an eigenvalues of 0.140. Furthermore, canonical function 1 seems to imply a function from low to high enthusiasm for travel, while function 2 represent a dimension for active to passive levels of involvement.

Table 8.2 Discriminant analysis results

Discriminant function	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Canonical correlation	Wilk's lambda	Chi-square	Sig.
1	4.062	73.7	0.896	0.075	1825.20	0.000
2	1.312	23.8	0.753	0.379	682.64	0.000
3	0.140	2.5	0.350	0.877	92.16	0.000

The classification matrices were examined in order to determine whether the functions are valid predictors (Table 8.3). The classification matrix indicated that 96.3% of all

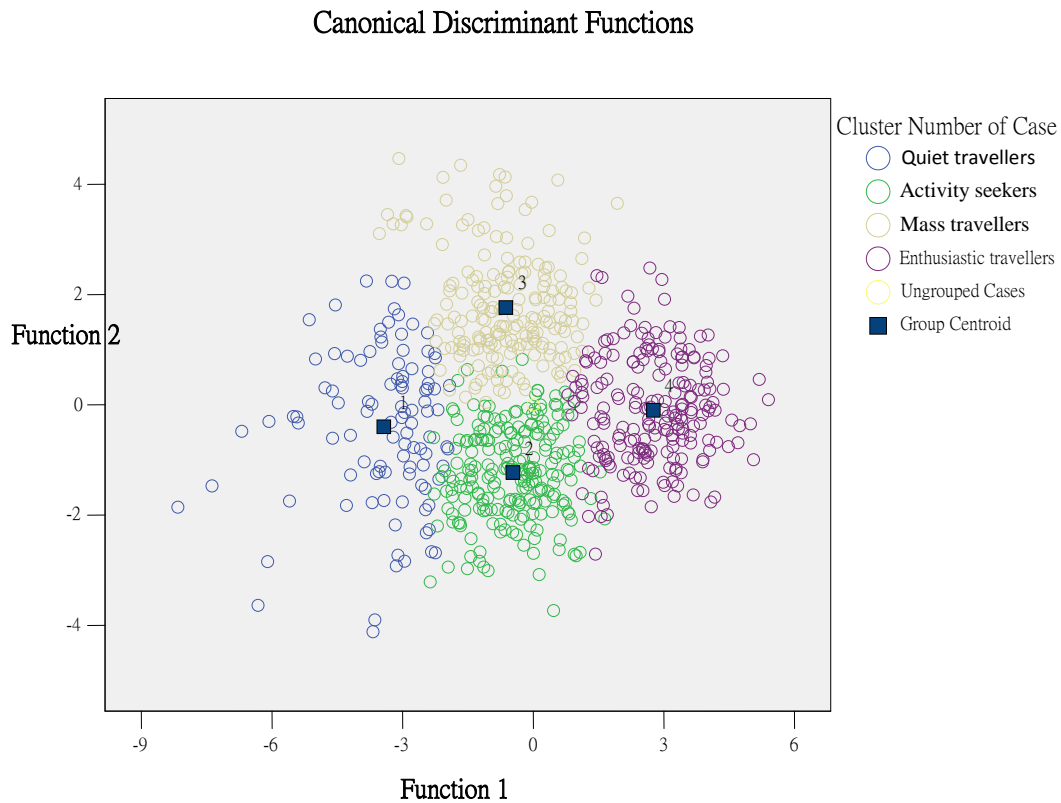
original grouped cases were correctly classified. Cluster 1 achieved 91.3% correctly classification while cluster two achieved 96.4% correct classification. Clusters three and four achieved 98.4% and 96.7% correct classification respectively. An examination of the territorial map and combined groups plot (Figure 8.1) below also indicated that all four groups were well defined on both canonical functions.

Table 8.3 Classification Results

	Predicted Group Membership				Total
	1	2	3	4	
Cluster 1	94 91.3%	6 5.8%	3 2.9%	0 0.0%	103 100.0%
Cluster 2	3 1.3%	216 96.4%	5 2.2%	0 0	224 100.0%
Cluster 3	0 0.0%	2 1.1%	187 98.4%	1 0.5%	190 100.0%
Cluster 4	0 0.0%	5 2.4%	2 1.0%	202 96.7%	209 100.0%

Note: 96.3% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

Figure 8.1 Combined Groups Plot for Clusters



Profile of Clusters

The demographic profile of each cluster was identified by cross-tabulation. The chi-square test was run to determine if there were any statistically significant differences among the four clusters groups. The analysis revealed (Table 8.4) that significant differences across clusters existed based on gender, income, occupation, and education variables.

The first test is a cross-tabulation of gender and the clusters which yielded the result: Pearson Chi-square of 0.003 and none of the expected count cell sizes are less than 5. It reveals that cluster 4 had more males (62.8%) compared with the other three clusters.

On the other hand, cluster 3 was found to have more females (55.6%) than males (44.4%).

On the income variable, all clusters had a high percentage in low and medium income categories. When examining the expected count and actual count in each cell, it indicates that cluster 4 had the highest percentage at the income level of RMB10,001-20,000 (39.1%), while cluster 1 had the largest group in the income level of RMB5,001-10,000 (41.7%) and under RMB5,000 (35.0%). Compared with the other groups, cluster 2 had a greater percentage of the respondents with a high-income level (RMB20,001-30,000 and over RMB30,000). This seems to imply that the desire for travel and active involvement is a function of income, in that higher levels of income permit travel and higher involvement level.

In terms of occupation, the largest group for all clusters was company employees. Nevertheless, interesting findings emerge. For cluster 4, the second largest group was self-employed people (16.8%). And manager was the second largest group for Cluster 3 (10.1%), cluster 2 (24.6%) and cluster 1 (16.5%). It is also noteworthy that the highest percentages of teacher fell within cluster 3 (6.4%) and cluster 1 (5.8%). Students were also found, to a larger extent, in cluster 3 (9.6%) and cluster 1 (8.7%) when the expected and actual count was compared.

For the education variable, all clusters had high proportions of groups with Bachelor's degree and diploma certificate. However, some differences were found if comparison between the four clusters was made. More junior or senior school leavers and Bachelor degree holders were found in cluster 4, while more diploma certificate and Master's as well as PhD holders were distributed in cluster 1.

Table 8.4 Socio-demographic Profile of Four Clusters

	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	X ²	p-value
Gender					14.31	0.003
Male	58.3%	52.7%	44.4%	62.8%		
Female	41.7%	47.3%	55.6%	37.2%		
Age					8.03	0.531
18-25	35.0%	29.0%	31.2%	26.4%		
26-35	38.8%	41.1%	37.6%	35.6%		
36-49	20.4%	23.7%	27.0%	31.7%		
50-	5.8%	6.3%	4.2%	6.3%		
Marital status					11.30	0.256
Single	38.8%	35.4%	41.3%	34.6%		
Married, no children	25.2%	25.6%	19.6%	16.3%		
Married, dependent children	21.4%	25.1%	25.4%	31.3%		
Married, grown-up children	14.6%	13.9%	13.8%	17.8%		
Income					33.65	0.001
Under RMB5,000	35.0%	23.4%	29.8%	20.8%		
RMB 5,001-10,000	41.7%	33.3%	35.1%	30.9%		
RMB 10,001-20,000	17.5%	26.6%	25.0%	39.1%		
RMB 20,001-30,000	1.0%	7.2%	4.3%	4.3%		
Over RMB 30,001	4.9%	9.5%	5.9%	4.8%		
Occupation					69.36	<0.001
Public servant	6.8%	5.8%	6.9%	1.4%		
Company employee	55.3%	48.2%	53.7%	55.3%		
Manager	16.5%	24.6%	10.1%	9.6%		
Teacher	5.8%	3.6%	6.4%	1.9%		
Self-employed	2.9%	6.3%	6.4%	16.8%		
Student	8.7%	7.6%	9.6%	7.7%		
Homecarer	2.9%	0.4%	0.5%	1.4%		
Retired	0.0%	0.9%	2.1%	2.9%		
Other	1.0%	2.7%	4.3%	2.9%		
Education					33.89	<0.001
Junior or senior school	5.8%	4.5%	10.6%	14.9%		
Diploma certificate	36.9%	30.8%	27.5%	26.0%		
Bachelor's degree	38.8%	54.0%	47.1%	53.4%		
Master's or PhD degree	18.4%	10.7%	14.8%	5.8%		

The author argues that different cluster members were not the same in terms of trip-related characteristics. Hence, cross-tabulations were also performed to provide trip-related profiles of the four clusters (Table 8.5). The four groups did not show significant difference in destination region choice. Nevertheless, they were significantly different on travel budget and travel mode. When examining the expected count and actual count in each cell, it reveals that in cluster 4, travellers with budgets of “RMB10,001-30,000” are over-reported, and there is an under-reporting in other

income group clusters. Besides, more than one third of respondents with a travel budget under RMB 10,000 fell within cluster 3 (38.8%). There is an over-reporting of respondents with high expenditures (>RMB30,000) in cluster 2.

Similarly, cross-tabulation for travel mode and clusters was undertaken and found the Pearson chi-square $p < 0.001$. Again, none of the expected cell counts are less than 5. When examining the cells, it can be observed that the actual counts of respondents in favour of independent travel is higher than expected count in cluster 4, and lower in cluster 1, 2 and 3. On the contrary, the actual count of respondents who prefer package tour (either all-inclusive or basic) are more than the expected counts in cluster 1. While cluster 3 is most likely to prefer basic package tour, and cluster 2 is in favour of package tour.

Table 8.5 Trip-related Profile of Four Clusters

	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	X ²	p-value
Destination					15.008	0.241
Asia-bound	52.9%	59.7%	59.0%	54.1%		
Europe-bound	21.2%	18.8%	22.4%	25.4%		
America-bound	11.8%	13.1%	5.6%	9.7%		
Oceania-bound	8.2%	6.8%	11.2%	8.6%		
Africa-bound	5.9%	1.6%	1.9%	2.2%		
Total travel times						
Never	17.5%	14.7%	15.3%	11.5%	15.292	0.226
1-2 times	49.5%	54.5%	59.5%	62.7%		
3-5 times	27.2%	21.4%	20.0%	16.3%		
6-10 times	4.9%	4.5%	2.1%	5.7%		
More than 10 times	1.0%	4.9%	3.2%	3.8%		
Travel Budget					26.034	0.011
<RMB10,000	29.4%	22.8%	38.8%	26.0%		
RMB10,001-30,000	47.1%	50.9%	47.9%	54.8%		
RMB30,001-50,000	18.6%	17.0%	9.6%	15.9%		
RMB50,001-100,000	3.9%	6.7%	2.7%	2.9%		
>RMB100,001	1.0%	2.7%	1.1%	0.5%		
Mode of Travel					45.341	<0.001
All inclusive package tour	28.2%	28.6%	23.2%	16.7%		
Independent travel	34.0%	37.5%	32.1%	60.3%		
Basic package	37.9%	33.9%	44.7%	23.0%		

In order to have a clear understanding of this market segment, the profile of each cluster can be summarised as follows.

- Cluster 1 (Quiet travellers)

This is an interesting group. They travel abroad, but are not strongly motivated. They were not passionate about travelling and might just follow others. Most were from households with lower income (RMB5,001-10,000 and under RMB5,000). People of this kind can be found in almost all occupation areas. They prefer to book a tour through travel agencies.

- Cluster 2 (Activity seekers)

Travellers belonging to this segment were eager to participate in exciting or adventurous activities. They are high-salary earners with monthly household income of more than RMB20,000. Most work as a “manager” in companies. With high purchasing power, they are also the leading consumers of brand and fashion products, and thus have much interest in shopping.

- Cluster 3 (Mass travellers)

This group were undoubtedly the typical mass tourists whose overseas travels were primarily motivated by knowledge seeking, kinship enhancement and relaxation. The natural, cultural and historic attractions in foreign destinations are the main appealing feature to them. They also pay attention to the quality of service and facilities. They are mostly from low and middle income families. Public servants, teachers, and students are representative of this group. Additionally, their spending on overseas travel is lower than other groups.

- Cluster 4 (Enthusiastic travellers)

This segment consisted of travellers with multiple motives to go abroad. They are seeking knowledge, adventure, relaxation, and relationship enhancement through travelling. They were attracted by many destination attributes and were at the same time very demanding by pursuing high quality facilities and service in destination. Nearly two-thirds of them are males and they work either as company employees, retirees or are self-employed with secondary certificate or Bachelor's degree. Two-fifths of them are earning a moderately high salary (RMB10,001-20,000), which enables them to be rather high spending during overseas travel. Unlike other groups, they have a preference for independent travel rather than package tour.

Conclusion

Not all tourists are the same. This chapter identifies four different types of pleasure travellers based on their psychographic characteristics and destination features. Discriminant analysis was run to ensure that the four clusters are the best solution. In addition, the socio-demographic and trip-related characteristics for each group were demonstrated. It provides implications of interest to destinations that, in the Beijing outbound travel market, people do not share the same travel motivations and they emphasise on different aspects of destination attributes. Therefore, destinations and service providers should realise these different needs and cannot regard all Chinese tourists as "one". For example, travellers with a good educational background are mostly likely to have motives and requirements that differ from those with a lower level of education. Destinations should target either four or one of these groups after considering their own resources.

Chapter 9 Determinants in the Decision-making Process

This chapter examines further the determinants of Chinese travellers' travel pattern and their destination choice (proposition 4 and 5). The proposition is that motivational factors, socio-demographic as well as trip-related characteristics have certain influences not only on the frequency of travel, but also the destination choice. This chapter will focus on what role psychographic or socio-demographic play in travellers' decision-making process. It can be achieved in two steps. First, a multiple regression is run to test whether psychographic motivation and constraints as well as age, gender, economic status, education, occupation, and marital status are able to significantly explain the total numbers of overseas trips. Second, logistic regression is undertaken to identify the determinant variables for travelling within or out of Asia.

Multiple Regression

For proposition 5, as described in chapter 5, travel frequency is influenced positively by travel motivation and negatively by travel constraints. It is also affected by the tourists' socio-demographic variables. In order to test this proposition, multiple regression was conducted to determine the best linear combination of push, pull and inhibiting factors, and demographic variables for predicting the times of travelling overseas. A stepwise regression with a constant was undertaken considering the large number of predictor variables. It is an effective statistical procedure to find out what are the smallest number of predictors that make a significant contribution in explaining the maximum amount of variance in the dependent variable. Besides, it can decide which independent variable is the best predictor followed by the second best predictor, etc. In this study, the independent variables included psychographic push motivations, constraints, socio-demographic and trip-related characteristics. The total number of

overseas trips was regarded as dependent variable. One concern when conducting regression is multicollinearity. Multicollinearity exists when two or more independent variables are "highly" correlated with one another. In the analysis, a multicollinearity check was achieved by examining the correlation matrix, and the variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values and tolerances (1/VIF). According to Kennedy (1998), as a rule of thumb, for standardised data a $VIF > 10$ indicates harmful collinearity. As can be seen from the table 9.1 that all variables have high tolerance and a low VIF value indicating a low degree of multicollinearity.

Table 9.1 Determinants of Overseas Travel Frequency

	Unstandardised coefficients	t	p	Tolerance	VIF
The financial condition is such that it does not allow me to travel overseas	-0.522	-6.113	<0.001	0.952	1.051
Monthly household income	0.319	2.464	0.014	0.943	1.060
Releasing work/study pressure	0.273	2.778	0.006	0.924	1.082
Finding thrill and excitement	-0.217	-2.679	0.008	0.955	1.047
Education	0.373	2.111	0.035	0.956	1.046

Note: Durbin-Watson= 1.792; $R^2=0.071$; $F=12.124$; $p=0.000$

The Durbin–Watson statistic is a test statistic used to detect the presence of autocorrelation in the residuals from a regression analysis. It has a range from 0 to 4 with a midpoint of 2. It should be between 1.5 and 2.5 for independent observation.

The adjusted R-squared represents the proportion of variance in the outcome variable which is explained by the predictor variables in the population. Cohen's (1988) effect size is a measure or criterion for multiple regression that has been widely accepted in behavioural sciences. He defines effect sizes of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 as small, medium,

and large respectively, which were translated into $R^2 = 0.02$ (small), $R^2 = 0.13$ (medium) and $R^2 = 0.26$ (large).

Table 9.1 demonstrates the main findings of this analysis. In stepwise multiple regression, the model R^2 is 0.071 ($p < 0.001$). The financial constraint was entered first and explained 4.5% of the variance in overseas travel frequency. Household income was entered second and explained a further 1% of the variance. Other variables associated with travel frequency are motivation of releasing from work / study pressure, finding thrill and excitement as well as education. Two out of five variables are negatively related to travel frequency. Individuals would be most likely to reduce or cancel their overseas travel if they feel their finance cannot afford such a trip. However, it seems not easy to understand why people who attach higher importance on finding thrill and excitement are not likely to travel often. A possible reason is that these people are very young whose financial condition is not good enough for overseas travel. Two socio-demographic variables, income and education, are found to have positive effect on the dependent variable. People with higher income and better education background are more likely to travel abroad on a frequent basis. Furthermore, individuals who need a break from busy work and study prefer taking a holiday abroad.

These findings illustrate that the financial issue is still a major restraining factor for Chinese current and potential travellers. For most Chinese people, overseas travel is perhaps still a dream which they feel is likely to be unrealised. Even for those who already have been abroad, the expense may account for a large proportion of their annual income. If, considering the pattern of daily expenditure, there are other priorities before travel, such as food, housing, education, medical etc. Then it is discretionary income that may be a determinant of demand. To take “Engel coefficient” as an example, which is an index of standard of living. Engel's Law states that as

income rises, household expenditures on food as a proportion of total income are supposed to decline. As the "Engel coefficient" increases, the country is by nature poorer. While, a low Engel coefficient indicates a higher standard of living. According to the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations, an Engel's coefficient above 59% represents "absolute poverty"; 50-59%, "barely enough food and clothing"; 40-50%, a "moderately well-off" standard of living; 30-40%, a "well-to-do" standard of living; and below 30%, a "wealthy" life. In recent years, in China, the Engel coefficient has been decreasing from 60% before 1979 to 40% in 2000s. In coastal big cities, the number is even lower to the range of 30-40%, which is an indicator of the "well-off" stage (People's Daily, Feb 20, 2006). However, it is not a simple phenomenon. It needs to be noted that many residents have to reduce the food proportion to increase the spending on education, housing, and healthcare. In China, individuals have to contribute a significant proportion of their income to these items, because the government provides only a little financial support for the public's benefit. According to a survey by the Beijing Social Psychology Research Institute in 2005, education, housing and healthcare accounted for nearly half (46.3%) of Beijing urban households' total monthly consumption expenditure. Moreover, Beijingers spend 35.8% of their income on food, 6.9% on electrical appliances, and 5.9% on other services and entertainment. Travel is not an absolutely necessity for Chinese peoples' lives, without even mentioning an opportunity for overseas travel. Therefore, it is understandable that Chinese travellers are influenced more by demographic characteristics such as income and education, and that financial constraints are still the biggest obstacles to overseas travel.

Binary Logistic Regression

The extant literature suggests that socio-demographic and activity characteristics as well as psychographic factors contribute to the destination choice of travellers. For example, in Hsieh's (1994) study of the travel decisions of both Japanese and German long-haul travellers, she found that travel philosophies, travel benefits and destination attribute preferences were important psychographic factors that influenced the likelihood of travel to certain destinations.

This section aims to test proposition 5 and examine the roles of socio-demographic, trip characteristics as well as psychographic factors in influencing Beijing travellers to different overseas destinations. For this part, a subset of the data (n=602) was selected who were actual travellers. They were divided into two subgroups --- "within-Asia" travellers (n=341) and "out-of-Asia" (n=261). The author predicts that Chinese tourists who travel within or outside Asia will have differences in demographic characteristics as well as length of stay, travel expenditure, and travel modes. In order to find out the demographic difference of these groups, cross-tabulation was concluded. The results are shown in Table 9.2. There was a statistically significant difference between the two groups, other than for gender and occupation. Chinese travellers to Asian countries tended to be younger and are single with lower income and a diploma level education. On the other hand, long-haul travellers to non-Asian countries were older, more educated with higher income.

Table 9.2 Demographic Difference of Within and Out-of-Asia Travellers

Variables	Within-Asia Travellers	Out-of-Asia Travellers	All Travellers	Test Statistic	<i>p</i>
Gender				X ² =0.842	0.370
Male	54.00%	57.70%	54.20%		
Female	46.00%	42.30%	45.80%		
Age				X ² =8.867	0.031
18-25 years	29.70%	20.60%	29.7		
26-35 years	40.20%	41.90%	38.3		
36-49 years	26.10%	30.30%	26.4		
Over 50 years	4.00%	7.10%	5.7		
Marital status				X ² =14.932	0.002
Single	40.80%	25.90%	37.2		
Married, no children	20.70%	24.80%	21.3		
Married, dependent children	24.90%	31.60%	26.4		
Married, grown-up children	13.60%	17.70%	15.1		
Income				X ² =11.345	0.023
Under RMB5000	25.60%	15.00%	26.0		
RMB5001-10000	34.80%	36.30%	34.3		
RMB10001-20000	29.30%	35.20%	28.5		
RMB20001-30000	4.30%	6.00%	4.7		
Over RMB30001	6.00%	7.50%	6.5		
Occupation				X ² =14.153	0.078
Public servant	4.50%	5.20%	5.0		
Manager	55.70%	52.80%	52.7		
Company employee	17.30%	17.20%	15.4		
Teacher	1.70%	7.10%	4.1		
Self-employed	9.70%	8.20%	8.9		
Student	6.00%	3.70%	8.3		
Homemaker	1.10%	1.50%	1.1		
Retired	1.10%	1.90%	1.7		
Others	6.00%	7.50%	2.9		
Education				X ² =16.606	0.001
School leaver	9.30%	9.70%	9.3		
Diploma	34.00%	22.50%	29.4		
Bachelor	48.20%	50.60%	49.9		
Master or PhD	8.50%	17.20%	11.5		

Moreover, these two groups also show great differences in trip-related characteristics such as length of stay, travel mode, expenditure, and times of overseas travel in total (Table 9.3). Chinese travellers to non-Asia countries tended to spend more and stay longer in the destination. Furthermore, they prefer to take independent travel instead of

a package tour. The results also indicate that out-of-Asia travellers are most likely to be experienced tourists who have been to overseas several times. This may, to some degree, explain why they would choose independent travel.

Table 9.3 Trip-related Characteristics Difference of Within and Out-of-Asia Travellers

Variables	Within-Asia Travellers	Out-of-Asia Travellers	All Travellers	Test Statistic	<i>p</i>
Length of stay				138.949	<0.001
1-5 days	16.90%	3.40%	11.10%		
6-10 days	64.10%	32.10%	50.30%		
11-15 days	11.30%	38.40%	23.00%		
15-20days	1.10%	4.90%	2.70%		
Over 20 days	6.50%	21.30%	12.90%		
Travel budget				56.295	<0.001
Under RMB10000	35.40%	13.50%	28.80%		
RMB10001-30000	51.60%	53.90%	50.70%		
RMB30001-50000	9.10%	24.30%	15.00%		
RMB50001-100000	2.80%	6.70%	4.20%		
Over RMB100000	1.10%	1.50%	1.40%		
Travel mode				14.824	0.001
All-inclusive package tour	28.50%	16.40%	23.70%		
Basic package tour	37.90%	50.00%	42.10%		
Basic package tour	33.60%	33.60%	34.20%		
Times of overseas travel totally				11.570	0.009
1-2 times	71.50%	61.20%	67.00%		
3-5 times	21.50%	26.90%	23.80%		
6-10 times	4.80%	5.20%	5.00%		
Over 10 times	2.30%	6.70%	4.20%		

In addition to demographic and trip-related characteristics between travellers within Asia and outside Asia, another reasonable possibility is that these two groups are driven by different psychographic motivations and attracted by different destination attribute.

In order to assess the relative importance of the independent variables in classifying the dependent variable, logistic analysis is adopted for this purpose. There are two reasons why logistic regression will be applied here. First, the dependent variable (destination choice-whether or not an individual will travel out of Asia) was dichotomous (categorical) data. When the dependent variable is dichotomous in nature, it must be represented by a nominal variable. In the logistic regression model, the estimated probability of each choice made by the respondents, predicted by traveller's related characteristics, is the outcome of maximum likelihood function (Kenney, 1998). Second, one advantage of logistic regression as to the normality of the data, logistic regression has very few assumptions, which is one reason this technique has become popular (Leech et. al, 2008).

Although the assumption for the normal distribution is no longer a concern, the issue of multi-collinearity needs to be addressed. Multi-collinearity occurs when some of the predictor variables are themselves highly correlated, which can lead to misleading and inaccurate results. Extant literature (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994) has reported correlations between push and pull motivation factors. Therefore, the correlation matrix was examined (Appendix 8), which showed most correlations ranging from 0.002 to 0.393. There was one correlation between age and marital status of 0.761, which is understandable. On the whole, the variables are well below the problematic level of 0.8 (Hair et al., 2005).

Binary logistic regression is used because the dependent variable is regarded as dichotomous, 1 (out of Asia) and 0 (within Asia). The independent variables were all the assumed predictors including push, pull motivations, constraints factors, trip-related as well as socio-demographic characteristics. The results of the binary logistic

regression are shown in table 9.4. The overall goodness-of-fits was significant at 0.05 level. Five out of nineteen variables were found significant in the model, including exploration and adventure, relaxation, length of trip, travel budget, and marital status. Four of the coefficients were positive, and only one was negative. The positive coefficients indicate that Chinese tourists are more likely to travel out of Asia whereas the negative coefficient indicates that they are less likely to travel out of Asia. All pull motivation and constraints factors were not significant in the model tested.

Table 9.4 Determinants of Destination Choice

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Push Factors			
Knowledge seeking	-0.104	0.370	0.901
Exploration and adventure	0.249	0.019*	1.282
Relationship enhancement	0.183	0.089	1.201
Relaxation	-0.282	0.014*	0.755
Pull Factors			
Entertainment and activities	-0.142	0.158	0.868
Facilities, weather and value for money	0.231	0.078	1.260
Natural, cultural and historical	0.072	0.568	1.075
Language and safety	0.051	0.635	1.052
Constraints Factors			
Auxiliary factors	0.064	0.530	1.066
Primary factors	-0.023	0.803	0.977
Trip characteristics			
Length of trip	0.104	<0.001***	1.109
Travel budget	0.356	0.008**	1.428
Travel mode	0.150	0.252	1.162
Socio-demographics			
Gender	0.018	0.925	1.019
Age	-0.054	0.765	0.947
Marital status	0.305	0.033*	1.356
Income	0.059	0.555	1.061
Occupation	-0.004	0.945	0.996
Education	0.242	0.060	1.273

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

N=602; **Constant**=-5.379***; **-2 Log Likelihood**=679.38; **Chi-square**=144.51***

Pseudo R-square (Nagelkerke)= 0.286; Percentage Correct=70.8%

Beijing out-of-Asia and within-Asia travellers demonstrate different trip characteristics. Those who travel out of Asia have longer trip lengths and spend more during their overseas trips. Moreover, socio-demographic variables also play a role in destination choice. This is in line with the previous study by Cai et. al (1996) in which US pleasure travellers selecting China (including Hong Kong) are differentiated from those choosing other Asia travel destinations. A set of demographic and socio-economic variables including household income, age, gender, education, occupation, family size, geographic region of household residency and ethnic background were found to be associated with travellers' destination choices.

Another significant finding is that motivations also contribute to the destination choice. It confirms the findings in the previous literature that psychographic attributes are very important in predicting tourist behaviour (Plog, 1983& 1991; Mansfeld, 1992). The Chinese tourists who take a holiday outside Asia seek "exploration and adventure". They want to see something exciting and exotic. On the other hand, those within-Asia travellers are longing for relaxation from the overseas trip.

The literature suggests that push factors are thought to predispose individuals to travel, while pull factors help explain destination selection decision. However, in this study it is the push factors that influence the destination choice instead of pull factors. This result seems contrary to several studies on western outbound travellers. Lee et.al (2002) argued that pull factors exerted stronger influence on destination choice than psychological push factors. From their study on German pleasure travellers to US, Canada and Asia, the researchers summarised that those motivation factors are more direct and stronger determinants of destination choice than trip length and budget, and the socio-demographic variables. Jang and Cai (2002) studied travel motivations and

destination choice of British outbound market. Six push factors and five pull factors were found to have significant effects on destination choice. The results indicated that British travellers to Asia were seeking a “novel experience”, whereas, those to Oceania sought “family and friend togetherness”. Therefore, the authors suggested that a destination can make full use of its strengths with an optimal combination of push and pull factors to attract and retain the travellers. Another study by Lehto et. al (2002) compared British long-haul travellers to North America, Asia and Oceania based upon psychographics (including travel philosophies, travel benefits and destination attribute preferences) as well as demographic, socio-economic and trip characteristics. The results derived from the discriminant analysis indicated that demographic and socio-economic characteristics were not effective in predicting the long-haul vacation destination choices of British travellers. In contrast, psychographic factors were found to be more accurate predictors of destination choice.

What causes the difference in the findings of the different research projects? There might be several reasons. First, the current study is differentiating within and outside Asia, instead of targeting any specific destination country. The destination features may not be very distinctive, which lead to the ineffectiveness of pull motivations in this situation. Second, the samples were from different countries. The economic and social backgrounds of these countries are to be considered. In developed countries such as Germany and UK, overseas travel is an ordinary part of life. In 2007, 64 million U.S. residents travelled abroad, compared with its total population of 300 million. In 2003, the number of British outbound travellers was 61 million, even more than its total population of 59 million. In China 50 million people travelled overseas in 2007, which is a significant figure, but, only accounts for 4 percent of its huge population of 1400 million. For many people, to go overseas and take a holiday is more important than

where to go. Therefore, pull factors do not play much of a role in destination choice in the case of Beijing outbound travellers. Such a finding is consistent with China still being a developing country that still possesses wide discrepancies of income and life opportunities within its large population.

Conclusion

This chapter investigates the influences of psychographic factors, socio-demographic as well as trip-related characteristics on the frequency of travel and the destination choice. The findings reveal that the travel frequency is positively related to income, education and motivation of “releasing from work/study pressure”, at the same time, it is negatively related to financial constraint and the motivation of “finding thrill and excitement”. Therefore, the proposition 4 that constraints, push motivation and socio-demographics all contribute to the prediction of travel frequency is supported in this study. Additionally from the results of binary logistic regression, push motivation (exploration & adventure, relaxation), trip-related characteristics (length of travel and travel budget) and socio-demographic (marital status) all have an influence on destination choice. Hence, proposition 5 is supported in this study. Moreover, the results indicate that Chinese outbound tourists are more influenced by socio-demographic factors than psychographic factors.

More insight will be gained when considering the development of western countries. Some researchers have investigated the relationship between travel constraints and social class. One’s social class in society is determined greatly by wealth, occupation, education or family background. Therefore, as Haukeland (1990) argues, for an individual to be a traveller or non-traveller is a function of socio-economic factors. And he further illustrates this by the example from a European Economic Community (EEC)

survey. A person who is a white collar professional under 50 years old with above average household income living in urban area is very unlikely to be a non-traveller. On the contrary, it is very likely that relatively older people, manual workers, those in the lowest income household, and people living in rural areas are non-travellers. However, with social progress, the social background variables seem to have become less important as explanatory factors (Settle, Alreck and Belch, 1978). A likely explanation is that a social equalisation has taken place which led to the change of social structure. The major differences between various social classes were evened out. In developed countries, vacation and overseas travel is very popular among the public. Therefore, it is a different picture for western countries. China is still in its infancy of outbound tourism development and definitely behind the developed countries in this regard.

Chapter 10

Preference and Decisions of Beijing Outbound Travellers

After the destination is selected, individuals have further decisions to make, which include, but are not limited to, when to travel (travel time), whether to book a tour (travel mode), whom to ask for service (travel agency selection), where to get more information (information channel), where to stay (accommodation), what activities to take part in (activities). Understanding these preferences of Chinese tourists may have significant impacts for tourism marketing and service improvement. This chapter focuses on these decisions so that the preferences and characteristics of Beijing tourists will be better revealed.

The purpose of this chapter is therefore two-fold. First it attempts to understand the process of decision-making (research objective 4) by describing the decisions with reference to respondents' current and intended overseas travel and treating the sample as a homogenous whole. This part uses primarily descriptive statistical methods including an examination of frequencies given the nominal nature of the data used in this chapter. Given that the past literature reviewed in chapter 2 and findings in chapter 9 indicate that socio-demographic and socio-economic variables such as age, gender, education and income have been shown to be factors that determine behaviour, the next part of the chapter conducts an analysis where each of these variables is examined in turn to assess the degree to which they appear to influence past and intended overseas trips (proposition 6). Finally a discussion summarises the key findings. The following sections cover findings about decision time, decision maker, travel mode, preferred travel time, the length of stay, preferred accommodation, selection of travel agency and information search.

Planning Time

To reiterate a point previously made, when compared with their western counterparts, Chinese people seem not to plan an overseas journey long before the trip. From table 10.1, we may see that 63.5% of respondents make their plans within one month prior to departure. Another 25.5% respondents fall within 2-3 months. Only 4.8% arrange overseas trips over half a year before departure. It is true that in many cases applications are usually made only immediately prior to a need for travel which has implications for travel planning and flexibility of arrangements.

Table 10.1 Planning Period Prior to Departure

Times	Frequency	Percent
1 week	52	7.2
2-3 weeks	111	15.3
1 month	297	40.9
2-3 months	186	25.6
4-6 months	45	6.2
half a year - a year	30	4.1
over a year	5	0.7
Total	726	100.0

A previous study by Zalatan (1996) found that distance, education and age are positively correlated with planning time while familiarity and the use of a travel agent are negatively correlated with planning time. In another study by Iverson (1997) age and marital status were positively related to decision time. Travel experience was negatively related to decision time. However, the most crucial determinant was nationality which was twice as important as any of the other independent variables in explaining the variation in decision time. It would appear that the Chinese are among those who require the least planning period prior to departure. In a sense, however, it

can be argued that “nationality” is a proxy for not only cultural considerations, but structural, operational issues that exist within a respondent’s home country.

In order to conduct chi-squared analysis, the items were classified into three categories: under 1 months, 1-3 months and over 4 months. The present study found some relationship among groups (Appendix 9). Pearson chi-square results indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between the two variables of age and planning time ($X^2=18.15$, $df=6$, $p<0.01$). Young people are more likely to spend less time on trip planning. Cramer’s V, which indicates the strength of the association between the two variables, is 0.11 and, thus, the effect size is considered to be small according to Cohen (1988). People in different marital status and income groups also showed significant differences in planning time.

A chi-squared statistic was used again to investigate whether the use of a travel agency has impact on the planning time or not. The Pearson chi-squared results indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between the two variables ($X^2=19.91$, $df=4$, $p<0.01$). The less reliance there is on a travel agency, the more time is spent on planning. Cramer’s V, which indicates the strength of the association between the two variables, is 0.15 and, thus again, the effect size is considered to be small (Cohen, 1988). It may be that those who tend to favour independent forms of travel find enjoyable the trip planning process and willingly spend more time in trip planning, or need for more searches for information prior to decision and journey commencement.

Other studies show that western travellers spend more time on trip planning than Asian tourists. For example, Money and Crotts (2002) explored the relationship between the cultural dimension of uncertainty or risk avoidance with information search, planning time and other trip characteristics among German and Japanese visitors to US. They

found planning time horizons were significantly shorter for Japanese tourists than Germans. The average number of days before Japanese decide to travel was about half that of Germans (about 66 vs. 131 days). The same was true for airline reservations (about 35 vs. 89 days). Even among Asian travellers, differences were revealed between different nationalities. Korean travellers are likely to employ a shorter decision time than Japanese travellers in making their destination decision.

Chinese outbound travellers do not plan their overseas trips and make decisions farther in advance, which may be influenced by their reliance on travel agencies, and is possibly a reflection of high risk avoidance (Hofstede, 2001) and use of group travel arrangements. It might, it is suggested, also reflect a relative lack of travel maturity and pricing structures that offer little motive for early booking.

Travel Budget

The respondents were asked about their expected expenditure overseas. It is found that the planned travel budgets vary from under RMB 10,000 to over 100,000. Table 10.2 shows that about one third of respondents (28.4%) expected to spend less than RMB 10,000, while another one half (50.5%) would like to spend between RMB 10,000 and 30,000. On the other hand there are top-end customers (1.4%) with a budget of over RMB100, 001.

Table 10.2 The Expected Expenditure on an Overseas Trip

Travel budget	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Under RMB 10,000	205	28.4	28.6
RMB 10,000 - 30,000	364	50.5	50.8
RMB 40,000 - 50,000	108	15.0	15.1
RMB 60,000 – 100,000	30	4.2	4.2
Over RMB 100,000	10	1.4	1.4
Total	717	99.4	100.0
Missing	4	0.6	
Total	721	100.0	

Previous research indicates that travel expenditures are determined by both socio-demographic and travel-related variables. Cai (1998) examined whether there were significant relationships between household socio-demographic characteristics and food expenditures on vacation trips. The results identified numerous determinants of spending variations of households, including income, education, occupation, number of children, age, marital status, ethnicity, employment status, and seasonality. Cai (1999) also focused on US household lodging expenditure patterns on vacation. The findings indicated that well-educated high income earners who were married, white, worked full-time or part-time, and owned a house tended to spend more lodging dollars on vacation, especially in the summer time. On the contrary, those who had more children were found to spend less on vacation for lodging.

In this study, cross-tabulation of these two types of variables with travel expenditure was generated which produced the following results. As shown in table 10.3, gender was found to be an influencing factor in travel budget. More females are found in the lower spend of under RMB 10,000. Males and females are equal in number between RMB 10,000 and 30,000. However, more males plan to spend higher on overseas travel than females. The chi-squared test indicates that it is also at statistically significant

levels ($X^2=11.19$; $df=4$, $p=0.025$). One of the explanations is that males are more thoughtful who take every possibility into consideration, while females are more compulsive especially in purchasing. In terms of age, a study by Dardis et al (1994) found that age had negative effects on travel or recreation expenditures. However, in this study age is not significantly important ($X^2=19.15$ $df=12$; and $p=0.085$) to predict the level of travel expenditure.

Table 10.3 Travel Budget by Gender

Travel Budget (RMB)	Gender		
	Male	Female	Total
Under 10,000	96	109	205
10,001 - 30,000	199	167	366
40,000 - 50,000	67	41	108
60,000 - 100,000	21	9	30
Over 100,000	7	3	10
Total	390	329	719

nb $X^2=11.19$, $df=4$, $p=0.025$, Cramer's V = 0.125, $p=0.025$

When considering the relationship between travel budget and income, it is obvious from table 10.4 that the higher the income, the more expenditure the respondents spend on overseas travel ($X^2 = 124.65$, $df= 16$, $p<0.001$). It is in line with most of the travel expenditure studies that income has been commonly used to predict consumer expenditure behaviour. For example, according to Fish and Waggle (1996), permanent income is the most significant variable for forecasting trips and spending. Jang et al. (2004) stated clearly that high-income earners among Japanese outbound travellers tend to be heavier spenders and they tend to use credit cards more frequently. Dardis et al (1981) found that income is an important factor to determine the level of expenditure.

The age of household head, education, and occupation also have significant impacts on the expenditure behaviours of US households. A similar result was found in their subsequent study (1994) that income was again found to play a major role in determining recreation expenditure. Other influencing factors included the number of adults, education, and racial background of household head. Another study by Cai, Hong, and Morrison (1995) examined the expenditure patterns of US consumers for tourism products and services. They concluded a positive relationship between disposable income and expenditure. Other socio-demographic variables including marital status, number of children, and education level of the household head were found to significantly contribute to explaining tourism expenditure behaviour.

Table 10.4 Travel Budget by Income

Travel Budget (RMB)	Income (RMB)					Total
	< 5,000	5,001-10,000	10,001-20,000	20,001-30,000	> 30,000	
Under 10,000	93	66	36	6	2	203
10,000 - 30,000	66	132	127	17	23	365
40,000 - 50,000	20	37	35	7	9	108
60,000 - 100,000	4	9	6	3	8	30
Over 100,000	2	2	0	1	5	10
Total	185	246	204	34	47	716

nb $X^2=124.65$, $df=16$, $p=0.000$, Cramer's V = 0.209, $p<0.001$

When travel budget is analysed by marital status (Table 10.5), expenditures were found to be significantly different among single and married groups ($X^2 = 30.70$ $df= 12$, $p=0.002$). Single people are more likely to spend less compared with their married counterparts. This finding indicates that marital and family status are also important in

explaining variations in travel expenditure. Among married respondents, being married with no children or with dependent children has been associated with greater spending. On the other hand, being married with grown-up children seems to disperse in different levels of expenditure. This differs from a study of Japanese outbound travellers where it was found that older travellers tend to spend more (Jang et. al, 2004).

Table 10.5 Travel Budget by Marital Status

Travel Budget (RMB)	Marital status				Total
	Single	Married, no children	Married, dependent children	Married, grown-up children	
Under 10,000	101	38	34	33	206
10,001 - 30,000	122	84	106	53	365
30,001 - 50,000	34	21	37	16	108
60,001 - 100,000	6	9	12	3	30
Over 100,000	3	2	2	3	10
Total	266	154	191	108	719

nb $X^2=30.70$, $df=12$, $p=0.002$, Cramer's V = 0.119, $p=0.002$

A number of studies (Dardis et. al, 1981; Cai et. al, 1995) have shown education has effects where higher education is associated with greater spending on overseas travel. This study has similar results ($X^2 = 42.86$ $df= 12$; and $p<0.001$), as indicated in table 10.6. Respondents with at least a Bachelor's degree are heavy spenders while lower educated travellers are more likely to spend under RMB 30,000. Again, however, it can be argued that those with higher levels of education may, on average, have higher income occupations, thus the two variables are not wholly independent.

Table 10.6 Travel Budget by Education

Travel Budget (RMB)	Education					Total
	School leaver	Diploma	Bachelor's degree	Master's or PhD degree		
Under 10,000	21	69	100	16		206
10,001 - 30,000	40	105	183	38		366
30,001 - 50,000	3	29	62	14		108
60,001 - 100,000	2	5	10	13		30
Over 100,000	1	2	5	2		10
Total	67	210	360	83		720

nb $X^2=42.86$, $df=12$, $p=0.001$, Cramer's $V = 0.141$, $p<0.001$

Indeed occupation can be an influencing factor on travel expenditure, as shown in table 10.7. Although there are a large number of company employees, they spend relatively lower amounts of money on overseas travel, when compared with public servants, managers and self-employed people. It should be pointed out that government or state-owned enterprises would pay for the travel undertaken by public servants and managerial staff in some cases, which may to some degree cause the high spending. This result was similar to the findings by Jang et al (2004) that Japanese outbound travellers with managerial jobs appear to spend more.

Table 10.7 Travel Budget by Occupation

Occupation	Travel Budget (RMB)					Total
	Under 10,000	10,000 - 30,000	40,000 - 50,000	60,000 - 100,000	Over 100,000	
Public servant	10	15	6	3	2	36
Company employee	123	199	44	11	1	378
Manager	17	51	28	13	2	111
Teacher	10	14	5	1	0	30
Self-employed	8	42	10	2	2	64
Student	24	25	9	0	1	59
Homecarer	2	5	1	0	0	8
Retired	3	6	2	0	1	12
Others	9	8	3	0	1	21
Total	206	365	108	30	10	719

nb $X^2=74.56$, $df=32$, $p=0.000$, Cramer's $V = 0.161$, $p<0.001$

In addition, some tourism research found that travel-related variables are also important in explaining variations of travel expenditures. Hsieh, Lang, and O'Leary (1997) concluded that travel party size has a significant positive impact on expenditures and that the number of children in the travel party is one factor negatively affecting the level of travel expenditure. Jang et al. (2004) examined the expenditure pattern of Japanese travellers to US. They found that travelling with companions encourages more spending. The number of nights staying has a positive impact on travel spending.

Several variables were found to have some influence on travel expenditure in this study. Nights of staying and mode of travel were examined. Chinese travellers who plan to stay longer overseas were hypothesized to incur higher expenditures ($X^2 = 80.52$ $df= 16$, $p<0.001$). Free Independent Travellers (FITs) are found to spend more than travellers in groups ($X^2 = 15.76$ $df= 8$, $p=0.046$).

Travel Mode

With regard to preferred travel mode (see Table 10.8), 42.3% of respondents were in favour of individually arranged travel. Around 23.9% said they would book all-inclusive package tour and the rest (33.8%) would choose basic package tours (accommodation and transportation are provided). An all-inclusive package tour is defined as a trip planned and paid for a single price in advance, which covers commercial transportation and accommodation, meals and sightseeing, and sometimes with an escort or guide. However, the reality is that a large majority of Chinese travel overseas in package tour. In many cases ADS regulations mean that pleasure travellers must be organised by authorised travel agencies and travel in groups. Furthermore it appears that many business and official travellers also book a tour for sake of convenience and low cost. However, there have been some changes in terms of travel mode. In 2000, 4.3 million Chinese outbound travellers adopted package tours organised by a travel agency, of 10.47 million of total outbound travellers (CNTA, 2000). In 2006, the number was 8.43 million out of 34.52 million of total outbound travellers (CNTA, 2006). It can be seen that the proportion on package tours reduced from 41% in 2000 to 24% in 2006. The trend matches with the results of this survey. Many Chinese outbound travellers wish to take free independent travel. More international F.I.T. travels from China are expected if relaxed regulation is adopted. Additionally the basic package also offers a degree of freedom whereby Chinese tourists have more ability to choose their own day-time activities once at the destination.

Table 10.8 The Preferred Travel Mode

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
All-inclusive package organized by travel agency	172	23.7	23.7
Independent travel	306	42.1	65.8
Basic package organized by travel agency (including accommodation and transportation)	248	34.2	100.0
Total	726	100.0	

As one of the interviewees (male, technician) commented,

“Both independent travel and package tours have advantages and disadvantages. Flexibility and freedom are the biggest advantage of independent travel. But there is a lot of preparation to do before travelling, which I sometimes find troublesome. That’s why many people book a tour through a travel agency. They don’t need to arrange and prepare for the travel. However, lack of flexibility is its biggest disadvantage. Later a friend recommended basic package to me. Now it is my favourite way of travelling, because I can have wonderful travel experience, at the same time, I don’t need worry about accommodation and transportation.”

The literature suggests that whether tourists choose package tours or independent travel is determined by certain variables. For example, Sheldon and Mak (1987) developed a model that showed that travellers’ decisions on independent travel versus package tours were related to certain demographic, socio-economic and travel trip characteristics.

In this study the relationship between preferred travel mode and other variables was again examined by cross-tabulation. The results in table 10.9 indicated that all demographic variables except age and occupation have a significant influence on the

selection of travel mode. More females are in favour of all-inclusive package tours than males, perhaps because they have more concerns about issue of safety and security. People who are single are more likely to book a basic package tour, while the married people with grown-up children prefer an all-inclusive package tour. Regarding household income, the group with an income of RMB 10,001-20,000 is in favour of independent travel. Furthermore, people with different education backgrounds showed significant different behaviour. Diploma holders are more likely to book an all-inclusive tour, whereas, people with Bachelor degree and over are more likely to take independent travel or book solely accommodation and transport through a travel agency.

Table 10.9 Travel mode and socio-demographic variables

Variables	All-inclusive package tours	Independent travel	Basic package	X²	P
Gender				7.987	0.018
Male	48.0%	60.2%	51.2%		
Female	52.0%	39.8%	48.8%		
Age				11.705	0.069
18-25 yrs	25.7%	28.5%	33.9%		
26-35 yrs	37.4%	38.0%	39.1%		
36-49 yrs	26.9%	28.9%	23.0%		
Over 50 yrs	9.9%	4.6%	4.0%		
Marital status				21.057	0.002
Single	32.7%	32.8%	45.7%		
Married, no children	17.0%	23.6%	21.5%		
Married, dependent children	28.7%	29.8%	20.6%		
Married, grown-up children	21.6%	13.8%	12.1%		
Income				21.089	0.007
Under RMB5000	27.1%	19.7%	32.9%		
RMB5001-10000	34.1%	33.2%	35.8%		
RMB10001-20000	27.6%	34.5%	21.5%		
RMB20001-30000	6.5%	4.6%	3.7%		
Over RMB30001	4.7%	7.9%	6.1%		
Occupation				26.200	0.051
Public servant	4.7%	3.0%	7.7%		
Manager	55.6%	51.8%	51.8%		
Company employee	14.0%	16.4%	15.0%		
Teacher	2.9%	3.0%	6.5%		
Self-employed	8.8%	11.8%	5.3%		
Student	5.3%	9.2%	9.3%		
Homemaker	1.2%	1.0%	1.2%		
Retired	2.9%	1.6%	0.8%		
Others	4.7%	2.3%	2.4%		
Education				21.559	0.001
School leaver	9.9%	10.8%	6.9%		
Diploma	41.5%	24.6%	27.0%		
Bachelor	42.1%	51.8%	52.8%		
Master or PhD	6.4%	12.8%	13.3%		

It can be seen from Table 10.10 that travel mode is closely related to trip characteristics such as length of stay in the destination, travel budget and times of overseas travel in total. All-inclusive package tours are welcomed by those who want to stay 6-10 days in destinations. As a matter of fact, the a large majority of tours promoted by travel agencies are between 5 and 12 days, including the time travelling to and returning from the destination. People spending over 15 days are most likely to travel independently. In terms of travel budget, a general trend is that the higher the budget, the more likely is a tourist to take independent travel. It is understandable because independent travel usually costs more than a package tour. In fact, one of the attractions of package travel is its lower travel cost. The travel wholesalers buy the hotel and airline products or services in large quantity so as to largely reduce the unit price. Whether or not to book a tour has something to do with the travel experience. Here travel experience is judged by time of overseas travel in total. Those who have no or little overseas travel experience (1-2 times) are most likely to book an all-inclusive tour. As familiarity with the foreign environment is required, the risks perceived by experienced travellers are not as much as those new travellers. Thus those with travel experience tend to favour the basic package tour or independent travel. This is quite consistent with Ryan's (1998) concept of the travel career ladder as it was originally stated.

Table 10.10 Travel mode and trip related characteristics

Variables	All-inclusive package tours	Independent travel	Basic package	X²	P
Length of stay				31.256	<0.001
1-5 days	11.0%	8.6%	14.4%		
6-10 days	65.5%	46.6%	44.5%		
11-15 days	17.2%	23.1%	26.8%		
15-20days	2.1%	3.4%	2.4%		
Over 20 days	4.1%	18.3%	12.0%		
Travel budget				15.763	0.046
Under RMB10000	37.2%	23.3%	29.8%		
RMB10001-30000	48.3%	52.5%	50.2%		
RMB30001-50000	10.5%	16.7%	15.9%		
RMB50001-100000	3.5%	5.2%	3.3%		
Over RMB100000	0.6%	2.3%	0.8%		
Times of overseas travel totally				13.757	0.032
1-2 times	75.2%	65.7%	63.2%		
3-5 times	18.6%	23.5%	27.8%		
6-10 times	4.8%	4.1%	6.2%		
Over 10 times	1.4%	6.7%	2.9%		

Time Arrangement

Table 10.11 shows 35% of respondents would like to travel during the three “golden weeks”—May Day, National Day and Spring Festival. It has to be mentioned that there were three “golden weeks” when the questionnaires were distributed and collected in 2007. However, the May Day holiday was cancelled from 2008, but two golden weeks still remain. The summer or winter holiday were selected by some respondents (12.3%). However, a large majority of travellers avoid the peak season and spend annual leave or usual days on travelling overseas. Annual leave holidays began to be implemented in early 2008, and will change the seasonality of Chinese outbound travel market.

Table 10.11 Preferred Traveling Time

Preferred travelling time	N	Percent	Percent of Cases
May Day	107	10.6%	14.7%
National Day	182	18.0%	25.1%
Spring Festival	72	7.1%	9.9%
Summer or Winter Holiday	124	12.3%	17.1%
Annual Leave	230	22.7%	31.7%
Weekend	35	3.5%	4.8%
Usual Day	261	25.8%	36.0%
Total	1011	100.0%	139.3%

Note: This is a question of multiple options.

However, with regard to travel time throughout the year, the desire of Chinese travellers seemed inconsistent with the reality. Ivy Alliance (2007) compiled a diagram on temporal distribution of Chinese outbound departure between 2004 and 2006 (p.69). A seasonal pattern can be seen, though the variations were not huge. The peak months for overseas travel by Chinese were in July and August as well as “Golden weeks”. According to BarOn and Hartmann, seasonality can be attributed to two basic groups of factors, one of which is labelled “natural”, while the other is labelled “institutional” (cited by Hinch & Jackson, 2000). Natural factors refer to those factors associated with regular temporal variations in natural phenomena, particularly those associated with climate and the true seasons of the year. Institutional factors are typically based on religious, school and industrial holidays. Butler (1994) extended to the five main reasons for seasonality: (1) natural factors; (2) human decision factors—the institutionized seasonality; (3) social pressure and fashion; (4) sporting season; (5) inertia & tradition. When thinking of the seasonality of Chinese travel market, one might easily associate it with institutional factors. Two of the most prevalent

institutional constraints on the scheduling of personal leisure travel are school and work commitments (Butler, 1994). It can greatly explain why many Chinese travel overseas in July, August and “Golden Weeks”. It is a recent phenomenon for a Chinese family to take a vacation overseas during Spring Festival. However, increasing numbers of Chinese choose to spend the Chinese New Year in an overseas country with the family instead of staying at home. For example, travelling to Australia and New Zealand were very popular during Chinese New Year of 2008. Due to its geographical location, Chinese people enjoy the sunshine and beach in the Southern Hemisphere, when it is very cold in many places in China during the winter.

The Length of Stay

Respondents were asked how long they would like to stay in overseas destination if there were no constraints. It can be seen from table 10.12 that more than 60% prefer to stay from 1 to 2 weeks. Nearly one third of respondents would like a longer stay (1 month or over) in a destination.

Table 10.12 The Preferred Length of Stay

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
3-5 days	18	2.5	2.5
1 week	164	22.7	25.2
2 weeks	287	39.8	65.0
1 month	147	20.4	85.4
over 1 month	105	14.6	100.0
Total	721	100.0	

Accommodation Choice

Table 10.13 shows that the 3-star hotels were most preferred by Chinese travellers (34.7%), followed by 4-star hotels (21.9%). In addition, 1-2 star, hostel and homestay were selected by some respondents (12.1%, 11.7% and 13.6% respectively). In fact, 3-

star hotels are commonly seen in the itineraries provided by tour operators. For luxury or quality products, 4 or 5-star hotels are chosen to meet the need of the high-end market. It should be noticed that some people prefer hostel and homestay rather than commercial star hotels. A motel, a new form of accommodation in China, has not emerged until recent few years. People have become familiar with it since self-drive holidays are becoming more popular in China. When talking about car rentals in overseas destinations, many respondents showed little interest. As one of the interviewees (female, 42 years old, an owner of a small company) mentioned: “I was thinking of renting a car when travelling overseas, but I didn’t do that. I felt not confident to drive in foreign countries because I didn’t know well the driving rules which might put me at risk”. The low chance of driving may contribute to the lack of interest in motels.

Table 10.13 The Preferred Accommodation

Accommodation	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2 Star hotel	88	12.1	12.2
3 Star hotel	252	34.7	46.8
4 Star hotel	159	21.9	68.7
5 Star deluxe hotel	31	4.3	73.0
Motel	12	1.7	74.7
Hostel	85	11.7	86.4
Homestay	99	13.6	100.0
Total	726	100.0	

Further analysis (Appendix 10.1-10.6) was undertaken in order to profile the travellers of each type of accommodation. Gender showed no significant difference ($X^2 = 11.55$ df= 6; and $p=0.073$), while age was an influencing factor in accommodation selection ($X^2 = 39.35$ df= 18; and $p=0.003$). Young people aged between 18-25 years old would rather stay with local residents during the trip. The young interviewees revealed that it is an excellent opportunity to know the diverse culture and communicate with local

people. The 26-35 year-old travellers prefer 5 star deluxe hotels and hostel accommodation; and 1-2 and 4 star hotels are popular among the middle-aged (36-50 years old) and seniors (over 50 years old).

We can see from Appendix 10.2 that household income also has a significant impact on the choice of accommodation ($X^2 = 54.83$, $df = 24$; and $p < 0.001$). An interesting result is that lower-income families (under RMB5000) like to stay in hostels and homestays. Hostels as a cheap form of accommodation undoubtedly attract many budget travellers. However as for the homestay, there might be different understandings between Chinese and westerners. Homestays may be as expensive as hotels in European or other overseas countries, while in China, the price is much cheaper than that of a hotel. This makes a homestay very popular among domestic tourists. This may explain why people with lower-income prefer homestays. With regard to affluent people, star hotels are their favourite choices. As noted, people with monthly household income over RMB30000 prefer 4 and 5 star hotels. Respondents with an income of RMB 20001-30000 prefer 3 star hotels, and respondents with RMB10001-20000 prefer 1-2 and 3 star hotels. It can be generally concluded that the higher the income, the higher is the star rating of hotel that is preferred.

As might be expected due to a hypothetical relationship between education and income, it can be seen from the appendix 10.3 that higher educated people preferred high star grade hotels. People having less than a diploma would like 1-2 star budget hotels, while diploma holders preferred 3 or 4 star hotels. Tourists with Bachelor's or a higher degree had a higher preference to stay in 5-star luxury hotels.

Marital status was also an important factor in selecting accommodation. For example, single people preferred 3 or 5 star hotels, hostel and homestay, Married people without children would like to stay in 4 star hotels or hostel. However, 1-2 star hotels were chosen by married travellers with children.

People with different occupation vary in accommodation selection. Budget hotels enjoyed high favour among company employees, self-employed, homemaker and retired. On the other hand, 4 or 5 star hotels were loved by public servants, managers and teachers. Students had a preference for hostel and homestay accommodation.

Interestingly, the frequency of overseas travel can be an indicator of accommodation selection, as indicated in appendix 10.6. Potential tourists were attracted more by hostel and homestay. The occasional travellers (1-2 times) preferred 1-2 star hotels, while frequent travellers preferred 3 to 5 star hotels.

Travel Agency Selection

More than half of the respondents attached importance to the quality of service provided by a travel agency (Table 10.14). Others would consider price (18.2%) and brand (14.8%) when they choose a travel agency. According to LeBlanc (1992) service quality is a determinant in the selection of travel agency. His findings revealed that the corporate image of a travel agency appears as the most decisive factor in influencing travellers' evaluation of the service quality of the agency. The qualitative study showed that repeat purchasers are more likely to choose a travel agency based on their evaluation of a past service encounter.

Table 10.14 The Selection Criteria of Travel Agency

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Service quality	460	63.4	14.7
Price	133	18.3	33.1
Reputation	107	14.7	96.4
No opinion	26	3.6	100.0
Total	726	100.0	

According to this finding, price ranks second, followed by reputation. However, it may be contrary to some previous studies where agency reputation was found to be the most important factor (Heung, 2000). Price was not that important in their findings, contrary to this study. After further analysis through Pearson chi-squared test, one answer was obtained. An interesting result showed that visitors and non-visitors are significantly different on selection criteria of a travel agency ($X^2=21.04$, $df=3$, $N=724$, $p<0.001$). Potential travellers are more concerned about price than existing travellers (See table 10.15). Phi, which indicates the strength of the association between the two variables, is 0.17 and, thus, the effect size is considered small to medium (Cohen 1988). The present study covered both existing and potential outbound travellers, while the aforementioned research only focused on existing travellers.

Table 10.15 Selection Criteria of Travel agency between Travellers and Non-travellers

Variable	n	Selection Criteria				x2	P
		Reputation	Price	Service quality	No opinion		
Travel agency selection						21.18	<0.001
Visitors	620	92	97	409	22		
Non-visitors	106	15	36	51	4		
Totals	726	107	133	460	26		

Information Source

The present study shows (Table 10.16) that almost all respondents utilise more than one source. The use of the Internet search engine was ranked first (45.2%) among all the information sources listed, followed by word of mouth (39.1%) and a travel agency (37.3%). The first item score increases to 60.1% if the other two items related to Internet were also included (Internet forum, blog and/or Internet advertising). Traditional media such as TV, radio, newspaper and magazine have lost their former dominance as information sources. With the emergence of modern technology, especially the Internet, the means of communication have greatly changed. Relevant research on tourists' information search demonstrates that Internet has become one of the most effective tools for tourists to seek information and purchase tourism-related products (Pan and Fesenmaier, 2006). This study again confirms this trend. By the end of June, 2008, the amount of Internet users in China had reached 253 million, and China had leaped to the first place in the world in terms of number of users in a nation (China Internet Network Information Center, 2008). The Internet has become an important part in people's lives, especially for those residents in big cities. The increasing role of the Internet is reflected in the reports by Du and Dai (2004, 2005). In their 2004 report, newspapers, magazines, and word of mouth were the most widely used methods, and accounted for 74% of total communications. Only 13% of the sample used Internet as an information source. However, the percentage rose sharply to 32% in 2005. Considering the dramatic development of networks in China, it is not at all surprising to find more than 40% of respondents in this study used the Internet.

Table 10.16 Information Source

Information Source	Responses		Percent of Cases
	N	Percent	
TV or radio advertising	85	5.6%	11.8%
Travel agency	271	17.7%	37.3%
Newspaper and magazine	153	10.0%	21.1%
Word of mouth	284	18.6%	39.1%
Guidebook	153	10.0%	21.1%
Internet search engine	328	21.5%	45.2%
Travel forum or blog	124	8.1%	17.1%
Internet advertising	102	6.7%	14.0%
Outdoor advertising	28	1.8%	3.9%
Total	1529	100.0%	210.6%

Note: Multiple responses were permissible on this item.

Differences were found between males and females in how they searched for travel information (Table 10.17). More females depended on more newspapers, magazines and guidebooks as well as travel forums or blogs, at statistically significant levels.

Table 10.17 Travel Information Source by Gender

	Male		Female		X ²	df	P
	n	Percent	n	Percent			
TV or radio advertising	48	6.6%	38	5.3%	0.10	1	0.752
Travel agency	149	20.6%	121	16.7%	0.16	1	0.687
Newspaper and magazine	70	9.7%	82	11.3%	5.17	1	0.023
Word of mouth	144	19.9%	139	19.2%	2.08	1	0.149
Guidebook	71	9.8%	82	11.3%	4.77	1	0.029
Internet search engine	176	24.3%	151	20.9%	0.03	1	0.846
Travel forum or blog	46	6.4%	79	10.9%	18.47	1	0.000
Internet advertising	62	8.6%	40	5.5%	2.06	1	0.151
Outdoor advertising	16	2.2%	12	1.7%	0.10	1	0.751

When different age groups were examined, a similar result was found. People of all ages identified internet search, word of mouth and travel agency as their main sources. As noted from table 10.18, young people (18-25 years old) depend more on TV or radio advertising ($X^2=16.67$, $df=3$, $p=0.001$), guidebook ($X^2=11.97$, $df=3$, $p=0.007$) and travel forum or blog ($X^2=9.18$, $df=3$, $p=0.027$) than other age groups.

Table 10.18 Travel Information Source by Age

Information source	N	X ²	df	p
TV or radio advertising		16.67	3	0.001
18-25 yrs	39			
26-35 yrs	26			
36-49 yrs	13			
>50 yrs	8			
Total	86			
Guidebook		11.97	3	0.007
18-25 yrs	62			
26-35 yrs	52			
36-49 yrs	30			
>50 yrs	9			
Total	153			
Travel forum or blog		9.18	3	0.027
18-25 yrs	48			
26-35 yrs	47			
36-49 yrs	28			
>50 yrs	2			
Total	125			

Further analysis reveals that people with different educational backgrounds showed significant differences in two items: travel agency and internet search engine (Table 10.19). Compared with other education groups, diploma holders have greater tendency to rely on a travel agency when they are seeking travel information. Another important finding is that the higher educated are more likely to use internet search engine for travel information. These findings are consistent with those reported earlier with reference to preference for packaged tours and independent travel.

Table 10.19 Travel Information Source by Education

Information source	Count	Expected	X²	df	p
Travel agency			12.20	3	0.007
Under diploma	21	25.0			
Diploma	100	79.4			
Bachelor's degree	122	134.6			
Master's or PhD degree	27	31.0			
Internet search engine			20.59	3	<0.001
Under diploma	22	30.3			
Diploma	75	96.2			
Bachelor's degree	186	163.0			
Master's or PhD degree	44	37.5			

Consumer behaviour research has identified two types of search that buyers engage in: internal and external. The former may have been acquired from past experiences which are mainly used as the basis for planning a repeat visit to a destination (Fodness & Murray, 1997). It may also be obtained passively through low-involvement learning where consumers are repeatedly exposed to marketing stimuli. The external sources can be classified in terms of whether the source is commercial or noncommercial and received from personal or impersonal communication (Money & Crotts, 2003). Nine

external sources are listed in the questionnaire. They can be grouped according to the classification shown in table 10.20.

Table 10.20 Classification of Tourism Information Sources

	Impersonal	Personal
Commercial	TV or radio advertising Guidebook Internet advertising Outdoor advertising	Travel agency
Noncommercial	Newspaper and magazine Internet search engine Travel forum or blog	Word of mouth

(Adapted from Money & Crofts, 2003)

Interestingly, the author finds that Chinese and Japanese share some similarity in information search when comparing this result with the study by Money and Crofts (2003). Japanese tourists also rely more on word of mouth and travel agents than marketer-dominated mass media (newspaper/magazine ads, TV/Radio ads, PC/electronic database, Government tourist office and state/city travel office). Commercial sources seem to be not as effective as expected. The implication for destination marketing organisations (DMOs) when they undertake promotion in Asian countries is that any “formal”, commercial campaign must be supported by an effective Internet presence.

Preferred Activities

The respondents were asked to indicate their preference among the following activities in destinations. A seven-point rating scale was adopted in this part. For preferred activities, the reliability test was shown in table 10.21. Cronbach's alpha was 0.75. Spearman-Brown and Guttman split-half coefficient were close to 0.78.

Table 10.21 Reliability Statistics of Items on Preferred Activities

N of Items	11
Cronbach's Alpha	0.750
Spearman-Brown Equal Length Coefficient	0.782
Unequal Length	0.783
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient	0.779

Table 10.22 shows the ranking of popularity of different activities for Chinese outbound travellers. "Viewing natural landscape" ranks first with mean score of 5.48, followed by "visiting places of historic interest" (5.27) and "gourmet dining" (5.18). The least attractive activities are "gambling" (2.24), "sex activity" (2.25) and "shopping" (4.15). A study by Cai et al (2001) indicates that Chinese travellers to USA prefer shopping, dining, city sightseeing, and visiting historical places. A discrepancy appears in the two studies with regard to shopping. While evidences is found from the last part of the questionnaire—in the comments from respondents, the majority of respondents mentioned concerns about excessive shopping, which was regarded as the biggest problem existing in travel agencies' service. It also confirmed the conclusion by Kim, Guo & Agrusa (2005) that "a good place for shopping" was regarded as the least important attribute of a destination for Mainland Chinese respondents.

The findings provide insights for travel operators when they create an itinerary. What should be included in the itinerary and how to allocate time on different activities? In some cases, shopping takes too high a proportion in the itinerary which causes much complaint from tourists. It can increase travel costs, and even ruin the enjoyable trip.

From the study, we see Chinese travellers were not interested in gambling and sex activity. In China gambling and sexual activity are regarded as illegal according to the law. People are very careful when talking about them. They think it is immoral to participate in gambling and sexual activity. However, we have to be careful about this finding as some respondents might not give truthful answers. Casinos in Macao and Las Vegas do attract Chinese gamblers (Cai et al, 2001). In conclusion, gambling is not an important factor to attract Chinese travellers; however, they may participate in gambling just for curiosity.

Table 10.22 Preferred Activities of Beijing Outbound Tourists (N=725)

Activities in destination	M	SD	Skew	Kurtosis
Viewing Natural landscape	5.48	1.39	-0.93	0.50
Visiting places of historic interest	5.27	1.36	-0.57	-0.10
Gourmet dining	5.18	1.44	-0.81	0.46
Attending Local festival or event	4.70	1.48	-0.51	-0.19
Seeing flora and fauna	4.64	1.56	-0.33	-0.54
Visiting museum	4.40	1.58	-0.24	-0.63
Attending theatre/opera/concerts	4.38	1.65	-0.21	-0.68
Sports	4.30	1.58	-0.13	-0.71
Shopping	4.15	1.67	-0.19	-0.74
Sex tourism activity	2.25	1.69	1.31	0.63
Gambling	2.24	1.69	1.28	0.49

A T-test was undertaken to see if there is a difference between males and females on preferred activities (Appendix 11.1). The results show that males were significantly different from females on “visiting museum” and “sports”. Inspection of the two group means indicates that the average score for “visiting museum” for females (M=4.26) is significantly lower than the score (M=4.51) for males. Similarly, females have lower score on “sports” (M=4.12) than males (M=4.44).

Statistically significant differences were found among the different age groups on three preferred activities (Appendix 11.2). Respondents over 50 years old had highest mean score on “visiting museums”, on the other hand, respondents between 36 and 49 years of age showed more preference for “visiting places of historic interest” and “seeing flora and fauna” than did other groups.

Appendix 11.3 indicates respondents with dependent or grown-up children had higher mean scores on “visiting museum”, “visiting places of historic interest” and “seeing flora and fauna”. This finding tallies closely with the previous one considering the relationship of age and life stage. Though all respondents didn’t view “sex activity” as an attractive activity to them, single and married people without children showed higher score than other age groups.

It was also found that income had a significant effect on preferred activities (Appendix 11.4). Respondents with higher incomes rated high on “visiting museums”, “shopping”, and “attending theatre/opera/concert”. People with a monthly income of RMB10,000-20,000 had highest mean score on “sports”, “visiting places of historic interest”, “gourmet dining”, “attending local festival or events” and “seeing flora and fauna”. For “sex activity”, the affluent with income over RMB30,000 had a higher score than other groups.

One-way ANOVA was employed to test if there is any significant difference between respondents of different education levels. Appendix 11.5 shows that the statistically significant differences were found on several activities. The diploma holders had the lowest score on five of the items, except “sports” and “attending local festival and event” where Master’s or PhD holders was seen. The school leaver respondents had the highest mean score on most of the items, except “attending theatre/opera/concert” where Bachelor’s degree holder scored a little higher.

Conclusion

In order to better understand how Beijing outbound pleasure travellers make decisions, this chapter examined the sub-decisions in details including accommodation choice, travel budget, time arrangement and preferred activities, etc. Some remarkable characteristics have been found. For example, tourists from Beijing do not make their travel plans long before the overseas trip. It, to some degree, increases the difficulty of the daily operation of travel agencies. But on the other hand, prompt decisions sometimes happen when a tour is booked, which implies that travel agencies might play a larger role in influencing the decisions when a potential tourist makes an enquiry. Furthermore, the impacts of socio-demographic characteristics on these sub-decisions were also investigated. The author compares the findings from the current study with the previous research.

Chapter 11 Conclusion

The last chapter provides a conclusion for the current study and recommendations for future research, and comprises four sections. The first section will summarise the main findings derived, and match them to the research objectives and propositions. The second section will discuss the implications for the industry and destination marketing, and a potential evolution pattern of the Beijing outbound market will be proposed. Next, the contribution of this thesis to the literature will be presented. The last section will focus on limitations of the current research and recommendations for future research.

Research Conclusions

This study aimed to better understand travel motivation, constraints and decision behaviour in the context of Beijing pleasure travellers to overseas destinations. These variables play a significant role in influencing future travel behaviour. Push and pull motivational factors associated with Chinese outbound pleasure travellers are discovered. The results supported previous studies that motivation is multi-dimensional. The findings indicate that there are four “push” and four “pull” motivational factors for Beijing outbound tourists. They seek to satisfy a number of distinct needs simultaneously by taking an overseas vacation. The measurement of motivation helps to identify different types of tourists so as to better understand their travel patterns. Travel constraints were also included in the research to assess the future potential of the Chinese travel market. Furthermore, decision making processes, including both destination choice and sub-decisions, and their determinants were also investigated. Destination marketers could use this information for product development and

promotion activities. This part will summarize the results. The next section will focus on the management implications derived from the results.

The structure for this section of the thesis will be based on the series of propositions outlined previously in chapter 4.

P1: Socio-demographic variables influence motivation and the demand for destination attributes and services.

The analysis in chapter 6 provided an answer for this hypothesis. The results indicated that people with different socio-demographic characteristics demonstrated significant differences on some travel motivations and demands of destination attributes. For example, young and middle aged people place a higher importance on “relaxation” needs, because they have more pressure from work or family commitments. Homecarers were “pushed” more by “relationship enhancement”. On the pull side, senior people are concerned most about the “language and safety” of the destination. School leavers scored highest on “exploration and adventure”. The most significant finding is the emergence of a unique group with the income of RMB10,000-20,000. This group is regarded as “the middle class” and further discussion about this group is provided later in this chapter.

P2: Participation or not in overseas travel is the consequence of a combined action of motivation and constraints.

The data in this analysis included both who had travelled and were going to travel overseas. The former represents “participants” and the latter were “non-participants”. Binary logistic regression was conducted to test this proposition. The results in chapter 7 indicate that both motivation and constraints play some role in whether to participate in overseas travel. The constraint factors included in the model were: financial constraints, visa application procedures, language barriers, and a lack of travel

companion. The motivations included travel for romance, sharing trip experiences with friends, and being daring and adventuresome.

P3: The three-dimension leisure constraints model is applicable to outbound tourism with regard to Chinese travel participation.

Although the three-dimension constraints model has been tested by empirical research, it is not supported in the current study. Two dimensions were found instead of three in chapter 7. It might be due to the unusual phenomenon of Chinese outbound tourism. The two dimensions were named primary (such as financial and time) and auxiliary factors (such as language, visa application, health etc.). Therefore, more tourism research is needed to provide more evidence as to whether a two or three dimensional model is pertinent.

P4: Travel frequency is influenced positively by travel motivation and negatively by travel constraints. It is also affected by the tourists' socio-demographic variables

The proposition was supported in chapter 9 by the multiple regression in which the frequency of overseas travel was the dependent variable and push motivations, travel constraints and socio-demographic characteristics were perceived as independent variables. Financial constraints were shown to be an important predictor, and had a negative effect on overseas travel frequency. The motive to seek release from work and/or study pressures was positively correlated with times of taking a holiday. In addition, income and education also contribute to the prediction of travel frequency.

P5: Destination choice is determined by psychographic motivations, destination attributes, travel constraints, trip-related features as well as socio-demographic characteristics.

According to the results in the second section of chapter 9, the above proposition was partly supported. Chinese pleasure travellers within and out-of-Asia have different

socio-demographic and trip-related characteristics, as well as psychographic motivations. The variables “travel budget”, “length of stay”, “adventure and activities” and “marital status” demonstrated positive relationships with the choice of out-of-Asia destinations. On the other hand, “relaxation” was negatively related. However, many of the variables used in this study showed no statistically significant relationship to the choice of travel within or outside of Asia.

P6: Socio-demographic variables predict travel sub-decisions, such as travel mode, accommodation, travel budget and length of stay etc.

Chapter 10 provided enough evidence to support this hypothesis. Socio-demographic variables have a significant influence on how tourists make their sub-decisions. For example, females and diploma holders are more likely to book an all-inclusive tour than males. People with the monthly income of RMB10,000-20,000 are in favour of independent travel.

Management Implication

The existence of many newly opened ADS countries has provided a wider range of destinations to choose from and has led to increasing competition between countries that target the Chinese market. As countries strive to increase their share of Chinese visitors, it becomes necessary to understand motivations and decision-making for pleasure travel. This thesis provides an insight to better understand the unique Chinese travel market, with the following implications for the travel industry. The suggestions cover a wide range of topics including product development, service improvement, market segmentation, and promotion.

Marketing strategy

Destination marketers face more challenges as the world changes quickly. Effective marketing is based on the comprehensive understanding of tourist psychology and behaviour. Hence the following are recommended.

Market segmentation

With global change, the previous approach of segmenting travelling population primarily by country of origin or geographical location may not be effective today. The Chinese outbound travel market is a highly complex market. There are hurried first-time tourists curious about foreign countries and who want to see with their own eyes what the outside world is like. Meanwhile, at the upper end of the market, tourists have developed beyond that and are now looking for high quality, unusual travel experiences and sophisticated offers. They are willing and able to spend more if they get high quality services.

Instead of viewing Chinese travellers as a homogenous group, marketers should realize that differences exist among segments, that require separate marketing strategies. With four distinct market segments obtained in chapter 8, this research confirms the belief that a key factor that groups people into segments are psychographics based on motivations and lifestyle elements. Based on motivation and destination attribute factors, the four distinct groups identified by using cluster analysis were: quiet travellers, activity seekers, mass travellers and enthusiastic travellers. Significant differences among the four groups were found for gender, education, income and occupation. Additionally, trip-related characteristics also showed significant difference among the groups.

In view of the above fact, advertising campaigns should target not only a mass audience, but a particular subset of the population. A segmented approach should be adopted by Destination Marketing Organizations. Meanwhile, it has to be considered whether using separate marketing strategies will indeed be profitable. The following is a good example from Tourism Australia.

Tourism Australia launched a campaign ---“experience seekers”. Instead of characterizing by nationality, this campaign set its main target as those “experience seekers”, who are generally well-travelled, who are looking for authenticity and adventure and who see travel as an essential part of who they are. The image of Australia included beaches, Koalas, the Harbour Bridge and the laidback Aussie attitude. All are essential to promoting the country as a unique experience, as being key unique selling points. In this way, Tourism Australia identified its target market by motivation and lifestyle rather than their culture or background. Tourism Australia has set itself a goal of attracting nine million “experience seekers” to the country by 2015, a target growth of 5.5% year-on-year (Azhar, Oct 19, 2007).

Destination Promotion

Destination marketers should adopt new promotional tools to cater to the taste of the market when changes in the market occur. Film and television can have a very positive impact on tourism visits. In fact, the powerful influence of story told through film can be a travel motivator (Hudson and Ritchie, 2006). Numerous researchers suggest that people visit film sites to view the scenery, enjoy an activity, relive an experience encountered in the film, or to obtain an element of celebrity status through association (Beeton, 2005).

One finding from this research is that some Chinese tourists are influenced by movies that motivate them to travel to that destination. “*Jewel in the Palace*,” also known as “*Dae Jang Geum*”, is one of the most popular Korean TV series. “*Jewel in the Palace*” successfully gained popularity in Southeast Asia, and sparked tourism in Korea, with many visitors from all over the world visiting Korea. There is a theme park named after the drama, “*Dae Jang Geum*”, where tourists can revisit the making of the drama. One of the interviewees (female, 24) expressed her wish to travel to South Korea. When asked of the reason, she said, “After watching *Jewel in the Palace*, I become more and more interested in Korea cuisine and want to see the splendid Palace one day.” In China, nowadays, Korean TV drama is very popular, especially among females. More and more young people are influenced by Korean fashion. It is an indirect, but effective way of attracting tourists to go to Korea and experience the real fashion.

Another example is The “*Lord of the Rings*” which captured the imagination of millions of people around the world. New Zealand is known for its diverse landscapes and spectacular scenery, and therefore, has been used as a site for film and television scenes such as *The Last Samurai*, *The Piano*, *Xena*, *Hercules* and *The Seeker*, all of which include the scenery as part of the story telling. Consequently, New Zealand has attracted tourists thanks to thousands of film-induced tourists who immerse themselves in various film locations, and enjoy the beautiful scenery. The statistics show that after the release of “*The Lord of the Rings*”, visitor numbers increased by 10% every year 1998-2003 from UK. A survey by Croy (2004) found that 65% of potential visitors noted that they were more likely to visit new Zealand as a result of the film. The scenery presented in the film was the main influencing factor. Additionally, it was found that the film raised awareness of New Zealand. Therefore, there is no doubt that

successful movies drive publicity for travel destinations. It is suggested that New Zealand seeks to host films that can appeal to the Chinese market.

Communication channel

More destination and product choices are available to Chinese tourists. With the advance of high-technology and global communication, people have more ways to obtain information about the destination. Competition has become more fierce, which forces the destination marketers to explore a more effective channel of communicating with customers. The internet has changed the world enormously, including the travel industry. People can access many sources of information by the click of a button on the computer. The current research supported this view by indicating that Chinese tourists increasingly rely on the Internet. People search for information about different destinations on the Internet before deciding where to go, or look for information in a specific destination when making a sub-decision. Therefore, in addition to traditional communication channels, such as television and tour brochures, destination countries should take advantage of the Internet to convey information to Chinese tourists. It is the way to reach the customer directly by the following measures. The tourism official website or service provider website should be presented in the Chinese language when targeting the Chinese market. Besides, travel blogs and forums as new channels for contacting customers could be established which provide an authentic environment for travellers to share their own stories and get first-hand experience from peers. Decisions can be made or changed based on the experience and feedback from others. An increasing use of the Internet for information provides opportunities to encourage enquiries before the traveller finalises their vacation destination, or converts “potentials” into “actual” through meeting their information needs. Moreover, destination marketers should undertake marketing collaboration and work together with

Chinese leading online media (such as sohu.com) or sponsor a travel-related event to increase its reputation among Chinese people.

The Emergence of Middle Class and FIT Travellers

In this study data analysis reveals a group with the monthly income of RMB10,001-20,000 whose motivation and behaviour are very different from other tourists. When exploring the social background of this group, the answer was clearer. This group is undoubtedly the emerging middle class in China.

Dramatic changes have been happening in China since the implementation of the “open-up” policy in 1979. It led to not only rapid economic development, but many changes in society. It altered social class status by bring about a brand-new society, in which people with fortune and good education background have quickly found their positions. These people have formed the middle class in China. Sociologist Bao Degong from Northeast University said, “The knowledge-based economy in China today, in addition to the central government's strategy of constructing the country with science and technologies, has boosted the rapid development of higher education, which is the incubator of the middle class” (Xinhua, Nov 16, 2004).

In China there is considerable controversy about what forms the middle class, but it usually refers to a group of people with stable incomes who are capable of purchasing private houses and cars, and can afford the costs of education and holidays. There are more than 80 million Chinese people identified under the category of the middle class. They are primarily found in the coastal areas where the economy has developed rapidly. Regarding their occupation, they are particularly owners of the small and medium private enterprises, township entrepreneurs, and the new and high-tech specialists, senior management or technical personnel in the company. The National Bureau of

Statistics announced that the first 20 years of this century will be an important period for the growth of China's middle class. The bureau estimated that about 25 per cent of the country's urban households, or 57 million households with a total of 170 million people, will become middle class families in 2010 (China Daily, Oct 27, 2004).

The emerging middle class has attracted attention from society including the media, researchers and policy makers. These people are different from other groups in travel, expectations and needs as the study demonstrated. They are not satisfied with the Chinese traditional way of overseas travel “get on, sleep, get off, take photo and leave”. They want to deeply experience the “exotic” culture of new places and be involved in various activities. Hence, there is an increasing desire for personalised tours, rather than general, “one-size-fits-all” tours – for example tours based on specialist interests/hobbies, ages and themes. The behaviours of the middle class group are more like experienced travellers. It can be seen from the development of other mature markets that as travellers become more experienced overseas, they are more likely to choose FIT travel rather than tours.

Some tourists want to travel independently, but ended with booking a package tour through a travel agency. It is difficult for an individual to get a visit visa for a vacation, for many countries have strict restrictions on the issuing of visitor visas to Chinese citizens. A young couple talked about their experience in the interview, “we wanted to have a vacation in the U.S. because we have a friend there. However, the tour agent told us we can't get the visa to the U.S., because we have never been to any foreign countries. If our visa application were rejected by the U.S., it will be a big trouble for us if we apply to other countries in the future. The best way is to book a tour to Southeast Asia countries. And we can fulfil our dream to the U.S. when we have

several visas in the passport. So we went to Thailand instead of the U.S.” It can be seen from the example that the destination selections made by Chinese tourists are influenced by the visa issue. Some people have to book a tour even if they prefer to travel independently. In this case, the basic package is a better option because it provides both comfort and flexibility. Tourists are free to arrange an itinerary once at the destination. Tourism New Zealand has launched semi-FIT tours in cooperation with several leading outbound tour operators in China. Tourists can book such a tour through a designated travel agency. The offer includes visa application and return air ticket. In some cases it includes airport pick-up, accommodation or Chinese-speaking tour guide services. Tourists can arrange by themselves the transport, accommodation, and activities at the destination. This product was first launched in Shanghai in September 2008, then extended to Beijing in December 2008, which to some degree demonstrates the success of this promotion. The small group (two individuals and over) and short visa application (only five days) provides flexibility and convenience. For those who do not want to travel in large groups, but at the same time, worry about the language and high risk of FIT, semi-FIT is their best choice.

There are still a group of FIT lovers, particularly young people in their 20's or 30's, who are fascinated about unique experiences when travelling independently. As a matter of fact, seemingly more people enjoy being a FIT. The key barrier for FIT is the visa issue. As one of the interviewees said, “At first, I thought it must be very difficult to get a visitor visa by myself. But I really didn't want to put up with the rush in group tour. So I decided to have a try and got information from official website and travel forum. Finally, I got the visa and had a great holiday in Thailand. From then on I became a passionate FIT.”

In China, the need for FIT travel is likely to grow, which means an increased need for: (1) simplification of visa application procedures; (2) information that is accessible, personally relevant and as detailed as necessary; and (3) short tours while at the destination. Again, online information from the destination is very important when planning an itinerary.

In order to attract the high-end leisure market from China, the Australian embassy launched a campaign in cooperation with VISA in 2005. It is now much easier for the Gold Visa card holders to get a visitor visa to Australia. They only need to book the air ticket and accommodation through a travel agency, and provide credit card statements as a proof in order to obtain a visa. The processing time is thus shortened to 5 working days. The simplified application greatly encourages potential visitors to apply who might otherwise worry about complicated and frustrating processes of obtaining a visa.

Improvement of service quality

The Chinese outbound travel market has long been criticized for unethical practice, from Zero-Dollar tours to commission-based shopping. Other problems have been experienced with low quality tours with little or no tourism activities, misrepresentation of tour itineraries and inexperienced tour guides. These lead to a lower level of satisfaction for tourists. Although tourists' satisfaction is not the focus of the current research, some relevant issues did emerge in the survey. The last question of the questionnaire is "provide comments for destinations and travel agencies on how to improve their service." More than half of the respondents who answered the question mentioned excessive shopping. They were unhappy with shopping every day in each foreign city they visited. Some suggest travel agencies should be honest and keep their promise to the customers. Other researchers have also noticed these issues.

Pan and Laws (2001, 2003) wrote such problems are prevalent in China's outbound market where package holidaymakers constitute a substantial market share. The group members are inexperienced travellers with minimal knowledge and have limited access to independent advice about the destination. King et.al (2006) evaluated these unethical practices and their negative impact of on the growth of the market.

However, there are some good signs. Some destinations have been aware of the problem and have made efforts to change the bad situation. For example, the New Zealand government has taken measures to solve the problem. China is New Zealand's fastest growing inbound tourism market, and it surpassed Japan and became New Zealand's fourth most significant market by tourism arrivals in February, 2008. However, satisfaction among Chinese visitors is lower than among other groups of visitors, as indicated in the survey. In order to improve quality and visitor satisfaction, the New Zealand Ministry of Tourism took over the management of New Zealand's Approved Destination Status (ADS) agreement with China in 2007 (Beehive, May 9, 2007). The system was previously administered by the Inbound Tour Operators Council of New Zealand ("ITOC").

Under the new system, New Zealand-based inbound operators can apply to operate within the new China Group Tour ADS system providing they meet 'fit and proper person' requirements and can demonstrate compliance with the new Code of Conduct for ADS Tours which was issued on 21 September 2007. The new code took effect on November 1, 2007. The ADS Monitoring Unit was established which is responsible for assessing new applicants, completing regular compliance assessments for approved operators and monitoring that tours are complying with the code and handling feedback and complaints. Those found to be in breach will face a range of sanctions from a

warning to correct the breach through to suspension of their ADS status approval. A feature of the Tourism New Zealand system was the introduction of a complaints "hotline" for Chinese Visitors (on ADS Group Tours) who wish to register a complaint or provide feedback on their experience.

With regard to the Chinese outbound market, efforts were also made from the industry in Europe. A quality label --- "The China Outbound Tourism Quality Label" (COQ) --- has been established by China Outbound Tourism Research Institute (COTRI) to identify companies, organizations and destinations who offer such specific quality for Chinese visitors for the benefit of Chinese tour operators and Chinese travellers (China Outbound Tourism Project). Applicants for the COQ Label have to go through a training program and have to submit a Self-Evaluation and an Action Plan. The global team of China Outbound experts will be working with COTRI to provide evaluations.

The COQ Label is offered at two levels: "silver" on a general level and "gold" on a branch-specific level. The COQ Label (Silver) was officially introduced in London in November 2008, the COQ Label (Gold) followed during the China Outbound Travel and Tourism Market in Beijing in April 2009. It is flexible and scalable and can therefore be likewise used for smaller and larger companies and organisations from different sectors of the tourism industry. Dominique Andre from Club Chine (Belgium), two British tour operators, China Holidays and China Business Network, as well as the Australian company TravConsult have received CQQ Label and can now proudly signal to their customers their certified knowledge of the special requirements of Chinese travellers.

Evolution of the Beijing Outbound Market

In this section the thesis proposes an evolution pattern regarding the development and characteristics of the Beijing outbound travel market. The model (Figure 11.1) is based on the summary of China outbound tourism development history and major findings from this research. Several stages have been identified, each with its own characteristics at each stage. In the early stage, starting from the early 1970s, travellers went overseas only for official or business purposes, and were usually organized by approved Chinese travel agencies. As mentioned in chapter 3, ADS package tours to Southeast Asia countries were organized by approved Chinese agencies from the early 1990s, which symbolized the genuine starting of China's outbound tourism. In the early developmental stage, the number of tourists travelling with ADS visa increased dramatically from 2000. As discussed in the introduction chapter, it was in 2000 that for the first time in history, travel for private purposes began to outstrip official business and governmental trips. Furthermore, it was much easier for Beijing residents to obtain visas and travel overseas. Afterwards, the tour operators initiated basic packages to meet the needs of those who prefer not travelling in groups in the destination. Tourists usually book air tickets and overseas accommodation through travel agencies; and the travel agencies provides visa application service as well. Germany is the first European country to allow individual Chinese to apply for a visitor visa to take a holiday.

From the results of this research, diversification has been forming in Beijing's outbound travel market. Diversification can be seen from two aspects: different types of tourists and the services and products provided by travel agencies. The emergence of FIT travellers is a recent phenomenon, and in small number. Currently government or business travellers, ADS package tourists, basic packages tourists as well as FIT

travellers are coexisting in the outbound market. However, their relative proportions have changed. As traditional groups, the number of governmental and business travellers and ADS package tourists are increasing on the whole, but their proportion in outbound travel market is decreasing. On the other hand, the number of the basic package tourists and FIT travellers are on the rise. Another feature in this stage is the participation of foreign tour operators. Foreign-funded travel services have been allowed to establish ever since China's entry into World Trade Organization. The form is either solely or joint-ventured enterprises. As discussed in chapter 3, the foreign-funded travel agencies are permitted to organize domestic and inbound groups, rather than outbound tours. However, the policy seems loose on this restriction. For example, Beijing Caissa International Travel Service, founded in 2003, is a joint-venture between German-based CAISSA Touristic AG and a China-based POLY Group. The former, as its controlling shareholder, possessed 70% of the ownership and the latter 30%. Its business covers inbound, domestic, and outbound travels. In June 2007, CAISSA Touristic AG purchased the 30% stake held by China Poly Group in the travel service company and become a solely foreign-invested company. Indeed in this way it has obtained the privilege to organize Chinese citizens to travel abroad (Beijing Business Today, 2007). The model also predicts the future direction of the Beijing outbound market development. In the later diversification stage, FIT travellers become a very important niche market. It might possibly happen that the ADS framework will be abolished when almost all countries are on the ADS list. Offshore tour operators may play a more important role in organizing and receiving tourists from China. In a word, it can be seen from the evolution model that major changes have happened in the travel modes, ease of visa application procedure, and travel service providers. Recognising these changes will help understand the market trend.

Figure 11.1 EVOLUTION OF THE BEIJING OUTBOUND MARKET

Early	Late Early	Early Developmental	Late Developmental	Early Diversification	Late Diversification
				FIT	FIT Niches
			Basic Packages	Basic Packages	Basic Packages
	ADS package	ADS package	ADS package	ADS package	ADS package
Approved Govt/Bus 'Tourists'	Approved Govt/Bus 'Tourists'	Approved Govt/Bus 'Tourists'	Approved Govt/Bus 'Tourists'	Approved Govt/Bus 'Tourists'	Approved Govt/Bus 'Tourists'
Approved Chinese Agencies	Approved Chinese Agencies	Approved Chinese Agencies	Approved Chinese Agencies	Approved Chinese Agencies	Approved Chinese Agencies
		Easier Visa	Easier Visa	Solely foreign-funded agencies	Off shore Agencies Partners Solo

Contribution to the Literature

The study contributes to the destination choice literature in several ways. First, most of the motivation literature have used either quantitative or qualitative methods. This study utilizes both approaches to better understand the Chinese travel market. Second, constraints factors were investigated in the decision-making process. The study makes a unique contribution to the tourism literature by identifying the motivation, constraints and decision-making of Beijing residents' undertaking outbound travel for pleasure. Third, the previous research about Chinese outbound travel behaviour is mostly destination specific. However, the current research does not confine itself to any specific destination in order to obtain data about the attitudes of the whole outbound travel market in Beijing.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

There are three potential limitations of this study that needs to be acknowledged. First, the sample is from Beijing, so the results may not be generalised to the whole population. It would be misleading to assume that these findings about the Beijing market apply to Chinese travellers from other cities. However, as one of the three largest outbound travellers generating cities, the findings are thought to be representative of the outbound travel market from Beijing. There is a need for future similar research to replicate this type of analysis for other cities, and to see if these findings can be substantiated.

Second, the existing tourists were classified into within-Asia and out-of-Asia. In other words, only two choices, short-haul and long-haul destinations were considered in the study. The current study suggests that socio-demographic and trip characteristics are a

more powerful predictor of destination choice than psychographic variables. However, previous research have demonstrated the significance of psychographic characteristics. A plausible explanation is that the previous studies have focused on certain destination regions or countries. Some only investigated the long-haul travellers who tend to be more homogeneous in their socio-demographic characteristics. It is most likely that psychographics play a more influencing role in that case. Therefore, future research needs to examine differences in the choices of specific countries or regions. For example, different continents can be considered with the respondents classified as travellers to Asia, Europe, Oceania, America, and Africa. Alternatively, popular countries or regions among Chinese tourists might be utilized as criterion of destination choice, such as Hong Kong, Southeast Asia, Japan and South Korea, US, UK, Australia and New Zealand.

Third, the current study examined push and pull motivations, because they are the basis of psychographic characteristics. However, the literature tends to suggest that destination image, market stimuli (promotion and advertisement) and other psychographics such as lifestyle also play a certain role in tourists' decision-making process. Therefore, researchers in this field could possibly include other factors in the future to better understand the destination choice of Chinese outbound travellers.

The knowledge about tourists' motivations enables the destination planner to be aware of the tourists' expectations and needs. However, motivations tend to change over time. It is therefore important to constantly monitor motivations through survey, which will be one of the tasks for future research, especially given the impending changes of Chinese outbound travel market discussed in this thesis.

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Appendix

Appendix 1 List of Approved Destination Status (ADS) Countries and Regions

Source: China National Tourism Administration (www.cnta.gov.cn)

No.	Country / Region	Starting Time	Scope of Outbound Tour Operation
1	Hong Kong	1983	Nationwide
2	Macao	1983	Nationwide
3	Thailand	1988	Nationwide
4	Singapore	1990	Nationwide
5	Malaysia	1990	Nationwide
6	Philippines	1992	Nationwide
7	Australia	1999	Only in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong
		July 2004	Expanded to other areas
		Aug 2006	Nationwide
8	New Zealand	1999	Only in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong
		July 2004	Expanded to other areas
		Aug 2006	Nationwide
9	South Korea	1998	Nationwide
10	Japan	2000	Only in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong
		Sept. 15 2004	Expanded to other areas
		July 25 2005	Nationwide
11	Vietnam	2000	Nationwide
12	Cambodia	2000	Nationwide
13	Burma	2000	Nationwide
14	Brunei	2000	Nationwide
15	Nepal	2002	Nationwide
16	Indonesia	2002	Nationwide
17	Malta	2002	Nationwide
18	Turkey	2002	Nationwide
19	Egypt	2002	Nationwide

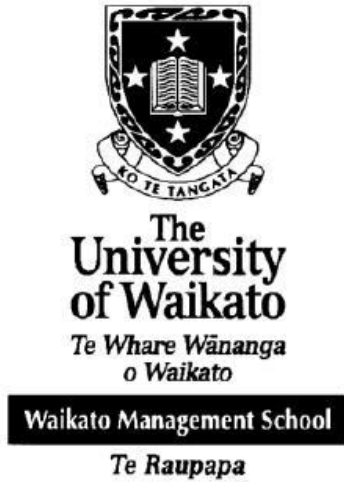
20	Germany	2003	Nationwide
21	India	2003	Nationwide
22	Maldives	2003	Nationwide
23	Sri Lanka	2003	Nationwide
24	South Africa	2003	Nationwide
25	Croatia	2003	Nationwide
26	Hungary	2003	Nationwide
27	Pakistan	2003	Nationwide
28	Cuba	2003	Nationwide
29	Greece	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
30	France	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
31	Holland	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
32	Belgium	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
33	Luxembourg	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
34	Portugal	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
35	Spain	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
36	Italy	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
37	Austria	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
38	Finland	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
39	Sweden	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
40	Czech	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
41	Estonia	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
42	Latvia	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
43	Lithuania	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
44	Poland	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
45	Slovenia	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
46	Slovakia	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
47	Cyprus	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
48	Denmark	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
49	Finland	Sept. 2004	Nationwide

50	Ireland	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
51	Norway	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
52	Romania	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
53	Switzerland	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
54	Liechtenstein	Sept. 2004	Nationwide
55	Ethiopia	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
56	Zimbabwe	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
57	Tanzania	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
58	Mauritius	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
59	Tunisia	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
60	Seychelles	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
61	Kenya	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
62	Zambia	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
63	Jordan	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
64	Northern Mariana Islands	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
65	Fiji	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
66	Vanuatu	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
67	Britain	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
68	Chile	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
69	Jamaica	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
70	Russia	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
71	Brazil	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
72	Mexico	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
73	Peru	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
74	Antigua and Barbuda	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
75	Barbados	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
76	Laos	Dec.15 2004	Nationwide
77	Mongolia	Mar. 1 2006	Nationwide
78	Tonga	Mar. 1 2006	Nationwide
79	Grenada	Mar. 1 2006	Nationwide

80	Bahamas	Mar. 1 2006	Nationwide
81	Argentina	Jan. 1 2007	Nationwide
82	Venezuela	Jan. 1 2007	Nationwide
83	Uganda	Jan. 1 2007	Nationwide
84	Bangladesh	Jan. 1 2007	Nationwide
85	Andorra	Jan. 1 2007	Nationwide
86	Bulgaria	Oct. 15 2007	Nationwide
87	Morocco	Oct. 15 2007	Nationwide
88	Monaco	Oct. 15 2007	Nationwide
89	Syria	Oct. 15 2007	Nationwide
90	Oman	Oct. 15 2007	Nationwide
91	Namibia	Oct. 15 2007	Nationwide
92	United States	June 17 2008	Only in Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai, Jiangsu Zhejiang, Hunan, Hubei, Hebei, Guangdong
93	Taiwan	July 18 2008	In 25 provinces
94	French Polynesia	Sep. 15 2008	Nationwide
95	Israel	Sep. 15 2008	Nationwide
96	Republic of Cape Verde	Sep. 15 2009	Nationwide
97	Guyana	Sep. 15 2009	Nationwide
98	Republic of Montenegro	Sep. 15 2009	Nationwide
99	Republic of Ghana	Sep. 15 2009	Nationwide
100	Ecuador	Sep. 15 2009	Nationwide
101	Dominic	Sep. 15 2009	Nationwide
102	United Arab Emirates	Sep. 15 2009	Nationwide
103	Papau New Guinea	Sep. 15 2009	Nationwide
104	Republic of Mali	Sep. 15 2009	Nationwide

Appendix 2 Questionnaire (English version)

Beijing Outbound Tourism



This questionnaire is part of a doctoral study of Beijing outbound tourism. You are randomly selected. It would be appreciated if the questionnaire could be completed. The questionnaire takes approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. Participation is voluntary, you can withdraw at any time and all information you provide will be treated confidentially. Your name and address is not required. Any queries about this survey can be directed to Professor Chris Ryan at caryan@waikato.ac.nz. Thank you in advance for your support.

Part 1: General Information Relating to Your Travel

01. Have you taken an overseas holiday or sightseeing? Yes No

If the answer is “yes”, please go to **Question 02**.

If the answer is “no”, please go to **Question 06**.

02. Where did you go on your last trip away from home? _____

03. For how many nights were you away from home? _____

04. In total how many times have you travelled to an overseas country in the last five years? _____

05. What overseas countries or regions have you ever been to? _____

06. What is the likelihood of you visiting to other countries within the next 12 months?

Definitely not Unlikely Neither likely nor unlikely Likely Definitely

07. Of all the overseas destinations that would be available for you to visit in the next 12 months, please state one destination that you would most likely to visit _____.

Part 2: Your Travel Decision and Plan

01. If you have, or were to make a plan for travelling overseas, how long before you travel do you tend to plan
- 1 week
 - 2-3 weeks
 - 1 months
 - 2-3 months
 - 4-6 months
 - half a year - a year
 - over a year
02. How much would you expect to spend on an overseas trip?
- Under RMB 10,000
 - RMB 10,000—30,000
 - RMB 40,000—50,000
 - RMB 60,000—100,000
 - Over RMB 100,000
03. Which type of overseas travel do you prefer?
- Organized tour by travel agency
 - Independent travel
 - Basic tour package (including air ticket and accommodation)
04. When do you plan to travel overseas? (Tick all that can apply)
- “May Day” holiday
 - “National Day” holiday
 - “Spring Festival” holiday
 - Summer or winter holiday
 - Annual leave
 - Weekends
 - Weekdays
05. How long would you prefer to spend on an overseas travel if there were no constraints?
- 3-5 days
 - 1 week
 - 2 weeks
 - 1 month
 - over 1 month
06. What accommodation would you prefer in an overseas destination?
- 1-2 Star Hotel
 - 3 Star Hotel
 - 4 Star Hotel
 - 5 Star Deluxe Hotel
 - Motel
 - Hostel
 - Homestay
07. What attracts you when you choose a travel agency?
- Brand
 - Price
 - Service
 - No opinion
08. What are the information sources that you may use when planning overseas travel? (Tick all that can apply)
- TV or radio advertising
 - Travel agency
 - Newspaper and magazine
 - Word of mouth
 - Guidebook
 - Internet search engine
 - Travel forum and blog
 - Internet advertising
 - Outdoor advertising

Part 3: Reasons for Travelling Overseas

Can you please assume that you are able to travel overseas? Using a scale where

- 1=of no importance
- 2=slightly important
- 3=of some importance
- 4 = moderately important
- 5=important
- 6=very important
- 7=extremely important

Can you please indicate how important each of the following reasons might be **for you personally by circling the number that best represents your opinion?**

❖ Releasing work / study pressure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Facilitating family and kinship ties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Learning about other cultures and people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Escaping from daily routine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Better understanding myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Just relaxing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Exploring new things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ For romance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Spending time with family or friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Broadening my horizons	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Finding thrill or excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Experiencing a different lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Sharing trip experience with friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Meeting new people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Increasing knowledge about a foreign destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Seeing something different	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Being daring and adventuresome	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 4 Destination and Travel Features

Can you please indicate how important each of the following reasons might be **for you personally by circling the number that best represents your opinion?** Using a scale where

- 1=of no importance
- 2=slightly important
- 3=of some importance
- 4 = moderately important
- 5=important
- 6=very important
- 7=extremely important

❖ Comfortable and convenient transport	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Nice weather	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Outdoor activities such as hiking or climbing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Outstanding natural scenery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ A place that is not too “touristy”	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Availability of comprehensive tourist information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Good ocean beaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Close to other destinations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Historical buildings and places	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Friendly locals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Shopping areas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Adventure activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Good cafes or restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Arts and cultural attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Comfortable and clean accommodation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ The best deal I could get	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Tour guide who speaks Chinese	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Feel safe in destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Chinese character on signs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ A variety of souvenirs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Exciting nightlife	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 5 Activities at a Place

Now please consider the possible activities at an overseas destination. Using the scale below can you please indicate **how attractive to you personally** are these activities by circling the number that best represents your opinion.

- 1=of no attraction
- 2=slightly attractive
- 3=of some attraction
- 4=moderately attractive
- 5=attractive
- 6=very attractive
- 7=extremely attractive

❖	Visiting museum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖	Shopping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖	Sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖	Visiting places of historic interest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖	Gourmet dining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖	Sex activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖	Attending Local festival or event	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖	Viewing Natural landscape and spectacle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖	Gambling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖	Attending theatre/opera/concerts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖	Seeing flora and fauna	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 6 Reasons for NOT Travelling Overseas

Can you please indicate to what extent do you agree with each of the following reasons?
Using a scale where

1=Strongly disagree

2=Disagree

3=Somewhat disagree

4 = Neither agree or disagree

5=Somewhat agree

6=Agree

7=Strongly agree

❖ When it comes to overseas travel, I find I simply do not have enough time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ My own health can deter me from overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ It is too costly to take overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ The financial condition is such that it does not allow me to travel overseas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ My partner or family does not like me travelling overseas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ I don't have enough information about overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ I do have concerns about personal safety for travelling outside China.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Visa procedure can deter me from overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ My family and friends don't like travel overseas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ I always have too much work to do, which prevent me from overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ Language barrier can deter me from overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ It is not easy to find someone travelling with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 7: About Yourself

01. What is your gender? Male Female
02. What is your age group?
 18-25 26-35 36-49 50-64 over 65
03. Which of the following best described your present marital status?
 Single Married, no children
 Married, dependent children Married, grown-up children
04. What is your monthly household income?
 Under 5000 RMB 5001-10000 RMB 10001-20000 RMB
 20001-30000 RMB 30001 RMB and over
05. What is your occupation?
 Public servant Company employee Manager Teacher
 Self-employed Student Homecarer Retired Others
06. Which of the following best described your highest completed education?
 Secondary school leaver Diploma
 Bachelor's degree Master's or PhD degree

Is there anything else you would like to tell us about how destination and travel agencies could develop to better cater to your needs? If so, please use this space for that purpose.

Many thanks for taking the time to complete this survey.

Appendix 3 Questionnaire (Chinese Version)

北京居民出境游调查问卷



The
University
of Waikato
Te Whare Wānanga
o Waikato

Waikato Management School

Te Raupapa

此问卷是关于北京居民出境游的调查。对于您的参与和支持，我们深表感谢。填写问卷需要 20-30 分钟左右。我们将对问卷中填写的所有信息保密，且只用于学术研究。您不需要填写姓名、地址或联系方式等个人信息。如果您有任何问题，请与博士生导师 Chris Ryan 教授联系：caryan@waikato.ac.nz

第一部分 有关您出境旅游的信息

01. 您是否曾出境旅游过？ 是 否

如果您选择“是”，请转到题目 02 作答。

如果您选择“否”，请转到题目 06 作答。

02. 您最近一次出境旅游是去哪个国家或地区？ _____

03. 您这次出国旅游在目的地呆了多长时间？ _____

04. 在过去的五年中，您共出国旅游过几次？ _____

05. 您曾经去过哪些国家或地区旅游？ _____

06. 在未来的 12 个月中，您是否会出国旅游？

(1) 一定不会 (2) 不太可能 (3) 不确定 (4) 很有可能 (5) 一定会

07. 在所有的旅游目的地中，未来的 12 个月中，您最想去的一个旅游目的地是 _____

第二部分 有关您的旅游决策和计划

01. 如果您已经或打算出国旅游，通常会提前多久制定出国旅游计划？

- (1) 1周 (2) 2-3周 (3) 1个月 (4) 2-3个月
(5) 4-6个月 (6) 半年-1年 (7) 1年以上

02. 您通常的旅游预算是人均多少元？

- (1) 1万元以下 (2) 1万—3万元 (3) 4万—5万元
(4) 6万—10万元 (5) 10万元以上

03. 您出国游倾向于采用哪种旅行方式？

- (1) 跟旅游团 (2) 自助游 (3) 半自助游（通过旅行社预订机票和住宿）

04. 您通常会选择在什么时候出国旅游？（可多选）

- (1) “五一”黄金周 (2) “十一”黄金周 (3) “春节”黄金周
(4) 暑假或寒假 (5) 年假 (6) 周末 (7) 平时

05. 如果没有任何限制，您希望出国旅行的时间为多久？

- (1) 3-5天 (2) 1周 (3) 2周 (4) 1个月 (5) 1个月以上

06. 您出国旅游通常选择哪类住宿设施？

- (1) 1-2星酒店 (2) 3星酒店 (3) 4星酒店 (4) 5星豪华酒店
(5) 汽车旅馆 (6) 青年旅馆 (7) 当地居民家里

07. 当您选择旅行社时，什么是吸引您的主要原因？

- (1) 品牌好 (2) 价格便宜 (3) 服务好 (4) 无所谓

08. 您在安排出国旅游时，会选择哪些渠道获取信息？（可多选）

- (1) 电视或广播广告 (2) 旅行社 (3) 报纸杂志
(4) 熟人的推荐 (5) 旅行指南书籍 (7) 因特网搜索
(7) 旅游论坛或博客 (8) 因特网广告 (9) 户外广告

第三部分 促使您出国旅游的原因

以下是关于您出境游的原因，请参考以下的数字标准，分别选择您认为适当的数字。

1=极不重要 2=不重要 3=有些重要 4=一般重要 5=重要 6=很重要 7=极其重要

❖ 从繁忙的工作或学习中摆脱出来	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 增进与家人或亲朋的感情	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 了解其它文化和民族	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 远离日常生活的繁琐	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 更好地了解自己	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 为了放松	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 探索新奇事物	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 追求浪漫	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 与家人或朋友共度美好时光	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 开阔视野	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 寻求兴奋和刺激	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 体验不同的生活方式	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 可以和朋友分享旅行经历	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 在旅行时结识新朋友	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 增加对国外的了解	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 看看其它地方不同的事物	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 实现大胆的探险	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第四部分 有关旅游目的地的情况

以下是关于旅游目的地的情况，请根据它们对您的重要性，参考以下的数字标准，分别选择您认为适当的数字。

1=极不重要 2=不重要 3=有些重要 4=一般重要 5=重要 6=很重要 7=极其重要

❖ 舒适便利的交通工具	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 气候适宜	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 户外活动（如徒步、爬山）	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 优美的自然风光	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 旅游气息不过于浓厚	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 提供全面的旅游信息	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 宜人的海滩	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 靠近其它目的地国家	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 历史名胜古迹	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 当地居民很友好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 购物场所	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 探险活动	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 特色咖啡厅或餐厅	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 艺术文化活动	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 舒适卫生的住宿条件	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 物有所值	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 会讲中文的导游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 在目的地有安全感	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 指示牌上有中文说明	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 旅游纪念品种类多	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 丰富的夜生活	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第五部分 您感兴趣的旅游活动

以下是关于旅游活动对您吸引力，请参考以下的数字标准，分别选择您认为适当的数字。

1=极不吸引 2=不吸引 3=有些吸引 4=一般吸引 5=吸引 6=很吸引 7=极其吸引

❖ 参观博物馆	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 购物	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 运动	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 参观名胜古迹	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 品尝美食	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 色情活动	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 参加当地节庆活动	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 欣赏自然风光	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 赌博	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 观看歌剧/音乐会/演出	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 观赏动植物	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第六部分 影响您出国旅游的因素

以下是关于不出国旅游的原因，请参考以下的数字标准，分别选择您认为适当的数字。

1=极不同意 2=不同意 3=有些同意 4=一般同意 5=同意 6=很同意 7=极其同意

❖ 谈到出国旅游，我实在没有时间。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 我的身体状况使我不能出国旅游。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 出国旅游花费太多。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 因为经济条件限制，我不能出国旅游。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 我的配偶或家人不愿意让我出国旅游。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 我没有国外的相关信息，这阻碍我出国旅游。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 对于出国旅游，我很担心人身安全。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 签证问题阻碍我去国外旅游。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 我的家人和朋友不喜欢出国旅游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 因工作压力大，我没有时间出国旅游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 外语水平阻碍我去国外旅游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
❖ 找不到合适的同伴跟我一起出国旅游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第七部分 有关您的个人信息

01. 您的性别 (1) 男 (2) 女

02. 您的年龄

(1) 18-25 岁 (2) 26-35 岁 (3) 36-49 岁 (4) 50-64 岁 (5) 65 岁以上

03. 您的家庭结构

(1) 单身 (2) 结婚, 没有孩子 (3) 结婚, 孩子未成年 (4) 结婚, 孩子已成年

04. 您的家庭月收入

(1) 5000 元以下 (2) 5000-10000 元 (3) 10000-20000 元

(4) 20000-30000 元 (5) 30000 元以上

05. 您的职业

(1) 公务员 (2) 公司职员 (3) 经理 (4) 教师

(5) 自己创业 (6) 学生 (7) 家庭主妇 (8) 已退休 (9) 其它

06. 您的教育程度

(1) 初高中毕业及以下 (2) 大专 (3) 本科 (4) 研究生以上

如果您对旅行社或旅游目的地所提供的服务有什么要求, 请写下来。

再次感谢您利用宝贵的时间来填写这份问卷!

Appendix 4 Item-total Correlation for Push Factors

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Releasing work/study pressure	73.54	157.49	0.53	0.84
Facilitate kinship or family ties	73.77	164.35	0.43	0.85
Learning about other cultures & people	73.63	161.90	0.49	0.84
Escaping from daily routine	73.99	160.82	0.43	0.85
Better understand myself	74.35	157.48	0.49	0.84
Just relaxing	73.82	159.48	0.49	0.84
Exploring new things	74.35	153.88	0.47	0.85
For romance	74.26	153.07	0.59	0.84
Spending time with family and friends	73.26	158.67	0.55	0.84
Broadening one's vision	73.39	161.26	0.50	0.84
Finding thrill or excitement	74.72	156.32	0.45	0.85
Experience a different lifestyle	73.98	164.73	0.40	0.85
Sharing trip experience with friends	73.61	164.34	0.41	0.85
Meeting new people	74.11	160.40	0.46	0.85
Increasing knowledge about a foreign destination	73.67	165.58	0.41	0.85
Seeing something different	73.52	161.22	0.51	0.84
Being daring and adventuresome	75.05	161.29	0.36	0.85

Appendix 5 Item-total Correlation for Pull Factors

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Comfortable and convenient transport	99.4455	268.518	.573	.883
Nice weather	99.4221	269.689	.564	.883
Outdoor activities such as hiking or climbing	99.7683	271.427	.475	.885
Outstanding natural scenery	99.1834	275.479	.442	.886
A place that is not too "touristy"	99.8455	267.708	.555	.883
Availability of comprehensive tourist information	99.3945	270.803	.534	.884
Good ocean beaches	99.4621	269.506	.543	.884
Close to other destinations	100.1503	268.078	.512	.884
Historical buildings and places	99.8041	269.335	.535	.884
Friendly locals	99.6510	268.498	.529	.884
Shopping	100.3090	267.998	.453	.886
Adventure activities	100.5379	264.917	.494	.885
Good cafes or restaurant	100.2221	262.013	.586	.882
Arts and cultural attractions	100.2055	271.854	.434	.886
Comfort and clean accommodations	99.2469	271.625	.530	.884
The best deal I could get	99.3572	272.393	.469	.885
Tour guide who speaks Chinese	99.6759	269.609	.472	.885
Feel safe in destination	99.2331	274.353	.427	.887
Chinese character on signs	99.8814	270.356	.450	.886
A variety of souvenirs	100.5862	268.467	.444	.887
Exciting nightlife	100.6455	264.351	.473	.886

Appendix 6 The Demographic Difference between Participants and Non-participants

	Non-participants	Participants	df	X ²	P
Gender			1	3.18	0.074
Male	55.60%	46.20%			
Female	44.40%	53.80%			
Age			3	34.9	<0.001
18-25 years	25.80%	52.90%			
26-35 years	41.00%	22.10%			
36-50 years	27.90%	17.30%			
Over 50 years	5.30%	7.70%			
Marital status					
Single	34.40%	53.80%	3	15.0	0.002
Married, no children	22.50%	14.40%			
Married, dependent children	27.80%	18.30%			
Married, grown-up children	15.30%	13.50%			
Monthly income			4	61.2	<0.001
Under RMB5,000	21.00%	55.90%			
RMB5,000-10,000	35.40%	27.50%			
RMB10,000-20,000	31.90%	7.80%			
RMB20,000-30,000	5.00%	2.90%			
Over RMB 30,000	6.60%	5.90%			
Education background			3	3.3	0.348
School leaver	9.50%	7.70%			
Diploma	29.00%	31.70%			
Bachelor	49.20%	53.80%			
Master or PhD	12.30%	6.70%			
Occupation			3	73.5	<0.001
Public servant	4.80%	5.80%			
Company employee	54.40%	42.30%			
Manager	17.30%	3.80%			
Teacher	4.00%	4.80%			
Self-employed	9.00%	7.70%			
Student	5.00%	27.90%			
Homecarer	1.30%	0.00%			
Retired	1.50%	2.90%			
Other	2.60%	4.80%			

Appendix 7 The Role of Constraints and Motivations in Explaining Participation

	Model 1		Model 2	
	<i>P</i>	β	<i>p</i>	β
Motivations				
Releasing work/study pressure	0.544	-0.062	0.709	0.043
Facilitate kinship or family ties	0.625	0.056	0.775	0.035
Learning about other cultures and people	0.158	0.160	0.098	0.204
Escaping from daily routine	0.209	0.108	0.145	0.131
Better understanding myself	0.460	-0.067	0.527	-0.061
Just relaxing	0.145	-0.143	0.486	-0.074
Exploring new things	0.097	0.12	0.201	0.104
For romance	0.011	0.223	0.021	0.216
Spending time with family and friends	0.082	-0.217	0.054	-0.253
Broadening one's vision	0.575	0.073	0.76	0.043
Finding thrill or excitement	0.357	-0.076	0.25	-0.105
Experience a different lifestyle	0.373	-0.092	0.715	-0.041
Share trip experience with friends	0.077	0.197	0.035	0.258
Increasing knowledge about a foreign destination	0.785	-0.034	0.770	-0.040
Seeing something different	0.957	0.006	0.784	0.034
Being daring and adventuresome	0.014	-0.197	0.004	-0.252
Constraints				
No enough time to travel abroad			0.937	0.008
Health problem			0.554	-0.055
It is costly to take overseas travel			0.117	-0.163
Financial condition			0.003	-0.297
My partner or family does not like me travelling			0.803	-0.032
No enough information about overseas travel			0.394	0.095
Personal safety concern			0.285	0.092
Visa application can deter me from travelling			0.012	-0.245
My family and friends don't like travelling			0.428	-0.097
Too much work to do			0.431	0.079
Language barrier			0.04	-0.167
Hard to find someone to travel with			0	0.652
Model R²	0.074		0.221	
Model p-value	0.016		<0.001	

Appendix 8 Correlation Matrix of Push, Pull, Constraints, Trip-related and Demographic Variables

	push1	push2	push3	push4	Pull1	Pull2	Pull3	Pull4	Drag1	Drag2	Length of stay	Budget	Travel mode	Gender	age	marital	Income	occupation	education
Push1	1																		
Push2	-0.122	1																	
Push3	-0.148	0.027	1																
Push4	-0.088	-0.286	-0.343	1															
Pull1	-0.01	-0.274	0.094	-0.133	1														
Pull2	-0.062	0.06	-0.14	-0.195	-0.026	1													
Pull3	-0.132	-0.078	-0.036	-0.09	-0.237	-0.272	1												
Pull4	-0.146	0.03	0.011	0.051	-0.139	-0.393	-0.071	1											
Drag1	0.066	-0.157	-0.049	0.059	-0.15	0.05	0.055	-0.171	1										
Drag2	-0.135	0.003	0.035	0.028	0.13	-0.183	-0.057	0.145	-0.478	1									
Length of stay	0.004	0.04	0.068	-0.024	0.057	0.051	-0.058	0.025	0.029	-0.018	1								
Budget	-0.051	-0.026	-0.002	0.042	-0.044	-0.008	0.027	0.097	-0.106	0.136	-0.277	1							
Travel modes	-0.072	0.035	0.023	-0.013	0.024	-0.052	0.021	0.003	-0.058	0.109	-0.07	0.012	1						
Gender	-0.001	0.049	-0.025	0.044	0.015	-0.06	-0.012	0.087	-0.036	0.007	-0.055	0.139	0.035	1					
Age	-0.016	-0.015	0.007	-0.002	0.061	-0.05	0.001	-0.039	0.052	-0.02	-0.016	0.024	0.017	0.111	1				
Marital status	0.003	0.048	0.011	0.073	-0.072	0.029	-0.024	-0.019	-0.04	0.048	0.021	-0.003	0.062	0	-0.761	1			
Income	-0.008	0.008	0.09	-0.103	-0.109	0.055	-0.03	0.079	-0.061	-0.014	0.046	-0.25	0.048	-0.066	-0.165	-0.019	1		
Occupation	-0.052	0.057	-0.103	0.03	-0.058	-0.021	0.043	0.017	0.03	-0.093	-0.016	-0.052	-0.002	-0.023	-0.051	0.013	0.053	1	
Education	-0.048	0.062	0.048	0.008	-0.013	-0.004	-0.048	0.157	0.083	-0.063	-0.004	-0.024	-0.148	0.111	-0.083	0.156	-0.169	0.227	1

Appendix 9 The Relationship between Planning Time and Demographic Variables, Travel Mode

	<1 month	1-3 months	>4 months	X ²	p	Cramer's V
Gender				1.890	0.389	0.051
Male	50.00%	54.90%	58.80%			
Female	50.00%	45.10%	41.30%			
Age				18.151	0.006	0.112
18-25 yrs	39.8	28.4	17.5			
26-35 yrs	32.3	40.2	38.8			
36-50 yrs	24.8	25.7	33.8			
Over 50 yrs	3.1	5.8	10			
Marital Status				21.038	0.002	0.121
Single	47.2	35.7	26.3			
Married, no children	20.5	21.8	20			
Married, dependent children	15.5	29.3	31.3			
Married, grown-up children	16.8	13.3	22.5			
Monthly income				29.673	<0.001	0.144
Under RMB5,000	35.6	21.4	34.2			
RMB5,000-10,000	30.6	33.9	44.3			
RMB10,000-20,000	20.6	33.3	15.2			
RMB20,000-30,000	5.6	5	1.3			
Over RMB 30,000	7.5	6.4	5.1			
Education background				1.408	0.965	0.031
School leaver	9.3	9.5	7.5			
Diploma	28.6	29.4	31.3			
Bachelor	48.4	50.3	50			
Master or PhD	13.7	10.8	11.3			
Travel mode				19.912	0.001	0.117
All-inclusive package tour	20.9	23.8	28.8			
Independent travel	44.8	44.9	20			
Basic package tour	34.4	31.3	51.3			

Appendix 10.1 The Preferred Accommodation by Age

Accommodation	Age				Total
	18-25 yrs	26-35 yrs	36-50 yrs	> 50 yrs	
1-2 Star hotel	15	32	34	7	88
3 Star hotel	80	97	61	13	251
4 Star hotel	37	60	50	12	159
5 Star deluxe hotel	13	10	7	1	31
Motel	5	3	3	1	12
Hostel	25	45	14	0	84
Homestay	40	30	22	7	99
Total	206	365	108	30	719

nb $X^2=39.35$, $df=18$, $p=0.003$, Cramer's $V = 0.135$, $p=0.003$

Appendix 10.2 The Preferred Accommodation by Income

Accommodation	Income (RMB)					Total
	Under 5,000	5,001-10,000	10,001-20,000	20,001-30,000	Over 30,000	
1-2 Star hotel	10	34	41	1	2	88
3 Star hotel	66	78	74	15	16	249
4 Star hotel	33	68	38	6	13	158
5 Star deluxe hotel	9	13	3	1	5	31
Motel	5	3	2	1	1	12
Hostel	31	23	23	4	2	83
Homestay	33	28	24	6	8	99
Total	187	247	205	34	47	720

nb $X^2=54.83$, $df=24$, $p=0.000$, Cramer's $V = 0.138$, $p<0.001$

Appendix 10.3 The Preferred Accommodation by Education

Accommodation	Education				Total
	School leaver	Diploma	Bachelor's degree	Master's or PhD degree	
1-2 Star hotel	22	23	41	2	88
3 Star hotel	18	83	124	26	251
4 Star hotel	6	59	75	19	159
5 Star deluxe hotel	3	6	17	5	31
Motel	2	3	5	2	12
Hostel	5	20	43	16	84
Homestay	11	19	56	13	99
Total	67	213	361	83	724

nb $X^2=55.99$, $df=18$, $p=0.000$, Cramer's $V = 0.161$, $p<0.001$

Appendix 10.4 The Preferred Accommodation by Marital Status

Accommodation	Marital Status				Total
	Single	Married, no children	Married, dependent children	Married, grown-up children	
1-2 Star hotel	16	15	36	21	88
3 Star hotel	104	49	64	34	251
4 Star hotel	51	39	39	30	159
5 Star deluxe hotel	15	7	7	2	31
Motel	5	2	3	2	12
Hostel	35	20	21	7	83
Homestay	43	22	21	13	99
Total	269	154	191	109	723

nb $X^2=35.13$, $df=18$, $p=0.009$, Cramer's $V = 0.127$, $p=0.009$

Appendix 10.5 The Preferred Accommodation by Occupation

Occupation	Accommodation							Total
	1-2 star hotel	3 star hotel	4 star hotel	5 star hotel	Motel	Hostel	Homestay	
Public servant	2	9	13	0	2	6	4	36
Company employee	54	144	76	15	5	43	44	381
Manager	8	39	35	8	2	7	12	111
Teacher	1	9	8	0	0	7	5	30
Self-employed	16	18	12	3	0	6	9	64
Student	1	19	9	2	1	12	16	60
Homecarer	2	2	0	0	1	1	2	8
Retired	4	2	2	1	1	1	1	12
Others	0	9	3	2	0	1	6	21
Total	88	251	158	30	12	84	99	723

nb $X^2=94.72$, $df=48$, $p=0.000$, Cramer's $V = 0.148$, $p<0.001$

Appendix 10.6 The preferred Accommodation by Frequency of Overseas Travel

Accommodation	Frequency of overseas travel					Total
	Potential tourists	1-2 times	3-5 times	6-10 times	Over 10 times	
1-2 Star hotel	7	74	7	0	0	88
3 Star hotel	36	143	54	13	6	252
4 Star hotel	14	77	48	10	10	159
5 Star deluxe hotel	4	12	10	1	4	31
Motel	2	6	3	0	1	12
Hostel	18	51	11	4	1	85
Homestay	23	54	15	3	4	99
Total	104	417	148	31	26	726

nb $X^2=73.71$, $df=24$, $p=0.000$, Cramer's $V = 0.159$, $p<0.001$

Appendix 11.1 Comparison of Preferred Activities for Males and Females

	M	SD	t	df	<i>p</i>
Visiting museum			2.14	720	0.032
Male	4.51	1.60			
Female	4.26	1.54			
Total	4.40	1.58			
Sports			2.67	720	0.008
Male	4.44	1.61			
Female	4.12	1.53			
Total	4.30	1.58			

Appendix 11.2 Comparison of Preferred Activities for Different Age Groups

	M	SD	F	df	<i>P</i>
Visiting museum			14.48	722	<0.001
18-25 years	3.93	1.62			
26-35 years	4.37	1.52			
36-49 years	4.82	1.49			
>50 years	5.10	1.36			
Total	4.40	1.58			
Visit places of historic interest			8.60	722	<0.001
18-25 years	4.91	1.42			
26-35 years	5.31	1.30			
36-49 years	5.57	1.26			
>50 years	5.41	1.48			
Total	5.27	1.36			
Seeing flora and fauna			5.95	722	0.001
18-25 years	4.35	1.60			
26-35 years	4.63	1.51			
36-49 years	5.00	1.51			
>50 years	4.54	1.72			
Total	4.64	1.57			

Appendix 11.3 Comparison of Preferred Activities for Different Life Cycle Groups

	M	SD	F	df	P
Visiting museum			12.82	721	<0.001
Single	4.01	1.64			
Married, no children	4.31	1.46			
Married, dependent children	4.76	1.48			
Married, grow-up children	4.87	1.52			
Total	4.40	1.58			
Visiting places of historic interest			6.77	721	<0.001
Single	5.04	1.36			
Married, no children	5.14	1.35			
Married, dependent children	5.55	1.26			
Married, grow-up children	5.49	1.42			
Total	5.27	1.36			
Sex activity			3.27	721	0.021
Single	2.34	1.71			
Married, no children	2.46	1.76			
Married, dependent children	2.21	1.70			
Married, grow-up children	1.83	1.47			
Total	2.25	1.69			
Seeing flora and fauna			4.99	721	0.002
Single	4.39	1.60			
Married, no children	4.59	1.44			
Married, dependent children	4.88	1.55			
Married, grow-up children	4.91	1.61			
Total	4.64	1.57			

Appendix 11.4 Comparison of Preferred Activities for Different Income Groups

	M	SD	F	df	p
Visiting museum			15.25	718	<0.001
Under RMB5,000	3.8	1.68			
RMB5,000-10,000	4.35	1.6			
RMB10,001-20,000	4.97	1.37			
RMB20,000-30,000	5.35	1.15			
Over RMB30,000	4.72	1.21			
Total	4.41	1.58			
Shopping			4.40	718	0.002
Under RMB5,000	3.77	1.78			
RMB5,000-10,000	4.13	1.59			
RMB10,001-20,000	4.45	1.67			
RMB20,000-30,000	4.18	1.68			
Over RMB30,000	4.40	1.45			
Total	4.15	1.67			
Sports			9.99	718	<0.001
Under RMB5,000	3.84	1.46			
RMB5,000-10,000	4.25	1.54			
RMB10,001-20,000	4.81	1.66			
RMB20,000-30,000	4.06	1.54			
Over RMB30,000	4.34	1.43			
Total	4.3	1.59			
Visiting places of historic interest			8.68	718	<0.001
Under RMB5,000	4.86	1.46			
RMB5,000-10,000	5.36	1.29			
RMB10,001-20,000	5.6	1.27			
RMB20,000-30,000	4.85	1.35			
Over RMB30,000	5.34	1.24			
Total	5.27	1.36			
Gourmet dining			3.67	718	0.006
Under RMB5,000	5.1	1.46			
RMB5,000-10,000	5.06	1.5			
RMB10,001-20,000	5.48	1.32			
RMB20,000-30,000	4.91	1.42			
Over RMB30,000	4.87	1.48			
Total	5.17	1.45			
Sex activity			2.49	718	0.042
Under RMB5,000	2.44	1.84			
RMB5,000-10,000	2.28	1.69			
RMB10,001-20,000	2.02	1.58			
RMB20,000-30,000	1.91	1.16			
Over RMB30,000	2.62	1.78			
Total	2.25	1.69			

Appendix 11.4 Comparison of Preferred Activities for Different Income Groups

(to continue)

	M	SD	F	df	<i>p</i>
Attending local festival or events			4.82	718	0.001
Under RMB5,000	4.58	1.55			
RMB5,000-10,000	4.62	1.51			
RMB10,001-20,000	5.05	1.30			
RMB20,000-30,000	4.15	1.42			
Over RMB30,000	4.51	1.52			
Total	4.7	1.47			
Attending theatre/opera/concert			6.07	718	<0.001
Under RMB5,000	4.11	1.72			
RMB5,000-10,000	4.18	1.63			
RMB10,001-20,000	4.8	1.6			
RMB20,000-30,000	4.59	1.37			
Over RMB30,000	4.66	1.46			
Total	4.39	1.65			
Seeing flora and fauna			10.84	718	<0.001
Under RMB5,000	4.22	1.61			
RMB5,000-10,000	4.61	1.53			
RMB10,001-20,000	5.19	1.45			
RMB20,000-30,000	4.44	1.37			
Over RMB30,000	4.36	1.51			
Total	4.65	1.56			

Appendix 11.5 Comparison of Preferred Activities for Different Education Groups

	M	SD	F	df	<i>p</i>
Visiting museum			9.68	722	<0.001
Under diploma	4.84	1.64			
Diploma	3.94	1.59			
Bachelor's degree	4.53	1.51			
Master's or PhD degree	4.66	1.54			
Total	4.40	1.58			
Shopping			3.09	722	0.027
Under diploma	4.33	1.71			
Diploma	3.91	1.69			
Bachelor's degree	4.30	1.62			
Master's or PhD degree	3.96	1.78			
Total	4.15	1.68			
Sports			8.77	722	<0.001
Under diploma	4.78	1.59			
Diploma	3.99	1.55			
Bachelor's degree	4.49	1.56			
Master's or PhD degree	3.87	1.56			
Total	4.30	1.58			
Visiting places of historic interests			7.21	722	<0.001
Under diploma	5.63	1.43			
Diploma	4.94	1.34			
Bachelor's degree	5.33	1.36			
Master's or PhD degree	5.53	1.20			
Total	5.27	1.36			

**Appendix 10-5 Comparison of Different Education Groups on Preferred Activities
(to continue)**

	M	SD	F	df	<i>p</i>
Attending local festivals or events			6.30	722	<0.001
Under diploma	5.13	1.54			
Diploma	4.54	1.39			
Bachelor's degree	4.81	1.44			
Master's or PhD degree	4.24	1.65			
Total	4.69	1.48			
Viewing natural landscape and spectacle			3.00	722	0.030
Under diploma	5.81	1.40			
Diploma	5.30	1.39			
Bachelor's degree	5.48	1.37			
Master's or PhD degree	5.67	1.38			
Total	5.48	1.39			
Attending theatre/opera/concert			7.16	722	<0.001
Under diploma	4.54	1.75			
Diploma	4.03	1.64			
Bachelor's degree	4.63	1.61			
Master's or PhD degree	4.08	1.56			
Total	4.38	1.65			
Seeing fauna and flora			8.37	722	<0.001
Under diploma	5.34	1.54			
Diploma	4.32	1.60			
Bachelor's degree	4.73	1.56			
Master's or PhD degree	4.49	1.33			
Total	4.64	1.57			